# MISCELLANEOUS ESSAYS 

## BY

H. T. COLEBROOKE.

## IN TWO VOLUMES.

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## I.

## On the Sanscritt and Prácryt Languages.

[ From the Asiatic Researches, vol. vii. p. 199-831. Calcutta, 1801. 4to.]

In a treatise on rhetoric, compiled for the use of MAnicya chandra, Rájá of Tírabhucti or Tirhút, a brief enumeration of languages used by Hindu poets is quoted from two writers on the art of poetry. The following is a literal translation of both passages.
" Sanscrĭta, Prácrĭta, Paisáchí, and Mágadhí, are in " short the four paths of poetry. The gods, \&c. speak " Sanscrǐta; benevolent genii, Prácrǐta; wicked demons, " Paiśáchí; and men of low tribes and the rest, Mágadhí. " But sages deem Sanscrita the chief of these four lan" guages. It is used three ways : in prose, in verse, and " in a mixture of both."
" Language, again, the virtuous have declared to be " fourfold, Sanscritta [or the polished dialect], Prácrǐta " [or the vulgar dialect], Apabhranśa [or jargon], and " Mísra [or mixed]. Sanscrǐta is the speech of the celes" tials, framed in grammatical institutes; Prácrĭta is " similar to it, but manifold as a provincial dialect, and " otherwise; and those languages, which are ungramma" tical, are spoken in their respective districts."

The Paiśáchź seems to be gibberish, which dramatic poets make the demons speak, when they bring these fantastic beings on the stage. The mixture of languages noticed in the second quotation, is that which is employed in dramas, as is expressly said by the same author in a
subsequent verse. It is not, then, a compound language, but a mixt dialogue, in which different persons of the drama employ different idioms. Both the passages above-quoted are therefore easily reconciled. They, in fact, notice only three tongues. 1. Sanscrit, a polished dialect, the inflections of which, with all its numerous anomalies, are taught in grammatical institutes. This the dramatic poets put into the mouths of gods and of holy personages. 2. Prácrit, consisting of provincial dialects, which are less refined and have a more imperfect grammar. In dramas it is spoken by women, benevolent genii, \&c. 3. Mágadhí, or Apabhranśa, a jargon, destitute of regular grammar. It is used by the vulgar, and varies in different districts. The poets accordingly introduce into the dialogue of plays a provincial jargon, spoken by the lowest persons of the drama.*

The languages of India are all comprehended in these three classes. The first contains Sanscritt, a most polished tongue, which was gradually refined until it became fixed in the classic writings of many elegant poets, most of whom are supposed to have flourished in the century preceding the Christian era. It is cultivated by learned Hindus throughout India, as the language of science and of literature, and as the repository of their law, civil and religious.

[^0]It evidently draws its origin (and some steps of its progress may even now be traced) from a primeval tongue, which was gradually refined in various climates, and became Sanscrĭt in India, Pahlaví in Persia, and Greek on the shores of the Mediterranean. Like other very ancient languages, Sanscritt abounds in inflections, which are, however, more anomalous in this than in the other languages here alluded to; and which are even more so in the obsolete dialect of the Védas, than in the polished speech of the classic poets. It has nearly shared the fate of all ancient tongues, and is now become almost a dead language; but there seems no good reason for doubting that it was once universally spoken in India. Its name, and the reputed difficulty of its grammar, have led many persons to imagine that it has been refined by the concerted efforts of a few priests, who set themselves about inventing a new language; not, like all other tongues, by the gradually improved practice of good writers and polite speakers. The exquisitely refined system by which the grammar of Sanscrit is taught, has been mistaken for the refinement of the language itself. The rules have been supposed to be anterior to the practice, but this supposition is gratuitous. In Sanscrit, as in every other known tongue, grammarians have not invented etymology, but have only contrived rules to teach what was already established by approved practice.

There is one peculiarity of Sanscritt compositions which may also have suggested the opinion that it could never be a spoken language. I allude to what might be termed the euphonical orthography of Sanscrit. It consists in extending to syntax the rules for the permutation of letters in etymology. Similar rules for avoiding incompatible sounds in compound terms exist in all languages; this is sometimes effected by a deviation from orthography in the pronuncia-
tion of words; sometimes by altering one or more letters to make the spelling correspond with the pronunciation. These rules have been more profoundly investigated by Hindu grammarians than by those of any other nation; and they have completed a system of orthography which may be justly termed euphonical. They require all compound terms to be reduced to this standard, and Sanscrit authors, it may be observed, delight in compounds of inordinate length : the whole sentence, too, or even whole periods, may, at the pleasure of the author, be combined like the elements of a single word, and good writers generally do so. In common speech this could never have been practised. None but well-known compounds would be used by any speaker who wished to be understood, and each word would be distinctly articulated independently of the terms which precede and follow it. Such, indeed, is the present practice of those who still speak the Sanscrit language; and they deliver themselves with such fluency, as is sufficient to prove that Sanscrit may have been spoken in former times with as much facility as the contemporary dialects of the Greek language, or the more modern dialects of the Arabic tongue. I shall take occasion again to allude to this topic, after explaining at large what are, and by whon were composed, those grammatical institutes, in which the Sanscrit language is framed, according to the author above-quoted ; or by which (for the meaning is illconveyed by a literal translation) words are correctly formed and inflected.

PAńini, the father of Sanscrǐt grammar, lived in so remote an age, that he ranks among those ancient sages whose fabulous history occupies a conspicuous place in the Purínas, or Indian theogonies.* The name is a patro-

[^1]nymic, indicating his descent from Pańin; but, according to the Pauránical legends, he was grandson of Defvala, an inspired legislator. Whatever may be the true history of Píníni, to him the Sútras, or succinct aphorisms of grammar, are attributed by universal consent: his system is grounded on a profound investigation of the analogies in both the regular and the anomalous inflections of the Sanscrit language. He has combined those analogies in a very artificial manner; and hus thus compressed a most copious etymology into a very narrow compass. His precepts are indeed numerous,* but they have been framed with the utmost conciseness; and this great brevity is the result of very ingenious methods which have been contrived for this end, and for the purpose of assisting the student's memory. In Pánini's system, the mutual relation of all the parts marks that it must have been completed by its author: it certainly bears internal evidence of its having been accomplished by a single effort, and even the corrections which are needed cannot be interwoven with the text. It must not be hence inferred, that PÁnini was unaided by the labours of earlier grammarians. In many of his precepts he cites the authority of his predecessors, $\dagger$ sometimes for a deviation from a general rule, often for a grammatical canon which has universal cogency. He has even employed some technical terms without defining them, because, as his commentators remark, those terms were already introduced by earlier grammarians. $\ddagger$ None of the

[^2]more ancient works, however, seem to be now extant: being superseded by his, they have probably been disused for ages, and are now perhaps totally lost.*

A performance such as the Pánininíya grammar must inevitably contain many errors. The task of correcting its inaccuracies has been executed by Cátyáyana, $\dagger$ an inspired saint and lawgiver, whose history, like that of all the Indian sages, is involved in the impenetrable darkness of mythology. His annotations, entitled Várticas, restrict those among the Pánininiya rules which are too vague, enlarge others which are too limited, and mark numerous exceptions which had escaped the notice of Pánini himself.

The amended rules of grammar have been formed into memorial verses by Bhartrǐ-hari, whose metrical aphorisms, entitled Cáricá, have almost equal authority with the precepts of Pánini and emendations of Cátyáyana. If the popular traditions concerning Bhartri-hari be well founded, he lived in the century preceding the Christian era $; \ddagger$ for he is supposed to be the same with the brother of Vicramáditya, and the period when this prince reigned at Ujjayini is determined by the date of the Samvat era.

The studied brevity of the Pániníya Sútras renders

[^3]them in the highest degree obscure. Even with the knowledge of the key to their interpretation, the student finds them ambiguous. In the application of them when understood, he discovers many seeming contradictions; and, with every exertion of practised memory, he must experience the utmost difficulty in combining rules dispersed in apparent confusion through different portions of Píníni's eight lectures. A commentary was therefore indispensably requisite. Many were composed by ancient grammarians to elucidate the text of Pánini. A moat copious one on the emendations of his rules was compiled in very ancient times by an uncertain author. This voluminous work, known by the title of Mahábháshya, or the great commentary, is ascribed to Patanjali, a fabulous personage, to whom mythology has assigned the shape of a serpent. In this commentary almost every rule is examined at great length. All possible interpretations are proposed: and the true sense and import of the rule are deduced through a tedious train of argument, in which all foreseen objections are considered and refuted, and the wrong interpretations of the text, with all the arguments which can be invented to support them, are obviated or exploded.

Voluminous as it is, the Mahábháshya has not exhausted the subject on which it treats. Its deficiencies have been supplied by the annotations of modern grammarians. The most celebrated among these scholiasts of the Bháshya is Caiyata, a learned Cashmirian. His annotations are almost equally copious with the commentary itself. Yet they, too, are loaded by numerous glosses ; among which the old and new Vivaranas are most esteemed.

The difficulty of combining the dispersed rules of grammar, to inflect any one verb or noun through all its variations, renders further aid necessary. This seems to have
been anciently afforded in vocabularies, one of which exhibited the verbs classed in the order implied by the system of PÁnini, the other contained nouns arranged on a similar plan. Both probably cited the precepts which must be remembered in conjugating and declining each verb and noun. A catalogue of verbs, classed in regular order, but with few references to the rules of etymology, is extant, and is known by the title of Dhátupáta. It may be considered as an appendix to the grammar of Pánini; and so may his treatise on the pronunciation of vocal sounds, and the treatise of Yisca on obsolete words and acceptations peculiar to the Véda. A numerous class of derivative nouns, to which he has only alluded, have been reduced to rule, under the head of Unádi, or the termination $u \& c$. ; and the precepts respecting the gender of nouns have been, in like manner, arranged in Sútras, which are formed on the same principles with Pánini's rules, and which are considered as almost equally ancient. Another supplement to his grammar is entitled Gańapáta, and contains lists of words comprehended in various grammatical rules, under the designation of some single word, with the term " \&c." annexed to it. These supplements are due to various authors. The subject of gender alone has been treated by more than one writer reputed to be inspired; namely, by Cátyáyana, Góbhila, and others.

These subsidiary parts of the Pániníya grammar do not require a laboured commentary; excepting only the catalogue of verbs, which does need annotation; and which is, in truth, a proper groundwork for a complete review of all the rules of etymology that are applicable to each verb.*

[^4]The Vrĭtti nyása, a very celebrated work, is, I believe, a commentary of this sort.* It is mentioned by Maitreya racshita, the author of the Dhátu pradipa, as the work chiefly consulted by him in compiling his brief annotations on the Dhátupáta. A very voluminous commentary on the catalogue of verbs, was compiled under the patronage of Sayááa, minister of a chieftain named Buccaráya and is entitled Mádhavíyá vrìtti. It thoroughly explains the signification and inflection of each verb; but at the same time enters largely into scholastic refinements on general grammar.

Such vast works as the Mahábháshya and its scholia, with the voluminous annotations on the catalogue of verbs, are not adapted for general instruction. A conciser commentary must have been always requisite. The best that is now extant is entitled the Cásicá vrǐtti, or commentary composed at Varáńasí. The author, Jayadirya, in a short preface explains his design : ' to gather the essence of a science dispersed in the early commentaries, in the Bháshya, in copious dictionaries of verbs and of nouns, and in other works.' He has well fulfilled the task which he undertook. His gloss explains in perspicuous language the meaning and application of each rule: he adds exam-

[^5]ples, and quotes, in their proper places, the necessary emendations from the Várticas and Bláshyạ. Though he never deviates into frivolous disquisitions nor into tedious reasoning, but expounds the text as succinctly as could consist with perspicuity, his work is nevertheless voluminous; and yet, copious as it is, the commentaries on it, and the annotations on its commentaries, are still more voluminous. Amongst the most celebrated is the Padamanjarí of Haradatta miśra, a grammarian whose authority is respected almost equally with that of the author on whose text he comments. The annotators on this, again, are numerous; but it would be useless to insert a long list of their names, or of the titles of their works.

Excellent as the Cásícá vrittti undoubtedly is, it partakes of the defects which have been imputed to Pínini's text. Following the same order in which the original rules are arranged, it is well adapted to assist the student in acquiring a critical knowledge of the Sanscritt tongue. But for one who studies the rudiments of the language a different arrangement is requisite, for the sake of bringing into one view the rules which must be remembered in the inflections of one word, and those which must be combined even for a single variation of a single term. Such a grammar has been compiled within a few centuries past by Rámachandra, an eminent grammarian. It is entitled Pracriyá caumudí. The rules are PAńini's, and the explanation of them is abridged from the ancient commentaries; but the arrangement is wholly different. It proceeds from the elements of writing to definitions; thence to orthography: it afterwards exhibits the inflections of nouns according to case, number, and gender; notices the indeclinables; and proceeds to the uses of the cases. It subjoins the rules of apposition, by which compound terms are formed; the etymology of patronymics and other
derivatives from nouns; and the reduplication of particles, \&c. In the second part it treats of the conjugation of verbs arranged in ten classes: to these primitives succeed derivative verbs, formed from verbal roots or from nouns. The rules concerning different voices follow; they are succeeded by precepts regarding the use of the tenses; and the work concludes with the etymology of verbal nouns, gerunds, supines, and participles. A supplement to it contains the anomalies of the dialect in which the Véda is composed.

The outline of PÁnin's arrangement is simple; but numerous exceptions and frequent digressions have involved it in much seeming confusion. The two first lectures (the first section especially, which is in a manner the key of the whole grammar) contain definitions; in the three next are collected the affixes, by which verbs and nouns are inflected. Those which appertain to verbs occupy the third lecture: the fourth and fifth contain such as are affixed to nouns. The remaining three lectures treat of the changes which roots and affixes undergo in special cases, or by general rules of orthography, and which are all effected by the addition or by the substitution of one or more elements.* The apparent simplicity of the design vanishes in the perplexity of the structure. The endless pursuit of exceptions and of limitations so disjoins the general precepts, that the reader cannot keep in view their intended connexion and mutual relation. He wanders in an intricate maze, and the clew of the labyrinth is continually slipping from his hands.

The order in which Rámachandra has delivered the rules of grammar is certainly preferable; but the Sútras of Pánini, thus detached from their context, are wholly unin-

[^6]telligible. Without the commentator's exposition, they are indeed what Sir Wilifam Jones has somewhere termed them, "dark as the darkest oracle." Even with the aid of a comment, they cannot be fully understood until they are perused with the proper context. Notwithstanding this defect, Bhat́tójí dicshita,* who revised the Caumudí, has for very substantial reasons adhered to the Pániníya sutras. That able grammarian has made some useful changes in the arrangement of the Pracriyá: he has amended the explanation of the rules, which was in many places incorrect or imperfect; he has remedied many omissions, has enlarged the examples, and has noticed the most important instances where the elder grammarians disagree, or where classical poets have deviated from the strict rules of grammar. This excellent work is entitled Siddhánta caumudi. The author has very properly followed the example of Ramachandra, in excluding all rules that are peculiar to the obsolete dialect of the Véda, or which relate to accentuation; for this also belongs to the Véla alone. He has collected them in an appendix to the Siddhánta caumudí; and has subjoined, in a second appendix, rules concerning the gender of nouns. The other supplements of Páníin's grammar are interwoven by this author with the body of his work.

The Hindus delight in scholastic disputation. Their grammarians indulge this propensity as much as their lawyers and their sophists. $\dagger$ Bhaítojí dícshita has provided an ample store of controversy in an argumentative commentary on his own grammar. This work is entitled

[^7]Praud́ha manbramá. He also composed a very voluminous commentary on the eight lectures of Pínini, and gave it the title of Śabda caustubha. The only portion of it 1 have yet seen reaches no further than to the end of the first section of P'Ánini's first lecture. But this is so diffusive, that, if the whole have been executed on a similar plan, it must triple the ponderous volume of the Mahábháshya itself. I have reason, however, for doubting that it was ever completed.

The commentaries on the Siddhánta caumudí and Manóramá are very numerous. The most celebrated shall be here briefly noticed. 1. The Tatwa bbdhiní expounds the Siddhánta: it is the work of Jnyanendra saraswatí, an ascetic, and the pupil of Vamanéndra swimí. 2. The Sabdéndu séćchara is another commentary on Bhaffoui's grammar. It was composed by a successor, if not a descendant, of that grammarian. An abridgment of it, which is very generally studied, is the work of NAGESA, son of Śiva bhatta and pupil of Hari dicshita. He was patronised, as appears from his preface, by the proprietor of Sringavéra pura.* Though called an abridgment, this Laghu Śabdéndu is a voluminous performance. 3. The Laghu Śabdaratna is a commentary on the Manbramá of Bhat́tósí dicshita, by the author's grandson, Hari dicshita. This work is not improperly termed an abridgment, since it is short in comparison with most other commentaries on grammar. A larger performance on the same topics, and with the same title of Śabda ratna, was composed by a professor of this school. 4. Bala śarman Págondiya, who is either fourth or fifth in succession from Bhatifbji, as professor of grammar at Benares, has written commentaries on the Caustubha, Śabda ratna, and

[^8]Sabdéndu séce'lara. His father, Baidyanat'ha bhaítía, largely annotated the Paribháshéndu śéc'hara of Nágessa bHaffa, which is an argumentative commentary on a collection of grammatical axioms and definitions cited by the glossarists of Páninı. This compilation, entitled $P a$ ribháshá, has also furnished the text for other controversial performances bearing similar titles.

While so many commentaries have been written on the Siddhánta caumudí, the Pracriyá caumudí has not been neglected. The scholiasts of this, too, are numerous. The most known is Crĭshía pańbita; and his work has been abridged by his pupil Jayanta, who has given the title of Tatwa chandra to a very excellent compendium.* On the other hand, Críshín pańgita has had the fate common to all noted grammarians, since his work has employed a bost of commentators who have largely commented on it.

The Caumudz's, independently even of their numerous commentaries, have been found too vast and intricate for young students. Abridgments of the Siddhánta caumudí have been therefore attempted by several authors with unequal degrees of success. Of three such abridgments one only seems to deserve present notice. It is the Madhya caumudí, and is accompanied by a similar compendium of annotations, entitled Madhya manbramá. The name indicates, that it holds a middle place between the diffuse original and the jejune abstracts called Laghu caumudí, \&c. It contains such of Páńini's rules as are most universal, and adds to each a short but perspicuous exposition. It omits only the least common exceptions and limitations.

[^9]When Sanscrit was the language of Indian courts, and was cultivated not only by persons who devoted themselves to religion and literature, but also by princes, lawyers, soldiers, physicians, and scribes (in short, by the first three tribes, and by many classes included in the fourth), an easy and popular grammar must have been needed by persons who could not waste the best years of their lives in the study of words. Such grammars must always have been in use; those, however, which are now studied are not, I believe, of very ancient date. The most esteemed is the Sáraswata, together with its commentary named Chandricá. It seems to have been formed on one of the Caumudis, by translating PÁnini's rules into language that is intelligible independently of the gloss, and without the necessity of adverting to a different context.

Another popular grammar, which is in high repute in Bengal, is entitled Mugdhabbdha, and is accompanied by a commentary. It is the work of Vopadeva, and proceeds upon a plan grounded on that of the Caumudis; but the author has not been content to translate the rules of Pínini and to adopt his technical terms. He has, on the contrary, inventednew terms and contrived new abbreviations. The same author likewise composed a metrical catalogue of verbsalphabetically arranged. It is named Cavicalpadruma, and is intended as a substitute for the Dhátupáta.

The chief inconvenience attending Vópadéva's innovation is, that commentaries and scholia, written to elucidate poems and works of science, must be often unintelligible to those who have studied only his grammar, and that the writings of his scholars must be equally incomprehensible (wherever a grammatical subject is noticed) to the students of the Pániníya. Accordingly the Pańdits of Bengal are cut off, in a manner, from communication on grammatical topics with the learned of other provinces in India. Even
etymological dictionaries, such as the commentaries on the metrical vocabularies, which I shall next proceed to mention, must be unintelligible to them.

It appears from the prefaces of many different grammatical treatises, that works entitled Dhátu and Náma páráyańa were formerly studied. They must have comprehended, as their title implies, " the whole of the verbs and nouns" appertaining to the language ; and, since they are mentioned as very voluminous, they must probably have contained references to all the rules applicable to every single verb and noun. Haradatta's explanation of the title confirms this notion. But it does not appear that any work is now extant under this title. The Dhátupáta, with its commentaries, supplies the place of the Dhátupáráyańa. A collection of dictionaries and vocabularies, in like manner, supplies the want of the Náma páráyańa. These then may be noticed in this place as a branch of grammar.

The best and most esteemed vocabulary is the Amera cosha. Even the bigotry of Śancara ácharya spared this, when he proscribed the other works of Amera sinha.* Like most other Sanscritt dictionaries, it is

[^10]arranged in verse to aid the memory. Synonymous words are collected into one or more verses, and placed in fifteen different chapters, which treat of as many different subjects. The sixteenth contains a few homonymous terms, arranged alphabetically, in the Indian manner, by the final consonants. The seventeenth chapter is a pretty full catalogue of indeclinables, which European philologists would call adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, but which Sanscrĭt grammarians consider as indeclinable nouns. The last chapter of the Amera cósha is a treatise on the gender of nouns. Another vocabulary by the same author is often cited by his commentators, under the title of Amera málá.

Numerous commentaries have been written on the Amera cosha. The chief object of them is to explain the deriva-
proscribed their books; and partly on the evidence of the engraved plate found at Mudgayiri, and of the inscription on the pillar found at Bedál (See As. Res. vol. i. p. 123 and 133), from which it appears that Dévapía defa belonged to the sect of Buddha, and that he reigned over Bengal and Carríáta as well as Lásata and Bhóta, and had successfully invaded Cambója, after traversing as a conqueror the Vindhya range of mountains. His descendants, as far as the fourth generation, governed a no less extensive empire; as appears from the inscription on the pillar at Bedál. I must however acknowledge, that this last mentioned inscription does not indicate any attachment to the sect of Buddha. This may be accounted for, by supposing that the worshippers of Crishka and of Ríma, or whatever other sects prevailed, were then as cordial to the followers of Buddya, as they now are towards each other. The king and his minister might belong to different sects.

Ampra is mentioned in an inscription at Buddha gayá as the founder of a temple at that place. (As. Res. vol. i. p. 284.) This circumstance may serve to explain why his works have been proscribed with peculiar inveteracy, as it is acknowledged by many Pandits that they bave been. He was probably a zealous sectarist.

This is, however, by no means certain: and Bhínují Dfoshita, in his commentary on the Amera cósha, denies that there is any evidence to prove that the author belonged to the sect of Jainas.

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tions of the nouns and to supply the principal deficiencies of the text. Sanscrit etymologists scarcely acknowledge a single primitive amongst the nouns. When unable to trace an etymology which may be consistent with the acceptation of the word, they are content to derive it, according to grammatical rules, from some root to which the word has no affinity in sense. At other times they adopt fanciful etymologies from Puráñas or from Tantras: but, in general, the derivations are accurate and instructive. The best known among these commentaries of the Amera cbsha is the Pada chandricá, compiled from sixteen older commentaries by Vifyaspati, surnamed Mucuía, or at full length Raya mucuta mańi. It appears from the incidental mention of the years then expired of astronomical eras, that Mucufa made this compilation in the 4532d year of the Cali yug, which corresponds with A.D. 1430. Achyuta jallaci has abridged Mucuta's commentary, but without acknowledgment; and has given the title of Vyác'hyá pradípa to his compendium. On the other hand, Bhánuji dicshita has revised the same compilation, and has corrected the numerous errors of Mucuta, who often derives words from roots that are unknown to the language, or according to rules which have no place in its grammar. Bhánují has greatly improved the plan of the work, by inserting from other authorities the various acceptations of words exhibited by Amera in one or two senses only. This excellent compilation is entitled Vyác'kyá sudhá.

The Amera cbsha, as has been already hinted, gives a very incomplete list of words that have various acceptations. This defect is well supplied by the Médinź, a dictionary so named from its author, Medinicar. It contains words that bear many senses, arranged in alphabetical order by the final consonants; and a list of homonymous indeclinables is subjoined to it. A similar dictionary, compiled by

Mahesfara and entitled Vísoa pracása, is much consulted, though it be very defective, as has been justly remarked by Medinicar. It contains, however, a very usefal appendix on words spelt more than one way; and another on letters which are liable to be confounded, such as $v$ and $b$; and another, again, on the gender of nouns. These subjects are not separately treated by Medinicar; but he has, on the other hand, specified the genders with great care in the body of the work. The exact age of the Médiní is not certainly known; bat it is older than Mucufa's compilation, since it is quoted by this author.

Amera's dictionary does not contain more than ten thousand different words; yet the Sanscrit language is very copions. The insertion of derivatives, that do not at all deviate from their regular and obvious import, has been very properly deemed superfluous. Compound epithets, and other compound terms, in which the Sanscritt language is peculiarly rich, are likewise omitted; excepting such as are especially appropriated, by a limited acceptation, either as titles of deities, or as names of plants, animals, \&c. In fact, compound terms are formed at pleasure, according to the rules of grammar ; and must generally be interpreted in strict conformity with those rules. Technical terms, too, are mostly excluded from general dictionaries and consigned to separate nomenclatures. The Amera cosha, then, is less defective than might be inferred from the small number of words explained in it. Still, however, it needs a supplement. The Hárávalí may be used as such. It is a vocabulary of uncommon words, compiled by Purdshottama, the author of an etymological work, and also of a little collection of monograms, entitled E'cócshara. His Hárávaľ was compiled by him under the patronage of Dhrita sinha. It is noticed by Medinicar, and seems to be likewise anterior to the Viśwa.

The remaining deficiencies of the Amera cbsha are supplied by consulting other dictionaries and vocabularies; such as Heláyudha's, Váchespati's, the Dharánicgsha, or some other. Sauscritt dictionaries are indeed very numerous. Purushóttama and Médinicar name the Utpaliní, Śabdárníava, and Sansárávarta, as works consulted by them. Purushóttama adds the names of Vachespati, Vyábi, and Vicramaditya; but it is not quite clear whether he mentions them as the authors and patrons of these, or of other dictionaries. Medinicar adds a fourth vocabulary, called Námamálá, and with similar obscurity subjoins the celebrated names of Bháguri, Vararuchi, Sásmata, Bopálita, and Rantideva. He then proceeds to enumerate the dictionaries of Amera, Śubhánga, Heláyudba, Góverdhana, Rabhaba pAla, and the Ratna cbsha; with the vocabularies of Rudra, Dhananjaya, and Gangadhara; as also the Dharańi cobsha, Hárávalí, Vrĭhad amara, Tricáñ́da séšha, and Ratnamálá. Many of these are cited by the commentators on Amera and by the scholiasts on different poems. The following are also frequently cited; some as etymologists, the rest as lexicographers: Swami, Durga, Sarvadhara, Vamana, Chandra, and the authors of the Vaijayantí, Námanidhána, Haima, Vrĭhat-nighañ́ti, \&c. To this list might be added the Anécárt'ha dhwoni manjari, Nánárt'ha, and other vocabularies of homonymous terms; the Dwiructi, Bhuriprayoga cobsha, and other lists of words spelt in more than one way; and the various Nighańtis or nomenclatures, such as the Dhanvantarinighañta and Rája nighańta, which contain lists of the materia medica; and the Nighañti of the Véda, which explains obsolete words and unusual acceptations.*

[^11]Before I proceed to mention other languages of India, it may be proper to mention, that the school of Benares now uses the Siddhánta caumudí, and other works of Bhatfósi, as the same school formerly did the Cásicáa vrĭtti. The Pracriyá caumudí, with its commentaries, maintains its ground among the learned of Mit'hilá or Tirhút. In both places, however, and indeed throughout India, the Mahábháshya continues to be the standard of Sanscrĭt grammar: it is therefore studied by all who are ambitious of acquiring a critical knowledge of the language. The Haricáricá, with its commentaries by Helíraja and Punjaraía, was probably in use with a school that once flourished at Ujjayiní, but it does not seem to be now generally studied in any part of India.

The second class of Indian languages comprehends the written dialects which are now used in the intercourse of civil life, and which are cultivated by lettered men. The author of a passage already quoted includes all such dialects under the general denomination of Prácritt: but this term. is commonly restricted to one language, namely, to the Saraswatí bála bání, or the speech of children on the banks of the Saraswati.* There is reason to believe that ten polished dialects formerly prevailed in as many different civilized nations, who occupied all the fertile provinces of Hindustán and the Dacshin. Evident traces of them still exist. They shall be noticed in the order in which these Hindu nations are usually enumerated.

[^12]The Sáraswata was a nation which occupied the banks of the river Saraswatí. Bráhmañas, who are still distinguished by the name of their nation, inhabit chiefly the Penjáb or Panchanada, west of the river from which they take their appellation. Their original language may have once prevailed through the southern and western parts of Hinclustán proper, and is probably the idiom to which the name of Pracritt is generally appropriated. This has been more cultivated than any other among the dialects which will be here enumerated, and it occupies a principal place in the dialogue of most dremas. Many beautiful poems composed wholly in this language, or intarmixed with stanzas of pure Sanscrit, have perpetuated the memory of it, though perhaps it have long ceased to be a vernacular tongue. Grammars have been compiled for the purpose of teaching this language and its prosody, and several treatises of rhetoric have been written to illustrate its beauties. The Prácrĭta manóramá and Prácrǐta Pingala are instances of the one, and the Saraswatí cantábharańa of Brbjapeva, may be named as an example of the other, although both Sanscrǐt and Prácrǐt idioms furnish the examples with which that author elucidates his precepts. For the character of the Prácrǐt language I must refer the reader to Sir William Jones's remarks, in his preface to the translation of the Fatal Ring.

The Cányaculjas possessed a great empire, the metropolis of which was the ancient city of Cányacubja or Canbj. Theirs seems to be the language which forms the groundwork of modern Hindustání, and which is known by the appellation of Hindí or Hindeví. Two dialects of it may be easily distinguished, one more refined, the other less so. To this last the name of Hindí is sometimes restricted, while the other is often confounded with Prácritt. Numerous pnems have been composed in both dialects, not only
before the Hindustání was ingrafted on the Hindí by a large intermixture of Persian, but also in very modern times, by Muhammedan as well as Hindu poets. Dbhrás or detached couplets, and Cabits or stanzas, in the Hindevi dialect, may be found among the works of Muslemán authors: it will be sufficient to instance those of Melic Muhammed Jaisi, Muhammed Afzel, and Amirifín Anjám. Most poems in this dialect are, however, the exclusive production of Hindu poets.* On examining them, the affinity of Hindi with the Sanscritt language is peculiarly striking; and no person acquainted with both can hesitate in affirming that Hindí is chiefly borrowed from Sanscrit. Many words, of which the etymology shows them to be the purest Sanscrit, are received unaltered; many more undergo no change but that of making the final vowel silent; a still greater number exhibits no other difference than what arises from the uniform permutation of certain letters; the rest, too, with comparatively few exceptions, may be easily traced to a Sanscrit origin. That this is the root from which Hindı̀ has sprung (not Hindí the dialect whence Sanscritt has been refined) may be proved by etymology, the analogy of which is lost in Hindí and preserved in Sanscrĭt. A few examples will render this evident.

[^13]Criyá signifies action, and carma act, both of which are regularly derived from the root cri to do. They have been adopted into Hindustání, with many other regular derivatives of the same root; (such, for example, as carańa [contracted into carnáa the act of doing; cartá the agent; cárań cause, or the means of doing ; cárya [cárj, cáj,] the thing to be done, and the intent or purpose of the action.) But I select these two instances, because both words are adopted into Hindustání in two several modes. Thus críá signifies action, and ciriá expresses one metaphorical sense of the same Sanscrǔt word, viz. oath or ordeal. Again, ciriácaram signifies funeral rites; but cám is the most usual form in which the Sanscrit carma is exhibited in the Hindustání; and it thus assumes the same form with cám, desire, a very different word taken from the Sanscrit derivative of the root cam, to seek. Here then the Hindustání confounds two very different words in one instance, and makes two words out of one in the other instance.

Sat literally signifies existent: it is employed in the acceptation of truth. Satya, a regular derivative from it, signifies true; or, employed substantively, truth. The correspondent Hindz word, sach, is corrupted from the Sanscrit satya, by neglecting the final vowel, by substituting $j$ for $y$, according to the genius of the Hindevi dialect, and by transforming the harsh combination $t j$ into the softer sound of ch. Here then is obviously traced the identity of the Hindustání sach, and Bengálí shotyo, which are only the same Sanscritt word satya variously pronounced.

Yuvan signifies young, and yauvana youth. The first makes yuvá in the nominative case: this is adopted into Hindustání with the usual permutation of consonants, and becomes jubá, as yauvana is transformed into jbban. The same word has been less corrupted in Persian and Latin, where it stands juxán and juvenis. In many inflections
the root of yuvan is contracted into yan: the possessive case, for example, forms in the three numbers, yúnas, yúnbs, yúnám. Here, then, we trace the origin of the Latin comparative junior; and I cannot hesitate in referring to these Sanscritt roots, the Welsh jevangk, and Armorican jovank, as well as the Saxon yeong, and finally the English young. This analogy, which seems evident through the medium of the Sanscritt language, is wholly obscured in Hinclustání.

These examples might be easily multiplied, but unprofitably, I fear; for, after proving that nine-tenths of the Hindí dialect may be traced back to the Sanscrit idiom, there yet remains the difficulty of accounting for the remaining tenth, which is perhape the basis of the Hindí language. Sir Wiliiam Jones thought it so; and he thence inferred, that the pure Hindi was primeval in Upper India, into which the Sanscrit was introduced by conquerors from other kingdoms in some very remote age.* This opinion I do not mean to controvert. I only contend, that where similar words are found in both languages, the Hindl has borrowed from Sanscrǐt, rather than the Sanscrĭt from Hindí. It may be remarked too, that in most countries the progress has been from languages rich in inflections, to dialects simple in their structure. In modern idioms, auxiliary verbs and appendant particles supply the place of numerous inflections of the root: it may, for this reason, be doubted, whether the present structure of the Hindz tongue be not a modern refinement. But the question, which has been here hinted rather than discussed, can be decided only by a careful examination of the oldest compositions that are now extant in the Hindí dialect. Until some person execute this task, a doubt must remain,

[^14]whether the groundwork of Hindi, and consequently of Hindustání, be wholly distinct from that of Sanscrit.

On the subject of the modern dialect of Upper India, I with pleasure refer to the works of a very ingenious member of this society, Mr. Gilchrist, whose labours have now made it easy to acquire the knowledge of an elegant language, which is used in every part of Hindustán and the Dekhin, which is the common vehicle of colloquial intercourse among all well-educated natives, and among the illiterate also, in many provinces of India, and which is almost every where intelligible to some among the inbabitants of every village. The dialects which will be next noticed are of more limited use.

Gaura,* or as it is commonly called Bengalah, or Bengálí, is the language spoken in the provinces of which the ancient city of Gaur was once the capital. It still prevails in all the provinces of Bengal, excepting perhaps some frontier districts, but is said to be spoken in its greatest purity in the eastern parts only; and, as there spoken, contains few words which are not evidently derived from Sanserit. This dialect has not been neglected by. learned men. Many Sanscrit poems bave been translated, and some original poems have been composed in it: learned Hindus in Bengal speak it almost exclusively;

[^15]verbal instruction in sciences is communicated through this medium, and even public disputations are conducted in this dialect. Instead of writing it in the Dévanágaŕ, as the Prácrit and Hindeoí are written,* the inhabitants of Bengal have adopted a peculiar character, which is nothing else but Dévanágarí, difformed for the sake of expeditious writing. Even the learned amongst them employ this character for the Sanscrit language, the pronunciation of which, too, they in like manner degrade to the Bengálí standard. The labours of Mr. Halied and Mr. Forster have already rendered a knowledge of the Bengálí dialect accessible; and Mr. Fonster's further exertions will still more facilitate the acquisition of a language which cannot but be deemed greatly useful, since it prevails throughout the richest and most valuable portion of the British possessions in India.

Mait'kila, or Tirhutíya, is the language used in Mi$t^{\prime} h i l_{a}^{\prime}$ (that is, in the Sircár of Tirhutt), and in some adjoining districts, limited bowever by the rivers Cuśz (Cauśicí), and Gandhac (Gandhací), and by the mountains of Népál. It has great affinity with Bengálı; and the character in which it is written differs little from that which is employed throughout Bengal. In Tirhút, too, the learned write Sanscritt in the Tirlutíya character, and pronounce it after their own inelegant manner. As the dialect of Mit'hilá has no extensive use, and does not appear to have been at

[^16]any time cultivated by elegant poets, it is unnecessary to notice it further in this place.

Utcala, or $O^{\prime}$ dradéśsa, is co-extensive with the Subá of O'résá, extending from Médinípúr to Mánacapattana, and from the sea to Sammall-púr. The language of this province, and the character in which it is written, are both called Uríya. So far as a judgment can be formed from imperfect specimens of this language, it contains many Sanscritt words variously corrupted, with some Persian and Arabic terms borrowed through the medium of Hindustání, and with others of doubtful origin. The letters are evidently taken from the Dévanágarí; and the Bráhmens of this province use the Uríya character in writing the Sanscrit language. Its deviations from the Dévanágarí may be explained, from the practice of writing on palm leaves with an iron style, or on paper with a pen cut from a porcupine's quill. It differs in this respect from the handwriting of northern tribes, and is analogous to that of the southern inhabitants of the peninsula.

The five Hindu nations, whose peculiar dialects have been thus briefly noticed, occupy the northern and eastern portions of India; they are denominated the five Gaurs. The rest, called the five Drávirs, inhabit the southern and western parts of the peninsula. Some Pańdits, indeed, exclude Carnááta, and substitute Cásmíra; but others, with more propriety, omit the Cáshmirian tribe; and, by adding the Cánaras to the list of Drávirs, avoid the inconsistency of placing a northern tribe among southern nations. There is reason, too, for doubting whether Cásmira be occupied by a distinct nation, and whether the inhabitants of it be not rather a tribe of Cányacubjas.

Drávira is the country which terminates the peninsula of India: its northern limits appear to lie between the twelfth and thirteenth degrees of north latitude. The lan-
guage of the province is the Támel, to which Europeans have given the name of Malabar,* from Malay-wár, a province of Drávira. They have similarly corrupted the true name of the dialect into Tamul, Tamulic, and Tamulian, $\dagger$ but the word, as pronounced by the natives, is Támla, or Támalah; and this seems to indicate a derivation from Támra, or Támraparní, a river of note which waters the southern Mát'hura, situated within the limits of Drávira. The provincial dialect is written in a character which is greatly corrupted from the parent Dévanágarí, but which nevertheless is used by the Bráhmens of Drávira in writing the Sanscrit language. After carefully inspecting a grammar published by Mr. Drummond at Bombay, and a dictionary by missionaries at Madras, I can venture to pronounce that the Tamla contains many Sanscrit words, either unaltered or little changed, with others more corrupted, and a still greater number of doubtful origin.

The Mahááshtra, or Mahrát́ta, is the language of a nation which has in the present century greatly enlarged its ancient limits. If any inference may be drawn from the name of the character in which the language is written, the country occupied by this people was formerly called Múru $\ddagger \ddagger$ for the peculiar corruption of the Dévanágarí,

[^17]which is employed by the Maháráshítras in common transactions, is denominated by them Múr. Their books, it must be remarked, are commonly written in Dévanágarí. The Mahrátta nation was formerly confined to a mountainous tract situated south of the river Nermadá, and extending to the province of Cócán. Their language is now more widely spread, but is not yet become the vernacalar dialect of provinces situated far beyond the ancient bounds of their country. Like other Indian tongues, it contains much pure Sanscrit, and more corruptions of that language, intermixed with words borrowed from Persian and Arabic, and with others derived from an unknown source. If the bards of Maru were once famous, their supposed successors, though less celebrated, are not less diligent. The Mahrátítas possess many poems in their own dialect, either translated from the Sanscritt, or original compositions in honour of Crǐshía, Ríma, and other deified heroes. Treatises in prose, too, on subjects of logic and of philosophy, have been composed in the Mahrátía dialect.

Carríátu, or Cánara, is the ancient language of Carnuátaca, a province which has given name to districts on both coasts of the peninsula. This dialect still prevails in the intermediate mountainous tract, but seems to be superseded by other provincial tongues on the eastern coast. A peculiar character formed from the Dévanágarí, but like the Támla, much corrupted from it through the practice of writing on palm-leaves with an iron style, is called by the same name with the language of Carriátac. Bráhmens of this tribe have assured me that the language bears the same affinity to Sanscrit as other dialects of the Dacshin. I can affirm, too, from their conversation, that the Cánaras, like most other southern tribes, have not followed the ill example of Bengal and the provinces adjacent to it, in pro-
nouncing the Sanscrit language in the same inelegant manner with their own provincial dialects.

Tailanga, Télingah, or Tilanga, is at once the name of a nation, of its language, and of the character in which that language is written. Though the province of Telingána alone retain the name in published maps of India, yet the adjacent provinces on either bank of the Crishhná and Gbdáverí, and those situated on the north-eastern coast of the peninsula, are undoubtedly compreheaded within the ancient limits of Tilanga, and are inhabited chiefly by people of this tribe. The language, too, is widely spread: and many circumstances indicate that the Tailangas formerly occupied a very extensive tract, in which they still constitute the principal part of the population. The character in which they write their own language is taken from Dévanágafí, and the Tailanga Bráhmens employ it in writing the Sanscrit tongue, from which the Tailanga idiom is said to have borrowed more largely than other dialects used in the south of India. This language appears to have been cultivated by poets, if not by prose writers; for the Tailangas possess many compositions in their own provincial dialect, some of which are said to record the ancient history of the country.

The province of Gurrjara* does not appear to have been at any time much more extensive than the modern Guzrát, although Bráhmanas, distinguished by the name of that country, be now spread over the adjoining provinces on both sides of the Nermadá. This tribe uses a language denominated from their own appellation, but very nearly allied to the Hindí tongue, while the character in which it

[^18]is written conforms almost exactly with vulgar Nágarí. Considering the situation of their country, and the analogy of language and writing, I cannot hesitate in thinking that the Gúrjaras should be considered as the fifth northern nation of India, and the $U^{\prime}$ riyas should be ranked among the tribes of the Dacshin.

Brief and imperfect as is this account of the Prácrǐts of India, I must be still more concise in speaking of the languages denominated Mágadhi and Apabhranśa in the passages quoted at the beginning of this essay. Under these names are comprehended all those dialects which, together with the Prácrits above-noticed, are generally known by the common appellation of Bháshá, or speech. This term, as employed by all philologists, from Piníni down to the present professors of grammar, does indeed signify the popular dialect of Sanscritt, in contradistinction to the obsolete dialect of the Véda; but in common acceptation, Bhákhá (for so the word is pronounced on the banks of the Ganges) denotes any of the modern vernacular dialects of India, especially such as are corrupted from the Sanscrǐt: these are very numerous. After excluding mountaineers, who are probably aborigines of India, and whose languages have certainly no affinity with Sanscrit, there yet remain in the mountains and islands contiguous to India, many tribes that seem to be degenerate Hindus. They have certainly retained some traces of the language and writing which their ancestors had been taught to employ.

Without passing the limits of Hindustán, it would be easy to collect a copious list of different dialects in the various provinces which are inhabited by the ten principal Hindu nations. The extensive region which is nearly defined by the banks of the Saraswatí and Gangá on the north, and which is strictly limited by the shores of the
eastern and western seas towards the south, contains fiftyseven provinces according to some lists, and eighty-four according to others. Each of these provinces has its peculiar dialect, which appears, however, in most instances, to be a variety only of some one among the ten principal idioms. Thus Hindustání, which seems to be the lineal descendant of the Cányacubja, comprises numerous dialects, from the Ordu zebán, or language of the royal camp and court, to the barbarous jargon which reciprocal mistakes have introduced among European gentlemen and their native servants. The same tongue, under its more appropriate denomination of Hindí, comprehends many dialects strictly local and provincial. They differ in the proportion of Arabic, Persian, and Sanscrĭt, either pure or slightly corrupted, which they contain; and some shades of difference may be also found in the pronunciation, and even in the basis of each dialect.

Not being sufficiently conversant with all these idioms, I shall only mention two, which are well known, because lyric poets have employed them in songs, that are still the delight of natives of all ranks. I allude to the Penjábí and to the Brij-bhákhá. The first is the language of Panchanada, or Penjáb, a province watered by the five celebrated rivers which fall into the Sindhu. The songs entitled Khéáls and Teppas, which are no doubt familiar to all who have a taste for the vocal music of India, are composed almost exclusively in this dialect ; as the Dhurpeds and regular Rágs are Hindí; and Rékhtah*, in the language of the court of Hindustán.

The Brij-bhákhá, or Vraja bháshá, is the dialect supposed to have been anciently spoken among the peasants

[^19]in the neighbourhood of Mat'hurá. It derives its name from the cow-pens (vraja) and dairies in the forest of Vrindán, where Crishińa was educated among the wives and daughters of the cowherds. His amorous adventures with Rádhà and the Gopís furnish the subject of many favourite songs in this dialect. It is still spoken with much purity throughout a great part of the Antarbéd or D6áb, and in some districts on the opposite banks of the Yamuná and Gangá.

To these cursory observations might be fitly added a specimen of each language, and of the character in which it is written, together with a list of the most common terms in the various dialects of India, compared with words of similar sound and import in the ancient languages of Europe. I have, indeed, made collections for this purpose: but the insertion of a copious list would exceed the limits of a desultory essay. For this reason, and because the collection is yet incomplete, I suppress it; and shall here close the present essay abruptly, with the intention of resuming the subject, should the further prosecution of these enquiries at any future time enable me to furnish the information called for by this Society, concerning the number of Hinduwi dialects, and the countries where they are spoken.

## II.

# Preface to the Author's 'Grammar of the Sanscrit 

## Languge.'

[Calcutta, 1805. Folio.]

Having accepted an honourable nomination to the post of Professor of the Sanscrit Language in the College of Fort William, early after the foundation of that useful institution, I felt it incumbent on me to furnish, through the press, the means of studying a language, which it was my duty to make known, but on which I had no intention of delivering oral instruction.

Among other undertakings adapted to this purpose, the publication of a Sanscrit Grammar was commenced, which was first intended to be brief and elementary, but of which the design has been enlarged in its progress. As the entire work will exceed the bounds of a single volume, a convenient break has been chosen to close the first, and a few remarks will be now prefixed to it, since a considerable time may elapse before the second volume be completed. I have the less scruple, in pausing upon this work, to devote my attention to other duties, because the deficient part of it may be supplied by the grammars which Mr. Forster and Mr. Carey will severally publish.

In the composition of this grammar, I have followed the system taught by writers, whose works are considered by the prevailing sects of Hindus to be sacred, and to form an appendage of their scriptures. My reasons for preferring these to the popular or profane treatises on Grammar, were stated in an essay on the Sanscrit lan-
guage inserted in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches.* I adhere to the opinion there expressed. The sacred grammar has been more cultivated, its agreement with ancient writings and classical authors has been more carefully verified, than any other grammar of the language : it is more usually cited, and more generally understood : and, as finally corrected by a long train of commentators, it is more accurate and complete.

The arrangement, indeed, is ill-adapted to facilitate study ; both in the original work, and in the numerous illustrations of it. But I thought it practicable to frame a grammar upon the same system, which should be easily intelligible to the English student of Sanscrit. Without believing that I have succeeded, I still think it to be practicable: and the difficulties which may be experienced in the following pages, will in general be found owing merely to the want of examples; which have been omitted, under the apprehension of rendering the work too voluminous.

An improvement which has been recently effected in the types of the Nágarí character, by reducing their size, without diminishing their distinctness, has removed the objection to ample illustrations by examples: and, if this work should be reprinted, examples of every rule will accordingly be inserted; and, at all events, they will be retained in the second volume of this grammar.

On the same supposition of a new edition of this first volume, I should be desirous of altering some of the terms adopted by me in place of technical words in Sanscrĭt grammar. An unwillingness to coin new words in English, led me to use some expressions, which are not sufficiently precise; others were selected by me, not anticipating objections to their use, which have since occurred : and, in some instances, I have inadvertently changed an appropriate term for one less suitable. The most material

- See page 15 of the present volume.
intended changes are mentioned in the margin ;* and the reader is requested to notice them.

I shall be likewise glad to have an opportunity of inserting the original rules of Sanscritt Grammar. They are usually committed to memory by native students of the language ; and are cited by Sanscritt authors, in words, and not by reference to their place or their import. The knowledge of them is, therefore, material to the student of Sanscrĭt : and they are framed, like the aphorisms of other sciences among the Hindus, with studied and ingenious brevity.

The author of these grammatical aphorisms is Pánini. His rules, with the annotations of Cátyáyana entitled Várticas, confirmed or corrected by Patanjali in the Mahábháshya, constitute the standard of Sanscrĭt gram-

[^20]mar. From the three saints, as Hindu grammarians affect to call them, there is no appeal. Other authorities may be admitted, where they are silent: but a deviation even by a classical or an ancient writer, from a rule in which they concur,' is deemed either a poetical license or a privileged barbarism.

The works of these sacred writers, with the notes of Caiyyafa on the Mahábháshya, interpreted by his scholiasts, and more especially the perpetual commentary of Vámana on Pánini's aphorisms, under the title of Cásicá ${ }^{\text {vilutti, elucidated by the copious annotations of Hara- }}$ datta miśra in the Padamanjarí, are the basis of the grammar here printed. The Siddhánta caumudí, and Manoramá of Bhaffosi, with their commentaries, have been frequently consulted by me. Much use has also been made of the Pracriyá caumudí, with its commentaries, the Prasáda and Tatwa chandra: and I have continually referred to Maitreya, Madiava, Voradeva, and the other interpreters of Sanscritt roots. A reader, who may be desirous of verifying my authorities, should be apprized, that the Cásícá vrĭtti, Sildhánta caumudí, and Mádhavíya vrǐtti have been my chief guides: and that others, besides the books enumerated, have been occasionally consulted; as the Ganaratna mahodadhi, the Vritti sangraha, and the commentators of the Paribháshás; and sometimes, though rarely, the popular grammars.

For the information of the Sanscritt student, a list of these and other grammatical works will be subjoined, including many treatises which have not been used for this grammar; but none, which I do not know to be extant; and few, of which I do not actually possess complete copies. The list might have been greatly enlarged by adding the names of books quoted by undoubted authorities: and I shall only remark, in regard to such works, that the earliest
grammarians are expressly stated by Voradéva, to have been Indra, Chandra, Cáśacrytsna, Ápiśali, Śácatíyana, Páníini, Amera, and Jainéndra. Among these Pánini remains; and some of the others : perhaps all.

The authorities, which have been mentioned by me, as generally followed in this grammar, differ materially in their arrangement. I have been guided sometimes by one, sometimes by another, as seemed best adapted to the two objects proposed, conciseness and perspicuity. I am apprehensive, that, in the pursuit of both objects, one has frequently been missed. It was, however, with the view of compressing much grammatical information in a small compass, that paradigmas have been multiplied, but exhibited in a succinct form; and that general rules only are usually inserted in the text, while exceptions and special rules are placed in the notes.

I have admitted no remarks on general grammar, though suggested by the numerous peculiarities of Sanscrit. These, with the observations which occur on a comparison of the ancient language of India with those of Europe, are deferred until the completion of the work.

In the meantime, one singularity of the Sanscrit language may be noticed : its admitting both the ancient and the modern systems of grammatical structure. It abounds in inflections for cases and genders; tenses and persons: and it also admits a simple construction of indeclinable nouns with prepositions, and of participles with auxiliary verbs.

This remark anticipates on a part of the grammar reserved for the second volume, in which composition and syntax will be explained, with other matters indicated in the note subjoined to the table of contents of the first volume.

List of Sanscrit Grammars, with Commentaries, \&oc.

Sútra by P'ińint: rules of grammar in eight books entitled Asht́tádhyáya; comprising 3,996 aphorisms.
Vártica by Cátyáyana, amènding or explaining Pańini's rules.
Mahábháshya by Patanjalif, interpreting or correcting Cátyayana's annotations.
Mahábháshya pradípa by Caiyyaf́a, annotating Patanja li's gloss.
Bhúshya pradípódyota by NáGósi bнaft́a, commenting on Caiyyata's notes.
Bháshya pradípa vivarańa by físurainanda: another commentary on Caiyyafa's notes.
Cáśsića vrítti by Jayáditya or Vámana jayaditya: a perpetual commentary on PÁnini's rules.
Padamanjarí by Haradatta miśra: an exposition of the last mentioned work.
Nyása or Cáśicá vrittti panjicá by Jinéndra: another exposition of the same,* with explanatory notes by Racshita.
Vritti Sangraha by Nágbii bнatíta: a concise commentary on Páníini.
Bháshá vrǐtti by Purushóttama deva: a commentary on Pánini's rules (omitting those which are peculiar to the dialect of the Védas).

[^21]Bháshá vrǐttyart'ha vivrìtti by Srłsht́idhara; explaining Purushóttama's commentary.
Śabdu caustubha by Bhaf́fosí dícshita, consisting of scholia on PANini (left incomplete by the author).
Prabhá by Baidyanát'ha páyagunda, also named Bálambiatíta; a commentary on the Śabda caustubha.
Pracriýá caumudí by Rámachandra íchárya: a grammar in which PÁnini's rules are used, but his arrangement changed.
Prasáda by Vift́'hala áchárya; a commentary on the Pracriyá caumudí.
Tatwa chandra by Jayanta: another commentary on the same, abridged from one by Crǐshía fańgita.
Siddhánta caumudí by Bhat́fosí dícshita: a grammar on the plan of the Pracriyá ; but more correct and complete.
ManÚramá or Praudha manbramá by the same author; containing notes on his own work.
Tatwa bódhini by Jnyánéndra saraswati: a commentary on Bhaftósi's Siddhánta caumudí.
Śabdéndu séechara by NAgeśs bhaffa (same with Nagbji bhafta) : another commentary on the Siddhánta caumudź.
Laghu śabdéndu śéc'hara: an abridgment of the last.
Chidast'himálá by Baidyanat'ra páyagunda: a commentary on the abridged gloss of Nageśa.
Śabdaratna by Hari dicshita : a commentary on Bhaffoji's notes on the Manoramá.
Laghu sabdaratna: an abridgment of the same.
Bháva pracásicá by Baidyanát'ra páyagunda: an exposition of Hari dícshita's commentary.
Madhya caumudí by Babada rája: an abridgment of the Siddhánta caumud'. There is also a Madhya ma-
nóramá; besides other abridgments of the Siddhánta itself, as the Laghu caumudi, \&c.
Paribháshá: maxims of interpretation from ancient grammarians, cited in the Várticas and Bháshya, as rules for interpreting PAŃini's sútras.
Paribháshá vrítti by Śíra dekna: a commentary on the cited maxims of interpretation.
Laghu paribháshá vritti by Bhascara beatta: a succinct commentary on the same.
Paribháshárt'ha sangraha: another commentary on the same.
Chandricá by Swayampracísínanda: interpreting the last mentioned commentary.
Paribháshéndu séc'lhara by Nágéśa bhat́t́a: a brief exposition of the same maxims.
Paribhúshéndu śéc'hara cásíca by Baidyanát'ha páyagunda, commenting the gloss of Nageśa.
Cáricá: metrical rules of grammar, cited in the Mahábháshya, Cáśicá vrìtti, \&c.
Vácya pradípa by Bhartrĭhari: metrical maxims chiefly on the philosophy of syntax. These are often cited under the name of Haricáricú.
Vaiyácarańa bhúshańa by Cóńda bhaff́a: on syntax and the philosophy of grammatical structure.
Bhúshańa sára darpańa by Hariballabha: a commentary on the work last mentioned.
Vaiyúcarańa bhúshańa sára: an abridgment of the same work.
Laghu bhúshańa cánti by Baidyanát'ha páyagunda: a commentary on that abridgment.
Vaiyácarańce siddhánta manjushá by Nágeśs bhaffia: on syntax and the philosophy of grammatical structure.
Laghu vaiyácarańa siddhánta manjúshá: an abridgment of the same.

Calú by Baidyanát'ha payagunda: a commentary on the last mentioned abridgment.
Other treatises on construction logically considered, which are very numerous, are omitted as belonging more properly to the science of logic.
Gańapáta: lists of words comprehended in rules of grammar, under general classes.
Gańaratna mahbdadhi: a collection of such lists, with a commentary.
Dhátupáta by PÁnini: the roots or themes systematically arranged, with their indicatory letters and their interpretations.
Dhátupradípa or Tantrapradípa by Maitreya racshita: an illustration of the list of roots, with examples of their inflections.
Mádhavíya vritti by Sáyańa íchárya, in the name of Mádhava ácharya: a copious exposition of the roots with their derivatives.
The Bhatt́ti cávya, a poem describing the adventures of Ráma, may be considered as a grammatical work, having been purposely written for a practical instruction on grammar. It has several commentaries.
The Śrcshá of Pińini and Niructa of Yásca, with the commentaries on the Nighańta included in the last, are there omitted, as they are of little use, except in the reading of the Védas. Treatises on particular branches of etymology are also omitted, as not very generally consulted. Such is the Yan luganta śirbmañi on the formation of frequentative verbs.
Numerous other works, belonging to this grammar, have not been ascertained to be extant, being at present known only through quotations from them : as the $P a$ ńiníya mata darpańa quoted in the Prasáda; and many others cited in the Mádhaviya vritti.

The following belong to other Systems of Grammar.
Sáraswat́ pracriyá by Anubhúti swargídicharya: a grammar founded on seven hundred rules or aphorisms, pretended to have been received by the author from the goddess Saraswatí. This grammar is much used in Hindustán proper.
A commentary on the same by Punjarája.
Another by Mahibhaft́a.
Siddhánta chandricá: another commeutary on the same grammar.
Pada chandricú: another, in which Páńini's aphorisms are also exhibited.

Haimavyácarańa by Hemachandra or Hemasturí. A Sanscrit grammar is cited under this title, which is probably the same with Hemachandra's commentary on the Sabdánusásana, entitled Laghu vrǐtti ; comprised in eight books, including in the last the anomalies of the Prácrit language as derived from the Sanscrit. (The Cámadhénu cites a Śabdánúsásana by Abhinava sácatáyana besides Hemasúris work.) This grammar is used by the Jainas.
A commentary, without the author's name, is annexed to Hemachandra's grammar.
Prácrǐta manbramá: an abridged commentary on the Prácríta chandricá of Vararuchi ; showing the anomalies of Prácrǐt formed from Sanscrǐt.

Cátantra or Calápa: a grammar, of which the rules or aphorisms are ascribed to the god Cumára. It is much used in Bengal.
Daurgasinhí: a commentary on the above by Durgasinha; but stated in the introductory couplet to be the work of Sarva varman, who is accordingly cited in Vbpadeva's Cámadhénu.

Cátantra vrĭtti tícá by Durgasinha: an exposition of the above mentioned commentary. (The Cámadhénu quotes the Durga t́ícá of Durgagupta, and the Cátantra vistára of Vardhamána mí́ra.)
Cátantra panjicá by Trilóchanadísa: a commentary on the same grammar.
Calápa tatwárńava by Raghunandana áchárya śmóbMAŃI: another commentary on the same grammar.
Cátantra chandricá: another commentary on the same.
Chaitracutí by Vararuchi : another on the same.
Vyác'hyá sára by Hariráma chacravartí: another commentary.
Vyác'hyá sára by Ramadása: another, under the same title.
Other commentaries on the same grammar by Susheńa cavirája, Ramánátha, Umápati, Culachandra, and Murári.
Cátantra pariśishía by Śrípatidatta: a supplement to the Cátantra.
Pariśisht́a prabbdha by Gorinát'ha: a commentary on the above.
Pariśshta siddhánta ratnácara by Śivaríma chacravartí: another on the same.
Cátantra gańa dhátu: the roots or themes systematically arranged for the Cátantra.
Manóramá by Ramánát'нa: a commentary on that list of verbs.
Many other treatises belong to this grammar; as the Cátantra Shat́cáraca by Rahasanandí, the Cátantra Unádi vrǐtti by Śsivadása, the Cátantra chatushtaya pradípa, Cátantra dhátughosshá, Cátantra śabda málú, \&c.

Sancshiptasára by Cramadiśwara: a grammar, corrected by Jumaranandi and often cited under the title of Jaumara. This grammar is in use in Bengal.

A commentary on the above, by Góyíchandra.
Vyácára dípicá by Nyáya panchánana: an exposition of G6yichandra's commentary.
Another exposition of the same commentary by Vansivadana.
Durghata ghatana : another commentary on the Sarcshiptasára.
Other commentaries on the same grammar, by different authors, as Gópila chacravartí, \&c.
A supplement to Jumaranandi's corrections of the Sancshiptasára by Góyíchandra.
Other treatises appertain to this grammar, as Śabdaghoshá, Dhátughbshá, \&c.

Mugdhabbdha by Vópadeva: a grammar of the Sanscrit language, much studied in Bengal.
A commentary by the author of the grammar.
Another by Durgádása, entitled Subbdhiní.
One by Mıśra, entitled Ch'hátáa.
Other commentaries by Raminanda, Ramatarcavigfía, Madhusédana, Devidísa, Rímabhadra, Rámaprasída tarcavigísa, Śriballabháchárya, Dayaríma váchespati, Bhblánátha, Cártica giddhínta, Raticínta tarcavagíśa, Govinda ráma, \&c.
Mugdhabbdha pariśsistía by CAśĺśwara: a supplement to the Mugdhabbdha.
Another by Nandaciśbra.
Cavicalpadruma by Vópadéva: an alphabetical catalogue of roots, arranged in verse.
Cávya cámadhéns by the same author, explaining his own list of verbs.
Dhátu dípicá by Durgídísa: a commentary on the same catalogue of verbs.

Cavicalpadruma vyác'hyá by Rama nyáyílancára: another commentary on the same.

D'háturatnávali by RAD'hácrịsuía: a metrical catalogue of roots.
Cavirahasya by Helíyudha: exhibiting in verse examples of the most common verbs.
A commentary on the same.
Supadma by Padmanábia datta: a grammar of Sanscritt. It is in use in some parts of Bengal.
Supadma macaranda or Macaranda: a commentary on the above, by Vishíu miśra.
Other commentaries by various authors: as Candarpa siddhánta, Cásíśwara, Śsídhara chacravartí, Rámachandra, \&c.
Supadma parisisht́a : a supplement to the grammar.
Supadma dhátupáta by Padmanabha datta: a list of themes or roots for the author's grammar, called Supadma. The same author added other appendages to his grammar, viz. Paribláshá and Unádivrïtti.
Other treatises belong to this grammar ; as the Cásiśswarí gańa, and its commentary by Ramacanta.

Ratnamálá by Purushottama: a grammar used in Cámarúpa.
Druta bodha by Bharatamalla: a grammar, with a commentary on it by the same author. This and the following are not much in use.
Śudháśubbdha by Ráméśwara : another grammar with a commentary by the author himself.
Harinámámrìta by Jivaghósna swámí: another, with a commentary.

Chaitanyámrita: another, also accompanied by a commentary.
Cáricávalí by Raima náríyańa: a grammar in verse.
Prabbdha pracáśa by Balaráma panchánana: a grammar.
Rápamála by Vimalasaraswati; another grammar. Jnyánámrĭta by CAsíśwara : another.
Áśubbdha, Laghubódha, Ṥghrabodha, Sárámrĭta, Divya, Padávalí, Ulcá ; and many other grammars by various authors.

Besides Vararuchi's Prácríta pracáśa or Chandricá, and Bhamaha's commentary entitled Manóramá vrǐtti before-mentioned, other grammars of Prácrĭt are known : as the Prácrǐta cámadhénu, Prácrĭta lancéśvara, \&c.

Authorities of Sanscritt grammar, cited in books which have been used for the present volume, but not otherwise known, nor in any manner ascertained to be now extant, have been excluded from the foregoing list. Many of them could not be confidently referred to any particular system of grammar ; and, in numerous instances, a doubt arises, whether the same work be not quoted under different names, in different places: sometimes, under the title of the book; at other times, under the designation of the author. A few of these names, which occur most frequently, will be here enumerated, with a notice of the authority by which they are quoted.

Pánini himself names Śácalya, Gargya, Cáśyata, Gálava, Ápiśalí, Śácat́áyana, Bháradwája, Áśwaláyana, Sp'hótáyana, and Chácravarmańa.

The Mádhavíya vrǐtti quotes, among many other authors, Chandra, Ápiśalí, Ś́ácatíyana, Átréya, Dhanapala, Caúsica, Purushacára, Sudhicara,

Madhusúdana, Yádava, Bháguri, Sríbhadra, Ślvadeva, Rámadeva miśra, Déva, Nandi, Ráma, Bhima, Bhoja, Herárája, Subhúti chandra, PÚrín chandra, Yajnyandráyańa, Cańwa, Swímí, Césína swamf, Śiva swami, Dherta swámf, Cshira swami (this last is cited in the Prasáda as author of the Cshíra taranginí). The Mádhavíya likewise frequently cites the Tarangiñá, Ábharaña, Sábdicábharańa, Samantá, Pracriyá ratna and Pratípa.

The Várticas of Vyaghra bhéti and Vyíghra PÁdA are mentioned by many authors; and so is the Dhátu páráyańa. Vbpadeva, in the Cámadhénu, has quoted the Panjicá pradípa of Cuśa la (belonging perhaps to the grammar called Cátantra;) and the Saraswatí cañtábharańa (ascribed by some to Bhója deva). The Prasáda often cites the Rámavyácarańa, and seems to name V6padeva as the author of it.

The following are, among others, noticed in the Dhátu dípicá of Durga dísa, viz. Bhat́famalla, Góvinda mhaffa, Chaturbhuja, Gadisinha, G6vardhana, and Sarańadeva.
III.

## Prefacr to the Author's Edition of the Ambra cosha.

[Calcutta, 1808. 4to.]

The compilation of a Sanscrit dictionary having been undertaken early after the institution of the college of Fort William, it was at the same time thought advisable to print, in Sanscritt and English, the work which has been chosen for the basis of that compilation, as well for the sake of exhibiting an original authority to which reference will be frequently necessary, as with the view of furnishing an useful vocabulary, which might serve until an ampler dictionary could be prepared and published.

The celebrated Amera cbsha, or Vocabulary of Sanscritt by Amera sinha, is, by the unanimous suffrage of the learned, the best guide to the acceptations of nouns in Sanscrit. The work of PAńini on etymology is rivalled by other grammars, some of which have even obtained the preference in the opinion of the learned of particular provinces; but Amera's vocabulary has prevailed wherever the Sanscritt language is cultivated, and the numerous other vocabularies which remain, are consulted only where Amera's is either silent or defective. It has employed the industry of innumerable commentators, while none of the others (with the single exception of Hemachandra's) have been interpreted even by one annotator. Such decided preference for the Amera cósha, and the consequent frequency of quotations from it, determined the selection of this as the basis of an alphabetical dictionary, and sug-
gested the expediency of also pablishing the original text with an English interpretation.

Like other vocabularies of Sanscrit, that of Amera is in metre; and a considerable degree of knowledge of the language becomes requisite to discriminate the words from their interpretations, and to separate them from contiguous terms which affect their initials and finals. On this account, and to adapt the work to the use of the English student, the words, of which the sense is exhibited, are disjoined from their interpretation (which is included between crotchets) ; and the close of each word is marked by a roman letter over it indicating the gender of the noun. Where a letter has been permuted according to the Scanscrit system of orthography, a dot is placed under the line, to intimate that a letter is there altered or omitted : and a marginal note is added, exhibiting the radical final of the noun, or its initial, in every instance where either of them is so far disguised by permutation as not to be easily recognized upon a slight knowledge of the rudiments of the language, and of its orthography. An explanation in English is given in the margin, and completed when necessary at the foot of the page. The different interpretations proposed by the several commentators, and the variations in orthography remarked by them, are also specified in the same place.

According to the original plan of the present publication, the variations in the reading of the text (for which a careful collation has been made of several copies and of numerous commentaries) are noticed only where they affect the interpretation of a word or its orthography. It was not at first intended to insert those differences which are remarked by commentators upon other authority, and not upon the ground of any variation in the text itself. However, the utility of indicating such differences was after-
wards thought to counterbalance any inconvenience attending it; and after some progress had been made at the press, this and other additions to the original design were admitted, which have rendered a supplement necessary to supply omissions in the first chapters, and complete the work upon an uniform plan.

To avoid too great an increase of the volume, the various readings and interpretations are rather hinted than fully set forth : it has been judged sufficient to state the result, as the notes would have been too much lengthened, if the ground of disagreement had been every where exhibited and explained. For the same reason, authorities have not been cited by name. The mention of the particular commentator in each instance would have enlarged the notes, with very little advantage, as the means of verifying authorities are as effectually furnished by an enumeration of the works which have been employed and consulted. They are as follow :

## I. The text of the Amera cossha.

This vocabulary, comprised in three books, is frequently cited under the title of Tricáñáda,* sometimes under the denomination of Abhidhána (nouns), from its subject; often under that of Amera cósha, from the name of the author. The commentators are indeed unanimous in ascribing it to Amera sinha. He appears to have belonged to the sect of Buddia (though this be denied by some of his scholiasts), and is reputed to have lived in the reign of Vicramáditya; and he is expressly named among the

[^22]ornaments of the court of Rájá Bhója,* one of the many princes to whom that title has been assigned. If this mention of him be accurate, he must have lived not more than eight hundred years ago; for a poem entitled Subháshita ratna sandoha, by a Jaina author named Amitagati, is dated in the year 1050 from the death of Vicramaditya, and in the reign of Munja, who was uncle and predecessor of Rájá Bhója. It, however, appears inconsistent with the inscription at Buddha gayá which is dated in the year 1005 of the era of Vicramaditya, and in which mention is made of Amera deva, probably the same with the author of the vocabulary. From the frequent instances of anachronism, both in sacred and profane story as current among the Hindus, more confidence seems due to the inscription than to any popular tales concerning Rájí Bhbja; and the Amera cósha may be considered as at least nine hundred years old, and possibly more ancient.

It is intinated in the author's own preface that the work was compiled from more ancient vocabularies: his commentators instance the Tricáńda, $\dagger$ Utpáliní, Rabiaba and Catyáyana, as furnishing information on the nouns, and Vyáai and Vararuchi on the genders. The last mentioned of these authors is reputed contemporary with Vicramáditya, and consequently with Amera sinha himself.
The copies of the original which have been employed in the correction of the text, in the present publication, are,
lst. A transcript made for my use from an ancient corrected copy in the Tirhutiya character, and collated by me with a copy in Dévanágarí, which had been carefully examined by Sir William Jones. He had inserted in it

[^23]an English interpretation, of which also I reserved a copy, and have derived great assistance from it in the present publication.

2d. A transcript in Dévaxágarí character, with a commentary and notes in the Cánara dialect. It contains numerous passages, which are unnoticed in the most approved commentaries, and which are accordingly omitted in the present edition.

3d. Another copy in the Dévanágarí character, with a brief and imperfect interpretation in Hindz.

4th. A copy in the Bengal character, with marginal notes explanatory of the text.

5th. A copy in duplicate, accompanied by a Sanscrǐt commentary, which will be forthwith mentioned (that of Rámíśrama). It contains a few passages not noticed by most of the commentators. They have been, however, retained on the authority of this scholiast. A like remark is applicable to certain other passages expounded in some commentaries, but not in others. All such have been retained, where the authority itself has been deemed good.

6th. Recourse has been occasionally had to other copies of the text in the possession of natives, whenever it has been thought any ways requisite.

## II. Commentaries on the Amera cosha.

1. At the head of the commentaries which have been used, must be placed that of RAya mucuta, (or Vrymaspati, surnamed Ráya mucuta mańi). This work, entitled Padachandricá, was compiled, as the author himself informs us, from sixteen earier commentaries, to many of which he repeatedly refers; especially those of Cshira swami, Subhúti, Had́ńa chandra, Calinga, Con-
cafa, Sarvadmara, and the Vyác'hyámerita, Tricásarvastoa, \& c.*

Its age is ascertained from the incidental mention of a date, viz. 1353 Śáca, or 4532 of the Cali yuga, corresponding to A.D. 1431.

Though the derivations in Mucu'fi's commentary be often inaccurate, and other errors also have been remarked by later compilers, its authority is in general great; and accordingly it has been carefully consulted under every article of the present work.
2. Among the earlier commentaries named by Ríya mucufa, that of Cshira swami is the only one, which has been examined in the progress of this compilation. It is a work of considerable merit; and is still in general use in some provinces of India, although the interpretations not unfrequently differ from those commonly received.
3. The Vyác'hyásudhá, a modern commentary by RAmásíama or by Bhínudicshita (for copies differ as to the name of the author), is the work of a grammarian of the school of Benares. He continually refers to Ráya mucufa and to SwA mi ; and his work serves to confirm their scholia where accurate, and to correct them where erroneous. It has been consulted at every line.
4. The Vyác'kyá pradípa, by Achyuta Upádhyaya, is a concise and accurate exposition of the text; but adds little to the information furnished by the works abovementioned. It has been, however, occasionally consulted.

In these four commentaries, the derivations are given

[^24]according to PAńini's system. In others, which are next to be enumerated, various popular grammars are followed for the etymologies. But, as the derivations of the words are not included in the plan of the present work, being reserved for a place in the intended alphabetical dictionary of Sanscrit, those commentaries have not been the less useful in regard to the information which was sought in them.
5. The commentary of Bhabata malla (entitled Mugdhabbdhini) has been as regularly consulted as those of Mucuta and Rámasrama. It is, indeed, a very excellent work; copious and clear, and particularly full upon the variations of orthography according to different readings or different authorities : the etymologies are given conformably with V'rpadeva's system of grammar. The author flourished in the middle of last century.
6. The Sára sundarí, by Mat'huréśa, has been much used. It is perspicuous and abounds in quotations from other commentaries, and is therefore a copious source of information on the various interpretations and readings of the text. The Supadma is the grammar followed in the derivations stated by this commentator. Mat'hureśa is author likewise of a vocabulary in verse, entitled Śabdaratnávali, arranged in the same order with the Amera cosha, and which might serve therefore as a commentary on that work. It was compiled under the patronage of a Musleman chieftain, Murch'há inán, whose name is prefixed to it. The author wrote not more than 150 years ago.*
7. The Padárt'ha Caumudí, by Níráyańa chacravarti, is another commentary of considerable merit, which has been frequently consulted. The Calápa is the grammar followed in the etymologies here exhibited.

[^25]8. A commentary by Ramanít'ha vidyá váchespati, entitled Tricánida vivéca, is peculiarly copious on the variations of orthography, and is otherwise a work affording much usefal information.
9. Another commentary, which has been constantly employed, is that by Nílacańf'ra. It is full and satisfactory on most points for which reference is usually made to the expositors of the Amera cbsha.
10. The commentary of Ramatarica Vígísa has been uniformly consulted throughout the work. It was recommended for its accuracy; but has furnished little information, being busied chiefly with etymology. This, like the preceding, follows the grammar entitled Calápa.

Other commentaries were also collected for occasional reference in the progress of this work; but have not been employed, being found to contain no information which was not also furnished, and that more amply, by the scholiasts above mentioned.

The list of them contained in the subjoined note may therefore suffice.*
III. Sanscrǐt dictionaries and vocabularies by other authors.

Throughout the numerous commentaries on the Amera cbsha, the text itself is corrected or confirmed, and the interpretations and remarks of the commentators supported, by reference to other Sanscritt vocabularies. They are often cited by the scholiasts for the emendation of the text in

[^26]regard to the gender of a noun, and not less frequently for a variation of orthography, or for a difference of interpretation. The authority quoted has been in general consulted, before any use has been made of the quotations; or, where the original work cannot now be procured, the agreement of commentators has been admitted as authenticating the passage. This has been particularly attended to in the chapter containing homonymous words, it having been judged useful to introduce into the notes of that chapter the numerous additional acceptations stated in other dictionaries, and understood to be alluded to in the Amera cosha.

The dictionaries which have been consulted are, 1st. The Médiní, an alphabetical dictionary of homonymous terms by Médinicara.

2d. The Viśroa pracásía by Mahéswara vaidya, a similar dictionary, but less accurate and not so well arranged. It is the ground-work of the Médiní, which is an improved and corrected work of great authority. Both are very frequently cited by the commentators.
3. The Haima, a dictionary by Héma chandra, in two parts; one containing synonymous words arranged in six chapters; the other containing homonymous terms in alphabetical order. Both are works of great excellence.
4. The Abhidhána ratnamálá, a vocabulary by Heláyudha, in five chapters; the last of which relates to words having many acceptations. It is too concise for general use, but is sometimes quoted.
5. The Dharaní, a vocabulary of words bearing many senses. It is less copious than the Médini and Haima; but being frequently cited by commentators, has been necessarily consulted.
6. The Tricánida śésha, or supplement to the Amera cósha, by Purushóttama deva.

## 7. The Harrávalí of the same author.

The last of these two supplements to Amera, being a colleetion of uncommon words, has not been much employed for the present publication. The other has been more used. Both are of considerable anthority.

The reader will find in the notes a list of other dictionaries quoted by the commentators, but the quotations of which have not been verified by reference to the originala, as these have not been procurable.*

Works under the title of Varñadésaná, Droirupa, and Unódi, have indeed been procured; but not the same with the books cited, many different compilations being current under those titles. The first relates to words, the orthography of which is likely to be mistaken from a confusion of similar letters; the second exhibits words which are spelt in more than one way; the third relates to a certain class of derivatives separately noticed by grammarians.

## IV. Grammatical works.

Grammar is so intimately connected with the subject of this publication, that it has been of course necessary to advert to the works of grammarians. But as they are regularly cited by the commentators, it is needless to name them as authorities, since nothing will be found to have been taken fiom this source, which is not countenanced by some passage in the commentaries on the Amera cosha.

> V. Treatises on the roots of Sanscrit.

Verbs not being exhibited in the Amera cosha, which is a vocabulary of nouns only, the treatises of Maitreya,

[^27]MAdiava, and others, on the Sanscrit roots, though furnishing important materials towards a complete dictionary of the language, have been very little employed in the present work; and a particular reference to them was unnecessary, as authority will be found in the commentaries on Amera, for any thing which may have been taken from those treatises.

## VI. The Scholia of classic writings.

Passages from the works of celebrated writers are cited by the commentators on the Amera cósha, and the scholiasts of classic poems frequently quote dictionaries in support of their interpretation of difficult passages. In the compilation of a copious Sanscrit dictionary ample use may be made of the scholia. They have been employed for the present publication so far only as they are expressly cited by the principal commentaries on the Amera cbsha itself.

Should the reader be desirous of verifying the authorities upon which the interpretation and notes are grounded, he will in general find the information sought by him in some one of the ten commentaries of Amera, which have been before named, and will rarely have occasion to proceed beyond those which have been specified as the works regularly consulted.

In regard to plants and animals, and other objects of natural history, noticed in different chapters of this vocabulary, and especially in the 4th, 5th, and 9th chapters of the second book, it is proper to observe, that the ascertainment of them generally depends on the correctness of the corresponding vernacular names. The commentators seldom furnish any description or other means of ascertainment besides the current denomination in a provincial language. A view of the animal, or an examination of the plant, known
to the vulgar under the denomination, enables a person conversant with natural history to determine its name according to the received nomenclature of European Botany and Zoology : but neither my enquiries, nor those of other gentlemen, who have liberally communicated the information collected by them,* nor the previous researches of Sir William Jones, have yet discovered all the plants and animals, of which the names are mentioned by the commentators on the Amera cosha; and even in regard to those which have been seen by us, a source of error remains in the inaccuracy of the commentators themselves, as is proved by the circumstance of their frequent disagreement. It must be therefore understood, that the correspondence of the Sanscrurt names with the generic and specific names in natural history is in many instances doubtful. When the uncertainty is great, it has usually been so expressed ; but errors may exist where none have been apprehended.

It is necessary likewise to inform the reader, that many of the plants, and some animals (especially fish), have not been described in any work yet published. Of such, the names have been taken from the manuscripts of Dr. Roxburgh and Dr. F. Buchanan.

Having explained the plan and design of this edition of the Amera cosha, I have only further to state, that the delay which has arisen since it was commenced (now more than five years) has been partly occasioned by my distance from the press (the work being printed by Mr. Carey at Serampoor), and partly by avocations which have retarded the progress of collating the different copies of the text and commentaries : a task, the labour of which may be judged by those who have been engaged in similar undertakings.
Calcutta, December, 1807.

[^28]
## III.

## On Sanscrit and Praichît Poetry.

> [From the Asiatic Researches, vol. x. p. 389-474. Calcutta, 1808. 4to.]

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

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

[^29]devoid of ingenuity; and the prosody of Sanserit will be found to be richer than that of any other known langaage, in variations of metre, regulated either by quantity or by number of syllables, both with and without rhyme, and subject to laws imposing in some instances rigid restrictions, in others allowing ample latitude. I am prompted by these considerations to undertake the explanation of that system, premising a few remarks on the original works in which it is taught, and adding notices of the poems from which examples are selected.

The rules of prosody are contained in Sútras, or brief aphorisms, the reputed author of which is Pingalaníga, a fabulous being, represented by mythologists in the shape of a serpent; and the same who, under the title of PatanJall, is the supposed author of the Mahábháshya, or great commentary on grammar, and also of the text of the Yoga sastra;* and to whom likewise the text or the commentary of the Jybtish annexed to the Védast appears to be attributed. The aphorisms of Pingaláchárya, as he is sometimes called, on the prosody of Sanscrit (exclusive of the rules in Prácrĭt likewise ascribed to him), are collected into eight books, the first of which allots names, or rather literal marks, to feet consisting of one, two, or three syllables. The second book teaches the manner, in which passages of the $V$ édas are measured. The third explains the variations in the subdivision of the couplet and stanza. The fourth treats of profane poetry, and especially of verses, in which the number of syllables, or their quantity, is not uniform. The fifth, sixth, and se-

[^30]venth, exhibit metres of that sort which has been called monoschematic, or uniform, because the same feet recur invariably in the same places. The eighth and last book serves as an appendix to the whole, and contains rules for computing all the possible combinations of long and short syllables in verses of any length.

This author cites earlier writers on prosody, whose works appear to have been lost: such as Saitava, Craushfica, Tańgin, and other ancient sages, Yasca, CaśyaPA, \&c.

Pingala's text has been interpreted by various commentators; and, among others, by Helíyudia bhatía, author of an excellent gloss entitled Mríta sanjíviní.* It is the work on which I have chiefly relied. A more modern commentary, or rather a paraphrase in verse, by Níríy yía bhatfa tára, under the title of Vríttocti ratna, presents the singularity of being interpreted throughout in a double sense, by the author himself, in a further gloss entitled Parícshá.

The Agni puránáa is quoted for a complete system of prosody, $\dagger$ founded apparently on Pingala's aphorisms; but which serves to correct or to supply the text in many places; and which is accordingly used for that purpose by commentators. Original treatises likewise have been composed by various authors; $\ddagger$ and, among others, by the

[^31]celebrated poet Calidísa. In a short treatise entitled Śruta bodha, this poet teaches the laws of versification in the very metre to which they relate; and has thus united the example with the precept. The same mode has been also practised by many other writers on prosody; and in particular, by Pingala's commentator Náríyańa bhatfa; and by the authors of the Vritta retnácara and Vrïtta derpańa.

CAlidisa's Sruta bbdha exhibits only the most common sorts of metre, and is founded on Pingala's Prácritt rules of prosody; as has been remarked by one of the commentators* on the Vritta retnácara.

The rules generally cited under the title of Prácritt Pingala, have been explained in a metrical paraphrase, teaching the construction of each species of metre in a stanza of the same measure, and subjoining select examples. This Prácrĭt paraphrase, entitled Pingala vrǐtti, is quoted under the name of Hammira, $\dagger$ who is celebrated in more than one passage given as examples of metre, and who probably patronized the author. It has been imitated in a modern Sanscrǐt treatise on Prácř̆t prosody, entitled Vritta muctávalı; $\ddagger$ and has been copiously explained in a Sanscrĭt commentary named Pingala pracása.§

Though relative to Prácrĭt prosody, the rules are appli-
The Vritha retuacara of Cédara beaffa, with its commentaries by Divícara bhaff́a, Níríyata bhaffa, and Habibhíboara, has been the most consulted for the present treatise. The Vritta derpana, which relates chielly to Pracrit prosody, has been also much employed.

- Divícara geaffa.
$\dagger$ In the commentary on the Vrtitocti ratna.
$\ddagger$ The author, Dutoídatta, was patronized by the Hindúpadi princes of Bundelc'hand. The examples, which like the text are Smscrit in Pracrit measure, are in praise of these chieftains.
§By Viswarat'ba.
VOL. II.
cable, for the most part, to Sanscritt prosody also: since, the laws of versification in both languages are nearly the same.

The Prácrit, here meant, is the language usually employed under this name by dramatic writers; and not, in a more general sense of the term, any regular provincial dialect corrupted from Sanscritt. Hemachandra in his grammar of Prácrŭt, declares it to be so called because it is derived from Sanscritt.*

Accordingly his and other grammars of the language consist of rules for the transformation of Sanscrit words into the derivative tongue: and the specimens of it in the Indian dramas, as well as in the books of the Jains, exhibit few words which may not be traced to a Sanscritt origin. This is equally true of the several dialects of Prácrít: viz. Śauraséní or language of Śuraséna, $\dagger$ and Mágadhí or dialect of Magadha; $\ddagger$ which according to grammarians, who give rules for deducing the first from Sanscritt, and the second from the first, § or both from Sanscrǐt, $\|$ are dialects nearly allied to Prácrĭt, and regularly formed by permutations, for which the rules are stated by them. The same may be said of the Paiśachí as a language, (and distinguished from the jargon or gibberish which either dramatic writers, or actors exhibiting their dramas, sometimes put into the mouths of demons); for

[^32]the grammarians of Prácrit teach the manner of forming the Paiśáchí* from the dialect called Śauraséní. $\dagger$ That remark may be also extended to Apabhranśa, as a fixed language partaking of Prácrít and Śauraséní, but deducing many terms immediately from the Sanscrit under rules of permutation peculiar to itself. $\ddagger$

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

Besides these cognate dialects, the dramatic writers introduced other languages as spoken by different persons of the drama. Such, according to the enumeration in the Sáhitya derparía, $\|$ are the Dácshinátyá, $\mathbb{T}$ or language used in the south of India; the Drávidı, or dialect of the southern extremity of the peninsula; the Ávanticá (probably the language of Málavá);** the Ardha mágadkí,

[^33]distinguished from Mágadhí properly so called; the Báhlícabháshá (perhaps the language of Balkh in the Transoxana);* the Maháráshtrí, or dialect of the Marhatitas ; the Práchyá, or language employed in the east of India; $\dagger$ the $A b h i ́ r i ́ ~ a n d ~ C h a ́ n d a ́ l a ́, ~ w h i c h, ~ f r o m ~ t h e i r ~ n a m e s, ~$ seem to be dialects used by herdsmen and by persons of the lowest tribes; the Sáncará (Śácárí) and S'́ábarí, concerning which nothing satisfactory can be at present suggested; and generally any provincial dialect.

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

[^34]quoted examples in those of Maháráshtra, Gurjara, and Cányacubja. The last-mentioned, which is the same with the old Hindí, as is demonstrated by this specimen of it, might furnish very numerous instances; especially the Hindz poetry of Cessava dása,* who has studiously employed a great variety of metre. Some examples will accordingly be quoted from the most distinguished Hindi poets. The sacred books of the Sikhs, composed in a Penjábí dialect, which is undoubtedly derived from the ancient Sáreswata, $\dagger$ abound in specimens of such metre. The language of Mit'hilá, and its kindred tongue, which prevails in Bengal, also supply proof of the aptitude of Sanscrit prosody : and the same is probably true of the other four national languages. $\ddagger$

Pingala's rules of Sanscrǐt prosody are expressed with singular brevity. The artifice by which this has been effected is the use of single letters to denote the feet or the syllables. Thus $l$, the initial of a word signifying short (laghu), indicates a short syllable: $g$, for a similar reason, $\S$ intends a long one. The combinations of these two letters denote the several dissyllables: lg signifying an iambic; $g l$ a trochæus or choreus; $g g$ a spondee; $l l$ a pyrrhichius. The letters m. y. r. s. t. j. bh. and $n$, mark all the trisyllabical feet, from three long syllables to as many short. A Sanscrit verse is generally scanned by these last-mentioned feet, with the addition of either a dissyllable or a mono-

[^35]syllable at the close of the verse, if necessary. This may be rendered plain by an example taken from the Greek and Latin prosody.

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

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

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

The verse, according to the Sanscrit system of prosody, is the component part of a couplet, stanza, or strophe, commonly named a śloca, although this term be sometimes restricted to one sort of metre, as will be subsequently shown on the authority of CAlidása. The stanza or strophe consists usually of four verses denominated páda; or, considered as a couplet, it comprises two verses subdivided into pádas or measures. Whether it be deemed a stanza or a couplet, its half, called ardhaślbca, contains usually two pádas; and in general the pauses of the sense correspond with the principal pauses of the metre, which are accordingly indicated by lines of separation at the
close of the slloca and of its hemistich. When the sense is suspended to the close of a second śloca, the double stanza is denominated yugma; while one, comprising a greater number of measures, is termed culaca. In common with others, I have sometimes translated śloca by " verse," or by "couplet;" but, in prosody, it can only be considered as a stanza, though the pauses are not always very perfectly marked until the close of the first half: and, in conformity to the Indian system, it is generally treated as a tetrastich, though some kinds of regular metre have uniform pauses, which might permit a division of the stanza into eight, twelve, and even sixteen verses.

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

Concerning the length of the vowels in Sanscrit verse, since none are ambiguous, it is only necessary to remark, that the comparative length of syllables is determined by the allotment of one instant or mátrá to a short syllable, and two to a long one; that a naturally short vowel becomes long in prosody when it is followed by a double or conjunct consonant;* and that the last syllable of a verse

[^36]is either long or short, according to the exigence of the metre,* whatever may be its natural length.

Sanscrǐt prosody admits two sorts of metre. One governed by the number of syllables; and which is mostly uniform or monoschematic in profane poetry, but altogether arbitrary in various metrical passages of the Védas. The other is, in fact, measured by feet, like the hexameters of Greek and Latin : but only one sort of this metre, which is denominated Aryá, is acknowledged to be so regulated; while another sort is governed by the number of syllabic instants or mátrás.

## I. Gańack'handas, or metre regulated by feet.

## Árya or Gitití.

The metre named Áryá, or in Prácrĭt, Gáhá, from the Sanscrĭt Gát'há, is measured by feet denominated gańa, or mátrágańa, which are equivalent to two long syllables or to four short: it is described as a couplet, in which the first verse contains seven and a-half feet; and the sixth foot must consist of a long syllable between two short, or else of four short; while the odd feet (1st, 3d, 5th, and 7th) must never be amphibrachys. $\dagger$ In the second verse of the
be sometimes short before any conjunct, or before the nasal: but instances of this license occur in classical poems with only four conjuncts, as abovementioned; and, even there, emendations of the text have been proposed by critics to render the verse conformable to the general laws of prosody. (See remarks in the Durghata vrtuti, on passages of Mígha's poem and of the Cumara).

- This rule of prosody is applicable to any verse of the tetrastich: but it is considered by writers on rhetoric inelegant to use the privilege in the uneven verses; and they thus restrict the rule to the close of the stanza and of its half, especially in the more rigid species of regular metre.
+ If the rule be violated, the metre is named Gurvini; but this is reprobated by writers on prosody.
couplet, the sixth foot (for here too it retains that name) consists of a single short syllable. Consequently the proportion of syllabic instants in the long and short verses is thirty to twenty-seven.* The same metre has, with some propriety, been described as a stanza of four verses : $\dagger$ for it is subdivided by its pauses into four pádas, which have the usual privilege of giving to the last syllable, whether naturally long or short, the length required by the metre. The pause is commonly restricted to the close of the third foot, and the measure is in this case denominated Pat'hyá; but if the pause be placed otherwise in either verse, or in both of them, the metre is named Vipulá.

A particular sort of this measure, deduced from either species above described, is called Chapalú; and the laws of its construction require, that the second and fourth feet should be amphibrachys, and that the first foot should be either a spondee or an anapest, and the fifth a dactyl or a spondee. The first verse of the couplet, the second, or both, may be constructed according to these rigid rules : hence three varieties of this sort of metre.

The regular Áryá consists of alternate long and short verses : but, if the short verse precede the long one, the metre is called Udgiti. If the couplet consist of two long verses, it is named Gíti : or of two short verses, Upagíti. Another sort of this metre is named Áryá giti: it is constructed by completing the eighth foot of the regular Áryá. $\ddagger$

This measure admits therefore of eighty principal variations, deducible from the nine sorts abovementioned : for the pause may be placed at the close of the third foot in either verse of each couplet, in both, or in neither; and

[^37]either verse, both, or neither, may be constructed according to the strict rules of the Chapalá measure; and the verse may consist of seven and a-half, or of eight feet; and may be arranged in couplets consisting of verses alternately long and short, or alternately short and long, or else uniformly long, or uniformly short.

The Áryá metre is very frequently employed by Indian poets; but works of great length in this measure are not common. It is oftener intermixed with verses of other kinds, though instances do occur of its exclusive use : thus the first and fourth cantos, and most part of the second and third, in the poem entitled Nalbdaya, and the entire work of Goverdinana** are in the Áryá metre. And so is the brief text of the Sánc'hya philosophy of Capila, as taught by íswaracríshía ; $\dagger$ and the copious treatise of astronomy by Brahmegupta. $\ddagger$

The Nalbdaya abovementioned, which is ascribed to the celebrated poet Cálidása, is a poem in four cantos, comprising 220 couplets or stanzas, § on the adventures of Nala and Damayanti : a story which is already known to the English reader.|| In this singular poem, rhyme and alliteration are combined in the termination of the verses: for

[^38]the three or four last syllables of each hemistich within the stanza are the same in sound though different in sense. It is a series of puns on a pathetic subject.

It is supposed to have been written in emulation of a short poem (of twenty-two stanzas) similarly constructed, but with less repetition of each rhyme; and entitled, from the words of the challenge with which it concludes, Ghata carpara.

## आलम्ब्यचाम्बुतृषितःकरकोशापेयं भावानुरन्नवनितामुरतेःःयेयं । जीयेययेनकविनायमके:परेण तभ्मेवहेयमुदवंघटकर्परेण था

"Thirsty and touching water to be sipped from the hollow palms of my hands, I swear by the loves of sprightly damsels, that I will carry water in a broken pitcher for any poet by whom I am surpassed in rhymes."

However, the epic poem of MAGHA, which will be mentioned more particularly under the next head, contains a specimen of similar alliteration and rhyme; the last fourteen stanzas of the sixth canto (descriptive of the seasons) being constructed with like terminations to each half of the stanza. Instances will also be cited from Bháravi's poem hereafter noticed.
The following example of a species of the Áryá metre is taken from the preface of the Nalbdaya.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Áryá gíti (8 feet). } \\
\text { Asti sa rájá níté } \\
\text { Rámákhyó, yó gatíh pará jáníté, } \\
\text { yasya rarájá 'nité } \\
\text { ratnáni janah kule dharájání 'té. }
\end{gathered}
$$

 यस्यरराजानीतेरत्नानिजनःकुलेधराजानीते ॥
" The king celebrated under the name of Ráma,** exists, who is conversant with the supreme ways of moral conduct ; in whose family, exempt from calamity and enriched with the gems of the earth, dependants flourish." 1.5.

The next is taken from Damayanti's lamentation on finding herself deserted by her husband Nala. It is in the same species of metre.
26. Tatra, padé vyálínám,
at'ha vibhrántam vané cha dévyá, 'linám tanu-vrĭndé vyálínám
tatin dad'háné, tayá 'spadé vyálinám.
27. Véga-balá 'pasitayá,
véńyá, Bhaimí yutá lalápá 'sitayá.
" Nrïpa! sa-calúpá 'sitayá
hatıá 'rín, bándhaván cilá 'pási tayá.
28. Sa cat'ham mána-vanánám,
nyáyavid! ácharasi sévyamána-vanánám, dhrǐta-símá navanánám,
dáránáam tyágam, anupamá! 'navanánám.
29. Para-critam état twénah [tu énak]
smarámi, tan na smrìtó 'si mé tattwéna, dbsha-samétatwéna
pradushayé ná 'tra sambhramé tat twéna! [twá, ina!?"
तत्रपदेयालीनामथविभ्रान्तंवनेचदेयालीनां १ तरूवृन्देयालीनांततिन्द्धानेतयास्पदेयालीनां ः

[^39]
## वेगबलापासितयावेण्याभेमीयुताललापासितया।

 नृपसकलापासितयाहत्वारीन्बांधवान्किलापासितया $n$ सकथंमानवनानांन्यायविदावरमिसेयमानवनानां।धृतसीमानवनानांदाराणांट्यागमनुपमानवनानां ः परकृतमेतत्वेनःः सरामितन्नस्मृतोसिमेतन्वेन। दोषसमेतत्वेनप्रदूषयेनाजसंश्रमेतत्वेन ः
" Then the princess wandered in the forest, an abode of serpents, crowded with trees which resound with the sweet buzz of bees, the resort of flocks of birds. With her dark hair dishevelled through her haste, Bhaimi thus lamented: ' King! thou slayest foes, but defendest thy kindred, with thy quiver and thy sword. Unrivalled in excellence and conversant with morality, how hast thou practised the desertion of a wife proud but left helpless in a forest ; thus rendering thyself the limit of praise? But I consider this evil to be the act of another, and do not charge thee with it: I do not blame thee, my husband, as in fault for this terror.'" 3. 26-29.
In the passage here cited, some variations in the reading, and greater differences in the interpretation occur; with which it is, however, unnecessary to detain the reader. After consulting several scholia, the interpretation which appeared preferable has been selected. The same mode will be followed in subsequent quotations from other poems.
II. Mátrách'haudas, or metre regulated by quantity.

## 1. Vaitálíya.

Another sort of metre, regulated by the proportion of mátrás or syllabic instants, is measured by the time of the syllables exclusively; without noticing, as in the ganach'handas, the number of feet. It is therefore denominated mátrách'handas, and the chief metre of this kind is named Vaitálíya. It is a tetrastich, or strophe of four verses, the first and third containing the time of fourteen short syllables, and the second and fourth sixteen. The laws of its construction impose that each verse shall end in a cretic and iambic, or else in a dactyl and spondee,* or by bacchius. $\dagger$ In regard to the remaining moments, which are six in the odd verses, and eight in the even verses of the strophe, it must be observed as a general rule, that neither the second and third, nor the fourth and fifth moments should be combined in the same long syllable; nor, in the second and fourth verses, should the sixth mátrá be combined with the seventh. That general rule however admits of exceptions, and the name of the metre varies accordingly. $\ddagger$

Although the Vaitálíya regularly consist of alternate

[^40]short and long verses, it may be varied by making the stanza consist either of four short or four long verses, admitting at the same time the exception just now hinted.*

The following is an example of a stanza composed in a species of this metre:

## Vaitálíya (Pravrìttaca).

> Idam, Bharata-vanśa-bhúbhrittám, śruyatám, śruti-manobrasáyanam, pavitram, adhicam, śubhódayam, Vyása-vactra-cat'hitam, Pravrĭttacam.

" Listen to this pure, auspicious, and pleasing history of the kings of the race of Bharata, as uttered from the mouth of Vyisa."

Here, as in most of the examples given by the commentator Heldyudha, and by other writers on prosody, the name of the metre occurs, but with a different acceptation. Where the stanza has the appearance of being a quotation (as in the present instance), it might be conjectured that the denomination of the measure was originally assumed from the example; and this conjecture would appear probable, wherever the name (as is frequently the case) has no radical meaning connected with the subject of metre. But, in many instances, the radical interpretation of the word is pertinent, and has obviously suggested its application as a term of prosody; and the stanza, which is given as an example, must therefore have been purposely con-

[^41]structed to exhibit the metre by words in which its denomination is included. This is confirmed by the circumstance of some of the words being incompatible with the measure which they designate : and, in such cases, the author apologizes on that ground for not exhibiting the name in the example.

The Vaitáliyu metre has been employed by some of the most eminent poets; for instance, in the epic poem of Migha, the sixteenth canto of which is chiefly in this measure, as the twentieth and last canto is in that species of it which is called Aupach'handasica.

The work here mentioned is an epic poem, the subject of which is the death of Śśsupála slain in war by Cry̌bhńa : it is entitled Sísupála badha, but is usually cited under the name of its author, whose designation, with praises of his family, appears in the concluding stanzas of the poem. Yet, if tradition may be trusted, MAgha, though expressly named as the author, was the patron, not the poet. As the subject is heroic, and even the unity of action well preserved, and the style of the composition elevated, this poem is entitled to the name of epic. But the Indian taste for descriptive poetry, and particularly for licentious description, has disfigured even this work, which is otherwise not undeserving of its high reputation. The two first cantos and the last eight are suitable to the design of the poem; but the intermediate ten, describing the journey of Cryshéa with a train of amorous damsels, from Drváracá to Indraprast'ha, is misplaced, and in more than one respect exceptionable.

The argument of the poem is as follows. In the first canto Náreda, commissioned by Indra, visits Cayshéa and incites him to war with his cousin, but mortal enemy, Śsíupíla king of the Chédis. In the second, Crǐshía consults with his uncle and brother, whether war should be
immediately commenced，or he should first assist $\mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{U}}$－ dhisht＇hira in completing a solemn sacrifice which had been appointed by him．The result of the consultation is in favour of the latter measure；and accordingly，in the third canto，Crishría departs for Yudhishf＇hira＇s ca－ pital．In the thirteenth he arrives and is welcomed by the Pańgatas．In the following canto the sacrifice is begun； and in the next，Siśupála，impatient of the divine honours paid to Crishńa，retires with his partisans from the place of sacrifice．A negociation ensues，which is however ineffec－ tual，and both armies prepare for action．This occupies two cantos．In the eighteenth both armies issue to the field of battle，and the conflict commences．The battle continues in the next canto，which describes the discomfiture and slaughter of Śsíupála＇s army．In the last canto，the king，grown desperate，dares Crǐshía to the combat． They engage，and in the Indian manner fight with super－ natural weapons．Śsupaila assails his enemy with ser－ pents，which the other destroys by means of gigantic cranes． The king has recourse to igneous arms，which Crishén extinguishes by a neptunian weapon．The combat is pro－ longed with other miraculous arms，and finally Crǐshńa slays Śśsupila with an arrow．

The following example is from a speech of Śsiśupala＇s ambassador，in reply to a discourse of Sátyaci，brother of Crishśa，at an interview immediately preceding the battle．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { विविनतिनबुद्धिद्धुरध: } \\
& \text { स्वयमेवस्वहितृपृथग्जनः । } \\
& \text { यदुदीरितमपदःपरे - } \\
& \text { नीविजानातितद दुतंमहत् n३民゙ఇ }
\end{aligned}
$$

प्रमिमीते नुभवादृते $\times$ ल्पधी: $780 \pi$ कुशलंखलुनुम्यमेवत -

डचनंकृष्णयदभ्यधामहं ।
उपदेशपराःपरेष्रपि
स्वविनाशाभिमुखेषुसाधव: ท८१॥
उभयंयुगपन्मयोदितं
त्वरयासांत्वमथेतरचते ।
प्रविभज्यपृथड्मनीषया
स्वगुणंयत्किलतत्करिथसि П४२ः अथवाभिनिविष्टबुद्धिषु

व्रजतिवर्धकृतांमुभाषितं।
रविरागिषुशीतरोचिषः
करजालंकमलाकरेष्विव 78 ₹ः
" A low man, poor in understanding, does not perceive his own advantage: that he should not comprehend it when shown by others, is surprising. The wise, of themselves, know the approach of danger, or they put trust in others: but a foolish man does not believe information without personal experience. The proposal which I made to thee, Czĭshía, was truly for thy benefit: the generous are ready to advise even their enemies bent on their destruc-
tion. Peace and war have been offered at the same time by me; judging their respective advantages, thou wilt choose between them. Yet good advice addressed to those whose understanding is astray, becomes vain, like the beams of the cold moon directed towards lakes eager for the warm rays of the sun." 16.39-43.

Another passage of the same poem is here subjoined as a specimen of a different species of this metre. It is the opening of the last canto, where Śsisupíla, impatient of the discomfiture of his troops and those of his allies, dares Cryshís to single combat.

## Aupach'handasica. मुखमुल्लसितत्रिरेखमुच्चेfिदुरश्रयुगभीषणंदधानः । समितावितिविक्रमानमृथन् गतभीराद्वतचेदिशादमुरारिं $\pi$

Muc'ham ullasita-tri-réc'ham uchchair
bhidura-bhrrı-yuga-bhíshanan dadhánah, Samitáv iti vicramán amrišhyan, gatabhír, áhwata Chédirát Murárim.
" Raising his head, and with a countenance terrible by its forked brow and wrinkled forehead, the king of the Chédis, impatient of the prowess thus displayed in battle, banished fear, and challenged the foe of Mura to the fight." 20.1.

A further example of the same metre is the second stanza of the following extract from the Cirátárjuníya* of Bháravi. The remaining stanzas exhibit variety of measure, with two instances of singular alliteration.

[^42]The subject of that celebrated poem is Arjuna's obtaining celestial arms from Śiva, Indra, and the rest of the gods, to be employed against Durybdhana. It is by a rigid observance of severe austerities in the first instance, and afterwards by his prowess in a conflict with Siva (in the disguise of a mountaineer), that Arjuna prevails. This is the whole subject of the poem; which is ranked with the Cumára and Raghu of Cálidísa, the Naishadhíya of Śrifarsha, and Magha's epic poem, among the six excellent compositions in Sanscrǐt. The sixth is the Méghudúta, also ascribed to Cílidísa; and, on account of its excellence, admitted among the great poems (Mahácávya), notwithstanding its brevity.

## अनुचरेणधनाधिपतेरथा <br> नगविलोकनविस्मितमानसः । सजगदेवचनंप्रियमादरान्मुखरतावसरेहिविराजते ११६ः अलमेषविलेकितःःजानां <br> सहमासंततिमंहमाविहन्नुं। घनवर्शसहम्धेवकुर्वन् <br> हिमगोरेरचलाधिप:शिरोभि: п१७п इहढुरधिगमे:किज्ञिदेवागमे: <br> सततममुतरंवर्णयन्न्यन्तरं अमुमतिविपिनंवेददिग्बापिनं पुरषमिवपरंपद्योेनिःपरं ท9เท रचिरपल्लवपष्पलतागृहै <br> रपपसमज्नलजेर्जलराशिभिः ।

## नयनिसन्ततमुत्मुकतामयं

 धृतिमतीरूपकान्तमपिस्तियः n१९ई मुलभैस्सदानयवतायवता निधिगुलकाधिपरमे:परमे: ? अमुनाधने:क्षितिभृतातिभृता समतीव्यभातिजगतीजगती १२०॥- The stanzas, which contain alliteration, are here copied in Roman characters.

18. Tha duradhigamaih
cinchid évágamaih
satatam asutaram
varńayantyantaram.
Amum ativipinam
véda digvyápinam
purusham iva param
Padmaybnih param.
19. Sulabhaih sadá nayavatáa 'yavatá
nidhi-guhyacádhipa-ramaih paramaih
amuná dhanaih cshitibhrǐtá 'tibhrǐtá samatítya bháti jagatí jagatí.
'Then Arjuna, admiring the mountain in silent astonishment, was respectfully addressed by his conductor, Cuvera's attendant : for even loquacity is becoming in its season.
" "This mountain with its snowy peaks rending the cloudy sky in a thousand places, is, when viewed, able to remove at once the sins of man. An imperceptible something within it, the wise ever demonstrate to exist by proofs difficultly apprehended. But Brahmía alone thoroughly knows this vast and inaccessible mountain, as he alone
knows the supreme soul. With its lakes overspread by the bloom of lotus, and overshadowed by arbours of creeping plants whose foliage and blossoms are enchanting, the pleasing scenery subdues the hearts of women who maintained their steadiness of mind even in the company of a lover. By this happy and well governed mountain, the earth, filled with gems of easy acquisition and great excellence, delightful to the god of riches, seems to surpass both rival worlds." ${ }^{*}$ 5.16-20.

## 2. Mátrásamaca.

The metre denominated Mátrásamaca consists of four verses, each of which contains the quantity of sixteen short syllables; and in which the last syllable must be a long one; and the ninth syllabic moment must be in general detached from the eighth and tenth, and be exhibited of course by a short syllable: if the twelfth be so likewise, the metre is distinguished by another name; or if the fifth and eighth remain short, the denomination is again changed. The last sort of metre is varied by deviating from the rule respecting the ninth moment; and another variety exhibits the fifth, eighth, and twelfth moments by short syllables $\dagger$. These five varieties of the metre called Mátrásamaca may be variously combined in the same stanza; and in that

[^43]case the measure is denominated Pádáculaca; a name which is applied with greater latitude in Prácrit prosody, to denote a tetrastich wherein each verse contains sixteen moments, without any other restriction as to the number and place of the long and short syllables.

A poem inserted in the first volume of Asiatic Researches* is a specimen of the variety which this sort of metre admits. In a collection of tales entitled Vétála panchavinśati, the author, Śsivadisa, has quoted several stanzas of that poem intermixed with others, in which the measure is still more varied : and I may here remark, that the introduction of rhyme into Sanscrit verse is not peculiar to this anapæstic metre: Jayadeva has adopted it with success in several other sorts of lyric measure, and it is frequent in Sanscritt pootry composed in any species of Prácrit metre.

## 3. Gítyáryá.

Another species of metre regulated by quantity is named Gítyáryá. Like the preceding, it is a tetrastich, in which each verse consists of sixteen mátrás or moments, but all expressed by short syllables. In other words the stanza contains sixty-four short syllables distributed into four verses. From the mixture of verses of this description with others consisting exclusively of long syllables, arises another metre, distinguished into two sorts, according as the first couplet in the stanza consists of short syllables and the second of long; or, conversely, the first long and the second short. $\dagger$ The Gítyáryá may be further varied by making the last syllable of each couplet long and all the rest short; at the

[^44]same time reducing both couplets to twenty-nine moments ; or the first only to that measure, and the second to thirtyone; or the first couplet to thirty, while the second contains thirty-two.*

## 4. Prácrīt measures.

The foregoing are all comprehended under the general designation of Játi : and besides these, which are noticed in treatises on Sanscrǐt prosody, other kinds belonging to the class of metre regulated by quantity, are specified by writers on Prácrǐt prosody. They enumerate no less than forty-two kinds, some of which comprehend many species and varieties. The most remarkable, including some of those already described as belonging to Sanscrit prosody, are the following, of which instances are frequent in Prácritt, and which are also sometimes employed in Sanscrĭt poetry.

A stanza of four verses, contaiming alternately thirteen and eleven moments (and scanned $6+4+3$ and $6+4+1$ ), is named either Dbhá $\dagger$ (S. Dwipat'há) or Sbrat̂́t'há (S. Sauráshíta), according as the long verse precedes the short one, or the contrary. This metre, of which no less than twenty-three species bear distinct names (from forty-eight short syllables to twenty-three long and two short), is very commonly used in Hindí poetry. As an instance of it, the work of Birárilíl may be mentioned, which consists of seven hundred couplets (sat saï) all in this measure. It is a collection of descriptive poetry; of which CrYshńa, sporting with Radhí and the Gbpis, is the hero. The following example is from that celebrated author.

[^45]
# मकराकृतगोपालकेकुण्डलय्यलकतकान 1 धम्योमनोहियगढसमरओढीलसतनिसान ॥ 

Macarácrita Gbpála cé cuńdala jhalacata cána, Dhasyb manbkiya gadha samara: áyod́hí lasata nisána.

"The dolphin-shaped ring, which glitters in G6píla's ear, may be taken for the symbol of Cupid suspended at the gate, while the god is lodged in his heart."

To understand this stanza it must be remarked, that the symbol of the Indian cupid is the aquatic animal named Macara (which has in the Hindu zodiac the place of Capricom). It is here translated dolphin, without however supposing either the deliverer of Arion, or any species of dolphin (as the term is appropriated in systems of natural history), to be meant.

The Gát'há or Gáhá has been already noticed as a name of the Áryá measure in Prácrǐt prosody. Including under this as a general designation the seven species of it, with all their numerous varieties, it is no uncommon metre in Prácrǐt poetry. A collection of amatory verses ascribed to the famous monarch Śsilivinana, comprising seven hundred stanzas,* and purporting to be a selection from many thousands by the same author, is exclusively in metre of this kind. The introductory verse intimates, that
" Seven hundred couplets (gáhás) are here selected out of ten millions of elegant couplets composed by the poet Hala."

Hála is a known title of Śliliváhana, and is so explained both here and in a subsequent passage by the

[^46]scholiast Gangádhara bhaffa. It is not, however, probable, that he really composed those verses: and it would be perhaps too much to conjecture, that the true author of them was patronized by that monarch, whose existence as an Indian sovereign has been brought in doubt.
The metre called Mahárásht́ra(in Prácrǐt, Marahat́táa) is a tetrastich, of which each verse contains twenty-nine mátrás, scanned by one foot of six, and five of four; with a terminating trochee. It has pauses at the eighteenth and twenty-ninth mátrás. This measure is evidently denominated from the country which gives name to the Marahatita nation : as another species, beforementioned, takes its designation from Sauráshítra or Sóraťt'ha.* The circumstance is remarkable.

Another tetrastich, which it is requisite to notice, is denominated Rblá. Each verse contains twenty-four mátrás: and this species of metre admits twelve varieties, from twenty-four short syllables to eleven long and two short, bearing distinct names.

The Shatpadicá (Pr. Ch'happäá) is a stanza of six verses, arranged in a tetrastich and couplet; the first termed Cávya, and the second Ullála. In the tetrastich, each verse contains twenty-four moments (scanned $2+$ five times $4+2$, or else $6+$ four times $4+2$ ) with a pause at the eleventh moment; and each verse of the couplet contains twenty-eight moments, with a pause at the fifteenth. The varieties are extremely numerous, according to the

[^47]number and the places of the long and short syllables. No fewer than forty-five variations of the tetrastich, and seventy-one of the whole stanza, have separate names. They are distinguished by the number of short and long syllables (from 152 short to 70 long and 12 short in the whole stanza, or from 96 short to 44 long and 8 short in the tetrastich). The following example is extracted from the Pingala vritti.

## Ch'happäá or Shatpadicá.

Pindhüu diàha sańñáha; báha uppara pac'hc'hara daï, Banclhu samadi, raña dhaläu. Sámi Hammíra baäna laï, Ud̛uu ńaha ; paha bhamäu; c'hagga rïu sísa hi jháläu. Pac'hc'hara pac'hc'hara, t̂'hélli pélli, pabbaï appáräu. Hammíra cajja Jajjalla bhaña, cbháñala mahu maha jaläu.
Sulatána sísa carabála daï, téjji calévara, dia chaläu. विंधडदिनसषाहबाहठप्परपर्खर्दर्द ? बन्धुसमदिरणधलडसामिहम्मीरबअणलद्र त उडुडणहपहभमउखग्गरिउसीसहिसाल 1 परू्खरपख्यरठेक्लिपेस्निपच्च अअप्पारड ॥ इम्मीरकड्जजन्डल्लभणकोहाणलमहुमहजलड 1 मुलतानसीसकरबालद्इतेज्ञाकलेवरदिअचलउत

Jajuala, general of Hammira's forces, taking the field against the Muhammedan emperor, says vauntingly :
" I put on strong armour, placing barbs on my horse, and taking leave of kinsmen, I hasten to the war. Having received the commands of my master Hammíra, I fly through the sky; I pursue the road; I flourish my scimitar on the head of the foe. Amid the bustle of horse
and foot I scale mountains. In Hammira's cause, Jajjala declares, The fire of wrath burns within me; laying my sword on the head of the Sultan, and abandoning this corporeal frame, I ascend to heaven."

The emperor, whose death was thus vainly promised to Hammira by his braggart general, must have been Sultan Muhammed Khenf, with whom he is stated to have been contemporary, and who reigned from A.D. 1325 to 1351.* Hammía was sovereign of Śácambharí, which, with unfeigned deference for the opinion of Captain Wilford on a geographical question, I still think to be Sámbher :+ and for this simple reason, that the culinary salt brought from the lakes of Sámbher is named in Sanscrit, Śácambharíya lavaña, answering to the Hindí Sámbher läun. It is, however, proper to remark, that maps exhibit a place of the name of Sambhere between Ujjayanı and Indor.

The Utcach'há is a stanza of six verses, each comprising eleven moments (scanned $4+4+3$ ). In admits eight species from sixty-six short syllables to twenty-eight long and ten short.

The Cundalical is composed of one stanza of the metre named D6há, followed by another in the measure called Rolá: the entire stanza consequently comprises eight verses. In this species of metre, rhyme and alliteration are so appropriate ornaments, that it admits the repetition of a complete hemistich or even an entire verse: as in the following example extracted from the Pingala vritti.

## Cundalicá or Cundadäá.

Dhólá márïa Dhilli maha, much'hïa Méch'ha saríra, Pura Jajjallá malla bara, chalia bíra Hammíra.

[^48]ChaFia bíra Hammíra, páä bhara méïni campaï. Diga maga nah ha andhára dhúli súraha raha jhampaï. Diga maga ñaha andhára áńu. C'hurasánaca bllá Davali, damasi vippac'hc'ha: máru Dhillí maha dhbllá.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ढोलामारिअढिलिमहमुख्विअमेछसरीर। } \\
& \text { पुरजज्जस्नामस्सबर चलिअबीरहम्मीर ॥ } \\
& \text { चलिअबीरहम्मीरपाअभरमेद्रणिकंपद्र ? } \\
& \text { दिगमगणहअंधारधूलिमूरहरहघ्यंपद्ः ! } \\
& \text { दिगमगणहअंधारअणुखुरसाणकओल्ला। } \\
& \text { दवलिदमसिविप्पख्व्खमारढिल्नीमहढोल्ना ॥ }
\end{aligned}
$$

" Having made the barbarians faint at the sound of the drum beaten in the midst of Dhilli and preceded by Jajjala, eminent above athlets, the hero Hammira advances; and as the hero Hammira advances, the earth trembles under his feet. The cloud of dust, raised by the march of his multitudes, obscures the chariot of the sun. Darkness spreads with the march of his multitudes. The hostages of the Khorasanian are slain; the foe is slaughtered, and the drum is beat in the midst of Dhilli."

A stanza of nine verses, composed of one of five with a tetastrich of the metre called D6há subjoined to it, is denominated Raddáa. Here the stanza of five contains three verses of fifteen moments each, with two of twelve and eleven interposed. The distribution of the feet, together with a restriction as to the terminating one, varies in each verse: and a difference in the regulation of the feet gives rise to six varieties which have distinct appellations.

The Chatushpadicú (Pr. Chäupaïa or Chaupáï) is a stanza of sixteen verses distributed into four tetrastichs, in which each verse contains thirty moments (scanned seven
times $4+2$, and terminated by a long syllable. This measure is of very frequent use in the poetry of the modern languages. The Rámáyańa of Tulaśidisa, in seven cantos, a poem held in great estimation by Hindus of the middle tribes, is composed chiefly in a similar metre under the same name (Chaupái), and containing the same number of verses (sixteen) in the stanza. It alternates with the D6há, and very rarely gives place in that poem to any other metre.

In this metre the stanza contains the greatest number of verses of any admitted into Prácrít prosody. The other measures regulated by quantity are tetrastichs, except the Ghatita and certain other couplets noticed at the foot of the page;* some of which might have been ranked with more propriety under the next head of uniform metre.

One other measure which is placed in this class, but which belongs rather to another, remains to be noticed. It is an irregular stanza of four verses, containing alternately seventeen and eighteen syllables, with no regulation of their length or of the quantity of the verse or stanza. It is termed Gandha, or in Prácrǐt Gandhána.

The rest of the Prácrit metres may be sought in the synoptical tables subjoined to this essay.

The present may be a proper place for noticing a class of poetry which has been even more cultivated in the Pracrit and provincial languages than in Sanscrit. I allude to the erotic poetry of the Hindus.

[^49]On its general character I shall briefly observe, that it is free from the grievous defects of the Hindí poems composed in the style and metre of Persian verse ; but it wants elevation of sentiment and simplicity of diction. The passion, which it pictures, is sensual, but the language refined, with some tenderness in the expression and in the thoughts. Among the most celebrated poems in this class may be mentioned the Chaura panchásicá, comprising fifty stanzas, by Chaura, and Amaru śataca, containing twice that number, by Amaru. The first is supposed to be uttered by the poet Chaura, who, being detected in an intrigue with a king's daughter, and condemned to death, triumphs in the recollection of his successful love. The other, which is a collection of unconnected stanzas on amatory topics, is reputed to be the work of the great Śsancara áchárya, composed by him in his youth, before he devoted himself to the study of theology.

Some of the commentators on this poem have attempted to explain it in a devout and mystical sense, on the same principle upon which Jayadeva's lyric poems are interpreted as bearing a religious meaning. The interpretation, however, is too strained to be admitted; and though Jayadeva's intention may have been devout, and his meaning spiritual, Amard, or whoever was the true author of the work bearing this name, is clearly the lover of an earthly mistress.

The most singular compositions in this class of poetry, and for which chiefly a notice of it has been here introduced, are those in which the subject is treated with the studied arrangement and formal precision of the schools. I shall instance the Rasamanjarí of Bhinudatta miśra in Sanscrit, and the works of Matirama and Sundara in Hindf. Here various descriptions of lovers and mis-
tresses distinguished by temper, age, and circumstances, are systematically classed and logically defined, with the seriousness and elaborate precision of scholastic writers. As ridicule was not intended, these poems are not humorous but trifling : and I should not have dwelt on the subject, if their number, and the recurrence of them in different languages of India, were not evidence that the national taste is consulted in such compositions.
III. Varría vritta; metre regulated by the number of syllables.

The next sort of metre is that which is measured by the number of syllables; it is denominated Acsharach'handas or Varńa vritta, in contradistinction to the preceding kinds which are regulated by quantity; and it may be subdivided into three sorts, according as the verses composing the stanza are all similar, or the alternate alike, or all dissimilar.

This also is a stanza of four verses (pádas), each containing an equal number of syllables, the length of which is regulated by special rules. The number of syllables varies from twenty-four to a hundred and four, in each strophe: this is, from six to twenty-six in each verse. There are indeed names in Prácrǐt prosody for verses from one to five syllables, and instances of Sanscrit verse containing a higher number than above stated, viz. from twenty-seven to one less than a thousand. But these constitute distinct classes of metre. Between the limits first-mentioned, twenty-one kinds receive different appellations appropriated to the number of syllables contained in the stanza.

Each kind comprehends a great variety of possible metres, according to the different modes in which long and short syllables, as well as pauses, may be distributed; and
since the four quarters of each stanza may be either all alike, or only the alternate similar, or all different, the variety of possible metres is almost infinite. Pingala, however, gives directions for computing the number of species, and for finding their places, or that of any single one, in a regular enumeration of them; or conversely, the metre of any species of which the place is assigned: and rules have been given even for calculating the space which would be requisite for writing down all the various species.

In the first class or kind, wherein the verse consists of six syllables, sixty-four combinations are computed on the syllables of each verse; $4,096^{*}$ on those of the half stanza; and $16,777,216 \dagger$ on the twenty-four syllables which constitute the complete stanza of this class. In the last of the twenty-one kinds, $67,108,864$ combinations are computed on twenty-six syllables within each verse; nearly $4,503,621,000,000,000$, on fifty-two syllables ; and more than $20,282,388,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000$, on a hundred and four syllables which form the stanza. $\ddagger$

The different sorts, which have been used by poets, are few in comparison with the vast multitude of possible metres. Still they are too numerous to be all described at full length. I shall therefore select, as specimens, those sorts of metre which are most frequently employed, or

[^50][^51]which require particular notice; referring for the rest to the subjoined tables, in which the various kinds are succinctly exhibited by single letters descriptive of feet scanned in the Indian and in the Latin mode.

In the best Sanscrit poems, as those of Calidisa, Bharavi, Śrifarsha, Mágha, \&cc. the poet usually adheres to the same, or at least to similar metre, throughout the whole of the canto;* excepting towards the close of it, where the metre is usually changed in the last two or three stanzas, apparently with the intention of rendering the conclusion more impressive. Sometimes, indeed, the metre is more irregular, being changed several times within the same canto, or even altering with every stanza.

The Rághava páńdavíya, by Cavirían, $\dagger$ is an instance of a complete poem, every canto of which exhibits variety of metre. This extraordinary poem is composed with studied ambiguity; so that it may, at the option of the reader, be interpreted as relating the history of Rima and other descendants of Daśarat'ha, or that of Yudishf'hira and other sons of Páńou. The example of this singular style of composition had been set by Subandiu in the story of Vásavadattá, and Banabiafta in his unfinished work entitled Cádambarí; as is hinted by CAvirías. Both these works, which like the Daśacumára of Dańbi, are prose compositions in poetical language, and therefore reckoned among poems, do indeed exhibit continual instances of terms and phrases employed in' a double sense : but not, like the Rághava páńdavíya, two distinct stories told in the same words.

[^52]The following passage will sufficiently explain the manner in which the poem is composed. The first stanza is of the mixed sort of metre named $U_{p a j a ́ t i, ~ w h i c h ~ w i l l ~ b e ~ i m-~}^{\text {in }}$ mediately described; the second is in one of the measures composing it, termed Upéndravajra.

## मानुःश्रियंसंदधदिन्दुमत्या: <br> म्लाघ्यःशरत्कालड्रवोड़पंत्तःः । असोप्रजापालनदक्षभावाद जस्य चक्रेमनस:प्रमोदं $\Pi$ ५० ॥ विचित्रवीर्यम्यदिवंगतम्य पितुःसराज्यंप्रतिपद्यबाल्ये ? पुरीमयोध्यांधृतराष्ट्रद्रां सहस्तिशोभांमुखमध्युवास ๆ 4 ११

50. Mátuh śriyan sandadhad Indumatyáh ślághyah s̊aratcála ivbdúupanctéh, Asau, prajápálanadacshabhávád, Ajasya chacré manasah prambdam.
51. Vichitravíryasya divan gatasya
pituh sa rájyam pratipadya bályé,
Purím Aybdhyám, Dhritráshítrabhadrám, sa hastis6bhám suc'ham adhyuvása.
" Having the beauty of his mother Indumati, and admirable like the dewy season when it enjoys the beauty of the stars, he (Dasarat'ha) made glad the mind of Aja* by his skill in the protection of the people. Succeeding in youth to the kingdom of his variously valiant father, who departed for heaven, he dwelt happily in the
[^53]H 2
city of Aybdhyá, which was adorned with elephants and upheld the prosperity of his realm."

Otherwise interpreted the same passage signifies,
" Having the beauty of his mother, and admirable like the dewy season when it enjoys the beauty of the stars and of the moon, he (PAŃbu) made glad the heart of the unborn god by his skill in the protection of creatures. Succeeding in youth to the kingdom of his father Vichitravirya* who departed for heaven, he dwelt happily in the peaceful city of Hastinápura auspiciously inhabited by Dhrittaráshfra." 1.50. and 51.

To proceed with the subject. 'In general the different sorts of verse which are contained in the subjoined synoptical table of uniform metre, are used singly, and the stanza is consequently regular: but some of the species, differing little from each other, are intermixed. Thus the Indravajra, measured by a dactyl between two epitrites (third and second), and the Upéndravajra, which begins with a diiambus, may be mixed in the same stanza. This sort of mixt metre (an example of which has been just now exhibited) is denominated Upajáti: it of course admits fourteen variations; $\dagger$ or, with the regular stanzas, sixteen. The relief which it affords from the rigorous laws of the uniform stanza, renders it a favourite metre with the best poets. It has been much employed by Calidása, in whose poem on the birth and marriage of Párvati, three out of the seven cantos which compose it are in this metre; as are eight out of nineteen in his heroic poem on the glory of the race of Raghu.

The last mentioned work, which is entitled Raghuvanśa,

[^54]and is among the mostadmired compositions in the Sanscritt tongue, contains the history of RAma and of his predecessors and successors, from Dilifa father of Raghu, to Agniverí́a a slothful prince who was succeeded by his widow and posthumous son. The first eight cantos relate chiefly to Raghu, with whose history that of his father Dilípa, and of his son Aja, is nearly connected. The next eight concern RAma, whose story is in like manner intimately connected with that of his father Daśarat'ha and of his sons Cuśa and Lava. The three concluding cantos regard the descendants of Cuśa, from Atit'hi to Agnivería, both of whom are noticed at considerable length ; each being the subject of a single canto, in which their characters are strongly contrasted; while the intermediate princes, to the number of twenty, are crowded into the intervening canto, which is little else than a dry genealogy.

The adventures of RAma are too well known to require any detailed notice in this place. The poet has selected the chief circumstances of his story, and narrates them nearly as they are told in the mythological poems and theogonies, but with far greater poetical embellishments. Indeed, the general style of the poems esteemed sacred (not excepting from this censure the Rámáyańa of VAlmici,) is flat, diffuse, and no less deficient in ornament than abundant in repetitions; and it is for this reason that examples have been selected, for the present essay, exclusively from the celebrated profane poems. Ráma's achievements have been sung by the profane as frequently as by the sacred poets. His story occupies a considerable place in many of the Purárias, and is the sole object of Válmíci's poem, and of another entitled Adhyátma Rámáyańa, which is ascribed to VyAsa. A fragment of a Rámáyańa, attributed to Baudháyana is current in the southern part of the Indian peninsula; and the great
philosophical poem, usually cited under the title of Ybga vasishťha, is a part of a Rámáyańa, comprising the education of the devout hero. Among profane poems on the same subject, the Raghuvanśa and Bhatticárya with the Rághava páńdavíya beforementioned, are the most esteemed in Sanscrĭt, as the Rámáyańa of Tulasídása and Rámachandricá of Césivadisa are in Hindí. The minor poets, who have employed themselves on the same topic, both in Sanscrǐt and in the Prácritt and provincial dialects, are by far too numerous to be here specified.
The other poem of Cálidisa abovementioned, though entitled Cumára sambhava or origin of Cumara (who is son of Páryati), closes with Parvati's wedding. It has the appearance of being incomplete; and a tradition runs, that it originally consisted of twenty-two books. However, it relates the birth of the goddess as daughter of mount Himálaya, and celebrates the religious austerities by which she gained Śsiva for her husband; after Candarpa, or Cupid, had failed in inspiring Śriva with a passion for her, and had perished (for the time) by the fiery wrath of the god. The personages, not excepting her father, the snowy mountain, are described with human manners and the human form, with an exact observance of Indian costume.

The following stanza from a poem in mixed language upon the same subject (the birth of Cumára), is selected as a further example of $U p a j a ́ t i$ metre, and as a specimen of the manner in which Sanscrĭt and Prácrǐt are sometimes intermixed. It is quoted for that purpose in the Pingalavrǐtti.

> बालःकुमारःसछ्ठमुंउधारी
> उपाअहीणा हमु एक्रणारी।
> अहणिशंखाद्यविषंभिखारी
> गतिर्भवित्री किलकाहमारी त

Bálah cumárah; sa ch'ha-muńda-dhárí. Upää-híná hamu écca-ńárí.
Ahar-nísíam c'háä visham bhic'hárí. Gatir bhavitrí cila cá hamárí.
Déví, grieving over her infant son Cumára or Scanda, says,
"The child is an infant, but he has six mouths [to be fed]: I am a helpless, solitary female: night and day my mendicant husband swallows poison: what resource is there, alas, for me?"

An instance of the same measure used in the Marahatta (Maháráshíta) language is quoted by the commentator on the Vritta retnácara. It appears, however, from the rhymes, that the verse is there subdivided by a pause after the fifth syllable.

The variety of the Upajáti metre is increased by the further mixture of two sorts of iambic measure named Vanśast'ha and Indravanśá. The first is composed of a choriambus between two diiambi; in the second, the first dissyllable is a spondee instead of an iambic. Instances of this mixt metre occur in VAlmici's Rámáyana,* in the Śrí Bhágavata puráńa, $\uparrow$ and in a metaphysical and theological drama entitled Prabbdha chandrbdaya. $\ddagger$

The following example from the drama now mentioned, exhibits the combination of those four sorts of metre in a single stanza.

## विद्याप्रबोधोदय जन्मभूमि वाराणसीमुनिपुरीनिरत्यया।

[^55]
# अत:कुलेच्छेद्रविधिंविधित्सु निवस्तुमत्रेकतिनित्यमेवसः ॥ 

Vidyá-prabbdhodaya-janma-bhúmir, Váránáasí mucti-purí niratyayá Atah culbchchhéda-vidhim vidhitsur nivastum atréch'hati nityam éva sah.

"Váránasí, the indestructible city of eternal salvation, is the native land of science and intellect: hence, one desirous of observing the precepts by which a continuance of family is cut off [and final beatitude obtained], is solicitous to dwell there continually."

The same term (Upajáti), as descriptive of mixt metre, has been also applied to the intermixture of two spondaic measures named Vátórmí and Sálinı́; which are very similar, the first having an anapæst, the other a cretic, between a dispondeus and second epitritus, with a pause at the fourth syllable. Analogous to the first of these are the Rat'hbddhatá and Swágatá, measured by an anapæst preceded by two trochees, and followed in the one by two iambics, and in the other by an ionic. These and the preceding are metres in very common use with the best poets; and instances of them will occur in subsequent extracts, chosen for the sake of other measures with which they are joined.

The several sorts of metre above described are, like the two last, also employed separately : for instance, the first cantos of the Naishadhíya of Śrifarsha, and Cirátárjuniya of Bháravi, as well as that of the epic poem of MAgha, are in the iambic measure called Vanśast'ha; which recurs again in other parts of the same poems ; especially in the Ciráta, of which four books out of eighteen are in this measure.

The first of the works just now mentioned is a poem
in twenty-two cantos, on the marriage of Nala, king of Nishadha, and Damayanti, daughter of Bhima, king of Viderbha. It is a favourite poem on a favourite subject; and though confessedly not free from faults, is by many esteemed the most beautiful composition in the Sanscrit language. The marriage of Nala and Damayanti, his loss of his kingdom by gaming, through the fraudulent devices of Cali disguised in the human form, his desertion of his wife and his transformation, her distresses, her discovery of him, and his restoration to his proper form and to his throne, are related in another poem already noticed under the title of Nalbdaya. Their adventures likewise constitute an episode of the Mahábhárata,* and are the subject of a novel in prose and verse, by Trivicrama bhaft́a, entitled Nalachampú $\dagger$ or Damayantí cat'ká. Śríharsha's poem, though containing much beautiful poetry according to the Indian taste, is very barren of incident. It brings the story no further than the marriage of Nala and Damayanti, and the description of their mutual affection and happiness, which continues notwithstanding the machinations of Cali. The romantic and interesting adventures subsequent to the marriage, as told in the Nalbdaya, are here wholly omitted; while the poet, with a degree of licentiousness, which is but too well accommodated to the taste of his countrymen, indulges in glowing descriptions of sensual love.

The following example of Vansast'ha metre is from the introduction of the Naishadhíya. To render the author's meaning intelligible, it may be necessary to premise, that the mere celebrating of Nala and Damayanti is reckoned

[^56]sufficient to remove the taint of a sinful age, and is so declared in a passage of the Mahábhárata.

> Vanáastha metre.
> पवित्रमत्रातनुते जगद्युगे म्मतारसक्षालनयेवयत्कथा । कथंनसामरिरमाविलामपि स्वसेविनीमेवपवित्रयिथति ॥

Pavitram atrátanuté jagad yugé, smrittá, rasu-cshálanayéva yat, cat'há;
Cat'ham na sá mad-giram, ávilám api, swaséviním éva, pavitrayishyati.
" How should a story, which, being remembered, purifies the world in the present age, as it were by an actual ablution, fail of purifying my voice, however faulty, when employed on this narration." 1. 3.

In the following passage from Bháravi's Cirátárjuníya, the last stanza is an example of the Máliní metre, and the preceding one of the Pushpitágra; which will be noticed further on : all the rest are in the'Vanśast'ha measure. It is the close of a reproachful speech of Draupadi to her eldest husband, Yudhishf'hira, inciting him to break the compact with Durybdana, by which the Pá́gavas had engaged to remain twelve years in exile.

इमामहंवेदनतावकोंधियं
विचित्रूपाःखलुचितनृत्तयः १
विचिन्तयन्त्याभवदापदंपरां
रजन्तिचेत:प्रसमंममाधयः ฤ३७॥

## पुराधिर्रढ:शयननंमहाधनं

विबोध्यसेय:स्तुतिगोतिमड़्गलेः 1
अद्रभ्दर्भामधिशारयसस्थलों
जहासिनिद्रामशिवे:शिवारते: ॥३ अनारतंयेमणिपीठशायिना-

वरज्जुयद्राजशिरःः्रजांरजः।
निषोदत्त्तेचरणोवनेषुते
मृगद्विजालूनशिखेषुवर्विषाम n३ङ゙n पुरोपनीतंनृपरामणीयकं

द्विजातिशेषेणयदेतदन्धसा।
तद्यतेवन्यफलाशिनःःरं
परेतिकाशर्ययशसासमंवपु: $180 \%$
द्विषन्निमिनायदियंदशाततः
समूलगुन्मूलयतीवमेमनः 1
परेर पर्य्यासितवीर्यंसंपदां
पराभवेप्युत्मवएवमानिनां $\cap 89$ १ा
विहायशान्तिंनृपधामतत्पुनः
प्रसीदसन्धेहिवधायविड्विषां।
व्रजन्तिशन्रूनवधुयनिःःपृहा:
शमेनसिघिंमुनयेनभूभृतः ฤ४२ఇ
परःसराधामवतांयथेधनाःसुदु:सहंपाप्यनिकारमोदृशंभवादृशायेद धिकुर्वतेपरान्निराश्रयाहन्तहतामनस्विता प४३ःअथक्षमामेवनिरस्तविक्रम -सिरायुपर्येंषिमुखक्यसाधनं।विहायलक्ष्मीपतिलक्ष्मकार्मुकं
जटाधरःसन्जुतुधीहपावरं $188 \%$ नसमयपरिरक्षणंक्षमन्ते
निकृतिपरेषुपरेषुभूरिधाम्नः । अरिषुहिविजयार्थिन:क्षितीशा
विद्धतिसोपधिसन्धिदूषणानि $184 \pi$ विधिसमयनियेगाद्दोप्निसंहारजिसं शिधिलवसुमगाधेमग्नमापत्पयेधो। रिपुतिमिरमुदस्योदीयमानंदिनादो दिनकृतमिवलक्ष्मीस्त्वांसमभ्येतुभूय: 18 हैत

[^57]slumbers by the dismal howlings of shakals. Thy feet, which, resting on a footstool adorned with precious stones, were tinged by the dust of the blossoms in the chaplets worn by prostrate monarchs, now tread the wilderness, where the tips of sharp grass are cropped by the teeth of stags. Thy person, $O$ king, which formerly gained beauty by feeding on the blessed remnant of the feast given to holy men, now wastes with thy glory, while thou feedest on the fruits of the forest. That thou art reduced to this condition by the act of thy enemies, harrows up my soul. To the valiant, whose courage is unsubdued by the foe, misfortune is a triumph. Relinquishing peace, $O$ king, be active, and rouse thy energy for the slaughter of thy foes. Placid saints, not kings, attain perfection, disarming their enemies by patience. If persons such as thee, whose honour is their wealth, who are leaders of the brave, submit to such insupportable disgrace, then is magnanimity destroyed without resource. If, divested of courage, thou deem submission the means of lasting ease, then quit thy bow, the symbol of a sovereign, and becoming a hermit, feed here with oblations the purifying flame. Adherence to the compact is not good for thee, valiant prince, while thy foes compass thy disgrace; for kings, ambitious of victory, scruple not the use of stratagem in treating with enemies. Thee, who by force of fate and time art now sunk in the deep ocean' of calamity, dull with diminished splendour, and slow to enterprise, may fortune again attend, as thou risest like the sun with the new born day, dispelling hostile gloom." 1.37-46.

To return to the enumeration of analogous sorts of metre. A true spondaic metre, named Vidyunmálá, consisting of four spondees, with a pause in the middle of the verse, which virtually divides the tetrastich into a stanza of eight, is often mixed, as before observed, with the metre
termed Gítyáryá, containing the same quantity in a greater number of syllables.

Other measures, also containing the same quantity but in a greater number of syllables, occur among the species of uniform metre. The subjoined note* exhibits several species, in which the verse is divided by the position of the pauses into two parts equal in quantity, and some of them equal in number of syllables. Further instances are also stated in the notes, of metre containing the same quantity similarly reducible to equal feet. $\dagger$ Some of the species of metre which contain a greater number of syllables, are reducible, in conformity to the position of their pauses, to this class. $\ddagger$

All these varieties of metre have a great analogy to the Mátrásamaca and other species before described, which similarly contain the quantity of sixteen short syllables or eight long, reducible to four equal feet.

Among the kinds of metre described at the foot of the preceding paragraphs, the Dbdhaca, Tótaca, and Pramitácshará are the most common. A stanza in the anapestic measure named Pramitácshará, in which each verse exhibits alliteration at its close, has been already quoted

[^58]from the fifth canto of the Cirátárjuníya of Bharivi. The specimen of anapæstic measure Tb́taca, which will be here cited from the close of the Nalbdaya, is a further instance of alliteration introduced into every stanza of this singalar poem.

> Tद́taca. अरिसंहतिरम्यवनेषुशुचां
> पदमापदमापदमापदमा १ मुखदंचयथेवजनायहfरं यतमायतमायतमायतमा १

Ari-sanhatir asya vanéshu śuchám padam ápadum ápad amá 'padamá. Suc'hadan cha yat'haiva janáya Harim yatam áyatamáya tam áyata Má.
" The luckless and despondent crowd of his foes found in the forests a calamitous place of sorrow ; and prosperity was constant to him, who gave happiness to a sincerely affectionate people, as she clings to Hari, who blesses the guileless." 4. 46.

It has been before said, that, in several sorts of metre, the pauses would justify the division of the stanza into a greater number of verses than four, and instances have been shown, where either the number of syllables, or the quantity, would be the same in each verse of a stanza of eight, twelve, or even sixteen short verses. In the following species of metre, the verses of the stanza, subdivided according to the pauses, are unequal.

The Śárdúlavicrídita, a very common metre, of which examples occur in the former volumes of Asiatic Researches,* is a tetrastich, in which the verse consists of

[^59]nineteen syllables divided by the pause inte portions of twelve and seven syllables respectively. The following instance of this metre is from the close of the first book of Mágha's epic poem; where Náreda, having delivered a message from Indra, inciting Ceyshía to war with Śśsuphla, king of the Chédis, departs, leaving the hero highly incensed against his kinsman and enemy.

## ओमिव्युत्तवतो, धशार्ड़िणरतियाहट्यवाचंनभस्तस्मिन्नुत्पतितेपरः:ुरमुनाविन्दो:ग्रियंबिभ्रति। श्रत्रुणामनिशंविनाशपिश्रन्:कुऊस्यचेघंप्रति बोम्नीवम्रुकी क्लेनेवदनेकेतुसकारास्पदंत

> O'm ityuctavat6 ' $t$ 'ha sárngiña, iti vyáhrĭtya váchan, nabhas
> Tasminn utpatité purah sura-munáv ind6h śriyam bibhrati, Śatrunám aniśam vináśa-piśunah, cruddhasya Chaidyam prati, Vyomniva, bhrucutí ch'haléna, vadané cétuśs chacár' áspadam.

"While the divine sage, having delivered this discourse, ascended the sky, bearing on his front the radiance of the moon; the hero, armed with a bow, uttered an expression of assent ; and the frown, which found place on his brow wreakful against the prince of the Chédis, was as a portent in the heavens, foretokening destruction of his foes." 1.75.

The Mandácrántá, which is the metre in which the Méghadúta is composed, has pauses subdividing each verse of seventeen syllables into three portions, containing four, six, and seven syllables respectively : viz. two spondees; two pyrrhichii and an iambic ; a cretic, trochee, and spondee. The Hariní differs from the preceding in trans-
posing the first and second portions of the verse, and making the third consist of an anapæst between two iambics. An instance of it will be subsequently exhibited.

The example of the first mentioned metre, here inserted, is from the Mégha dúta. This elegant little poem, attributed as before observed to CAlidása, and comprising no more than 116 stanzas, supposes a Yacsha or attendant of Cuvera to have been separated from a beloved wife by an imprecation of the god Cuvera, who was irritated by the negligence of the attendant, in suffering the celestial garden to be trodden down by Indra's elephant. The distracted demigod, banished from heaven to the earth, where he takes his abode on a hill on which RAma once sojourned,* entreats a passing cloud to convey an affectionate message to his wife.

Mandácrántá metre.

## जातवंशेभुवनविदितेपुष्करावर्तकानां

## जानामित्वांप्रकृतिपुरषंकामरूपंमघोनः ?

तेनार्थित्वंत्वयिविधिवशाद्रूरबन्धुर्गतो॰हं
याच्चामोघाव रमधिगुणेनाधमेलब्धकामा ॥ संतप्नानांत्वमसिशरणंतत्पयोद प्रियाया:

संदेशेशेमेहरधनपतिक्रोधविष्लेषितस्य । गन्तयातेवसतिरलकानामयक्षेप्व्वराणां

वासोद्यानस्थितहरशिर शन्द्रिकाधोतहर्म्याथ

[^60]VOL. II.
> 6. Játam vanśé, bhuvana-vidité, pushcarávartacánám, Jánámi tıóm, pracrĭti-purushan,cámarúpam,Maghonah. Téná'rt'hitwan, twayi, vidhi-vaśád dúrabandhur, gató 'ham.

Yáchnyá moghá varam adhigunné, nádhamé labdhacámá.
7. Santaptánán twam asi śarańan; tat, payóda, priyáyáh Sandéśam mé hara, dhanapati-cródha-viśléshitasya. Gantavyá té vasatir Alacá náma yacshéśvaránám. Válıyódyána-st'kita-Hara-śiraś-chandricá-dhauta-har-- myá.
" I know thee sprung from the celebrated race of diluvian clouds, a minister of Indra, who dost assume any form at pleasure: to thee I become an humble suitor, being separated by the power of fate from my beloved spouse : a request preferred in vain to the noble is better than successful solicitation to the vile. Thou art the refuge to the inflamed : therefore do thou, O cloud, convey to my beloved a message from me who am banished by the wrath of the god of riches. Thou must repair to Alacá the abode of the lord of Yacshas, a palace of which the walls are whitened by the moonbeams from the crescent on the head of Siva, who seems fixed in the grove without." 6 and 7.

The ŚSc'hariń', also a common metre, distributes seventeen syllables into portions of six and eleven: an iambic and two spondees in the one, and a tribrachys, anaprest, dactyl, and iambic in the other. This is the metre of the Ánanda laharí, a hymn of which Śsancarácharya is the reputed author, and which is addressed to Śsivá, the ŚSacti or energy of Śsiva or Mahádeva. It comprises a hundred stanzas of orthodox poetry held in great estimation by the devout followers of Sancara : the devotional poetry of the Hindus does not usually employ metre of so high an order.

Examples of this measure will be shown in a subsequent
extract from a work of a very different kind: a drama, by Bhavabegti entitled Málatí mádhava.

The Máliní, consisting of fifteen syllables, places two tribrachys and a spondee in the one subdivided portion of the verse, and a cretic, trochee, and spondee, in the other. An instance of it occurs in a former extract from the Cirátárjunaya. The following example of this metre is from the drama abovementioned. The passage is descriptive of a love-sick maid.

Máliní metre. परिमृदितमृणालीम्लानमड़्गेंप्रवृत्तिः कथमपिपरिवारप्रार्थनाभिःक्रियासू । कलयतिचहिमांशोर्निष्कलंकस्यलक्ष्मीमभिनवकरिदन्तच्छेदकान्तःकपोलः १
Parimrǐdita-mri̛náálí-mlánum angam; pravrǐttih Cat'ham api parivára-prárt'hanábhih criyásu. Calayati cha himánśór nishcalancasya lacshmím Abhinava-cari-danta-chchhéda-cántah capblah.
" Her person is weary like bruised threads of a lotos; scarcely can the earnest entreaties of her attendants incite her to any exertion; her cheek, pale as new wrought ivory, emulates the beauty of a spotless moon." 1. 22.

The Praharshiní, containing thirteen syllables, separates a molossus from two pyrrhichii, as many trochees, and a spondee. An example of it will be shown in a subsequent extract from Bhavabhúti's drama.

The Ruchirá, with the same number of syllables, disjoins two iambics from two pyrrhichii, a trochee, and cretic. The opening stanza of the Bhatticávya may serve as an instance of this metre. The poem bearing that title is on the subject of the adventures of Ráma: it is comprised in
twenty-two cantos. Being composed purposely for the practical illustration of grammar, it exhibits a studied variety of diction, in which words anomalously inflected are most frequent. The style, however, is neither obscure nor inelegant; and the poem is reckoned among the classical compositions in the Sanscrit language. The author was Bhartrifari: not, as might be supposed from the name, the celebrated brother of Vicramáditya; but a grammarian and poet, who was son of Śrídhara swimi, as we are informed by one of his scholiasts, Vidyavingde.

> Ruchirá metre. अभून्नृपोविबुधसखःपरंतपः झुतान्वितोदशारथदत्युदाहत्रः ? गुणोर्वरंभुवनहितच्छूलेनयं सनातनःपितरमुपागमत्व्वयं $n$

Abhún nrĭpb, vibudha-sac'hah, parantapah, Śrutánwitb, Daśarat'ha ityudáhrĭtah, Guńair varam, bhuvana-hita-chch'haléna, yam Sanátanah pitaram upágamat swayam.
" He, whom the eternal chose for a father, that he might benefit the world [in a human form], was a king, a friend of the gods, a discomfiter of foes, and versed in science: his name was Daśarat'ha. He was a prince eminent for his virtues." 1.1.
The Suvadaua distributes twenty syllables in three portions of the verse: one containing two spondees and a bacchius; the second four short syllables and an anapæst; the third a spondee, pyrrhichius, and iambic. The Sragdhará, a very common metre, differs from it only in the third portion of the verse, which contains a trochee, spondee, and
bacchius: but here the number of syllables in every subdivision is equal : viz. seven. In all the other instances above described, the subdivisions of the regular verses were unequal.

The following sorts of metre, which are usually employed, have no pauses but at the close of the verse. The Druta vilambitá contains in each verse two anapæsts preceded by three short syllables and a long one, and followed by an iambic. Instances of this measure have been already cited in an extract from the Cirátárjuníya. The Sragviñ́ is measured by a trochee, spondee, and iambic repeated; as the Bhujangaprayátá is by a similar repetition of an iambic, trochee, and spondee. Both sorts of metre are of frequent occurrence in classic poems.

The Vasantatilaca, which consists of a spondee, iambic, tribrachys, dactyl, trochee, and spondee, is one of the metres in most general use. It commonly occurs as a change from other metre. But the whole fifth canto of Mágha's poem is in this measure. The Chaura pancháśicá, a short poem before described, is in the same metre, and so is a pathetic elegy on the death of a beloved wife which occurs in the Bhámaní vilása, a colleçtion of miscellaneous poetry by Jagannát'ha Pańdita rája. It begins thus:

Vasantatilaca.
देवेपरागवद्नशालिनिहंतजाते यातेचसंप्रतिदिवंप्रतिबन्धुरत्ते ? कसमेमनःकथयितासिनिजामवस्थां कश्रीतले:शमयितावचनेस्तवाधिं 介
" Since fate, alas! is become adverse, and the gem of kindred is departed towards heaven, to whom, O my soul,
wilt thou tell thy grief? and who will appease thy anguish with refreshing words?"

The following passage from some Hindí poem, is quoted in Náráyána bhaft́a's commentary on the Vrítta retnácara as a specimen of this metre in the Cányacubja dialect.

कन्दर्पर्रपपजवतेंतुम्हलीन्हकृष्णा
लोकोपकामहमहींबहुपीरछोडी ? जोमेटिकैंविरहपीरनसाउमेरी यैंभांतिदूतिपठई हक्रिबतगोपी ॥
Candarpa-rúpa jaba tén tumha linha, Crishha!
Lócopacáma hama hín, bahu-píra, ch'horí.
Jau bhéticain viraha-píra nasáii mérí.
Yain bhánti dúti pat̀'käí, cahi báta, Gbpí.*
"Crĭshńn, since thou didst assume the form of Cupid, I have neglected worldly affairs, suffering much anxiety. Relieve by thy presence the pain of separation which I endure. Such was the message, with which the G6pí dispatched her embassadress."

## V. Ślbca or Vactra.

The most common Sanscrit metre is the stanza of four verses containing eight syllables each, and denominated from the name of the class, Anushtubh. Several species of it have been described. Two very simple kinds of it occur, consisting of iambic, or trochaic feet exclusively : $\dagger$

[^61]the rest are included in one general designation.* But several analogous species are comprehended under the denomination of Vactra. Here the laws of the metre, leaving only the first and eighth syllables indeterminate, require either a bacchius or an amphibrachys $\dagger$ before the eighth syllable, and forbid an anapæst or tribrachys after the first; as also in the second and fourth verses of the stanza, an amphimacer. A variety of this metre introduces a tribrachys before the eighth syllable in the first and third verses, and a bacchius in the second and fourth $\ddagger$. And another sort, § which admits five varieties, requires the penultimate syllable to be short in the second and fourth verses; and introduces before the eighth syllable of the first and third verses, a dactyl, anapeest, tribrachys, amphimacer, or molossus.

The metre which is most in use, is one of the species now described, in which the number of syllables is determinate (viz. eight), but the quantity variable. CÁlidAsa appropriates to this metre the term Śloca (abbreviated from Anushtubh ślóca); and directs, that the fifth syllable of each verse be short, the sixth long, and the seventh alternately long and short. The mythological poems under the title of Puráńa, and the metrical treatises on law and other sciences, are almost entirely composed in this easy verse; with a sparing intermixture of other analogous sorts, and with the still rarer introduction of other kinds of metre.

[^62]$$
\ddagger \text { Chapala. } \quad \text { SVipulá. }
$$

The varieties of the Anushíubh ślbca which most frequently occur, make the fifth, sixth, and seventh syllables of the first and third verse all long or all short; or else the fifth long with the sixth and seventh short. Thus varied, it is much used by the best poets. CAlidisa has employed it in the second and sixth cantos of his poem entitled Cumára sambhava, and in the first, fourth, and several others of the Raghuvansa. The second and nineteenth cantos of MAgha's poem are in this metre, and so is the eleventh of the Cirátárjuníya.

The examples here subjoined are from Mígha's poem. One passage is part of a speech of Balarama to Crǐshfia, urging him to the immediate commencement of hostilities against Śsísupíla : the other is extracted from Uddhava's reply, dissuading Cryshéa from instant war, and advising his previous compliance with Yudhisht'hira's invitation to assist at a solemn sacrifice which the king was on the point of celebrating at Indraprast'ha.

## सखागरीयान्यानुफकृत्रिमस्तोहिकार्यंतः। स्याताममिन्रोमिन्रेचसहजप्राकृतावपि १३६त उपकर्नारिणासन्धिर्नमिन्नेणापकारिणा। उपकारापकारोहिलस्यंलक्षणमेतयो: ఇ३७n त्वयाविप्रकृतलेद्योर विभणींहरताहरे । बडम्लस्ययमूलंहिमहदेरतनरो:त्विय: nইเท त्वयिभोमंगतेजेनुमरोस्सीत्सपुरीमिमां। प्रोषितार्यमणंमेरोरन्धकारस्तटीमिव ท३६ः आलयालमिदंवंत्रोर्यत्तदारानपाहरत,

कथापिखलुपापानामलमश्रेयसेयतः ท४०॥ विराद्घटंभवताविराद्याबहुधाचनः ।
निर्वर्यते नरि:क्रिययास:ग्रुत्रवस:सुतः \#89॥ विधायवैरंसामर्षेनरो-रोयउदासते ? प्रक्षिप्योदर्चिषंकक्षेशेरतेते भिमाकतं ఇ४२ः मनागनम्यावृत्यावाकामंक्षाम्यतुयःक्षमी ? क्रियासमभिहारेणविराध्यन्तंक्षमेतकः श18३ः अन्यदभूषणंपुंसःक्षमालज्जेवयोषितः । पराक्रमःपरिभवेवेयात्यंमुरतेषिव 188 ॥ माजीवन्यःपरावज्ञादु:खदन्धो॰पिजीवति । तस्याजननिरेवास्तुजननीक्लेखाकारिण: $184 \pi$ पादाहतंयदुतथायमूर्घीनमधिरोहति? स्वस्थादे वापमाने, पिदेहिनस्तद्वरंरजः श8 है।

Balaríma speaks. "A proved enemy, and a tried friend, are most to be regarded; for they are known by their actions: others, presumed to be so, from temper or affinity, may be found in the end to be friend or foe. Peace may be maintained with a natural enemy, who confers benefits; not with a presumptive friend, who commits outrages; kindness or injury, is the proper test of both. The king of the Chédis was offended, 0 Hari, by the seizure of Rucmińf; for woman is the chief cause, that the tree of discord takes root. Whilst thou wert engaged in subduing the offspring of the earth, he besieged this city, as darkness encircles the skirts of Méru while the sun is remote. To hint, that he ravished
the wife of $V_{\text {abhru }}$ is enough : the narration of crimes is too disgustful. Thus aggrieved by thee, and having much injured us, the son of Srutaśravas is an enemy demonstrated by deeds. The man who is negligent, while an enraged foe meditates aggressions, sleeps in the wind with fire under his arm. What forbearing man, who would cheerfully dissemble a slight and single injury, can patiently endure repeated wrongs? At other times, patience becomes a man; and pudency, a woman: but valour befits the insulted warrior ; as modesty should be laid aside by a woman in the nuptial bed. Whoever lives (may none so live!) tortured by the pain of insults from his enemy, would that he had never been born, vainly giving his mother anguish. Dust, which, kicked by the foot of the traveller, rises and settles on his head, is less contemptible than the dastard, who is contented under wrongs." 2. 36-46.

Uddhata, in reply, addressed to Crĭshía:

## सम्भायत्वामतिभरक्षमस्कन्धंसबान्धव: ।

 सहायमध्वरधुरांधर्मराजोविवक्षते प१०३ः महार्मानोननुगृरून्तिभ जमानानरीनपि १ सपत्नी:प्रापयन्त्यब्धिंसिन्धवोनगनिम्नगाः श19०8॥ चिरादपिबलात्कारोबलिनःसिद्यये,रिषु 1 छन्दानुवृतिदु:साध्या:सुद्दोविमनीकृताः $1904 \pi$ मन्यसे गरिबध:श्रेयान्प्रीतयेमरतामिति। पुरोडाशभुजामिष्टमिष्टिंकर्तुमलंतरां 190 ६ः अमृतंनामयत्सन्तोमंत्रजिह्वेषुजुहृ ति । शोभैवमन्दरशुन्धक्षुभिताम्भोधिवर्णना ๆ9०७ฤ
## सहिथेयतमागांसिमूनोस्त इतियस्वया।

 प्रतीक्ष्यन्तत्प्रतोक्षायेपितृष्घस्नेप्रतिश्रुतं $\eta 90$ เท तीक्ष्णानारन्तुदाबुद्यिःकर्मशान्तंप्रतापवत् ? नोपतापिमनःसोष्मवागेकावाड्मिनःसतः श१ १० हn स्वयंकृतप्रसादस्यतस्याह्नोभानुमानिव । समयावधिमप्राप्यनान्तायालंभवानपि १११०ः" The just king and his kinsmen, relying on thee for an associate capable of sustaining the heaviest burden, are willing to undertake the task of a solemn sacrifice. Even to enemies, who court them, the magnanimous show kindness; as rivers convey to the ocean the rival torrents from the mountans. Violence, used against foes by the strong, is at length successful ; but friends, once offended, are not easily reconciled even by compliances. Thou thinkest, that the slaughter of the foe will most gratify the inhabitants of heaven; but far better is it to present offerings, which are desired by the deities who devour oblations. What the virtuous offer, under the name of ambrosia, in flames, whose tongues are holy prayers, was the splendid ornament of the ocean churned by the mountain Mandara. The promise made by thee to thy father's venerable sister, to forgive her son a hundred offences, should be strictly observed. Let the intellect of a good man be sharp without wounding; let his actions be vigorous, but conciliatory; let his mind be warm without inflaming: and let his word, when he speaks, be rigidly maintained. Before the appointed hour, even thou art not able to destroy the tyrant, on whom thyself conferred that boon; no more than the sun can prematurely close the day, which he himself enlightens." 2. 103-110.

## V. Compound metre.

Instances of compound metre have been already exhibited under the designation of Upajäti, consisting of two kinds of simple metre variously combined: two of these combinations are repeated under the head of half equal metre, with the contrasted names of Ác'hyánací and Viparítác'hyánaćs. Other species of metre belonging to this class are in use among eminent poets: particularly the Pushpitágrá and Aparavactrá. In the first, both verses are terminated by two trochees and a spondee, and begin with four short syllables, one verse interposing a pyrrhichius, and the other a dactyl. In the next species, both verses are terminated by three iambics, and begin like the preceding with four short syllables; but one verse interposes a single short syllable, and the other a trochee.

Examples of the first of these mixed measures are very common. One instance has been already exhibited in a quotation from the first canto of Bháravi's poem of Arjuna and the mquntaineer. The whole tenth canto of the same poem, and the seventh of Magha's death of Śsisupilia, are in this mixt metre. The second is less common : but an instance occurs in the eighteenth canto of the Cirátárjuníya.

The close of the ninth canto of Cálidísa's Raghuvanśa, exhibiting a variety of metre, in which two of the species now mentioned are included, is here cited, for the sake of these and other species which have been before described. The subject is Daśarat'ha's hunt, in which he slew the hermit's son: a story well known to the readers of the Rámáyana.

## दतिविस्मृतान्यकरणीयमात्मनः सचिवावलम्बितधुरंनराधिपं ?

परिवृद्धरागमनुबन्धसेवया मृगयाजहारचतुरेवकामिनी サ७४॥
मुललितकुमुमप्रबालशार्यां ज्वलितमहोषधिदीपिकासनाथां। नरपतिरतिवाहयांबभूव कृचिदसमेतपरिच्छदत्रियामां १७५॥ उषसिसगजयूथकर्णताले: पदुपटहध्रनिभिर्विनीतनिद्र: ?
अरमतमधुरस्वराणिशृण्वन्
विहगविकूजितवन्दिमड़ुलानि n७६ः अथजातुरूरोगृहीतवर्मा

विपिनेपार्श्वचरेर लक्ष्यमाणः १
श्रमफेनमुचातपस्विगाढां
तमसांप्रापनदींतुरड़्मेण ఇ७७ท कुम्भपूरणभवःपटुर्च्चे इज्ञचारनिनदोग्भसितक्याः ?
तत्रसड्विरदवृंहितशांकी
शब्दपातिनमिषुंविससर्ज n७tn
नृपतेःपतिषिद्यमेवतत्
कृतवान्पंतिरथोविलंध्ययत् ।







 मन्तानन:खवरारनंनृपति:खयंस $\downarrow$ เ२u तेर्पम्पतोबहुविल्भयंियो =पहरृं-

घन्यंनिख्वातमुदहारयतायुरस्तः ?
मोन्गूत्परास्तरच ${ }^{2}$ मिपतिंय्याप हस्तार्षितेनयनवारिभिरेवृृ: ntミn
दिधान्नमाफ्यतिभवानपिपत्रोकादन्तेवयस्यहमिवेतितमुन्कवन्तं।

आक्रान्तपूर्वमिवमुक्तिषंभुजंगं
प्रोवाचकोशलपति：प्रथमापराध：n t8 ॥ शापोल्यदृष्टतनयाननपद्मशोभे

सानुयहोभगवतामयिपातितो॰यं
कृषांद्हन्नपिखलुक्षितिमिन्धनेड्दो
वीजप्ररोहजननींज्वलनःकरोति пヒ4 ！ इत्थंगतेगतघृण：किमयंविधतां

बध्यस्तवेत्यभिहितेवसुधाधिपेन ？
एधान्हुताशनवतःसमुनिर्ययाचे
पुत्रंपरासुमनुगन्तुमनाःसदार：$n$ tई प्राप्नानुगःसपदिशासनमस्यराजा

सम्पाद्यपातकविलुप्तधृतिरिवृत्तः ？
स्वान्तनिविष्टपद्मात्मविनाशहेतुं
शापंदधज्डवलनमोर्वमिवाम्बुराशि：१1 ७७॥ तदितथमर्थक्ञगतेगतत्रप：

किमेषतेबध्य जनोडनुतिषतु १
सवह्मिसंस्कारमयाचतात्मनः
सदारमूनोर्विद्धेचतंनृप：ๆレヒリ समीयिवान्नुवृषभो，थसैनिके：

स्वमन्दिरंशिधिलधृतिन्यवर्तत।

अपथेपदमर्पयन्तिहि
ग्रुतवन्तो $s$ पिरजानिमीक्तिता：१७ई̃
हातातेतिक्रन्द्तिताकणर्यविषष्म－
स्तस्यान्विथन्वेतसगूढप्रभवंसः ？
शल्यप्रोतंम्रेक्यसकुम्भंभुनिपुत्रं
तापादन्तःशल्यद्इवासीरिक्षितिपो•पि $\pi$ 骎 तेनावतीयत्युरगात्पथिनान्वयेन

पृष्टान्वयःसजलकुम्भनिषषदेहः ？
तर्मेडिजेतरतपस्विसुतंस्खलद्रि－
रात्मानमक्षरपदे：कथयाम्बभूव nt१ท
तन्नेादितश्यमनुद्धृतशाल्यमेव
पित्रो：सकाशमवसनृद्शोनिनाय
ताम्यांतथागतमुपेत्यतमेकपुत्र－
मज्ञानतःः्वचरितंनृपतिःखशांस ๆヒマท
तैदम्पतीवहुविलपयिशो：पहत्तृ－
शब्यंनिखातमुदहारयतामुरस्तः ？
सोन्भूत्परामुरथभूमिपतिंशशाप
हम्तार्पितेन्नयनवारिभिरेववृद्यः nt३ः
दिष्टान्तमाफ्यतिभवानपिपुत्रशेका－
दन्तेवयस्यहमिवेतितमुक्तवन्तं

आक्रान्तपूर्वमिवमुन्तविषंभुजंगं
प्रोवाचकोशलपतिःप्रथमापराध：$n+8 \pi$ शापो －्यदृष्टतनयाननपद्मशोभे

सानुयहोभगवताभयिपातितोงयं। कृथांदहन्नपिखलुक्षितिमिन्धनेड्दो

वीजप्ररोहजननोंज्वलन：करोति $\pi t 4 \pi$ इत्थंगतेगतचृणःकिमयंविधतां

बध्यस्तवेत्यभिहितेवमुधाधिपेन।
एधान्हुताशनवतःसमुनिर्ययावे
पुन्रंपरामुमनुगन्तुमना：सदारः $n$ tई n प्राप्तानुगःसपदिशासनमस्यराजा

सम्पाद्यपातकविलुप्तधृतिरिवृतः ？
स्वान्तरिविष्टपदमात्मविनाशहेनुं
शापंदधज्ञ्वलनमोर्वमिवाम्बुराशिः nt૭ฑ तदित्थमर्थक्षगतेगतत्रप：

किमेषतेबध्यजनोननुतिषतु
सवद्विसंस्कारमयाचतात्मनः
सदारमूनोर्विद्धेचतंनृप：$\because$ ヒヒリ
समीयिवान्नघुवृषभो॰थसैनिकेः
स्वमन्दि रंशिधिलधृतिन्यवर्त्तत।

मनोगतंगुर्रमृषिशापमुद्दहन्

## क्षयानलंजलधिरिवान्तरास्पदं $n t$ ह̂n

" Thus did the chase, like an artful mistress, allure the king, forgetful of all other business, and leaving to his ministers the burthen of the state, while his passion grew by indulgence.
" The king, without his retinue, passed the night in some sequestered spot, reposing on a bed of leaves and blossoms, and enlightened by the flame of wild herbs. At dawn, being awakened by the flapping of his elephant's ears in place of the royal drums, he delighted in listening to the sweet and auspicious tones of chirping birds.
" One day, pursuing an antelope, and outstripping his attendants, he arrived, with his horse foaming with fatigue, on the bank of the Tamasa, a stream frequented by the devout. In its waters a deep sound, caused by the filling of a vase, was mistaken by the king for the grumbling of an elephant, and he directed an arrow towards the spot whence the sound proceeded. By this forbidden act* Daśaratiba transgressed : for even the wise, when blinded by passion, deviate into the pathless waste. 'Ah father!' was the piteous cry which issued : and the king, anxious, sought its cause among the reeds. He found the vase, and near it a hermit's son pierced by his arrow, and he stood amazed as if internally wounded. The king, of glorious lineage, who had already alighted from his horse, eagerly inquired the parentage of the youth; who, resting on the vase, with feeble accents said 'he was the son of a hermit, but no priest.' Instructed by him, the king conveyed the wounded youth to his blind parents : and to them, as they approached

[^63]their only son, he related his mistaken deed. The unhappy pair, lamenting, conjured the king to draw the arrow from the breast of their wounded son. The youth was dead. The aged hermit ratifying his curse with tears instead of water for a libation, pronounced this imprecation on the king: 'In thy extreme age thou shalt reach thy fated time, with grief like mine for a beloved son.' While he spoke, as it were a serpent assailing first and then discharging fatal venom, Cauśalya's lord, conscious of the first offence, addressed him thus: 'Thy curse has fallen like a boon on me, who have not seen the beauteous countenance of offspring; as fire, fed with fuel, fertilizes the soil which it burns.' The king then said, 'For me, who merciless deserves death at thy hands, what are thy commands?' The holy hermit asked fuel for the funeral pile; he and his wife resolving to follow their son in death. The king, whose attendants were now arrived, promptly fulfilled his command, and remained dejected, bearing with him the hermit's curse, a cause of his future destruction, as the ocean embraces the devouring fire. Again the king addressed him. 'Wise hermit! what shall this shameless criminal, who deserves death from thee, now perform.' He desired the funeral flame to be duly lighted: and the king presented the fire for him, and his wife and son.
" The chief of the race of RAGHU, attended by his army, now returned to his palace, dejected, bearing in his mind the heavy imprecation of the saint, as the ocean holds within itself the fire of destruction." 9. 74-89.

This extract exhibits, besides two stanzas of Pushpitágrá* and as many of Sundari metre, $\dagger$ both belonging to the present head, and one, of which an example was promised

[^64]in this place,* several others which have been before exemplified, $\dagger$ and two which are less common. $\ddagger$

A singular species of variable metre is mentioned by writers on prosody, who describe it as a stanza in which the verses increase in arithmetical progression. In the instance exhibited by them the four verses of the stanza increase regularly from eight to twenty syllables. Varieties of it are noticed in which the progression is not regular, the short verse exchanging places with the second, third, or fourth. The quantity of the syllables is in general indeterminate; but varieties are stated in which the verse consists of short syllables, either ending or beginning with a spondee, or both ending and beginning with spondees.

A class of metre which admits an inordinate length of the verse, is known under the general designation of Dan'daca. The verse may consist of any number of syllables, from twenty-seven to nine hundred and ninety-nine; and the specific name varies accordingly.§ The construction of the metre requires that the first six syllables be short, and the remainder of the verse be composed of cretic feet; or, instead of the cretic foot, the bacchius. These two kinds of metre are distinguished by different names. A verse consisting of any number of anapæsts within the limitation abovementioned, is also comprehended under this general designation ; as are verses of similar length consisting exclusively of iambic or trochaic feet. They have their peculiar denominations.

Examples of these extravagantly long verses are to be

[^65]found in the works of the poet VANA. It is unnecessary to insert any specimen of them in this place, as an example will occur in a subsequent quotation from Bhavabhúti’s drama.

That class of metre, which is termed half equal, because the alternate verses are alike, comprises various sorts, which appear to be compounded of two simple kinds with an appropriate number of syllables of a determinate quantity.

Another class, in which every verse of the stanza is different, appears more complex. But, here also, the quantity as well as the number of syllables being regulated, the stanza is in fact composed of four kinds of uniform metre.

The most common metre of this class is that called Udgatá. Here the number of syllables in each verse, as well as their quantity, differs; the first verse comprising an anapæst, iambic, tribrachys, and trochee; the second, a tribrachys and anapæst with two iambics; the third, a trochee, tribrachys, and two anapæsts; * and the fourth, an anapæst, iambic, and pyrrhichius with three iambics.

The twelfth canto of the Cirátárjuniya is in this metre; and so is the fifteenth canto of Mígha's epic poem. It begins thus:

## अथतत्रपाण्डुतनयेनसद सिविहितंमधुर्दिष: 1 मानमसहतनचेद्पितिःपरवृड्दिमत्सरिमनोहि मानिनां ท

" But the king of the Chédis was impatient of the honours which the son of Pínív commanded to be shown in that assembly to the foe of Madhu; for the mind of the proud is envious of the prosperity of others."

[^66]Other kinds of metre, in which every verse of the stanza differs in the number and quantity of syllables, are comprehended under the general name of Gát'há; under which also some writers on prosody* include any sort of metre not described by Pingala, or not distinguished by a apecific appellation. The same denomination is applicable also to stanzas consisting of any number of verses other than four. $\dagger$ An instance of a stanza of six verses has been remarked in the Mahábhárata, and another example occurs at the beginning of MÁGHA's poem. $\ddagger$

## द्विधाकृतात्माकिमयंदिवाकरो विध्रूमरोचिःकिमयंहुताशनः 1 गतंतिरखीनमनूरसारथे: प्रसिद्घमृर्द्वज्वलनंहविर्भुजः पतत्यधोधामविसारिसर्वत: किमेतदिव्याकुल्लमीक्षितंजनै: १

> Dwidhá crĭtátmá, cim ayam divácarb?
> Vidhúma-rochih, cim ayam hutáśanah?
> Gatan tiraśchínam anúru-sárat'héh.
> Prasiddham úrddhwajwalanam havirbhujah.
> Patatyadho dháma-visári sarvatah.
> Cim étad? ityáculam ícshitam janaih.

[^67]Náreda descending from the heavens to visit Cayshún, is thus described:
"' Is this the sun self-parted into two orbs? Is it fire shining with light divested of amoke? The motion of the luminary whose charioteer has no legs, is distinguished by its curvature; the ascent of flame is a known property of fire. Then what is this, which descends diffusing light around ?' Thus was the sight contemplated with wonder by the people." Mágha 1. 2.

## VI. Prose ; and Verse mixed with Prose.

I follow the example of Sanscrit writers on prosody, in proceeding to notice the different species of prose. They discriminate three, and even four sorts, under distinct names. lst. Simple prose, admitting no compound terms. It is denominated Muctaca. This is little used in polished compositions; unless in the familiar dialogue of dramas. It must undoubtedly have been the colloquial style at the period when Sanscrǐt was a spoken language. 2d. Prose, in which compound terms are sparingly admitted. It is called Culaca. This and the preceding sort, are by some considered as varieties of a single species named Chárnicá. It is of course a common style of composition; and when polished, is the most elegant as it is the chastest. But it does not command the admiration of Hindu readers. 3d. Prose, abounding in compound words. It bears the appellation of Utcalicá práya. Examples of it exhibit compounds of the most inordinate length : and a single word exceeding a hundred syllables is not unprecedented. This extravagant style of composition being suitable to the taste of the Indian learned, is common in the most elaborate works of their favourite authors. 4th. Prose, modulated so as frequently to exhibit portions of verse. It is named Vrittagandhi. It will occur without study, and even
against design, in elevated compositions, and may be expected in the works of the best writers.

Some of the most elegant and highly wrought works in prose are reckoned among poems, as already intimated, in like manner as the "Télémaque" of Fentlon and "Tod Abels" of Gessner. The most celebrated are the Vásavadattá of Subandhu, the Daśa cumára of Dańbf, and the Cádambarí of Vana.

The first of these is a short romance, of which the story is simply this. Candarpacetu, a young and valiant prince, son of Chintámańi king of Cusumapura,* saw in a dream a beautiful maiden, of whom he became desperately enamoured. Impressed with the belief, that a person, such as seen by him in his dream, had a real existence, he resolves to travel in search of her, and departs, attended only by his confidant Macaranda. While reposing under a tree in a forest at the foot of the Vindhya mountains, where they halted, Macaranda overhears two birds conversing, and from their discourse he learns that the princess Vásavadattá, having rejected all the suitors who had been assembled by the king her father for her to make choice of a husband, had seen Candarpacete in a dream, in which she had even dreamt his name. Her confidant, Tamilicá, sent by her in search of the prince, was arrived in the same forest, and is discovered there by Macaranda. She delivers to the prince a letter from the princess, and conducts him to the king's palace. He obtains from the princess the avowal of her love; and her confidant, Calívati, reveals to the prince the violence of her passion.
The lovers depart together: but, passing through the

[^68]forest, he loses her in the night. After long and unsuccessful search, in the course of which he reaches the shore of the sea, the prince, grown desperate through grief, resolves on death. But at the moment when he was about to cast himself into the sea, he hears a voice from heaven, which promises to him the recovery of his mistress, and indicates the means. After some time, Candarpacétu finds a marble statue, the precise resemblance of Visavadattá. It proves to be her; and she quits her marble form and regains animation. She recounts the circumstances under which she was transformed into stone.

Having thus fortunately recovered his beloved princess, the prince proceeds to his city, where they pass many years in uninterrupted happiness.

This story, told in elegant language, and intermixed with many flowery descriptions in a poetical style, is the Vábafadatta of Subandiu. There is an allusion, however, in Bhavabigti's drama,* to another tale, of Vasavadattá's having been promised by her father to the king Sanjaya, and giving herself in marriage to Udayana. I am unable to reconcile this contradiction otherwise than by admitting an identity of name and difference of story. But no other trace has been yet found of the story to which Bhavabhúti has alluded.

In the work above described, as in various compositions of the same kind, the occasional introduction of a stanza, or even several, either in the preface or in the body of the work, does not take them out of the class of prose. But other works exist, in which more frequent introduction of verse makes of these a class apart. It bears the name of Champú: and of this kind is the Nala champu of Trivicrama before mentioned. This style of composition is not

[^69]without example in European literature. The " Voyage de Bachaumont et de la Chapelle," which is the most known, if not the first instance of it in French, has found imitators in that and in other languages. The Sanscritt inventor of it has been equally fortunate; and a numerous list may be collected of works expressly entitled Champú.*

The Indian dramas are also instances of the mixture of prose and verse ; and, as already mentioned, they likewise intermixed a variety of dialects. Our own language exhibits too many instances of the first to render it necessary to cite any example in explanation of the transition from verse to prose. In regard to mixture of languages, the Italian theatre presents instances quite parallel in the comedies of Angelo Beolco surnamed Ruzanti it with this difference, however, that the dramas of Ruzanti and his imitators are rustic farces, while the Indian dramatists intermingle various dialects in their serious compositions.

Notwithstanding this defect, which may indeed be easily removed by reading the Prácrit speeches in a Sanscrŭt version, the theatre of the Hindus is the most pleasing part of their polite literature, and the best suited to the European taste. The reason probably is, that authors are restrained more within the bounds of poetic probability when composing for exhibition before an audience, than in writing for private perusal or even for public recital.

The Śacuntalá by CÁlidisa, which certainly is no unfavourable specimen of the Indian theatre, will sufficiently justify what has been here asserted. I shall conclude this essay with a short extract from Bhavabheti's unrivalled drama, entitled Málatí mádhava; prefixing a concise argument of the play, the fable of which is of pure invention.

[^70]' Bhorivasu, minister of the king of Padmávatí, and Devarita in the service of the king of Viderbha, had agreed, when their children were yet infants, to cement a long subsisting friendship, by the intermarriage of MAlati, daughter of the first, with Midiava, son of the latter. The king having indicated an intention to propose a match between BhGrivasu's daughter and his own favourite Nandana, who was both old and ugly, the minister is apprehensive of giving offence to the king by refusing the match; and the two friends concert a plan with an old priestess, who has their confidence, to throw the young people in each other's way, and to connive at a stolen marriage. In pursuance of this scheme, Midinava is sent to finish his studies at the city of Padmávatí, under the care of the old priestess Camandaci. By her contrivance, and with the aid of Malati's foster sister Lavangici, the young people meet and become mutually enamoured. It is at this period of the story, immediately after their first interview, that the play opens. The first scene, which is between the old priestess and her female pupil Avalbcitá, in a very natural manner introduces an intimation of the previous events, and prepares the appearance of other characters, and particularly a former pupil of the same priestess named Saudímini, who has now arrived at supernatural power by religious austerities; a circumstance which her successor Avalbcitá has learnt from Capálacuńbalí, the female pupil of a tremendous magician, Aghbraghańta, who frequents the temple of the dreadful goddess near the cemetery of the city.
'The business of the play commences; and MÁdhava, his companion Macaranda, and servant Calahansa, appear upon the scene. MAdhava relates the circumstances of the interview with MAlati, and acknowledges himself deeply smitten. His attendant produces a picture
which Malati had drawn of Madhava, and which had come into his hands from one of her female attendants. In return Mádhava delineates the likeness of Málatí on the same tablet, and writes under it an impassioned stanza. It is restored; and being in the sequel brought back to Malati, their mutual passion, encouraged by their respective confidants, is naturally increased. This incident furnishes matter for several scenes. Meantime, the king had made the long expected demand; and the minister has returned an answer that " the king may dispose of his daughter as he pleases." The intelligence reaching the lovers throws them into despair. Another interview in a public garden takes place by the contrivance of Cámandací. At this momenta cry of terror announces that a tremendous tiger has issued from the temple of Śiva : an instant after, Nandana's youthful sister, Madayanticá, is reported to be in imminent danger. Then Mádhava's companion, Macaranda, is seen rushing to her rescue. He has killed the tiger. He is himself wounded. This passes behind the scenes. Madayanticí, saved by the valour of Macaranda, appears on the stage. 'The gallant youth is brought in insensible. By the care of the women he revives: and Madayantici, of course, falls in love with her deliverer. The preparations for Malati's wedding with Nandana are announced. The women are called away. Mádhava in despair resolves to sell his living flesh for food to the ghosts and malignant spirits, as his only resource to purchase the accomplishment of his wish. He accordingly goes at night to the cemetery. Previous to his appearance there, Capalacuńdialá, in a short soliloquy, has hinted the magician's design of offering a human sacrifice at the shrine of the dreadful goddess, and selecting a beautiful woman for the victim. Madmava appears as a vendor of human flesh; offering, but in vain,
to the ghosts and demons the flesh off his limbs as the purchase of the accomplishment of his wish. He hears a cry of distress and thinks he recognizes the voice of Málati. The scene opens, and she is discovered dressed as a victim, and the magician and sorceress preparing for the sacrifice. They proceed to their dreadful preparatives. Madhava rushes forward to her rescue: she flies to his arms. Voices are heard as of persons in search of MAlati. Madhava, placing her in safety, encounters the magician. They quit the stage fighting. The event of the combat is announced by the sorceress, who vows vengeance against Madhava for slaying the magician, her preceptor.'

The fable of the play would have been perhaps more judiciously arranged if this very theatrical situation had been introduced nearer to the close of the drama. Bhavabheti has placed it so early as the fifth act. The remaining five (for the play is in ten acts) have less interest.
' Málati, who had been stolen by the magician, while asleep, being now restored to her friends, the preparations for her wedding with Nandana are continued. By contrivance of the old priestess, who advised that she should put on her wedding dress at a particular temple, Macaranda assumes that dress, and is carried in procession, in place of Malati, to the house of Nandana. Disgusted with the masculine appearance of the pretended bride, and offended by the rude reception given to him, Nandana, to have no further communication with his bride, vows and consigns her to his sister's care. This, of course, produces an interview between the lovers, in which Macaranda discovers himself to his mistress, and she consents to accompany him to the place of Malati's concealment. The friends accordingly assemble at the
garden of the temple: but the sorceress, Capalacuńbalí, watches an opportunity when Málatí is unprotected, and carries her off in a flying car. The distress of her lover and friends is well depicted : and, when reduced to despair, being hopeless of recovering her, they are happily relieved by the arrival of Saudimini, the former pupil of the priestess. She has rescued Malatí from the hands of the sorceress, and now restores her to her despairing lover. The play concludes with a double wedding.'

From this sketch of the story it will be readily perceived, that the subject is not ill suited to the stage : and making allowance for the belief of the Hindus in magic and supernatural powers, attainable by worship of evil beings as well as of beneficent deities, the story would not even carry the appearance of improbability to an Indian audience. Setting aside this consideration, it is certainly conducted with art ; and notwithstanding some defects in the fable, the interest upon the whole is not ill preserved. The incidents are striking ; the intrigue well managed. As to the style, it is of the highest order of Sanscrit composition; and the poetry, according to the Indian taste, is beautiful.

I shall now close this essay with the promised extract from the play here described. It contains an example, among other kinds of metre, of the Dańdaca or long stanza, and is selected more on this account than as a fair specimen of the drama. This disadvantage attends all the quotations of the present essay. To which another may be added: that of a prose translation, which never conveys a just notion of the original verse.

Extract from Málatí mádhava. Act 5.
Madhava continues to wander in the cemetery.
"Human flesh to be sold : unwounded, real flesh from the members of a man. Take it. Take it."*
'How rapidly the Paiśáchas flee, quitting their terrific forms. Alas! the weakness of these beings.'

He walks about.
'The road of this cemetery is involved in darkness. Here is before me" the river that bounds it ; and tremendous is the roaring of the stream, breaking away the bank, while its waters are embarrassed among the fragments of skulls, and its shores resound horribly with the howling of shakals and the cry of owls screeching amidst the contiguous woods." $\dagger$

Behind the scenes.
' Ah! unpitying father, the person whom thou wouldst make the instrument of conciliating the king's mind, now perishes.'

MÁdh., listening with anxiety.] "I hear a sound

- Anushtubh.

अशात्रपूतमयाजंपुरषांगोपकल्पितं विक्रीयतेमहामांसंगृखतांगृस्यतामिदं ท

+ Sárdella vicriáita.
गुञ्जत्कुज्जकुटीरकोशिकघटाच्बूत्कारसंवल्गितक्रन्द्त्फेरवचण्डडात्कृतिभृतप्राग्भारभीमैस्तटे:
अन्त:थीर्णकरंककर्करपयःसंरोधक्लंकषस्रोतोनिर्गमघोरघर्घर रवापारेश्मशानंसरितू ॥
piercing as the eagle's cry, and penetrating my soul as a voice but too well known. My heart feels rent within me; my limbs fail ; I can scarcely stand. What means this ?"*
"That piteous sound issued from the temple of Carilí. Is it not the resort of the wicked? a place for such deeds ? $\dagger$ Be it what it may, I will look."

He walks round.
The scene opens; and discovers Capálacuńbalía and Aghóraghańta, engaged in worshipping the idol: and Málatí dressed as a victim.

MAl.] 'Ah unpitying father! the person whom thou wouldst make the instrument of conciliating the king's mind, now perishes. Ah fond mother! thou too art slain by the evil sport of fate. Ah venerable priestess! who lived but for Málati, whose every effort was for my prosperity, thou hast been taught by thy fondness a lasting

- Mandácrantá.

नादस्तावड्विकलकुररीकूजितस्निग्धतारशिन्ताकर्षीपरिचितडवश्रोजसंवादमेति । अन्तर्भिन्नंभ्रमतिहृदयंविहूलत्यंगमंगं देहम्तम्भ:स्वलतिचगति:क्पकारःकिमेतत्त

## + Vactra. <br> करालायतनान्वायमुन्वरन्करणणध्वनिः । <br> विभायतेननुस्थनमनिष्टानांतदी दृश शः

sorrow. Ah gentle Lavangicá! I have been shown to thee but as in a dream.*

MÁdi.] 'Surely it is she. Then I find her living.'
Capálacuńgalí worshipping the idol Carálá.]'I bow to thee, divine Chámuńóa.'
" I revere thy sport, which delights the happy court of Śiva, while the globe of the earth, sinking under the weight of thy stamping foot, depresses the shell of the tortoise and shakes one portion of the universe, whence the ocean retires within a deep abyss that rivals hell." $\dagger$
" May thy vehement dance contribute to our success and satisfaction; amidst the praise of attendant spirits, astonished by the loud laugh issuing from thy necklace of heads which are animated by the immortalizing liquid that drops from the moon in thy crest, fractured by the nails of the elephant's hide round thy waist, swinging to the violence of thy gestures : while mountains are overthrown by the jerk of thy arm, terrible for the flashes of empoisoned flame which issue from the expanded heads of hissing serpents closely entwined. The regions of space meantime are contracted, as within a circle marked by a flaming brand, by the roll-

[^71]ing of thy head terrific for the wide flame of thy eye red as raging fire. The stars are scattered by the flag that waves at the extremity of the vast skeleton which thou bearest. And the three-eyed god exults in the close embrace of GaUri, frightened by the cries of ghosts and spirits triumphant."*

They both bow before the idol.
Mádi.] 'Ah! what neglect.'
"The timid maid, clad as a victim in clothes and garlands stained with a sanguine die, and exposed to the view

[^72]of these wicked and accursed magicians, like a fawn before wolves, is in the jaws of death; unhappy daughter of the happy Bhúrivasu. Alas! that such should be the relentless course of fate."*

Capál.] " Now, pretty maid, think on him who was thy beloved. Cruel death hastens towards thee." $\dagger$

Malati.] 'Beloved Mádiva! remember me when I am gone. That person is not dead who is cherished in the memory of a lover.'

Capal.] 'Ah! enamoured of Madhava she will become a faithful dove. However that be, no time should be lost.'

Agh6r. lifting the sword.] "Divine Chímuńba! accept this victim vowed in prayer and now offered to thee." $\ddagger$

## - Sárdula vicriaita.

## न्यस्तालन्तकरन्तमाल्यवसनापाषण्डचाण्डालयोः पापारंभवतोर्मृगीववृकयोर्भीकर्गतागोचरं ? सेयंभूरिवसोर्वसोरिवमुतामृत्योर्मुखेवर्तते हाधिक्षष्टमनिष्टमस्तकरण:कोन्यंविधे:पक्रमःः

+ Praharshiñí.


## तंभद्रेम्मरदयितोःच्नयम्तवाभूदेषत्वांत्वरयतिदारण:कृतान्तः ।

## $\ddagger$ Praharshiñ́.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { चामुण्डेभगवनिमंत्रसाधनादा- } \\
& \text { वुद्धिष्टामुपनिहितांभजस्वपूजां ॥ }
\end{aligned}
$$

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MAdh. rushing forward, raises MAlatí in his arms.] ' Wicked magician! thou art slain.'

Capál.] 'Avaunt villain. Art thou not so?'
Mal.] 'Save me, prince!' She embraces MAdhava.
MAdi.] ' Fear nothing. "Thy friend is before thee, who banishing terror in the moment of death, has proved his affection by the efforts of despair. Cease thy trembling. This wicked wretch shall soon feel the retribution of his crime on his own head." ${ }^{*}$

Agh6r.] 'Ah! who is he that dares to interrupt us?'
Capíl.] 'Venerable Sir! he is her lover; he is MAdhava, son of Camandaci's friend, and a vender of human flesh.'

MAdh. in tears.] 'How is this? auspicious maid!'
Mál. sighing.] 'I know not, Prince! I was sleeping on the terrace. I awoke here. But how came you in this place ?'

MAdh. blushing.] " Urged by the eager wish that I may be blessed with thy hand, I came to this abode of death to sell myself to the ghosts. I heard thy weeping. I came hither." $\dagger$

## - Hariní.

## मरणसमयेत्यन्नाशंकांप्रतापनिरर्गल- <br> प्रकटितनिजस्नेहःसोन्यंसखापुर्वते १ मुतनुविमृजोत्कम्पंसंम्रत्यसाविहपाप्मनः <br> फलमनुभवत्युयंपापःप्रतीपविपाकिनः ः

\author{

+ Vasanta tilaca.
}

त्वत्पाणिपङ्ध्जपरियहपुण्यजन्मा भूयासमित्यभिनिवेशकदर्थ्यमानः !

MAl.] 'Alas! for my sake wert thou wandering regardless of thyself!’

MÁd.] 'Indeed, it is an opportune chance.'
"Having happily saved my beloved from the sword of this murderer, like the moon's orb from the mouth of devouring Ráhu, how is my mind distracted with doubt, melted with pity, agitated with wonder, inflamed with anger, and bursting with joy."*

Agror.] 'Ah! thou Bráhmen boy!" Like a stag drawn by pity for his doe, whom a tiger has seized, thou seekest thy own destruction, approaching me engaged in the worship of this place of human sacrifice. Wretch! I

## भाम्यन्नृमांसपणनायपरेतभूमा-वाकण्यभीररदितानितवागतो-स्मि श

- Sárdzla vicriaita.

राहोग्रन्द्रकलामिवाननचरींदे वात्समासाद्यमे
दस्योरक्यकृपाणपातविषयादाहिन्दितःप्रेयसीं ?
आतंकाड्दिकलंद्रुतंकरणणयाविक्षोभितंविस्मयात् क्रोधेनज्वलितंमुदाविकसितंचेतःक्यवर्ततांश
$\dagger$ Sárdula vicrajisa.
याघ्राघातमृगीकृपाकुलमृगन्यायेनहिंसार्चे: पापप्राण्युपहारकेतनजुषःप्राप्तो॰सिमेगोचरं ? सोsहंप्राग्भवतेवभूतजननीमृध्रोमिखड्गाहति यस्तस्कन्धकबन्धरन्ध्ररुधिरप्राग्भारनि:₹्यन्द्दिना॥
will first gratify the great mother of beings with thy blood flowing from a headless trunk."

MAdh.] 'Thou worst of sinful wretches! " How couldst thou attempt to deprive the triple world of its rarest gem, and the universe of its greatest excellence, to bereave the people of light, to drive the kindred to desperation, to humble love, to make vision vain, and render the world a miserable waste!"*
'Ah wicked wretch!" Hast thou dared to lift a weapon against that tender form, which even shrunk from the blow of light blossoms thrown in merry mood by playful damsels. This arm shall light on thy head like the sudden club of Yama." $\dagger$

Agh6r.] 'Strike, villain! Art thou not such?'
Mál. to Mádi.] 'Be pacified, dear Madhava! The

## -Sic'hariní.

## असारंसंसारंपरिमुषितरत्नंत्रिभुवनं

निरालोकंलोकंमरणशरणंबान्धवजनं । अद्रं्पकन्दर्पजननयननिर्माणमफलं जगब्जीणीएरण्यंकथमसिविधातुंघवसितः 凤
$\dagger$ A very uncommon metre named Avitat'ha or Narcutaca.

## प्रणयिसखीसलीलपरिहासरमाधिगतेलीलितशिरोषपुष्पहननेरपिताम्यतियत् ।

 वपुषिवधायत्रतवशत्रमुपक्षिपतः पतनुशिरस्यकाण्डयमदण्डखवेषभुजः ॠcruel man is desperate. Abstain from this needless hazard.'

Capile. to Aghbr.] 'Venerable Sir, be on your guard. Kill the wretch.'

MÁdi. and Aghor., addressing the women.]" Take courage. The wretch is slain. Was it ever seen that the lion, whose sharp fangs are fitted to lacerate the front of the elephant, was foiled in fight with deer? ?*

A noise behind the scenes. They listen.
' Ho ! ye guards who seek Mílatí. The venerable and unerring Cámandací encourages BhGrivasu and instructs you to beset the temple of Carílí. She says this strange and horrid deed can proceed from none but Aghoraghańfa; nor can aught else, but a sacrifice to Carálá, be conjectured.'

Cápal.] 'We are surrounded.'
Aghor.] 'Now is the moment which calls for courage.'
MÁL.] 'Oh father! Oh venerable mother!'
MAdi.] 'Tis resolved. I will place Malatí in safety with her friends, and slay this wicked sorcerer.'

MÁdh. conducts Málatí to the other side, and returns towards Aghbraghańfa.
Aghor.] 'Ah wretch! " My sword shall even now cut thee to pieces, ringing against the joints of thy bones,

[^73]passing with instantaneous rapidity through thy tough muscles, and playing unresisted in thy flesh like moist clay."

They fight. The scene closes.

- Sic'harisí.


# कठोरास्थियंथियतिकररणत्कारमुखर: खरम्नायुद्बेदक्षणविहितवेगव्युपरमः ? 

निरातड्ल:पड्देंघिवपिशितपिण्डेषुविलस न्नसिर्गात्रंगान्रंसपदिलवशस्तेविकिरतु ॥

## SYNOPTICAL TABLES

op

## INDIAN PROSODY．

## Feet used in Sanscrĭt Prosody．

Trisyleabic．
M．- －Molossus．M．
Y．и－－Bacohius．B．
R．－u－Cretious or Amphimacrb．C．
S．〕 u－Anapgetus．A．
T．－－u Antibacohius，Palimbacohius，or Hypobacohius．H．
J．乞－и Amphibraohys or Soolius．So．
Bh．－〕 ○ Daotylus．D．
$\boldsymbol{N}$ ．$\cup \sim u$ Tribraohys．Tre．

## Mongsyllabic．

L．$\quad$ Brevis．Br．G．－Longus．L．

## Feet used in Prácrĭt Prosody．

1 c．One Mátráa or Calá．Sara：Brevis u Br． 2 c．Two Matrats or Cales．

Hára：Longus－L．
Supriya：Pyrrhiohius or Periambus．u u P． 3 c ．Three Matrás or Calás．

Tala：Trocheus－T．
Devaja：Iambus u－I．
Takdava：Tribrachys $\smile \cup \cup T r$.
Haya： 4 c．Matras or Caldis．
Carka：Spondsus－－S．
Payodhara：Scolius $\smile-\cup \mathbf{S o}$ ．
Hadta：Anap乃stus ن $\sim$－A．
Charafia：Dactivlus－u u D．


Indrásana: 5 c. Five Matrás or Calás.
Creticus C., Bacohius B., Peron Pe., \&c.
Sarója: 6 c. Six Mátrás or Calás.
Molossus M. \&c.

Metre of the Védas; regulated by the number of syllables.
Seven classes subdivided into eight orders.
CLASSES.
Anush- Trish-

| Gayatri. Ushtih. |  |  | tubh. | Vrihatio | Pancti. | tubh. | Jagati. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Ârshá . . . . . 24 | 28 | 32 | 36 | 40 | 44 | 48 |
|  | Daivi ...... 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|  | Åsurí . . . . . 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 |
|  | Prajápatyá .. 8 | 12 | 16 | 20 | 24 | 28 | 32 |
|  | Yajush .... 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|  | Saman . . . . . 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 24 |
|  | RY̌Ch ...... 18 | 21 | 24 | 27 | 30 | 33 | 36 |
|  | Bráhmí .... 36 | 42 | 48 | 54 | 60 | 66 | 72 |

Distribution of the Syllables in Triplets, Tetrastichs, \&c.

## I. Gíyatrí.

1. Tripád .......... $8 \times 3=24$
2. Chatushpád .. .. $6 \times 4=24$
3. Pádanivrĭt. . . . . . $7 \times 3=21$
4. Atipádanivrřt $. .6+8+7=21$
5. Nág1 ........9 $9+9+6=24$
6. Váráhí $. . . . .6+9+9=24$
7. Vardhamáná .. $6+7+8=21$
8. Pratisht"há ....8+7+6=21
9. Dwipádviráj $\ldots . .12+8=20$
10. Tripádviráj $. . . . . .11 \times 3=33$

## II. Ushíith.

1. Tripád ( $12+8 \times 2$ ).
2. Cacubh ...... $8+12+8=28$
3. Pura Ushhih . . $12+8+8=28$
4. Paroshhih .... $8+8+12=28$
5. Chatushpad . . . . . . . $7 \times 4=28$

## III. Anushtubr.

1. Chatushpád . . . . . . . $8 \times 4=32$
2. Tripád ( $8+12 \times 2$ ), viz. $12+8$ +12 , or $12+12+8$, or $8+12$ $+12=32$.
IV. Vrîhatí.
3. Chatushpád ........ $9 \times 4=36$
4. ........... $8 \times 2+10 \times 2=36$
5. .......... $8 \times 3+12=36$
6. Pat'hyá .. $8+8+12+8=36$
7. Nyancusarihí (Scandhógrivá or Urourthati), $8+12+8+8$ =36.
8. Uparishtadurthath, $8 \times 3+12$ $=36$.
9. Purastaderthatil2 $+8 \times 3=36$
10. MahávrY̌hatí (Satórř̌hatí), 12 $\times 3=36$.

## V. Pancti.

1. Chatushpád ( $12 \times 2+8 \times 2$ ).
2. Satah-p. $. .12+8+12+8=40$
or . . . . . . . $8+12+8+12=40$
3. Astara-p. $.8+8+12+12=40$
4. Prastára-p. $12+12+8+8=40$
5. Vistára-p. $8+12+12+8=40$
6. Sanstára-p. $12+8+8+12=40$
7. 8. Acsharapancti . . $5 \times 4=20$
1. Alpasahpancti . . $5 \times 2=10$
2. Padapancti......5 $55=25$
3. ......... $4+6+5 \times 3=25$
4. Pat'hý $. . . . . . . . .8 \times 5=40$
5. Jagatí . . . . . ..... . . $8 \times 6=48$
VI. Trishfubh.
6. Jyotishmatí .... $11+8 \times 4=43$
7. Jagat1 $. . . . . . .12+8 \times 4=44$

Purastádjyótishmatí .. 11 (12) $+8 \times 3$.
Madhya, $8+8+11$ (12) $+8+8$
Uparishtád $. .8+8+8+8+11$
(12).

## Deficient and exuberant Metre.

1. Śancumatí $=5+a \times 3$, ex. (Gáyatrí) $5+6 \times 3=23$.
2. Cacudmatí $=6+a \times 3$.
3. Pipilica madhý́ $=($ Tripád $)=$ many + few + many, ex. $8+4+8$.
4. Yavamadhyá $=($ Tripád $)=\mathrm{few}+$ many +few, ex. $8+10+8$.
5. Nivritt $=a-1$, ex. (Gáyatrí) $24-1=23$.
6. Bhurij $=a+1$, ex. (Gáyatrı) $24+1=25$.
7. Viráj $=a-2$, ex. (Cáyatrí) $8+8+6=22$.
8. Swaraj $=a+2$, ex. (Gáyatrí) $8+8+10=26$. $^{*}$

## 1. Ganavritta of Sanscrǐt Prosody, and Mátrávrǐtta of Prácrít Prosody; regulated by quantity.

1. Áryá or Gát'há, Pr. Gáhá. Each verse ends in L.
$30+27=57 \mathrm{c}$.
Odd verse : $30 \mathrm{c} .=71 \mathrm{ft}$. (6th=
Sc. or Pr.).
Even verse : $27 \mathrm{c} .=7 \frac{1}{\mathrm{ft}}$. (6th $=$ BR.).

Pause in 1st verse before 7th ft. if Pr. But if 6 th ft . be $\mathrm{Pr}_{\text {., }}$ then pause after lst syllable.

Pause in 2 d verse before 5 th ft . if $\mathrm{Pr}_{\mathrm{r}}$.

[^74]16 Species: Pat'hyá: Pause after $3 \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{ft} .\left(3+4!=7 \frac{\mathrm{ft}}{\mathrm{f}}\right.$. and 12 $+18+12+15=57$ c.). Vipulá : Pause placed otherwise. Hence Ádivipuláa, Antyavipulá and Ubhayavipulá, with lst verse, 2 d , or both, irregularly divided by the pause. Chapala lst f. S. or A. 2d Sc. 3d S. 4th Sc. 5th S. or D. 6th Sc. or Pr. (in the short verse, Br.), 7th S. D. A. or Pr. Hence Mučhachapalá, Jaghanya chapalá and Mahachapalá, with lst, 2d or both verses so constructed. Therefore Áryáa +3 Chapalas $\times$ Pathyad +3 Vipulas= 16 species.

Variations: Árya, lst verse 10,800 . 2 d verse 6,400 . Chapala lst verse $32,2 \mathrm{~d}$ verse 16.

In Pracrit prosody, 27 species: from $27 \mathrm{~L} .+3 \mathrm{Br} .=30$ syll. to 1 L . and 55 Br. $=56$ ayll.

Specific varieties. Culená containing 1 Sc. Culat'ha, 2 Sc. Vésya, many Sc. Rutháa, no Sc. Gurvifí, Sc. 1st, 3d, 5th or 7th ft . But this is against rule: which excludes amphibrachys from the odd feet.
2. Udgiti or Vigat'ha, Pr. Vigáha. $27+30=57 \mathrm{c} . \operatorname{viz} .12+15+$ $12+18$.
3. Upagiti, Pr. Gähu. $27+27$ $=54 \mathrm{c}$. viz. $12+15+12+15$.
4. Guti or Udgát'há, Pr. Uggâha. $30+30=60 \mathrm{c}$. viz. $12+18$ $+12+18$.
5. Âryagiti or C'handhaca, Pr. Scandha. $32+32=64$ c.

8 ft . complete. $(3+5=8$ ft. and $12+20+12+20=64 \mathrm{c}$.
Species 16 (Pat'hya, \&c.), variations of each rerse 10,800 .

In Pracrit prosody, 28 species from 28 L . \& 8 Br . to 1 L . and 62 Br.
6. Chandrick,Sangiti or Gat'hini, Pr. Gáhiní $30+32=62$ c. viz. 12 $+18+12+20$.
7.Sugrti, or Parigiti, Pr.Sinhini. $32+30=62 \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{viz} .12+20+12+$ 18.

## Also

6. Sangíti, $32+29=61 \mathrm{c}$.

Áryá ( 7 l ft .) +L . in both verses.
7. Suguti, $32+27=59$ c.
L. in first verse only.
8. Pragúti, $30+29=59$ c.
$+L$. in second verse only.
9. Anugtti, $27+32=59$ c. Reverse of Sugiti.
10. Manjugtti, $29+30=59$ c. Reverse of Pragiti.
11. Vigtti, $29+29=58$ c.

Upagiti $+L$. in both verses.
12. Châruǧti, $29+32=61 \mathrm{c}$.

Reverse of Sangiti.
13. Vallart, $32+30=62$ c. Áryágiti-L. in last verse.
14. Lalita, $30+32=62$ c.
-L. in first verse.
15. Pramadá, $29+27=56 \mathrm{c}$. Upagiti $+L$. in first verse.
16. Chandhica, $27+29=56 \mathrm{c}$. + L. in last verse.

All these kinds admit 16 species as above: viz. Pat'hya, \&rc.

## II. NỨtrá vrǐttu or Mátrá ch'havdas, of Sanscrǐt Prosody.

1. Vaitílifa, 56 to 68 c .
2. Vaitalifya, $14+16+14+16$ $=60 \mathrm{c}$.
End in C. + I.
Short syllables by pairs (even verses not to begin with 2 Tr.)
3. Ápatálica, End in D. \& S.
4. Aupach'handasica, $16+18$ $+16+18=68$ c. End in C. \& B.
Each kind admits 8 varieties of the short verse and 13 of the long; from 3 long syll. to 6 short beginning the one, and from 4 long syll. to 1 long and 6 short in the other.
Also the following species under each kind.
5. Dacshinântict, begin with I. Comprising 2 varieties of the odd verses.
I. I. (or Tr.); and 4 of the even verses. I. B. (or Ps. 2d or 4th or 5 Br.)
6. Udichya vřtua, odd verses begin with I.
7. Prachya eritta, even verses, C. or Ps.4.
8. Pravrittaca, the two preceding combined.
9. Aparántica, $16 \times 4=64$ c. (Prach.).
10. Cháruhasini, $14 \times 4=56 \mathrm{c}$. (Udich.).
11. Mítrí samaca, $16(4 \times 4)$ $\times 4=64$ c. End S. or A. Begin S. A. D. or Pr.
12. Metra samack, 8 d ft S. A. or D. 3d ft. A.
13. Vistoca, 2d Sc.or Pr. 3d 8. or D .
14. Vanavásicá, 2d S. A. or D. 3d Sc. or Pr.
15. Chitra, 2d Sc. or Pr. 3d A. Sc. or $\mathrm{Pr}_{\mathrm{r}}$.
16. Upachitra, 2d. S. A. or D. 3d S. or D.
17. Pádáculaca, the above intermixed.
The lst species admits 24 varieties; the $2 \mathrm{~d}, 32$; and the 3 next, 48 each. The variations of the last species very numerous.
18. Gifyíryí or Achaladhriti, 16 $\times 4$. All short syllables.
19. Dwio'hathoa; or Couplet.
20. Sic'há or Chıaa, 32 Br. + 16 L.
Two species: Jyótish, lst verse 32 Br. 2 d 16 L .
Saumyá or Anangacriáá lst verse 16 L .2 d 32 Br .
Also l Śic'há $30+32=62 \mathrm{c}$. lstVerse 28 Br. + L. 2 d 30 Br. +L .
21. C'hanja, $32+30=62 \mathrm{c}$. 1st 30 Br. + L. 2d 28 Br. + L.
22. Chúlicá or Atiruchirá 29 $+29=58$ c. 27 Br. +L .
Also 3 Chúlicá $29+31=60 \mathrm{c}$.
lst Verse 27 Br. + L. 2 d 29 Br. +L .

## III. Mátrá vrǐtta of Prácrǐt prosody continued from Table I.

8. Dobha, S. Dwipat'há, 13+ $11+13+11=48 \mathrm{c}$.
3 ft , vis. odd verse $6+4+3$;
even verse $6+4+1$.
23 species from $23 \mathrm{~L} .+2$ Br. to 48 Br.
9. Utcach'há, Pr. Uccach'há, $11 \times 6=66$ c.
6 verses, 3 ft. each, $4+4+3$.
8 species, from 66 Br . to 28 L . +10 Br .
10. Rôlá or Lólá, $24 \times 4=96$ c. Pause 11+13. Usually end in L. 12 species, from 12 L . to 24 Br .
11. Gandhá, Pr. Gandhána, 17 $+18+17+18=70$ Syll.
12. Chatushpadá or Chatushpadicá, Pr. Chaupaïa, Cháulpád, $30 \times 4 \times 4=480 \mathrm{c}$.
16 verses: $7 \frac{1}{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{ft} .4 \times 7+\mathrm{L}$.
13. Ghat't'a \& Ghat'tananda, 31 $\times 2=62$ c. $10+8+13=4 \times 7+$ 3 Br . or $11+7+13=6+3 \times 3+$ $5+4+3+2+2$ Br.
14. Shat'pada or Shat'padica, Pr. Ch'happád, $96+56=152 \mathrm{c}$.

Cavya 24 ( $11+13=6+4 \times 4$
+2 Br.) $+4=96$, Ullala 28 ( 15
$+13) \times 2=56$. Varieties of the Tetrastich 45, from 96 Br. to 44 $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{c}}+8 \mathrm{Br}$. Varieties of the whole stanza 71, from 70 L. +12 Br.to 152 Br.
15. Prajjatica, Pr.Pajjatiá, 16 $\times 4=64 \mathrm{c} .4 \mathrm{ft}$. End in Sc.
16. Atiliha At'hillá, Pr. Atilá, $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c}$. No Sc. End in P.
17. Pádáculaca, Pr. Culapáá, $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c} .6+4 \times 2+2 \mathrm{~L}$.
18. Raddá stanza of nine $=116$ c. viz.
$1 \mathrm{st}=15 \mathrm{c} .=4 \mathrm{ft} . \operatorname{viz} .3+4+$ 4+4. End in Sc. or Pr. $2 d=12 \mathrm{c} .=4 \mathrm{ft}$. End in $\mathrm{Pr}_{\mathrm{r}}$.
3d $=15 \mathrm{c}$. End in D.
4th $=11 \mathrm{c} .=3 \mathrm{ft}$. End in Tr. 5th $=15 \mathrm{c}$. End in D.
6th to 9th=D6há as before.
Five species.
19. Padmávatí, Pr.Páuma, 32
$\times 4=128 \mathrm{c} .8 \mathrm{ft}$. no Sc.
20. Cun'd'alica, Pr. Curidalíá, stanza of eight $=142 \mathrm{c}$.
Dơhá + Rôlá or Cávya.
21. Gagan'ánganá, $25 \times 4=100$
c. 20 syll. viz. 5 L. \& 15 Br. End in I.
22. Dwipadí or Dwipada, $28 \times$ $2=56 \mathrm{c} .6 \frac{1}{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{ft}$. viz. $6+4+5+\mathrm{L}$.
23. C'hanjá, $41 \times 2=82 \mathrm{c}$.

10 ft. viz. 9 Pr. + C.
24. Sic'há, $28 \times 2=56 \mathrm{c}$.

7 ft. viz. 6 Pr. + Sc. See Sanscritt metre.
25. Mála, $45 \times 2=90$ c.
$11 \mathrm{ft} . \mathrm{viz} .4 \times 9+\mathrm{c} .+\mathrm{S}$.
Also 25. Málá $45+27=72$ c.
lst verse as above, 2 d verse Áryá.
26. Chúd'icalá, Pr. Chutrala, 29
$\times 2=58 \mathrm{c}$. Half the D6há +5 .
37. Saurassht'ra, Pr. S6ratt'ha, $11+13+11+13=48 \mathrm{c}$.
Reverse of the Dóhá.
28. Hácali, $14 \times 4=56 \mathrm{c}$.

31 ft. viz. $4 \times 3+$ L. (syll. 11 or 10). ft. D. Pe. or A. sometimes S. Not end in P. S.
29. Madbubháva, $8 \times 4=32$ c. 2 ft . End in Sc.
30. Abhira, $11 \times 4=44 \mathrm{c}$.
$7+$ Sc. or D. + I. + Sc. orSc. + Tr. +Sc.
31. Dan'd'acala, $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$. $4 \times 4+6+2+8$ or $10+8+14$. End in L.
32. Dípaca, $10 \times 4=40 \mathrm{c}$.
$4+5+$ Br. usually end in Sc.
33. Sinhávalóca, Pr. Sinhalté $16 \times 4=64$ c.
4 ft . A. or Pr. but end in A.
34. Plavangamá, Pr. Parangamá, $21 \times 4=84$ c. $6 \times 3+1$. Begin with L.
35. Lílávatí, 24 or less $\times 4=$ 96 or less. 6 ft . or less : not end in $A$.
36. Harigitá, $28 \times 4=112$ c. $5+6+5 \times 3+$ L. Should begin with Pr. and end in 8 .
37. Tribhangi, $32 \times 4=128$ c. 8 ft . No Sc. End in L.
38. Durmilá or Durmilicá, 32 $\times 4=128$ c.
$10+8+14$. ft. 8 .
39. Hira or Híraca, $23 \times 4=$ 92 c.
4 ft . viz. $6 \times 3+5$. ft. 6 Br . or 1
L. with 4 Br. End in L.
40. Jaladhara or Jalaharan'á, $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$.
Pauses $10+8+6+8$. ft. 8. Generally Pr. End in A.
41. Madanagrǐha or Madana-
hart, $40 \times 4=160 \mathrm{c}$.
$10+8+14+8=40$.
42. Maháráshtra, Pr. Marahatta, $29 \times 4=116$ c.
$10+8+11+$ or $6+4 \times 5+$ L. + Br.

Also the following kinds:
43. Ruchirá, $30 \times 4=120$ c.

71 ft . end in $L$.
44. Calicá, $14 \times 4=56$ c.

Pauses 8+6.
45. Vásan'a, $20 \times 4=80 \mathrm{c}$.

4 ft . End in C. Pause before the last.
46. Chaurbla, $16+14+16+$ $14=60$ c. ft. A. or $\mathrm{Pr}_{\mathrm{r}}$.
47. Jhallaná, $37 \times 4=148$ c. $7 \frac{\mathrm{ft} .5 \times 7+\mathrm{L} \text {. Pauses } 10+10+~}{\text { + }}$ $10+7$.
48. Ashád'ha, $12+7+12+7=$ 38 c.
49. Malavi, $16+12+16+12=$ 56 c.
Long verse 4 ft .; short verse end in $L$.
50. Mattá, $20 \times 4=80$ c. 5 ft . no Sc.
51. Rasamala, $24 \times 4=96$ c. 6 ft .
52. Avalambaca, $13 \times 4=52$. $3 \mathrm{ft} .4 \times 2+5$. End in L.

## IV. Metre regulated by number of syllables.

Vactra. $8 \times 4=32$ syll.
2 ft . between 2 syll. The species vary in the $2 \mathrm{~d} \mathbf{f t}$. or 3 d place.

1. Simple Vactra.
L. or Br. + M. \&c. (except Tr. \& A. and, in the even verse, C.) + B. + L. or Br. Therefore lst 4th \& 8th syll.
either long or short. 5th short. 6th and 7th long. Either 2d or 3d long.
Variations of the lst verse 24; of the 2 d 20.
2. Pat'hya.
lst verse as above; 2d with Sc. for 2d ft. Hence 7th syll. short.
3. Viparita pat'hya. The preceding transposed.
4. Chapale.
lst verse with Tr. for 2 d ft. Therefore 6th and 7th syll. short.
5. Vipulá.

2d verse (some say lst, others all) with 7th syll. short. Therefore 2d ft. D. Sc. H. or Tr.

5 or 7 species: Bha-vipulá, lst verse (some say either) with D. for 2 d ft. Ra-oipulá, with C. for 2d ft. Na-vipulá, 2d ft. Tr. Ta-vipula, $2 d$ ft H. Ma-vipulá, 2d ft. M. Yavipulá, 8 ft . B. Ja-vipula, 2d ft. Sc.
No instance occurs with an anapest for the 2d ft . or 3d place.
V. Acshara ch'handas or Varńa vritta. Metre regulated by number and quantity.

Regular or uniform metre; the stanza being composed of equal and similar verses. From one to five syllables in the verse, or from four to twenty in the stanza.
I. Uctí or Uet'ha. $1 \times 4=4$. IV. Pratishf'ha. $4 \times 4 \times 16$. 1. Srí, $g .=$ L. 2 Mahi, $l .=$ Br. $\quad$ 1. Canyá, or Tirn'á, Pr. Tin-
II. Atyuotí. $2 \times 4=8$.

1. Strí, or Cáma, 2 g. $=$ S. 2.

Rati, or Mahi, l. g. $=$ I. 3 Sáru, g. l.=T. 4. Madbu, Pr. Mahu, 2 l. $=\mathrm{P}$.
III. Madhyí. $3 \times 4=I 2$.

1. Nárí, or Tálf, m. $=$ M. 2 Sasi, Pr. Sasí, y.=B. 3. Priyá, Pr. Pia; or Mrígi, r. = C. 4. Raman'f, or Raman'f́, s.=A. 5. Panchála, or Pánchála, t. $=\mathrm{H}$. 6. Mrïgéndra, Pr. MaInda, j.= Sc. 7. Mandara, bh. $=$ D. 8. Camalf, or Camala, n. $=\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R}}$.
na, m. $g .=2$ S. 2. Ghári, or Hárica, r. l. $=2$ T. 3. Nagalicá, Lagálicá, Naganí, or Nagánica, Pr. Nagânáá, or Nagání, j. g. $=$ 2 I. 4. Satí, n. g. $=$ P. I.
V. Supratisht́'ba $5 \times 4=20$.
2. Pancti, Acsharapancti, or Hansa, bh. 2g. $=$ D. S. 2. Sammóhá, m. 2 g.=M. S. 3. Hárítabandha, or Hárí, 2 g. 6.2 g. or t. 2 g. $=$ S. B. 4. Priyá, 2 l. r. $=$ A. I. 5. Yamaca, Pr. Jamaca, n. $2 l .=P$. T'r.

## From six to twenty-syllables in the Verse.

I. GAyatrí. $6 \times 4=24$.

1. Tanumadhýa, $t y=S$ PS. 2. Vidyulléc'há, or Sésha, Pr. Sésá, $2 m=3$ S. 3. Sasivadaná, or Chauránsá, $n y=2$ PS. 4. Vasumati, $t s=$ S PI. 5. Vanitá, or Tilaca, Pr. Dillá, 2 s= 2 A. 6. Yodha, or Dwiy6dhi, Pr. Vijóha, $2 r=T$ S I. 7. Chaturansa, Pr. Chäuvansa, $n y=2$ P S. 8. Mant'hána, or Cámávatára, (half of the Sáranga), 2 $t=$ S I T. 9. Sanc'hanárí, or Somarají, (half of the Bhujangaprayáta), $2 y=I$ T S. 10. Málatí, Sumálatí, Vasanta, or Cáminícánta, $2 j=I$ P T. 11. Damanaca, $2 n=3$ P.
II. Ushíih $7 \times 4=28$.
2. Cumáralalitá, $(2+5) j s g$ $=I+$ Tre. S. 2. Madaléc'há, $^{\prime}$ m $^{2} g=\mathrm{S}$ D S. 3. Hansamálá, s rg=A T S. 4. Madhumati, $2 n g=2$ P A. 5. Sumánicá, rgl=2 T C. 6. Suvasa, $n j l$ $=2$ PD. 7. Carahanchá, $n$ s $l$ $=2$ P Sc. 8. Sírshá, Pr. Sisá, $2 m g=2 \mathrm{SM}$.

## III. Anushケ̌ubh $8 \times 4=$

 32.1. Chitrapadá, $2 \mathrm{bh} .2 \mathrm{~g}=2$ D 8. 2. Vidyunmálá, Pr. Bijjumaláa, $(4+4!) 2 m 2 g=2$ $\mathbf{8}+2$ 8. 3. Mán'avaca, or Man'avacécrid'á, $(4+4+)$ bh. $t \lg =$ TI + TI. 4. Hansaruta, $m n$ $2 g+$ S D B. 5. Pramáníćá Nagaswardipin'\{, or Matallicí, $j r$ $l g=4$ I. 6. Samánicé, or Mallića, $r j g l=4 \mathrm{~T}$. 7. Vitana, j t 2 g=2ITS. 8. Tungá, 2
$n 2 g=3$ P S. 9. Camala, $2 l$ $n r=2$ P 2 I. 10. Hansapadi, 2 $g m s=2$ S T I. 11. Mátangí, $m$ $2 l m=8$ TIS. 12. Rambhá, $n \lg m=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~S}$.
IV. Vrịhatí $9 \times 4=36$.
2. Halamuc'hi, $(3+6), r n$ s $=\mathrm{C}+2 \mathrm{P}$ I. 2. Bhajagasi8narita, $(7+2), 2 n m=2 P$ $\mathrm{A}+$ 8. 3. Bhadricá, $r n r=2$ T A I. 4. Mahálacshmí, $3 r=$ T S B 1. 5. Sárangí, or Sárngí, $n y s=2$ P SA. 6. Pávitra, Pr. Payitú, $m$ bh. $s=28$ P A. 7. Camalá, $2 n s=3$ PA. 8. Bimbá, $n s y=\mathbf{P}$ Tr. T 8. 9. Tomara, $s 2 j=\mathrm{A}$ I P T. 10. Rápamálf, $r m=38 \mathrm{M}$. 11. Man'imadhya or Man'ibandha, bh. $r \boldsymbol{s}=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{~T}$ I. 12. Bhujangasangatá, $s j r=A 31$.

## V. Pancti $10 \times 4=40$.

1. Suddhaviraj, $m s j g=\mathbf{S}$ T 3 I. 2. Panava, ( $5+5$ ) $m n$ $y g=\mathrm{SD}+\mathrm{AS}$ or $\boldsymbol{m} n j g=$ SD + AI. 3. Maydrasarin'1, $r$ $j r g=4$ TS. 4. Mattá, (4+ 6), mbh. $s g=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PS} .5$. Upast'hita, $(2+8) \iota 2 j g=\mathbf{S}+$ 2 A I. 6. Rucmavati or Champacamálá ( $5+5$ ) bh. msg D S + D S. 7. Manoramá, $n r j g=\mathbf{P}$ 4 I. 8. Sanyucta, P. Sanjuta, $s 2$ $j g=$ P 2 T 2 I. 9. Sárarati, 3 bh. $g=2 \mathrm{DT}$ I. 10. Sushamá, $\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{y}$ bh. $g=$ S AS A. 11. Amritamatí, or Amrłtagati, $n j n g=P$ A P A. 12. Hansi, $(4+6), m$ bh. $m g=2 \mathrm{~S}$ Tr. S . 13. Cbárumuc'hi, $n$ y $b \mathrm{~h} . g=\mathrm{PASA}$. 14. Chandramuc'hí, $t n$ bh. $g=$ SP2A.

## VI. Trishtubh $11 \times 4=$

 44.1. Indravajra, $2 t j 2 g=\mathrm{SI}$ DTS. 2. Upéndravajrá, $\boldsymbol{j} t \boldsymbol{j} 2$ $g=2$ ID TS. 3. Upajati, or Ác'hyánaci, ( 14 species). The two foregoing intermiaed. 4.D6d'haca, Bandhu or Nílaswarápa, $3 \mathrm{bh} .2 \mathrm{~g}=3 \mathrm{D}$ 8. 5. Sáliní, $(4+7+$ ), $m 2 t 2 g=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{C}$ Ts. 6. Vátormí, $(4+7+), m$ bh. $t 2 g=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{AT} \mathrm{S} .7$. Bhramaravilasita, ( $4+7+$ ), $m$ bh. $n l g=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{P}$ A. 8. Rat'boddhatá, $r n r l g=2 \mathrm{~T}$ A 2 I. 9. Swagatá, $r \boldsymbol{n}$ bh. 2 g $=2$ т А P S. 10. Vrǐntá or Vrittú, $(4+7+$ ), $2 n s 2 g=3$ PAS. 11. Syenicá, or Sren'icá, rjrlg=4 T C. 12. Sumuc'hí, ( $5+6 \ddagger$ ), $n 2 j l g=\mathrm{PA}+2 \mathrm{~A}$. 13. Bhadrićs, $2 n r l g=2$ P A 2 I. 14. Maucticamáa, Śri, Anuculá or Cudmaladanti, ( $5+6$ ), bh. $t n 2 g=$ DS +2 PS. 15 Upast'hitá, jst $2 g=1$ Tr. $\mathbf{S}^{\text {T }} \mathbf{S}$ 16. Upachitrá or Viséshicá, 3 s $l$ $g=3$ A I. 17. Capurushajanitá, $2 n \mathrm{ng} 2 \mathrm{~g}=2 \mathrm{PA}$ IS. 18. Anavasita, $n$ y bh. $2 g=2$ PS D S. 19. Mótanaca, t 2 jlg $=83 \mathrm{~A} .20$. Málatimálá, 3 m $2 g=48 \mathrm{M}$. 21. Damanaca, rnlg=4. P A. 22. Madándhá, $m s j 2 g=\mathrm{S} 2 \mathrm{Ts}$.
VII. Jagati $12 \times 4=48$.
2. Vansast'ha or Vansast'havila, $j t j r=2$ IT 31. 2. Indravanśa, $2 t j r=$ SIT 3 I. 3. Upajáti, the two foregoing intermixed. 4. Totaca, $4 s=4 \mathrm{~A}$. 5. Drutavilambita, $n 2$ bh. $r=$ PI 2 A I. 6. Sriputa or Puta,
$(8+4), 2 n m y=3 \mathrm{P} \mathrm{S}+\mathrm{T}$ S. 7. Jaloddhatagati, $(6+6)$, $j s j s=1 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{IPI} .8$. Tata or Lalitá, $2 n m r=3$ P 2 S I. 9. Cusumavichitré, $(6+6)$, $n y n y=2 \mathrm{PS}+2 \mathrm{PS} .10$. Chanchalácshićá, Pramuditavadaná, Mandáciní, Gaurí or Prabhá, $(7+5), 2 n 2 r=2 \mathrm{PA}+$ B I. 11. Bhujangaprayata, $4 y$ $=I T$ SIT S. 12. Aragvin'i or Lacshmidhara, $4 r=$ TSITS 1. 13. Pramitáćshará, $s j 2 s=$ A Sc. 2 A. 14. Cánt6tpad'á or Jaladharamálás $(4+8), m b h . s$ $m=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~S}$ or $b h . m s m$ $=D 3 D 2 \mathrm{~s}$. 15. Vaiswadévi, (5+7), $2 m 2 y=\mathrm{M} \mathrm{S}+\mathrm{TS}$ B. 16. Navamáliní, $(8+4)$, $n j b h . y=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~T}+\mathrm{PS} .17$. Chandravartma, $(4+8 t)$, $r n$ bh. $s=2$ T + P DA. 18. Priyamvadá, $n \boldsymbol{n}$ h. $\boldsymbol{j} r=$ PIP 3 I. 19. Man'imálá, $(6+6), t$ y $t y$ $=\mathrm{SPS}+\mathrm{SPS}$. 20. Lalitá, $t$ bh. $\mathrm{j}_{\mathrm{r}}=\mathrm{SIP} 3$ I. 21. Ujjwall,
 latí or Varatanu, $(5+7), n 2 \boldsymbol{j}$ $r=\mathrm{P}$ A +A 21 . ${ }^{23}$. Támarasa or Lalitapada, $n 2 j y=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{D}$ S. 24. Lalaná, $(5+7)$ bh. $m 2$ s $=\mathrm{DS}+\mathrm{DT}$ I or $6 \mathrm{~h} . \mathrm{tns}=\mathrm{D}$ $\mathrm{S}+2$ P A. 25. Drutapada, $s$ bh. $n y=$ PI3PS. 26. Vidyádhara, $(4+8), 4 m=28+4$ 8. 27 . Saranga, $4 t=8$ ITS I T. 28. Maucticadáma, $4 j=I$ PTIPT. 29. M6daca, 4 bh. $=4$ D. 30. Taralanayani, $4 n$ $=6 \mathrm{P}$.
VIII. Atijagatí, $13 \times$ $4=52$.
3. Praharshin'í, $(3+10) m n j$ $r g=\mathrm{M}+2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{Ts} .2 . \mathrm{Ru}-$
cliré, or Atiruchirá, $(4+9) j$ bh. $s j g=2 \mathrm{I}+2 \mathrm{P}$ T C. 3. Mattamayúra, or Máyá, $(4+9) m$ $t y s g=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{T}$ I DS. 4. Gauri, $2 n 2 r g=3$ P T S B. 5. Manjubháshin'f, Prabodhitá, Sunandini, or Canacaprabhá sj $\mathrm{s} j \mathrm{~g}=$ AI + P 3 I. 6. Chandricá, Cshamá, Utpalini, or Cutilagati, $(7+6) 2 n 2 t g=P A+T S$ I. 7. Calabansa, Chitravati, or Sinhanáda, sj2sg=P2TP D S. 3. Chancharicávalf, $y m 2$ $r g=12 \mathrm{SC}$ T S. 9. Chandraléc'há, $(6+7) n$ s $r y g=2$ $\mathbf{P I}+2$ T M. 10. Vidyut, (6 +7) $n s 2 t g=2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{SI}$ C. 11. Mrǐgéndramuc'ha, $n 2 j$ $r g=$ P A P 2 TS. 12. Táraca, 4 s $g=3$ APS. 13. Calacanda, or Canda 4 y $l=$ B I T SIT. 14. Pancajávalf, or Pancávalí, lh. $n 2 j l=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{D}$. 15. Chan'd'f, $2 n 2$ sg= 4 PD S. 16. Prabhâvati, $(4+9)$ t bh. sj $g$ $=S \mathrm{I}+2$ PTC.
IX. Śsaccarí, $14 \times 4=$ 56.
4. Asambádhá, $(5+9) m$ tn ${ }^{2} 2 g=\mathrm{MS}+2 \mathrm{PAS}$. 2 . Aparajitá, $(7+7) 2 n r: l g=$ $2 \mathrm{PA}+1 \mathrm{~A} \mathrm{I}$ ors $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{r} \boldsymbol{s} \lg \mathrm{g}=$ PTAIAI. 3. Praharan'acalita, or Calica, $(7+7) 2 n b h . n l g=$ 2 PA+2PA. 4. Vasantatilaca, Sinhonnat́́, Uddharshin'f, Madhumádhaví, or Sobbhávatí, $t$ bh. $2 \boldsymbol{j} 2 \mathrm{~g}=$ S I P I P T S. 5. Lóla, or Alolá, $(7+7) m s m b h$. $2 g=S$ D S + S D S. 6. Induvadaná, or Varasundari, bh.j sn $2 g=$ T PTPTPS. 7. Nadi, (7+7) $2 n t j 2 g=2 \mathrm{PA}+$ DTS. 8. Lacshmi, mstbh.
$2 g=S$ DSTDS. 9. Supavitra, $(8+6) 4 n 2 g=4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{PS}$. 10. Mudhyacshamé $(4+10)$ or Cutilá, $(4+6+4) m$ 6h. $n$ y 2 $g=2 \mathrm{~S}+3 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{~S}$. 11. Pramar dá, $n j b h . j l g=2$ P 2 TPTI. 12. Manjarí, $(5+9)$ s $j$ s $l g=$ P 2 TPTSI. 13. Cumárí, (8 +6) $n j b h . j 2 g=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{TP}$ TS. 14. Sucésara, nrnrlg= P 2 I P 3 I. 15. Vásantí, $m t n m$ $2 g=2$ S D A 2 S. 16. Nándimuc'hí, $(7+7) 2 n 2 t 2 g=3$ PSIT S. 17. Chacra, or Chacrapáta, $b h .3 n l g=$ T 5 PI. 18. Lilopavatí, $(4+10) 4 m 2 g=2$ $8+5$ S. 19. Natagati, $4 n 2 g$ $=6 \mathrm{P}+\mathrm{S} .20$. C6pavati, bh. m stlg=DSDSTI.

## X. Atisaccarí $15 \times 4=$

 60.1. Chandrávarté, $(7+8 \ddagger) 4 n s=$
 $(6+9) 4 n s=2 \mathrm{Tr}_{\mathrm{r}}+2 \mathrm{Tr}$. A. 3. Man'igun'anicara, $(8+$ 7) $4 n s=4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{P}$ A. 4 . Máliní, or Nandímuc'hi, (8 +7) $2 n m 2 y=3 \mathbf{P S}+\mathbf{C T}$ 8. 5. Chandraléc'há, $(7+8)$ $m r m 2 y=2 \mathrm{SB}+\mathrm{SITS}$. 6. Cámacríd'á, Lílac'hela, or Sábrangicá and Sarangaca, $5 \mathrm{~m}=$ 6 S M. 7. Prabhadraca, or Subhadraca and Sucésara, $(7+8$ $n j b h . j r=2$ PC + P 3 I. 8. Elá, $(5+10)$ s $j 2 n y=A 1$ +4 I T. 9. Upamáliní, $(8+$ 7) $2 n t b h . r=3$ PT +8 AI. 10. Vipinatilaca, $n$ s $n 2 r=2$ PITr. TSI. 11. Chitra, 3 m $2 y=3$ S M ITS. 12. Tun'aca, or Chámara, ( $8 \mathrm{~L} 7 \mathrm{Br} .=$ 23 c.) $=6$ T C. 13. Bhramaravali, $5 s=5$ A. 14. Manahansa,
$2 \boldsymbol{2}$ bh. $r=$ AIP 2 T 21.15. Sarabba, or Saficala, $4 n+s=$ 6 P A. 16. Nisipala, bh. $\mathrm{j}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{n} \boldsymbol{r}$ =DIP1P2I. 17. Utsara, rn 2bh. $r=2$ T3AI. 18. Hansa, $(8+7) n 2 j r y=2$ PD 3 TS.
XI. Ashír, $16 \times 4=64$.
2. RY̌shabhagajavilasita, or Gajaturangavilasita, $(7+9) b h . r 3 n$ $g=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{~T}+3 \mathrm{P}$ A. 2. Ván'iní, $n j$ bh.jrg=2P2TP2TS. 3. Chitra, Chitrasanga, Atisundara or Chanchalá (double Samánicá)rjrjrl=8T. 4. Panchachámara, Nárácha, or Narácha, (double Pramánicá), $\boldsymbol{j}$ r $\boldsymbol{j r}$ $j g=8$ T. 5. Dhiralalita, bh. $\boldsymbol{r} \boldsymbol{n}$ rng=D 2 TP2TA. 6. C'bagati, Níla, Lílá or Aśwagati, 5 bh. $g=4$ D T I. 7. Chacita (8 +8) $b h . s m t n g=\mathrm{DAS}+8 \mathrm{D}$ A. 8. Madanalalitá, $(4+6+6)$ $m b h . n m n g=2 S+2 P I+S P I$. 9. Pravaralalita, $m n s r g=I 28$ 2 PIT 8. 10. Garud'aruta, nj $6 h$. jtg=2P2TPTSI. 11. Sailasic'bá, $(16$ or $5+6+5) 6 h . r$ $n 2 b h . g=12 T 3 A$ or D T+T $\mathrm{PT}+\mathrm{IA}$. 12. Varayuvati, bh. ry2ng=D2TS2PA. 13. Brahmerúpaca, (double Vidyunmálá) $5 m g=8$ 8. 14. Achaladhrüta, or Gítyáryá, $5 n l=8 \mathrm{P}$. 15. Pínanitambá, $(4+5+7) m t$ $y m \cdot s=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{DS}+\mathrm{SDS} 16.$. Yauvanamatth, (5+ll) bh. 3 ms $g=\mathrm{D} \mathbf{S + 3} \mathbf{S D}$ S.
XII. Atyashfí, $17 \times 4=$ 68.
3. Sic'harin'f, $(6+11)$ y mns bh. $l g=\mathrm{I} 2 \mathrm{~S}+2$ PIDI. 2 . Pritthwi, $(8+9) j$ s $j$ s $y l g=1$ P2I + Tr.TSL. 3. Vansapa-
trapatita, or Vanfapatra, $10+$ 7) $6 h . r n b h . n l g=D 2 \mathrm{TA}+2$ PA. 4. Harin'f, $(6+4+7$ or $4+$ $6+7)$ n $s m r s l g=2 \mathrm{Pl}+2 \mathrm{~S}$ + I AI. 5. Mandácréntá, $(4+6$ +7) $m b h . n 2 t 2 g=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI}$ + C T S. 6. Nercut'aca, or Nardbat'aca ( $7+10$ ), or Avitat'ha (I7t), njbh. $2 j l g=T a .21+$ Tr. T I A. 7. Cb́cilaca, $(7+6$ $+4+$ or $8+5+4 \dagger)=$ Tre $^{2} 2 \mathrm{I}+$ PIP+T I. 8. Hari, $(6+4+7)$ $2 n m r s l g=3 P+2 S+1 A I$. 9. Cántá, or Crántá, $(4+6+7) y$ bh.nrsly=IS+2PI+IAI. 10. Cbitralec'ha, or Atisayani, $(10+7) 2 \mathrm{~s} j$ bh.j $2 g=2 \mathrm{~A} 2 \mathrm{I}$ + Tr. T S. 1I. Máládhara, or Vanaméládhara, $n s j$ sylg=2 P2ITr. THI. 12. Hárin'í, (4
 PI+8 BI.
XIII. Dhrĭti, $18 \times 4=$ 72.
4. Cusumitalatá véllitá, $(5+6$ +7) $m t n 3 y=\mathrm{MS}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{C}$ T S. 2. Mahámálicá, Nárácha, Latá, Vanamálá, $(10+8+) 2 n 4$ $r=3$ PTS + ITSI. 3. Sudhá, $(6+6+6)$ y mnst $\Longleftarrow 12 \mathrm{~S}$ +2 PI+SPI. 4. Harin'apluta, $(8+5+5) m s 2 j b h . r=8 \mathrm{~T} 2 \mathrm{I}$ +AI+A I. 5. Aswagati, 5 bh. $s=5$ D A. 6. Chitralec'hé, (4+ 7+7) $m 2 n 2 t m=S T+P T R$. S +1 TM. 7. Bhramarapada, bh.r3nm=D2T3PAS. 8. Sárdúlalalita, $(12+6) \mathrm{ms}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{s}$ t s =S D2TA + SPI. 9. Sár-
 TA+T28. 10. Césara, ( $4+7$ +7) $m b h . n$ y $2 r=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ + SIC. 11. Nandana, (11 + 7) $n j b k . j 2 r=2$ P T DII +2 I
C. 12. Chitraálá, Chitraléc'há, $(4+7+7)$ mbh. n $3 y=2 S+2$ PA+CTS. 13. Chala, $4+7$ +7) $m$ bh.njbh. $r=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{P} \mathrm{A}$ +I A I. 14. Vibudhapriya, (8+ $10 \dagger$ )r $82 j$ bh. r=2T2I+ P 2 T 2 I. 15. Manjíra, $2 m b h$. $m s m=3$ SDSD 2 S. 16. Crídtchandra, $6 y=I T P I T P I T P$. 17. Charchari, rs $2 j b h . r=T D$ ID2T2I.
XIV. Atidheiti, $19 \times$ $4=76$.
5. SÁrdalavicrílita, or Sárdala, $(12+7) m s j \operatorname{ctg}=\mathbf{8 D} 2 \mathbf{T}$ $A+S I C$. 2. Méghavisp'hurjita, or Vismita, $(6+6+7)$ y $m$ ns $2 \mathrm{rg}=\mathrm{I} 2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI} \mathrm{C}$ C TS. 3. PanchachAmara, $2 n+$ alternate $g \ell T r$. P 7 I. 4. Pushpadáman $(5+7+7) m$ nns $2 r g=$ MS+2PA+CTS. 5. Bimbá, $(5+7+7) m t n s 2 t g=M S+2$ P A+H S I. 6. Ch'háyá, ( $6+6$ +7 or $12+7) y m n s b \hbar . t g=I$ $2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{DBI}$. 7. Macarandicé, $(6+6+7)$ y $m n: 2 j g$ $=12 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{IA}$ I. 8. 82 madratath, $(8+4+7) j$ s $j$ s $t 6 \pi$. $g=I$ P $2 \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{PI} \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{S} \mathrm{I}$ A. 9. Surasa, $(7+7+5) m r b h . n y n g$ $=\mathbf{M T S}+2 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{DI}$. 10 . Man'imanjarl, y bk. n y $j g=1$ S2PART2I. 11. Chandra. málá, ór Chandra, $(10+9) 3 n j$ $2 n l=5$ P + D 3 P. 12. Dhavalanca, or Dhavala, $6 n g=8 \mathrm{P}$ A. 13. Samblu, $(7+6+6)$ sty bh. $2 \mathrm{mg}=\mathrm{ASASASS}$.
XV. Críti, $20 \times 4=80$.
6. Auvadaná, $(7+7+6) m r b h$. $n y b h . l g=2 \mathrm{SB}+2 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{SP}$ I. 2. Vritta, or Gambea, rjrirj
$g l=10$ T. 3. S6bhá, $(6+7+$ 7) $y m 2 n 2 t 2 g=I 28+2 \mathrm{PA}$ + T SB. 4 Gíticá, or Gítú, $s 2$ jbh.rslgatiP2T2IAI.
XVI. Pracriti, $21 \times 4$ $=84$.
7. Sragdhard, $(7+7+7) m r$ bh. $n 3 y=2 \mathrm{SB}+2 \mathrm{PA}+$ T S B. 2. Salilanidhi, Sarasi, Siddhaca, SaSivadana, or Dhritasri, $n j b h .3 j r=2$ PTDI+ 2 A2 I. 3. Narendra, bh. r 2 n 2 jy=D2T3P2DS.
XVII. Ácryti, $22 \times 4=$ 88.
8. Bhadraca, $(10+12) 6 h . r_{n}$ rnrng=D 2 TA+ITR. 2 TA. 2. Madira, or Lalitá, $7 b \mathrm{bh} . \mathrm{g}=6$ D T I. 3. Hansi, $(8+14) 2 m 2$ $g 4 n 2 g=4 \mathrm{~S}+6 \mathrm{PS}$.
XVIII. Vichĭti, $23 \times 4$ $=92$.
9. Aswalalita, or Adritanaya, $(11+12) n j b h . j b h . j b h . l g=$ 2 P'TI + I TR.TDI. \& Mattacríd'á, or Vájiváhana, (8+ 15) $2 m t 4 n t g=4 \mathrm{~S}+6 \mathrm{P}$ A. 3. Sundarí, $(7+6+10) 2 s b h . s t$ $2 j=A P S+2 P S+2 D$. Málati, or Madamatta, 7 bh .2 g $=7$ D S. 5. Chitrapada, 7 bh. $l$ $g=7$ D I. Mallicá, $7 j l g=I P$ TIPTIPTIA.
XIX. Sanctiti, $24 \times 4$ $=96$.
10. Tanwi, $(5+7+12$ or $12+12)$ bh.t $n$ \& $2 b h . n y=D S+2 P A+2$ D 2 P8. 2. Darmila, $8 s=8$ A. 3. Ciríta, 8 bh. $=8$ D. 4. Jánaci, 8 r=TSITSITSITSI. 5. Madháviéa, $7 j$ g $=$ IPTIPT IPTIPG.

M 2
XX. Aticryti, $25 \times 4$ 100.

1. Craunchpadá, $(5+5+8+$ 7) $b h . m s b h .4 n g=D S+D S$ $+4 \mathrm{P}+2$ P A. 2. Sambhu, 8 $m g=11 \mathrm{SM}$.
XXI. Utcriti, $26 \times 4=$ 104.
2. Bhujangavijrïmbhita, ${ }^{8}+$ $11+7) 2 m \cdot t 3 n \operatorname{sig}=4 \mathrm{~S}+$ $4 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{IA}$ I. 2. Apavaha, (9 $+6+6+5) m 6 n s 2 g=S \mathrm{D} 2$ $\mathbf{P}+3 \mathbf{P}+3 \mathbf{P}+\mathrm{AS}$. 3. Gauri, $8 m 2 g=13 \mathrm{~S}$.

From 27 to 999 syllables in the verse.
Dafbaca, $27 \times 4=108$ to $999 \times 4$ 4. Mattamétangalflácara, 9 \&c. $r$
$=3,996$.

1. Chan'd'avrİsht'iprayáta, 2 n $7 \boldsymbol{r = 2} \mathrm{Tr}_{\mathrm{r}} 7 \mathrm{C}$.
2. Prachita, 2 n 8 \&c. $r$. 325 species from 9 to 333 feet, viz. 2d Arn'á, $2 n 8$ r. 3d Arn'ava, 2 n 9 r. 4th Vyála, 2 n 10 r. 5th Jímúta, 2 n $11 r$ \&c. Or 3. Prachita, $2 n 7$ \&c. $y=2$
Tr. 7 \&c. B.
$=9$ \&c. C.
3. Sinhavicranta, $2 n 10 \& c . r$.
4. Cusumastavaca, 9 \&c. $s=9$ \&c. A.
5. Anangas'éc'hara, $\lg \lg \& c_{0}=$ 15 \&c. I.
6. Aścumanjarí, $r \boldsymbol{j}$ \&c. $=15$ \&c. $T$.
Also Sílgra, $2 \mathrm{~g} 8 \mathrm{ng}=\mathrm{S} 12$ PA.
VI. Half equal Metre; the stanza being composed of equal and similar couplets; but the couplets, of dissimilar verses.
7. Upachitra, $\left(U_{p a j a ̈ t i}+T\right.$ ámarasa) lst 3 verse $3 s l g=3 \mathrm{~A}$ I. $2 \mathrm{~d} 3 \mathrm{bh} .2 \mathrm{~g}=3 \mathrm{D}$.
8. Drutamadhýá, (Dódhaca + Tamarasa). lst 3 bh. $2 \mathrm{~g}=3 \mathrm{D}$ S. $2 \mathrm{~d} n 2 j y=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{DS}$.
9. Vegavat $\mathrm{f},\left(U_{p a c h i t r a-p e-~}^{\text {- }}\right.$ nult Br. in lst verse). lat $3 \mathrm{~g} g$ $=2$ A P S. 2d $3 b h .2 g=3$ D S.
10. Bhadraviraj (species of $A \boldsymbol{A}$ pach'handasica) lst tjrg=S P 2 TS. $2 \mathrm{~d} m s j 2 g=\mathrm{SD} 2 \mathrm{~T}$ S.
11. Cétumatí, lst $s j s g \simeq A I$ Tr. S. 2d bh.rn2g=T. 2 I Tr. S.
12. Ãc'hýnací (Upajáti viz. alternate Indravajra and Upén-
dravajra; some say one verse Indravajra, three Upéndravajm.) lst (and 3d) $2 t j 2 g=S I D T S$. 2d (and 4th, some say 3d) $j t j+2$ $g=2$ I D T S.
13. Viparitác'hyánaci (the converse of the preceding) lst $j t j 2$ $g=2$ I DTS. $2 \mathrm{~d} 2 t \boldsymbol{j} 2 \boldsymbol{g}=\mathrm{S}$ I DTS.
14. Harin'aplutá (Drutavilambita - one syllable) lat $3 s l g=$ 3 AI. 2d $n 2 b h . r=$ PI 2 AI.
15. Aparavactra (species of Vai táliya or Bhadricá + Málatt). lst $2 n r l g=2$ PAI. 2dn2jr +P2A2I.
16. Pushpitagrá (species of

Aupach'handasica). lst $2 n r y \quad$ 14. Lalita, lst $r \operatorname{slg}=2 \mathrm{~T} 2$
=3P2TS. 2dn2jrg=2P D 2 T 8.
11. Yavamatí, lst $\boldsymbol{r} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{r} \boldsymbol{j}=6$ T. $2 \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{r} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{r g}=5 \mathrm{IB}$.
12. Sic'há. lst $28 \mathrm{lg}=7 \mathrm{Tr}$. I. $2 \mathrm{~d} 30 \mathrm{lg}=7$ Tr. P I.
13. C'hanjá, lst $30 \lg ={ }_{7} \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{r}}$. P. $2 \mathrm{~d} \mathbf{2 8} \mathrm{lg}=7$ Tr. I .
I. $2 \mathrm{~d} \operatorname{snj} g=\mathrm{A}$ Tr. 2 I .
15. Caumudi. (Bhadricá + Chanchalácshicá 3). lst $2 n \mathrm{n}$ lg =Tr.P31. 2d $2 n 2 r=3 P$ TSI.
16. Manjusaurabha (Málati + Manjubhashiki) lst $n \mathbf{2 j r}=$ 2PT3I. 2dsjsjg=AIP3I.
VII. Unequal Metre; the stanza being composed of dissimilar verses.
I. Udgatá, lat verse $s j s l=$
3. Padachatururdha, increasing AITr.T.2dnsjg=Tr. A 2 in arithmetical progression from J. 3d $b h . n j l g=$ T Tr. 2 A. 8 to 20 syll. viz. lst verse 8, 2d 4th $\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{g}=\mathrm{AIP}$ I. 2 varieties: viz. Saurabhaca, 3d verse $r n b h . g=T D 2$ A. Lalita, 3d verse $2 n 2 s=2$ Tr. $^{2} 2$ A.
2. Upast'hitaprachupita, lst verse $m s j b h .2 g=S$ D 2 TD 8 . 2dsnjrg=A2P2TS. 3d2ns $=3$ PA. 4th $3 n j y=5$ PDS. 2 varieties: viz. Vardhamana, 3d verse $2 n s 2 n s=3$ PA3PA; 12. 3d 16. 4th 20.

6 species: viz. Apiał, End in S. Rest Br. Pratyapiaa, Begin with $\mathbf{S}$ or begin and end with S. Manjarr or Calicá. lst and 2d verses transposed $12+8+16+20$. Lavali, lst and 3d transposed 16 $+12+8+20$. Amř̛tadhárá, 1st and 4th transposed $20+12+$ $+16+8$. Śuddhavirálrł̌shabha, 3d verse $t$ $j r=S$ A 2 I.

## VIII. Supplement, under the denomination of GÁt'HA.

1. Stanzas comprising four unequal verses, constituting a metre not described by writers on prosody.
2. Stanzas comprising more or fewer verses than four; viz. three, five, six, \&c.
3. Any metre not specified by Pingala.
4. Metre not specified by any writer on prosody.

## V.

> Introductory Remaris,
> Prefixed to the Edition of the Hitbpadésa,
> Published at Calcutta, 1804. 4to.

To promote and facilitate the study of the ancient and learned language of India, in the College of Fort William, it has been judged requisite to print a few short and easy compositions in the original Sanscrit. The first work chosen for this purpose, and inserted in the present volume, under its title of Hitbpadéśa, or 'Salutary Instruction,' had been translated by Mr. Wileins, and by the late Sir William Jones, as the text of a very ancient collection of apologues, familiarly known, in the numerous versions of it, under the name of 'Fables of Pilpay.' The great advantage, which may be derived by students, from consulting correct translations, at their first acquaintance with Sanscrit literature, has indicated this work as the fittest for selection; although it be not strictly the original text, from which those beautiful and celebrated apologues were transferred into the languages of Persia, and of the West.

In the concluding line of the poetical preface to the Hittopadésa, it is expressly declared to have been drawn from the Panchatantra and other writings. The book, thus mentioned as the chief source, from which that collection of fables was taken, is divided into five chapters, as its name imports : it consists, like the Hitopadéśa, of apologues, recited by a learned Bráhman named Vishń u śarman, for the instruction of his pupils, the sons of an Indian
monarch; but it contains a greater variety of fables, and a more copious dialogue, than the work, which has been chiefly compiled from it; and, on comparison with the Persian translations now extant, it is found to agree with them more nearly, than that compilation, both in the order, and the manner in which the tales are related.

To compare them, it has been first necessary to exclude all the additions, which have been made by translators. These have been explained by Abu'lfazl, with the history of the publication itself, in the preface to his own version, entitled Ayár dánisk; and by Husain WAez, in the introduction to the Anwári Suhaili.

They recite from Abu'lmála's preface to his translation of the Calilah u Damnah, that Barzuyar, an eminent and learned physician, being purposely sent into Hindustán by Núshívin, king of Persia, brought a transcript of this with other books, which were preserved among the best guarded treasures of the kings of India : and it was immediately translated into Pelleví, for the gratification of the Persian monarch, under the superintendence of his minister Buzbrchumihr.

From this version in Pehleví, by Buzerchumifr, or by Barzúyar, (and which is said to have borne the title of Humáyú̀n námeh, Jávidán khird, and testament of Hushenk, the book was translated into the Arabic language by Imám Abu'lhasan Abdullah benu'l Mukaffa, in obedience to the commands of Abu'ljafer Mansíp, second kkalif of the house of Abrís. From Arabic, it was restored into Persian, by direction of Abu'l Hasan Nabru'ddin Ahmed, a prince of the race of Símád; and was clothed in verse by the poet Rúdaci, for Sultán Mahmed Sabactagín. It was again translated into prase, from the Arabic of Abdillaf, by desire of $A b u$ 'lmuzafr Bahbím sháh, son of Sultán Masagd, a de-
scendant of Sultán Mahmod of Ghazna: and this version, the author of which was Abu'lmala Nasrullah, is the same which has been since current under the title of Calílah u Damnah. It underwent a revision, and received the embellishment of flowery language from Husain WAez CAshafi, at the suggestion of Amár Shaikh Ahmed, surnamed Suhailí, a chieftain commanding under Sultán Husain Mirza, of the house of Taimgr; and this highly polished version is named from the author's patron Anvoári Suhailh. It was lastly revised, and put into plainer, but elegant language, by Abu'lfazl, in obedience to the orders of the Emperor Acbar.

This amended translation comprises sixteen chapters; ten of which, as Abu'lfazl states in his preface, were taken from the Hindí original entitled Caratac and Dawanac; and six were added by Buzerchumifir, namely, the four last, containing stories recited by the Bráhman Bidpaí, in answer to the questions of the King Dábishlim ; and the two first, consisting of a preface by Buzerchumifr, with an introduction by Barzeyah. Both these introductory chapters had been omitted by Husain Wáez, as foreign to the original work: but he substituted a different beginning, and made other additions, some of which are indicated by him, and the rest are pointed out by Abu'lfazl; who has nevertheless retained them, as appendages not devoid of use, and therefore admissible in a composition intended solely to convey moral instruction. The whole of the dramatic part, including all the dialogue between Dábishlim, king of India, and Bídpíi or Pilpai, a Bráhman of Sarándíp, as well as the finding of Hushenk's legacy, (from both which the work itself has derived two of the names, by which it has been most frequently distinguished ;) appears to have been added by the translators, although the appellations of the king, and of
the philosopher, are stated to be of Indian origin.* For Abu'lpazl has inserted the story at the close of the second chapter; after expressly declaring, in one place, that the substance of the work begins with the third ; and in another, that the two first were added by the author of the Pehlevi translation.

Setting apart then the dramatic introduction, in which the Persian differs from both the Panchatantra and the Hitópadésa, and beginning the comparison from the third chapter of the Calilah u Damnah, it is found, that the fable of the ox $\dagger$ and lion, with all the subsequent dialogue between the shakals Caratuca and Damanaca, constituting the first chapter of the Panchatantra, corresponds with the Persian imitation; excepting, however, a few transpositions, and the omission of some apologues, as well as the insertion of others.

Thus the fable of 'The Ape and the Carpenter's wedge,' which is first in both works, is immediately followed, in the Panchatantra, by that of 'The Shakal and the drum;' but the Persian translators have here introduced a different apologue. They have placed the story of 'The Thief and the Mendicant,' with others included in it, immediately after

[^75]that of 'The Fox and the drum ;' but the Panchatantra interposes another tale, the omission of which, however, induces no imputation on the good taste of the translators. They have next substituted two fables, ('The Sparrow, the Hawk, and the Sea,' and ', The Reformed Tyrant;') for a story of a wheelwright's marriage with a king's daughter.

The next three fables are alike in the Sanecrit and Persian ; but two, which follow (viz. 'The Louse and the Bug;' and 'The Blue Shakal,') are omitted by the translators ; who have evinced their judgment in the rejection of the first.

The fable of 'The Three Fish,' is placed next by the Persian authors, and is followed by five others, which do not occur in the Panchatantra. These are succeeded by three more, which are placed by the Sanscritt author, immediately after the fable of 'The Blue Shakal,' and before that of 'The Three Fish.'

Here the Panchatantraintroduces a story of an elephant, whose death was procured through the means of a gad-fly, by birds whom he had aggrieved. But it has been omitted in the Persian, and so has the next fable, of 'The Lion and the Leopard.'

The remaining apologues, belonging to the first chapter, are alike in both works; excepting that of 'The Gardener, the Bear, and the Fly,' which is inserted last but one, in the Persian translation; but which does not occur in the Panchatantra.

Many of these fables are also found in the Hitbpadésa, but arranged in quite a different order, being interspersed with others, through the three last chapters of that compilation.

Without further particularizing the variations of the Persian from the Sanscrit, it may be sufficient to say, that the five chapters of the Panchatantra agree, in the subject, and in the general arrangement of the fables, with the third, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth, chapters of the Ayar
dáscisk: and that more than half of the fables, contained in that part of the Persian work, which purports to have been derived from the Indian toxt, corresponds exactly to similar apologues in the Sanscrit. In most instances of omission, a reason may be easily conjectured for the rejection of the original stories: and those, which have been sabstituted for them, as well as the few contained in the remaining chapters, which are not avowedly additiomal, may have been taken by the first translator, either from other Indian works, (for Barzoyar is stated to have brought more than one book from Hixdustan ;) or, though not acknowledged by him, may have been drawn from different sources. It probably was more his design to present to the King of Persia a pleasing collection of apologues, than a strictly faithful translation of a single Indian work.

This collection of fables has been translated more frequently, and into a greater variety of languages, than any other composition not sacred; and, although the earliest paraphrase, in Pehlevi, be now lost, its Arabic version is extant, or lately was so; and may be easily verified through the translations made into more than one language, upon the Arabic text.

It is unnecessary to speak of another Arabic version said to have been taken from the original text of a pretended king of India named Isam, three handred years before the time of Alexander; or to mention that made from the testament of Hoshbns (entitled Jávoidán kkird), by Hasan, son of Suhail, Minister of al Mamen, the seventh khalif of the Abbásí dynasty. For both these pretended versions are probably the same with Abdoullab's, but erroneously ascribed to other authors.

From his Arabic text, a Greek translation, entitled Stephanites and Ichnelates, was completed, seven hundred years ago, by Simeo Sethus, for the Emperor Alexius

Comnenus. One in Syriac, under the title of Calaileg and Damnag, is probably taken from the Arabic, though purporting to be derived immediately from the Indian text. The Turkish versions (for there are more than one) have been derived mediately or immediately from the Arabic; and several Latin and Italian translations have been drawn from the Greek of Sethus; not to mention another Latin one from the Hebrew, nor the German and Spanish versions from the Latin and the Italian. All these, as well as the French translations of Gaulmin, DavidSaid, Galland and Cardonne, from the Persian Calilah u Damnah, and from the Turkish Humáyún námeh and Anwári Suhaiĺ, as also the English version from the French, appear to have been compared with considerable attention by various persons : but, excepting two unfaithful imitations in Latin and Italian, the general correspondence of the rest seems to be acknowledged.*

We may conclude, therefore, that the Persian Calilah u Damnah, and Ayár dánish, exhibit a sufficiently exact representation of the Arabic translation from the Pehlevi; and that, after rejecting avowed additions, we ought to find there a near resemblance to the Indian original. From a careful collation of both Sanscritt works with the genuine parts of the Persian translation, it is evident, as has been already shown, that the Panchatantra corresponds best with them : and there can be little hesitation in pronouncing this to be the original text of the work, which was procured from India by NGsiirvín more than twelve hundred years ago.

[^76]This fact is not without importance in the general history of Indian literature; since it may serve to establish the greater antiquity of authors who are quoted in the Panchatantra; and amongst others, that of the celebrated astrologer Vardia Mirira, who is cited by name in one passage of the first chapter.

The Hitbpadésa, containing nearly the same fables told more concisely and in a different order, has been translated into Persian, in comparatively recent times, by Maulaví TÁju'ddín, who entitled it Muferrehu'lkulub; and who does not appear, from his preface, to have been aware, that the work, translated by him, was any way connected with the Calilah u Damnak.

This, as well as the Hindí version of it, by $\operatorname{Mir}$ Behádur Alf, which has been printed for the use of the College of Fort William, and which is entitled Akhláki Hindh, may afford some help to a student, reading the Hittpadésa, for his first exercise in the Sanscrĭt language. He will find still more effectual assistance in the English translations by Sir William Jones and Mr. Wilkins: and, for this advantage, no less than for its easy style, the Hitbpadéśa has the first place in the present collection of Sanscrit works.

The second place in it has been allotted to a short story in verse, which is abridged from a celebrated poem of Dańdi's. This distinguished poet, famous above all other Indian bards for the sweetness of his language, and therefore ranked by Cálidása himself (if tradition may be credited) next to the fathers of Indian poetry, VAlmici and Vyása, composed a pleasing story in harmonious verse, under the title of Daśa cumára charita, or 'Adventures of the Ten Youths.' It is divided into two parts: the first comprising five chapters, and ending with the marriage of the principal hero; the other containing, through eight
more chapters, the adventures of the same primee and his nine companions. The first part has been abridged by more than one author; among others, by Vinivaca in about two hundred couplets collected into three sections; and by Apyayya, in as many sections, and nearly the same number of couplets. This abridgment, being composed in easy, correct, and smooth language, is preferable to the other, and has been selected for its merits in those respects ; though the story be told with too great conciseness to preserve much interest.

Concerning the author of this epitome, or argument, of Dax́di's poem, no information has been yet obtained. He calls himself a counsellor and minister, and was probably in the service of some Hindu Rájá.

The present volume ends with three Satacas or centuries of verses by Bhartrif habi. They were recommended for selection, partly by their prevailing moral tendency, though some passages be far from unexceptionable; and partly as a fit specimen of polished Sanserit verse. The poetical beauties, which are most admired by the Hinda learned, and which are inculcated by their writers on rhetoric, are scattered in these couplets of Bhartry hari, with a more sparing hand than in most of the laboured performances of Indian poets: and, from this cause, his poetry is less obscure than theirs.

These Śatacas are ascribed by the unanimous consent of the learned, to Bhartry hari, the brother of Vicramíditya. He is also the reputed author of a grammatical treatise. It is possible, perhaps it might be said probable, that these may have been composed by a dif ferent person in his name. But it is clear from the first couplet of the Nitti sataca, that they have been written either in the real, or in the assumed character of Bhartrir
hari, simee that couplet alludes to a circumstance conspicuous in the traditional story of his life.

The authentic history of Bhartrif hari, is too intimately blended with that of ancient India, and involves questions of too great intricacy, to be stated, or discussed, in this preface. It remains only to say a few words respecting the present edition of the three works which have been here mentioned.

The editor, Mr. Carey, undertook the publication, on a saggestion from the Council of the College of Fort William, and under the patronage of Government. He has, at the same time, risked a larger edition than was required for the College, in the expectation of encouragement from the public.

In printing the Hitopadésa, six manuscript copies were collated. They were found to differ much, in the quotation of whole passages, as well as in the reading of single words. Either the reading most suitable to the context, or that which was found in the greatest number of copies, has been selected, according as circumstances have dictated the propriety of following one rule or the other.

The abridgment of the Daśa cumára has been printed from a single copy: and the Śatacas of Bhartry hari, from three manuscripts; every one of which was incomplete: but the deficiencies did not occur in the same places.

With the last Śataca, the style of which is, in general, less clear than that of the preceding, the scholia have been printed. They will serve to make the reader acquainted with the manner of Sanscrit commentators : and owing to the peculiar difficulties of the language, the student will find it long necessary, and always useful, to consult the commentaries, while perusing Sanscrĭt compositions. To
lessen one of those difficulties, which arises from the frequent permutation of letters at the beginning and close of words, the editor has marked, by a dot under the syllable, places where the elision of a letter is found, or any other permutation, that is not obvious.

In this first attempt to employ the press in multiplying copies of Sanscrǐt books with the Dévanagarí character, it will be no matter of surprise, nor any cause of imputation on the editor's diligence, that the table of corrections should be large. The whole volume has been carefully examined by several Pandits; and there is reason to believe, that no error of consequence can have escaped their notice.

Calcutta, 17th September 1804.

# VI. <br> Enumeration of Indian Classes. 

[From the Asiatic Researches, vol. v. p. 53-67. Calcutta,
1798. 4to.]

The permanent separation of classes, with hereditary professions assigned to each, is among the most remarkable institutions of India; and, though now less rigidly maintained than heretofore, must still engage attention. On the subject of the mixed classes, Sanscrǐt authorities, in some instances, disagree : classes mentioned by one, are omitted by another; and texts differ on the professions assigned to some tribes. A comparison of several authorities, with a few observations on the subdivisions of classes, may tend to elucidate this subject, in which there is some intricacy.

One of the authorities I shall use, is the Játimálá, or Garland of Classes; an extract from the Rudra yámala tantra, which in some instances corresponds better with usage, and received opinions, than the ordinances of Menu, and the great Dharma puráńa.* On more important points its authority could not be compared with the Dharmaśástra; but, on the subject of classes, it may be admitted; for the Tantras form a branch of literature highly esteemed, though at present much neglected. $\dagger$ Their fabulous origin derives

[^77]them from revelations of Śriva to Parvatí, confirmed by Vishív, and therefore called Ágama, from the initials of three words in a verse of the Tbdala tantra.
"Coming from the mouth of Śiva, heard by the moun" tain-born goddess, admitted by the son of Vasudéva, it " is thence called Ágama."

Thirty-six are mentioned for the number of mixed classes; but, according to some opinions, that number includes the fourth original tribe, or all the original tribes, according to other authorities: yet the text quoted from the great Dharma puráña, in the digest of which a version was translated by Mr. Halhed, name thirty-nine mixed classes; and the Játimálá gives distinct names for a greater number.

On the four original tribes it may suffice, in this place, to quote the Jatimálá, where the distinction of Bráhmarias, according to the ten countries to which their ancestors belonged, is noticed : that distinction is still maintained.
"In the first creation, by Brahmí, Bráhmańas pro"ceeded, with the Véda, from the mouth of Brahmá. " From his arms Cshatriyas sprung; so from his thigh, "Vaiśyas: from his foot Śsudras were produced: all with " their females.
" The Lord of creation viewing them, said, " What shall "' ' be your occupations?' They replied, ' We are not our " own masters, oh, God! command us what to undertake.'
" Viewing and comparing their labours, he made the " first tribe superior over the rest. As the first had great " inclination for the divine sciences, (Bráhme véda,) there" fore he was Bráhmańa. The protector from ill (cshayate) " was Cshatriya. Him whose profession (véśa) consists in "commerce, which promotes the success of wars, for the " protection of himself and of mankind, and in husbandry, " and attendance on cattle, he called Vaisya. The other " should voluntarily serve the three tribes, and therefore
" he became a Śudra : be should humble himeelf at their " feet."
And in another place:
"A chief of the twice-born tribe was brought by Vishíu's
" eagle from Śáca dwópa: thus have Śśca dwípa Brakma" nas become known in Jambu deotpa.
" In Jambu divípa, Bráhmařas are reckoned tenfold; "Sáreswata, Cányacubja, Gauda, Mait'hila, Utcala, Dra" vida, Mahárásht́ra, Tailanga, Gujjara, and Cásmíra, re" siding in the several countries whence they are named."
"Their sons and grandsons, are considered as Cánya"cubja priests, and so forth. Their posterity, descending " from Mbnu, also inhabit the southern regions: others " reside in Anga, Banga, and Calinga; some in Cáma"rúpa and Odra. Others are inhabitants of Śsmbhadésa: " and twice-born men, brought by former princes, have " been established in Ráda, Mágadka, Varendra, Chbla, "Svernáagráma, Chína, Cúla, Śáca, and Berbera." $\dagger$

[^78][^79]I shall proceed, without further preface, to enumerate the principal mixed classes, which have sprung from intermarriages of the original tribes.

1. Múrdhábhishicta, from a Bráhmaña by a girl of the Cshatriya class; his duty is the teaching of military exercises. The same origin is ascribed in the great Dharma puráńa to the Cumbhacára,* or potter, and Tantraváya, $\dagger$ or weaver: but the Tantraváya, according to the Játimálá, sprung from two mixed classes; for he was begotten by a man of the Mańibandka on a woman of the Mavícára tribe.
2. Ambash'tha, or Vaidya, $\ddagger$ whose profession is the science of medicine, was born of a Vaisya woman, by a man of the sacerdotal class. The same origin is given by the Dharma puráńa to the Cansacára, \| or brazier, and to the Śanc'hacára,§ or worker in shells. These again are stated, in the tantra, as springing from the intermarriages of mixed classes; the Cansacára from the Támsacuita and the Śanc'hacára; also named Śanc'hadáreca, from the Rájaputra and Gándhica: for Rájaputra not only denotes Cshatriyas as sons of kings, but is also the name of a mixed class, and of a tribe of fabulous origin.

Rudra yámala tantra: "The origin of Rájaputras is " from the Vaisya on the daughter of an Ambasht'ha. " Again, thousands of others sprung from the foreheads of "cows kept to supply oblations."
3. Nisháda, or Párasava, whose profession is catching fish, was born of a ŚSudra woman by a man of a sacerdotal class. The name is given to the issue of a legal marriage

[^80]between a Bráh̀maña and a woman of the Ś́údra tribe. It should seem that the issue of other legal marriages in different ranks, were described by the names of mixed classes springing from intercourse between the several tribes. This, however, is liable to some question; and since such marriages are considered as illegal in the present age, it is not material to pursue the inquiry.

According to the Dharma puráńa, from the same origin with the Nisháda springs the Varájiví, or astrologer. In the tantra, that origin is given to the Bráhme-śudra, whose profession is to make chairs or stools used on some religious occasions. Under the name of Varajtí* is described a class springing from the Gbpa and Tantraváya, and employed in cultivating betel. The profession of astrology, or, at least, that of making almanacks, is assigned in the tantra, to degraded Bráhmańas.
"Bráhmañas, falling from their tribe, became kinsmen " of the twice-born class: to them is assigned the profession " of ascertaining the lunar and solar days."
4. Máhishya is a son of a Cshatriya by a woman of the Vaiśsa tribe. His profession is music, astronomy, and attendance on cattle.
5. Ugra was born of a Ś́udra woman by a man of the military class. His profession, according to Menu, is killing or confining such animals as live in holes: but, according to the tantra, he is an encomiast or bard. The same origin is attributed to the $N^{\prime}$ ápita $\dagger$ or barber; and to the Maudaca, or confectioner. In the tantra, the Nápita is said to be born of a Cuverina woman by a man of the Patticára class.
6. Carańa $\ddagger$ from a Vaiśya, by a woman of the Ś́údra

[^81]class, is an attendant on princes, or secretary. The appellation of Cayast'ha* is in general considered as synonymons with Carana; and accordingly the Caraina tribe commonly assumes the name of Cáyast'ka: but the Cáryasthas of Bengal have pretensions to be considered as true Sudras, which the Játimálá seems to authorize; for the origin of the Cáyast'ha is there mentioned, before the subject of mixed tribes is introduced, immediately after describing the Gbpa as a true Śsudra.

One, named Bhútidatta, was noticed for his domestic assiduity $; \dagger$ therefore the rank of Cáyast'ha was by Bráhmañas assigned to him. From him sprung three sons, Chitrángada, Chitraséna, and Chitragupta: they were employed in attendance on princes.

The Dharma purááa assigns the same origin to the Tambuli, or betel-seller, and to the Tanlica, or arecaseller, as to the Carax́a.

The six before enumerated are begotten in the direct order of the classes. Six are begotten in the inverse order.
7. Súta, begotten by a Cshatriya on a woman of the priestly class. His occupation is managing horses and driving cars. The same origin is given, in the puránía, to the Málácára $\ddagger$ or florist; but he sprung from the Carmacára and Tailica classes, if the authority of the tantra prevails.
8. Mágadha, born of a Cshatriya girl, by a man of the commercial class, has, according to the sástra, the profession of travelling with merchandize; but, according to the puránía and tantra, is an encomiast. From parents of those

[^82]classes sprung the Gopa* if the puránía may be believed; but the tantra describes the Gopa as a true Súdra, and names Gopajiví $\dagger$ a mixed class, using the same profession, and springing from the Tantraváya and Mánibandha tribes.

9 and 10. Vaidéha and Aybgava. The occupation of the first, born of a Bráhmaná by a man of the commercial class, is waiting on women: the second, born of a Vaisya woman by a man of the servile class, has the profession of a carpenter.
11. Cshattrǔ, or Cshattá, sprung from a servile man by a woman of the military class, is employed in killing and confining such animals as live in holes. The same origin is ascribed by the puránia to the Carmacára, or smith, and Dása, or mariner. The one is mentioned in the tantra without specifying the classes from which he sprung; and the other has a different origm, according to the sástra and tantra.

All authorities concur in deriving the Chándâla from a Śsudra father and Bráhmańá mother. His profession is carrying out corpses, and executing criminals; and officiating in other abject employments for the public service.

A third set of Indian classes originate from the intermarriages of the first and second set: a few only have been named by Menu; and, excepting the Abhíra, or milkman, they are not noticed by the other authorities to which I refer. But the purána names other classes of this set.

A fourth set is derived from intercourse between the several classes of the second: of these also few have been named by Menu ; and one only of the fifth set, springing from intermarriages of the second and third; and

[^83]another of the sixth set, derived from intercourse between classes of the second and fourth. Menu adds to these tribes four sons of outcasts.

The tantra enumerates many other classes, which must be placed in lower sets,* and ascribes a different origin to some of the tribes in the third and fourth sets. To pursue a verbose comparison would be tedious, and of little use; perhaps, of none; for I suspect that their origin is fanciful; and, except the mixed classes named by Mend, that the rest are terms for professions rather than tribes; and they should be considered as denoting companies of artisans, rather than distinct races. The mode in which Amera sinha mentions the mixed classes and the professions of artisans, seems to support this conjecture.

However, the Játimálá expressly states the number of forty-two mixed classes, springing from the intercourse of a man of inferior, with a woman of superior class. Though, like other mixed classes, they are included under the general denomination of Ś́udra, they are considered as most abject, and most of them now experience the same contemptuous treatment as the abject mixed classes mentioned by Menu. According to the Rudra yámala, the domestic priests of twenty of these tribes are degraded. "Avoid," says the tantra," the touch of the Cháńdála, " and other abject classes; and of those who eat the flesh " of kine, often utter forbidden words, and perform none of "the prescribed ceremonies; they are called Mléch'ha, " and going to the region of Yavana, have been named "Yávanas.
" These seven, the Rajaca, Carmacára, Nata, Baruda, "Caiverta, and Médabhilla, are the last tribes. Whoever " associates with them, undoubtedly falls from his class; " whoever bathes or drinks in wells or pools which they " have caused to be made, must be purified by the five
" productions of kine; whoever approaches their women, " is doubtless degraded from his rank.
" For women of the Nata and Capála classes, for pro" stitutes, and for women of the Rajaca and Nápita tribes, " a man should willingly make oblations, but by no means " dally with them."

I may here remark, that, according to the Rudra yámala, the Nata and Nataca are distinct; but the professions are not discriminated in that tantra. If their distinct occupations, as dancers and actors, are accurately applied, dramas are of very early date.

The Pundadraca and Paittasutracára, or feeder of silkworms, and silk-twister, deserve notice; for it has been said, that silk was the produce of China solely until the reign of the Greek Emperor Justinian, and that the laws of China jealously guarded the exclusive production. The frequent mention of silk in the most ancient Sanscrit books would not fully disprove that opinion; but the mention of an Indian class, whose occupation it is to attend silk-worms, may be admitted as proof, if the antiquity of the tantra be not questioned. I am informed, that the tantras collectively are noticed in very ancient conpositions; but, as they are very numerous, they must have been composed at different periods; and the tantra which I quote, might be thought comparatively modern. However, it may be presumed that the Rudra yámala is among the most authentic, and, by a natural inference, among the most ancient; since it is named in the Durgá mehattwa where the principal tantras are enumerated.*

[^84]In the comparative tables to which I have referred, the classes are named, with their origin, and the particular professions assigned to them. How far every person is bound, by original institutions, to adhere rigidly to the profession of his class, may merit some enquiry. Lawyers have largely discussed the texts of law concerning this subject, and some difference of opinion occurs in their writings. This, however, is not the place for entering into such disquisitions. I shall therefore briefly state what appears to be the best established opinion, as deduced from the texts of Menv, and other legal authorities.

The regular means of subsistence for a Bráhmaŕa, are assisting to sacrifice, teaching the Védas, and receiving gifts; for a Cshatriya, bearing arms; for a Vaiśya, merchandize, attending on cattle, and agriculture; for a Ś́dra, servile attendance on the higher classes. The most commendable are, respectively for the four classes, teaching the Véda, defending the people, commerce, or keeping herds or flocks, and servile attendance on learned and virtuous priests.

A Bráhmańa, unable to subsist by his own duties, may live by those of a soldier: if he cannot get a subsistence by either of these employments, he may apply to tillage, and attendance on cattle, or gain a competence by traffic, avoiding certain commodities. A Cshatriya, in distress, may subsist by all these means; but he must not have recourse to the highest functions. In seasons of distress, a further latitude is given. The practice of medicine, and other learned professions, painting and other arts, work for wages, menial service, alms, and usury, are among the

[^85]modes of subsistence allowed to the Bráhmaria and Cshatriya. A Vaiśya, unable to subsist by his own duties, may descend to the servile acts of a Súdra. And a Śudra, not finding employment by waiting on men of the higher classes, may subsist by handicrafts; principally following those mechanical occupations, as joinery and masonry; and practical arts, as painting and writing; by following of which he may serve men of superior classes: and, although a man of a lower tribe is in general restricted from the acts of a higher class, the Súdra is expresaly permitted to become a trader or a husbandman.

Besides the particular occupations assigned to each of the mixed classes, they have the alternative of following that profession which regularly belongs to the class from which they derive their origin on the mother's side: those, at least, have such an option, who are born in the direct order of the tribes, as the Murdhábhishicta, Ambashí'ha, and others. The mixed classes are also permitted to subsist by any of the duties of a $\dot{S} l d r a$; that is, by a menial service, by handicrafts, by commerce, or by agriculture.

Hence it appears that almost every occupation, though regularly it be the profession of a particular class, is open to most other tribes; and that the limitations, far from being rigorous, do, in fact, reserve only one pecaliar profession, that of the Bráhmana, which consists in teaching the Véda, and officiating at religious ceremonies.

The classes are sufficiently numerous; but the subdivisions of them have further multiplied distinctions to an endless variety. The subordinate distinctions may be best exemplified from the Bráhmaña and Cáyast'ha, because some of the appellations, by which the different races are distinguished, will be familiar to many readers.

The Bráhmańas of Bengal are descended from five priests, invited from Cányacubja, by Ádíśwara, king of

Gaura, who is said to have reigned about nine hundred years after Christ. These were Bhaft́a Naráyańa, of the family of Sańdila, a son of Casyapa; Dacsha, also a descendant of Casyapa; Vedagarva, of the family of Vatsa; Chandra, of the family of Savería, a son of Caśsapa; and Srí Hersha, a descendant of Bharadwája.

From these ancestors have branched no fewer than a hundred and fifty-six families, of which the precedence was fixed by Ballála sena, who reigned in the eleventh century of the Christian æra. One hundred of these families settled in Váréndra, and fifty-six in Rárá. They are now dispersed throughout Bengal, but retain the family distinctions fixed Ballála sena. They are denominated from the families to which their five progenitors belonged, and are still considered as Cányacubja Bráhmanas.

At the period when these priests were invited by the king of Gaura, some Sáreswata Bráhmańas, and a few Vaidicas, resided in Bengal. Of the Bráhmañas of Sáresioata, none are now found in Bengal ; but five families of Vaidicas are extant, and are admitted to intermarry with the Bráhmanas of Rárá.

Among the Bráhmañas of Váréndra, eight families have pre-eminence, and eight hold the second rank.* Among

| - Vírendra Bríhmafas. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Maitra. | Bhíma, or Cáli. | Rudra-Vagás. | Sanyamini, <br> or <br> Sandyál. |
| Lahari. | Bhaduri. | Sádhu-Vagisi. | Bhadara. |
| The last was admitted by election of the other seven. |  |  |  |
| Sudha srótriya 8. |  |  |  |
| Cashéa srotriya 84. |  |  |  |

The names of these $\mathbf{9 2}$ families seldom occur in common intercourse.
'those of Rárá, six hold the first rank.* The distinctive appellations of the several families are borne by those of the first rank; but in most of the other families they are disused; and śerman, or sermá, the addition common to the whole tribe of Bráhmanas, is assumed. For this practice, the priests of Bengal are censured by the Bráhmanas of Mit'hila, and other countries, where that title is only used on important occasions, and in religious ceremonies.

In Mit hilá the additions are fewer, though distinct families are more numerous; no more than three surnames are in use in that district, T"hácura, Míśra, and Ojhá; each appropriated to many families.

The Cáyast has of Bengal claim descent from five Cáya$s^{t}$ has who attended the priests invited from Cányacubja. Their descendants branched into eighty-three families; and their precedence was fixed by the same prince Ballala skNa, who also adjusted the family rank of other classes.

In Benga and Dacshińa Rárá, three families of Cáyast has have pre-eminence; eight hold the second rank. $\dagger$ The


Cáyast'las of inferior rank generally assume the addition of Dása, common to the tribe of Śídras, in the same manner as other classes have similar titles common to the whole tribe. The regular addition to the name of a Cshatriya is Verman; to that of a Vaisya, Gupta; but the general title of Déva is commonly assumed; and, with a feminine ternation, is also borne by women of other tribes.

The distinction of families are important in regulating intermarriages. Genealogy is made a particular study; and the greatest attention is given to regulate the alliance according to established rules, particularly in the first marriage of the eldest son. The principal points to be observed are, not to marry within the prohibited degrees; nor in a family known by its name to be of the same primitive stock; nor in one of inferior rank; nor even in an inferior branch of an equal one; for within some families gradations are established. Thus, among the Culina of the Cáyast'has, the rank has been counted from thirteen degrees; and in every generation, so long as the marriage has been properly assorted, one degree has been added to the rank. But, should a marriage be contracted in a family of a lower degree, an entire forfeiture of such rank would be incurred.

| Maulica 72. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Guhan. | Gana. | Heda. | Huhin. | Naga. | Bhadre. |
| Sóma. | Pui. | Rudra. | Pála. | Aditya. | Chandra. |
| Sanya, or Sain. |  |  | Suin, of c. |  |  |
| Syama, \&c. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Teja, \&fc. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cháci, \&̧c. |  |  |  |  |  |
| The others are |  | the sak | of brevity; | their na | es seldom |

## VII.

## Observations on the Sect of Jains.

[From the Asiatic Researches, vol. ix. p. 287-322. Calcutta, 1807. 4to.]

The information collected by Major Mackenzie, concerning a religious sect hitherto so imperfectly known as that of the Jainas, and which has been even confounded with one more numerous and more widely spread (the sect of Buddha), may furnish the ground of further researches, from which an exact knowledge of the tenets and practice of a very remarkable order of people may be ultimately expected. What Major Maceenzie has communicated to the Society, comes from a most authentic source ; the declarations of two principal priests of the Jainas themselves. It is supported by similar information, procured from a like source, by Dr. F. Buchanan, during his journey in Mysore, in the year following the reduction of Seringapatam. Having the permission of Dr, Buchanan to use the extracts, which I had his leave to make from the journal kept by him during that journey, I have inserted, in the preceding article, the information received by him from priests of the Jaina sect.

I am enabled to corroborate both statements, from conversation with Jaina priests, and from books in my possession, written by authors of the Jaina persuasion. Some of those volumes were procured for me at Bexares; othens were obtained from the present Jagat skt, at Morshedhbád, who, having changed his religion, to adopt the wor-
ship of Vishív, forwarded to me, at my request, such books of his former faith as were yet within his reach.

It appears, from the concurrent result of all the inquiries which have been made, that the Jainas constitute a sect of Hindus, differing, indeed, from the rest in some very important tenets; but following, in other respects, a similar practice, and maintaining like opinions and observances.

The essential character of the Hindu institutions is the distribution of the people into four great tribes. This is considered by themselves to be the marked point which separates them from Mléch'has or Barbarians. The Jainas, it is found, admit the same division into four tribes, and perform like religious ceremonies, termed sanscáras, from the birth of a male to his marriage. They observe similar fasts, and practise, still more strictly, the received maxims for refraining from injury to any sentient being. They appear to recognise as subordinate deities, some, if not all, of the gods of the prevailing sects; but do not worship, in particular, the five principal gods of those sects; or any one of them by preference; nor address prayers, or perform sacrifice, to the sun, or to fire: and they differ from the rest of the Hindus, in assigning the highest place to certain deified saints, who, according to their creed, have successively become superior gods. Another point in which they materially disagree is the rejection of the Védas, the divine authority of which they deny; condemning, at the same time, the practice of sacrifices, and the other ceremonies which the followers of the Védas perform, to obtain specific promised consequences, in this world or in the next.

In this respect the Jainas resemble the Bauddhas or Saugatas, who equally deny the divine authority of the Védas; and who similarly worship certain pre-eminent saints, admitting likewise, as subordinate deities, nearly
the whole pantheon of the orthodox Hindus. They differ, indeed, in regard to the history of the personages whom they have deified; and it may be hence concluded, that they have had distinct founders; but the original notion seems to have been the same. In fact, this remarkable tenet, from which the Jainas and Bauddhas derive their most conspicuous peculiarities, is not entirely unknown to the orthodox Hindus. The followers of the Vélas, according to the theology, which is explained in the Védánta, considering the human soul as a portion of the divine and universal mind, believe, that it is capable of perfect union with the divine essence: and the writers on the Védánta, not only affirm, that this union and identity are attained through a knowledge of God, as by them taught; but have hinted, that by such means the particular soul becomes God, even to the actual attainment of supremacy.*

So far the followers of the Védas do not virtually disagree with the Jainas and Bauddhas. But they have not, like those sects, framed a mythology upon the supposed history of the persons, who have successively attained divinity; nor have they taken these for the objects of national worship. All three sects agree in their belief of transmigration. But the Jainas are distinguished from the rest by their admission of no opinions, as they themselves affirm, which are not founded on perception, or on proof drawn from that, or from testimony.

It does not, however, appear, that they really withhold belief from pretended revelations: and the doctrines which characterize the sect, are not confined to a single tenet; but form an assemblage of mythological and metaphysical ideas found among other sects, joined to many visionary and fantastic notions of their own.

[^86][^87]Their belief in the eternity of matter, and perpetuity of the world, is common to the Sánc'kya philosophy, from which it was, perhaps, immediately taken. Their description of the world has much analogy to that which is given in the Purávías, or Indian theogonies: but the scheme has been rendered still more extravagant. Their precaution to avoid injuring any being, is a practice inculcated in the orthodox religion, but which has been carried by them to a ludicrous extreme.*.

In their notions of the soul, and of its union with body, and of retribution for good and evil, some analogy is likewise observable. The Jainas conceive the soul ( $j^{\prime}$ roa) to have been eternally united to a very subtil material body, or rather to two such bodies, one of which is invariable, and consists (if I rightly apprehend their metaphysical notions) of the powers of the mind ; the other is variable, and is composed of its passions and affections : (this, at least, is what I understand them to mean by the taijasa and cármańa śaríras). The soul, so embodied, becomes, in its successive transmigrations, united with a grosser body denominated audárica, which retains a definite form, as man and other mundane beings; or it is joined with a purer essence, varying in its appearance at pleasure, as the gods and genii. This last is termed vaicárica. They distinguish a fifth sort of body, under the name of áhárica, which they explain as a minute form, issuing from the head of a meditative sage, to consult an omniscient saint; and returning with the desired information to the person whence that form issued, or rather from which it was elongated; for they suppose the communication not to have been interrupted.

[^88]The soul is never completely separated from matter, antil it obtain a final release from corporeal sufferance, by deification, throagh a perfect disengagement from good and evil, in the person of a beutified saint. Intermediately it receives retribation for the benefits or injuries ascribable to it in its actual or precedent state, according to a strict principle of retaliation, receiving pleasure or pain from the same individual, who, in a present or former state, was either benefitted or aggrieved.

Major Macenenze's information confirms that which I had also received, concerning the distribution of these sectaries into clergy and laity. In Hindustan the Jainas are usually called Syauras; but distinguish themselves into Śrávacas and Yatis. The laity (termed Śrávaca) includes persons of various tribes, as, indeed, is the case with Hindus of other sects : but, on this side of India, the Jainas are mostly of the Vaiśya class.* The orthodox Hindus have a secular, as well as a regular, clergy : a Brákmana, following the practice of officiating at the ceremonies of his religion, without quitting the order of a householder, may be considered as belonging to the secular clergy; one who follows a worldly profession, (that of husbandry for example,) appertains to the laity; and so do people of other tribes: but persons, who have passed into the several orders of devotion, may be reckoned to constitute the regular clergy. The Jainas have, in like manner, priests who have entered into an order of devotion; and also employ Bráhmatas at their ceremonies; and, for want of Bráhmańas of their own faith, they even have recourse to the secular clergy of the orthodox sect. This subject is sufficiently explained by Major Mackenzie

[^89]and Dr. Buchanan; I shall, however, add, for the sake of a subsequent remark, that the Jainas apply the terms Yati and Sramańa, (in Prácrít and Hindí written Samana,) to a person who has devoted himself to religious contemplation and austerity; and the sect of Buddha uses the word Śramańa for the same meaning. It cannot be doubted, that the Sommonacodom of Siam, is merely a corruption of the words Śramaria Gautama, the holy GAUtama or Buddha.*

Having been here led to a comparison of the Indian sects which follow the precepts of the Védas, with those which reject their authority, I judge it necessary to notice an opinion, which has been advanced, on the relative antiquity of those religions; and especially the asserted priority of the Bauddhas before the Bráhmanas.

In the first place, it may be proper to remark, that the earliest accounts of India, by the Greeks who visited the country, describe its inhabitants as distributed into separate tribes. $\dagger$ Consequently, a sect which, like the modern Bauddhas, has no.distinction of cast, could not have been then the most prevalent in India.

It is indeed possible that the followers of Buddha may, like the Jainas, have retained the distribution into four tribes, so long as they continued in Hindustán. But in that case, they must have been a sect of Hindus; and the question, which is most ancient, the Bráhmańa or the Bauddha, becomes a solecism.

If it be admitted that the Bauddhas are originally a sect of Hindus, it may be next questioned whether that, or any of the religious systems now established, be the most

[^90]ancient. I have, on a former occasion,* indicated the notions which I entertain on this point. According to the hypothesis which I then hinted, the earliest Indian sect of which we have any present distinct knowledge, is that of the followers of the practical Védas, who worshipped the sun, fire, and the elements; and who believed the efficacy of sacrifices, for the accomplishment of present and of future purposes. It may be supposed that the refined doctrine of the Védántís, or followers of the theological and argumentative part of the Védas, is of later date : and it does not seem improbable that the sects of $\mathrm{J}_{\text {INA }}$ and of Buddha are still more modern. But I apprehend that the Vaishnavas, meaning particularly the worshippers of Rama and of Crǐshía, $\dagger$ may be subsequent to those sects, and that the Saivas also are of more recent date.

I state it as an hypothesis, because I am not at present able to support the whole of this position on grounds which may appear quite satisfactory to others; nor by evidence which may entirely convince them. Some arguments will,

[^91]however, be advanced, to show that the supposition is not gratuitous.

The long sought history of Cáshmír, which in the original Sancerit, was presented to the emperor Acber, as rolated by Abt't-Fazil in the Áyin Acberí,* and of which a Persian translation exists, more ample than Abét-FAziL's brief abstract, has been at length recovered in the original language.t A fuller account of this book will be hereafter submitted to the society: the present occasion for the mention of it, is a passage which was cited by Dr. Buchanan, $\ddagger$ from the English translation of the Ayín Acbers, for an import which is not supported by the Persian or Sanscrĭt text.

The author, after briefly noticing the colony establighed in Cáshmír by Caśyapa, and hinting a succession of kings to the time of the Curus and Pánídavas, opens his detailed history, and list of princes, with Gónarda, a contemporary of Yudhisht'hira. He describes Aśbca (who was twelfth in succession from Gónarda, ) and his son Jalbca, and grandson Dámbdara, as devout worshippers of Śiva; and Jal6ca, in particular, as a conqueror of the Mléch'has, or barbarians. Dámódara, according to this history, was succeeded by three kings of the race of Turushca; and they were followed by a Bbdhisativa, who wrested the empire from them by the aid of Śsicyasinha, and introduced the religion of Buddha into Cáshmír.. He reigned a hundred years; and the next sovereign was Abhimanyu, who destroyed the Bauddhas, and re-established the doctrines of the Nila puraía. This account is so far

[^92]from proving the priority of the Bauddhas, that it directly avers the contrary.

From the legendary tales concerning the last Buddha, currrent in all the countries, in which his sect now flourishes; * and upon the authority of a life of Buddia in the Sanscrit language, under the title of Lalita purááa, which was procured by Major Knox, during his public mission in Népál, it can be affirned, that the story of Gautama Buddea has been engrafted on the heroic history of the lunar and solar races, received by the orthodox Hindus ; an evident sign, that his sect is subsequent to that, in which this fabulous history is original.

The same remark is applicable to the Jainas, with whom the legendary story of their saints also seems to be engrafted on the pauránic tales of the orthodox sect. Sufficient indication of this will appear, in the passages which will be subsequently cited from the writings of the Jainas.

Considerable weight might be allowed to an argument deduced from the aggravated extravagance of the fictions admitted by the sects of Jina and Buddha. The mythology of the orthodox Hindus, their present chronology adapted to astronomical periods, their legendary tales, their mystical allegories, are abundantly extravagant. But the Jainas and Bauddhas surpass them in monstrous exaggerations of the same kind. In this rivalship of absurd fietion, it would not be unreasonable to pronounce that to be most modern, which has outgone the rest.

The greater antiquity of the religion of the Védas is also rendered probable, from the prevalence of a similar worship of the sun and of fire in ancient Persia. Nothing forbids the supposition, that a religious worship, which was there established in times of antiquity, may have also existed

[^93]from a remote period in the country between the Ganges and the Indus.

The testimony of the Greeks preponderates greatly for the early prevalence of the sect, from which the present orthodox Hindus are derived. Arrian, having said that the Brachmanes were the sages or learned among the Indians,* mentions them under the latter designation (ropıгवi) as a distinct tribe, ' which, though inferior to the others in number, is superior in rank and estimation : bound to no bodily work, nor contributing any thing from labour to the public use; in short, no duty is imposed on that tribe, but that of sacrificing to the gods, for the common benefit of the Indians; and, when any one celebrates a private sacrifice, a person of that class becomes his guide; as if the sacrifices would not else be acceptable to the gods.' $\dagger$

Here, as well as in the sequel of the passage, the priests of a religion consonant to the Védas, are well described : and what is said, is suitable to them; but to no other sect, which is known to have at any time prevailed in India.

A similar description is more succinctly given by Strabo, ' It is said, that the Indian multitude is divided into seven classes; and that the philosophers are first in rank, but fewest in number. They are employed, respectively, for private benefit, by those who are sacrificing or worshipping, \&c.' $\ddagger$

In another place he states, on the authority of Megasthenes, 'two classes of philosophers or priests; the Brachmanes and Germanes: but the Brachmanes are best

[^94]esteemed, because they are most consistent in their doctrine.'* The author then proceeds to describe their manners and opinions: the whole passage is highly deserving of attention, and will be found, on consideration, to be more suitable to the orthodox Hindus, than to the Bauddhas or Jainas: particularly towards the close of his account of the Brachmanes, where he says, ' In many things they agree with the Greeks; for they affirm, that the world was produced and is perishable; and that it is spherical : that God, governing it as well as framing it, pervades the whole : that the principles of all things are various; but water is the principle of the construction of the world: that, besides the four elements, there is a fifth nature, whence heaven and the stars: that the earth is placed in the centre of all. Such and many other things are affirmed of reproduction, and of the soul. Like Plato, they devise fables concerning the immortality of the soul, and the judgment in the infernal regions; and other similar notions. These things are said of the Brachmanes.'

Strabo notices likewise another order of people opposed to the Brachmanes, and called Pramna: he characterizes them as ' contentious cavillers, who ridiculed the Brachmanes for their study of physiology and astronomy.' $\dagger$

Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, speaks of the Brachmanes as worshipping the sun. 'By day they pray to the sun respecting the seasons, which he governs, that he would send them in due time; and that India might thrive : and, in the evening, they intreat the solar

[^95]ray not to be impatient of night, and to remain as conducted from them.'*

Pliny and Solinus $\dagger$ also describe the Gymnosophists contemplating the sun : and Hierocles, as cited by Stephan us of Byzantium, $\ddagger$ expressly declares the Brachmanes to be particularly devoted to the sun.

This worship, which distinguishes the orthodox Hindus, does not seem to have been at any time practised by the rival sects of Jina and Buddha.

Porphyrius, treating of a class of religious men, among the Indians, whom the Greeks were accustomed to call Gymnosophists, mentions two orders of them; one, the Brachmanes; the other, the Samancans: 'the Brachmanes receive religious knowledge, like the priesthood, in right of 'birth; but the Samancans are select, and consist of persons choosing to prosecute divine studies.' He adds, on the authority of Bardesanes, that ' all the Brachmanes are of one race; for they are all descended from one father and one mother. But the Samanceans are not of their race; being selected from the whole nation of Indians, as before mentioned. The Brachman is subject to no domination, and contributes nothing to others.' $\S$

In this passage, the Brachman, as an hereditary order of priesthood, is contrasted with another religious order; to which persons of various tribes were admissible : and the Samancaans, who are obviously the same with the Germanes of Strabo, were doubtless Sannyásis; but may have be-

[^96]longed to any of the sects of Hindus. The name seems to bear some affinity to the Śramańas, or ascetics of the Jaimas and Bauddhas.

Clrmens Alexandrinus does indeed hint, that all the Brachmanes revered their wise men as deities;* and in another place, he describes them as worshipping Herculas and Pan.t But the following passage from Clbmens is most in point. Having said, that philosophy flourished anciently among the barbarians, and afterwards was introduced among the Greeks, he instances the prophets of the Egyptians, the Chaldees of the Assyrians; the Druids of the Gauls (Galate); the Samanæans of the Bactrians; the philosophers of the Celts; the Magi of the Persians; the Gymnosophists of the Indians: and proceeds thus:${ }^{6}$ They are of two kinds, some called Sarmanes, others Brachmanes. Among the Sarmanes, those called Allobii, $\ddagger$ neither inhabit towns, nor have houses; they are clad with the bark of trees, and eat acorns, and drink water with their hands. They know not marriage, nor procreation of children; like those now called Encratetai (chaste). There are likewise, among the Indians, persons obeying the precepts of Butta, whom they worship as a god, on account of his extreme venerableness.' $\$$

Here, to my apprehension, the followers of Buddha are

[^97]clearly distinguished from the Brachmanes and Sarmanes.* The latter, called Germanes by Strabo, and Samancans by Porphyrius, are the ascetics of a different religion; and may have belonged to the sect of Jina, or to another. The Brachmanes are apparently those who are described by Philostratus and Hierocles, as worshipping the sun; and, by Strabo and by Arrian, as performing sacrifices for the common benefit of the nation, as well as for individuals. The religion which they practised, was so far conformable with the precepts of the Védas: and their doctrine and observances, their manners and opinions, as noticed by the authors above cited, agree with no other religious institutions known in India, but the orthodox sect. In short, the Bráhmańas are distinctly mentioned by Greek authors as the first of the tribes or casts, into which the Indian nation was then, as now, divided. They are expressly discriminated from the sect of Buddha by one ancient author, and from the Sarmanes, or Samanaains, (ascetics of various tribes) by others. They are described by more than one authority, as worshipping the sun, as performing sacrifices, and as denying the eternity of the world, and maintaining other tenets incompatible with the supposition that the sects of Buddha or Jina could be meant. Their manners and doctrine, as described by these authors, are quite conformable with the notions and practice of the orthodox Hindus. It may therefore be confidently inferred, that the followers of the Védas flourished in India when it was visited by the Greeks under Alexander: and continued to flourish from the time of Megasthenes, who described them in the fourth century before Christ, to that of Porphyrius, who speaks of

[^98]them, on later authority, in the third century after Christ.

I have thus stated, as briefly as the nature of the subject permitted, a few of the facts and reasons by which the opinion, that the religion and institutions of the orthodox Hindus are more modern than the doctrines of Jina and of Buddha, may, as I think, be successfully resisted. I have not undertaken a formal refutation of it, and have, therefore, passed unnoticed, objections which are founded on misapprehension.

It is only necessary to remark, that the past prevalence of either of those sects in particular places, with its subsequent persecution there by the worshippers of ŚivA, or of Vishíd, is no proof of its general priority. Hindustán proper was the early seat of the Hindu religion, and the acknowledged cradle of both the sects in question. They were foreigners in the Peninsula of India; and admitting, as a fact, (what need not, however, be conceded,) that the orthodox Hindus had not been previously settled in the Carnáátaca and other districts, in which the Jainas or the Bauddhas have flourished, it cannot be thence concluded, that the followers of the Vedas did not precede them in other provinces.

It may be proper to add, that the establishment of particular sects among the Hindus who acknowledge the Védas, does not affect the general question of relative antiquity. The special doctrines introduced by Śancara ácharya, by Ramáuja, and by madhavácharya, and of course the origin of the sects which receive those doctrines, may be referred, with precision, to the periods when their authors lived: but the religion in which they are sectaries, has undoubtedly a much earlier origin.

To revert to the immediate object of these observations, which is that of explaining and supporting the information
communicated by Major Macrenzie: I shall, for that purpose, state the substance of a few passages from a work of great authority among the Jainas, entitled Calpa stitra, and from a vocabulary of the Sanscrit language by an author of the Jaina sect.

The Abhidhána chintamahi, a vocabulary of synonymous terme, by Hemachandra áchírya, is divided into six chapters (cárdas,) the contents of which are thus stated in the author's preface. 'The superior deities (Dévádhidévas) are noticed in the first chapter; the gods (Dévas) in the second; men in the third; beings furnished with one or more senses in the fourth; the infernal regions in the fifth; and terms of general use in the sixth.' 'The earth,' obwerves this author, 'water, fire, air, and trees, have a single organ or sense (indriya); worms, ants, spiders, and the like, have two, three, or four senses; elephants, peacocks, fish, and other beings moving on the earth, in the sky, or in water, are furnished with five senses : and so are gods and men, and the inhabitants of hell.'

The first chapter begins with the synonyma of a Jina or deified saint: among which the most common are Arhat, Jinéswara, Titrt'hancara or T'irt'kacara: others, viz. Jina, Sarvajnya, and Bhagavat, occur also in the dictionary of Amera as terms for a Jina or Buddha; but it is deserving of remark, that neither Buddha, nor Sugata, is stated by Hemachandra among these synonyma. In the subsequent chapter, however, on the subject of inferior gods, after noticing the gods of Hiadu mythology, (Indra and the rest, including Brahmá, \&c.) he states the synonyma of a Buddha, Sugata, or Bodhisatwa; and afterwards specifies seven such, viz. Vipatyí, Śıc'hí, Víswanna, Cucuch'handa, Cánchana, and Císyapa,* expressly

[^99]mentioning as the seventh Buddha, Śstcyasinha, also named Sbrviat'hasiddia, son of Śuddhbdana and Mayd, a kinsman of the sun, from the race of Gautama.

In the first chapter, after stating the general terms for a Jina or Arhat, the author proceeds to enumerate twentyfour Arhats, who have appeared in the present Avasarpint age: and afterwards observes, that excepting Munisuvrata and Nemi, who sprung from the race of Hari, the remaining twenty-two Jizas were born in the line of Icshwicu.* The fathers and mothers of the several Jinas are then mentioned; their attendants; their standards or characteristics; and the complexions with which they are figured or described.

The author next enumerates twenty-four Jinas who have appeared in the past Utsarpikí period; and twenty-four others who will appear in the future age: and, through the remainder of the first book, explains terms relative to the Jaina religion.

The names of the Jinas are specified in Major Macxenzir's communication. $\dagger$ Wherever those names agree with Hemachandra's enumeration, I have added no remark ; but where a difference occurs I have noticed it, adding in the margin the name exhibited in the Sanscrit text.

I shall here subjoin the information gathered from Hemachandra's vocabulary, and from the Calpa sútra and other authorities, relative to the Jinas belonging to the present period. They appear to be the deified saints, who are now worshipped by the Jaina sect. They are all figured in the same contemplative posture, with little varia-

[^100]tion in their appearance, besides a difference of complexion: but the several Jinas have distinguishing marks or characteristic signs, which are usually engraved on the pedestals of their images, to discriminate them.

1. RYshabha, or Vř̌shabha, of the race of Icshwácu, was son of Nábil by Marudevá: he is figured of a yellow or golden complexion; and has a bull for his characteristic. His stature, as is pretended, was 500 poles (dhanush;) and the duration of his life, $8,400,000$, great years (púrva varsha.) According to the Calpa sutra, as interpreted by the commentator, he was born at Cbśalá or Aybdhyá (whence he is named Cauśalica), towards the latter part of the third age. He was the first king, first anchoret, and first saint; and is therefore entitled Prat'hama Rájá, Prat'hama Bhicshácara, Prat'hama Jina, and Prat'hama Tirt'hancara. At the time of his inauguration as king, his age was 2,000,000 years. He reigned $6,300,000$ years ; and then resigned his empire to his sons: and having employed 100,000 years in passing through the several stages of austerity and sanctity, departed from this world on the summit of a mountain, named Ashitápada. The date of his apotheosis was 3 years and $8 \frac{1}{2}$ months before the end of the third age, at the precise interval of one whole age before the deification of the last Jina.
2. Ajita was son of Jitaśatru by Vijayá: of the same race with the first Jina, and represented as of the like complexion; with an elephant for his distinguishing mark. His stature was 450 poles; and his life extended to $7,200,000$ great years. His deification took place in the fourth age, when fifty lacshas of crbrs of oceans of years had elapsed out of the tenth cror of crors.*

[^101]3. Sambhava was son of Jitári by Séná; of the same race and complexion with the preceding; distinguished by a horse; his stature was 400 poles; he lived $6,000,000$ years; and he was deified 30 lacshas of crobrs of ságaras after the second Jina.
4. Abhinandana was son of Sambara by Siddhárt'hí : he has an ape for his peculiar sign. His stature was 300 poles; and his life reached to $5,000,000$ years. His apotheosis was later by 10 lacshas of crors of ságaras than the foregoing.
5. Sumati was son of Megha by Mangalá: he has a curlew for his characteristic. His life endured $4,000,000$ years, and his deification was nine lacshas of crors of ságaras after the fourth Jina.
6. Padmaprabha was son of Śridhara by Susimá; of the same race with the preceding, but described of a red complexion. He has a lotos for his mark : and lived $3,000,000$ years, being 200 poles in stature. He was deified 90,000 crors of ságaras after the fifth Jina.
7. Supárśwa was son of Pratisht'ha by Prǐt'hwí; of the same line with the foregoing, but represented with a golden complexion; his sign is the figure called Swastica.

8. Chandraprabha was son of Mahásena by Lacshmańá; of the same race with the last, but figured with a fair complexion : his sign is the moon : his stature was 150 poles, and he lived $1,000,000$ years; and his apotheosis took place 900 crors of sagaras later than the seventh Jina.
9. Pushpadanta, also named Suvidhi, was son of Supriya by Ramá : of the same line with the preceding,
and described of a similar complexion : his mark is a marine monster (macara): his stature was 100 poles, and the duration of his life 200,000 years. He was deified 90 crbrs of ságaras after the eighth Jina.
10. Sítala was son of Dríbharat'ha by Nandá: of the same race, and represented with a golden complexion : his characteristic is the mark called S'rivatsa. His stature was 90 poles ; and his life 100,000 great years; his deification dates 9 crbrs of ságaras later than the preceding.
11. Śreyin (Śreyas) or Śreyánśa, was son of Vishńu by Vishéf ; of the same race, and with a similar complexion; having a rhinoceros for his sign. He was 80 poles in stature, and lived $8,400,000$ common years. His apotheosis took place more than 100 ságaras of years before the close of the fourth age.
12. Vásupgjya was son of Vasupgjya by Jayá: of the same race, and represented with a red complexion, having a buffalo for his mark; and he was 70 poles high, lived 7,200,000 years, and was deified later by 54 ságaras than the eleventh Jina.
13. Vimala was son of Crǐtavarman by Śyamá; of the same race: described of a golden complexion, having a boar for his characteristic; he was 60 poles high, lived $6,000,000$ years, and was deified 30 ságaras later than the twelfth Jina.
14. Ananta, also named Anantajit, was son of Sinhaséna by Suyásía. He has a falcon for his sign; his stature was 50 poles, the duration of his life $3,000,000$ years, and his apotheosis 9 ságaras after the preceding.
15. Dharma was son of Bhínu by Suvratá; characterised by the thunderbolt: he was 45 poles in stature, and lived $1,000,000$ years: he was deified 4 ságaras later than the foregoing.
16. Śánti was son of Viśwasena by Achirá, having an antelope for his sign ; he was 40 poles high, lived 100,000 years, and was deified 2 ságaras subsequent to the last mentioned.*
17. Cunt'hu was son of SGra, by Śrf; he has a goat for his mark; his height was 35 poles, and his life 95,000 years. His apotheosis is dated in the last palya of the fourth age.
18. Ara was son of Sudarśana by Déví: characterised by the figure called Nandávarta :

his stature was 30 poles, his life 84,000 years, and his deification 1,000 crors of years before the next Jina.
19. Malli was son of Cumbha by Prabhávati; of the same race with the preceding; and represented of a blue complexion; having a jar for his characteristic; he was 25 poles high, and lived 55,000 years; and was deified $6,584,000$ years before the close of the fourth age.
20. Munisurata, also named Suvrata, or Muni, was son of Sumitra by Padmá, sprung from the race called Harivanśa; represented with a black complexion, having a tortoise for his sign : his height was 20 poles, and his life extended to 30,000 years. His apotheosis is dated $1,184,000$ years before the end of the fourth age.

[^102]21. Nimi was son of Vijaya by Viprá; of the race of Icshwacu : figured with a golden complexion; having for his mark a blue water-lily (nilbtpala); his stature was 15 poles; his life 10,000 years; and his deification took place 584,000 years before the expiration of the fourth age.
22. Némi, also called Arishtanemi, was son of the king Samudrajaya by Śivá; of the line denominated Harivanśa; described as of a black complexion, having a conch for his sign. According to the Calpa sútra, he was born at Sóriyapura; and, when 300 years of age, entered on the practice of austerity. He employed 700 years in passing through the several stages of sanctity; and, having attained the age of 1,000 years, departed from this world at $U_{j j i n t a}$, which is described as the peak of a mountain, the same, according to the commentator, with Giranára.* The date of this event is 84,000 years before the close of the fourth age.
23. Párśwa (or Pâŕwanit'ha) was son of the king Aśwasena by Vamá, or BAmádevi; of the race of Icshwácu; figured with a blue complexion, having a serpent for his characteristic. The life of this celebrated Jina, who was perhaps the real founder of the sect, is the subject of a poem entitled Párśwanát'ha charitra. According to the Calpa sútra, he was born at Bánárasi, $\dagger$ and commenced his series of religious austerities at thirty years of age ; and having completed them in 70 years, and having consequently attained the age of 100 years, he died on Mount Samméya or Samét. + This happened precisely

[^103]250 years before the apotheosis of the next Jina : being stated by the author of the Calpa sútra at 1,230 years before the date of that book.
24. Vardhamána, also named Víra, Mahávira, \&c. and surnamed Charama tirt'hacrit, or last of the Jinas: emphatically called $\hat{S}_{r a m a n ́ a, ~ o r ~ t h e ~ s a i n t . ~ H e ~ i s ~}^{\text {a }}$ reckoned son of Siddhártiba by Triśalí; and is described of a golden complexion, having a lion for his symbol.

The subject of the Calpa sútra, before cited, is the life and institutions of this Jina. I shall here state an abstract of his history as there given, premising that the work, like other religious books of the Jainas, is composed in the Prácrǐt called Mágadhí; and that the Sanscrĭt language is used by the Jainas for translations, or for commentaries, on account of the great obscurity of the Prácrǐt tongue.*

According to this authority, the last Tirt'hancara, quitting the state of a deity, and relinquishing the longevity of a god, to obtain immortality as a saint, was incarnate towards the close of the fourth age, (now past,) when 75 years and $8 \frac{1}{2}$ months of it remained. He was at first conceived by Dévánandí, wife of Ryshabhadatta, a Bráhmańa inhabiting Bráhmańacunda gráma a city of Bhárata varsha, in Jambu dwípa. The conception was announced to her by
situated among the hills between Bihár and Bengal. Its holiness is great in the estimation of the Jainas : and it is said to be visited by pilgrims from the remotest provinces of India.

- This Pracrťt, which does not differ much from the language introduced by dramatic poets into their writings, and assigned by them to the female persons in their dramas, is formed from Sanscrit. I once conjectured it to have been formerly the colloquial dialect of the Sáraswata Bráhmens [p. 21 of the present volume]; but this conjecture has not been confirmed by further researches. I believe it to be the same language with thę Pali of Ceylon.
dreams. Indra,* or $\mathbf{S}_{\text {acra }}$, who is the presiding deity on the south of Méru, and abides in the first range of celestial regions, called Saudharma, being apprized of Mahávíra's incarnation, prostrated himself, and worshipped the future saint; but reflecting that no great personage was ever born in an indigent and mendicant family, as that of a Bráhmaŕa, Indra commanded his chief attendant Harińaigumeshi, to remove the fetus from the womb of Devinandá to that of Trisalí, wife of Siddhárt'ha, a prince of the race of Icshwácu, and of the Cáśsapa family. This was accordingly executed; and the new conception was announced to Triśalí by dreams; which were expounded by soothsayers, as foreboding the birth of a future Jina. In due time, he was born; and his birth celebrated with great rejoicings.

His father gave him the name of Vardhamána. But he is also known by two other names, Śramańa and Mahávíra. His father has similarly three appellations, Siddhárt'ha, Śreyánśa, and Yaśaswí; and his mother likewise has three titles, Triśalá, Videbadinnh, and Príticárińí. His paternal uncle was Supárśwa, his elder brother, Nandivardiana, his sister (mother of Jamáli) Sudarśaná. His wife was Yaśódá, by whom he had a daughter, (who became wife of Jamíli,) named Anójua and Priyadarśaná. His grand-daughter was called Ś́eshavatí and Yasbvatí.

His father and mother died when he was twenty-eight years of age; and he afterwards continued two years with his elder brother: after the second year he renounced worldly pursuits, and departed amidst the applauses of gods and men, to practise austerities. The progress of his

[^104]devout exercises, and of his attainment of divine knowledge, is related at great length. Finally, he became an Arhat, or Jina, being worthy of universal adoration, and having subdued all passions; ${ }^{*}$ being likewise omniscient and allseeing : and thus, at the age of seventy-two years, he became exempt from all pain for ever. This event is stated to have happened at the court of king Hastipila, in the city of Páwópurí or Pápápurí ; $\dagger$ and is dated three years and eight and a-half months before the close of the fourth age, (called Duhc'hamá suc'hamá) in the great period named avasarpiñi. The author of the Calpa sútra mentions, in several places, that, when he wrote, 980 years had elapsed since this apotheosis. $\ddagger$ According to tradition, the death of the last Jina happened more than two thousand four hundred years since; and the Calpa sútra appears, therefore, to have been composed about fifteen hundred years ago.§

The several Jinas are described as attended by numerous followers, distributed into classes, under a few chief disciples, entitled Gańadharas, or Ganádhipas. The last Jina had nine such classes of followers, under eleven disciples. Indrabhéti, Agnibhúti, Váyubheti, Vyacta, Sudharma, Manditaputra, Mauryaputra, Acampita,

[^105]Achalabhrátá, Mevirya, Prabhása. Nine of these disciples died with Mahávíra; and two of them, Indrabhúti and Sudharma, survived him, and subsequently attained beatitude. The Calpa sútra adds, that all ascetics, or candidates for holiness, were pupils in succession from Sudharma, none of the others having left successors. The author then proceeds to trace the succession from Sudharma to the different śác'hás, or orders of priests, many of which appear still to exist. This enumeration disproves the list communicated to Major Mackenzie by the head priest of Belligola.

The ages and periods which have been more than once alluded to in the foregoing account of the Jainas, are briefly explained in Hemachandra's vocabulary. In the second chapter, which relates to the heavens and the gods, \&c. the author, speaking of time, observes, that it is distinguished into Avasarpiní and Utsarpiní, adding that the whole period is completed by twenty cbtis of c6tic of $\boldsymbol{s}$ agaras ; or $2,000,000,000,000,000$ oceans of years. I do not find that he any where explains the space of time denominated ságara, or ocean. But I understand it to be an extravagant estimate of the time, which would elapse, before a vast cavity filled with chopped hairs could be emptied, at the rate of one piece of hair in a century : the time requisite to enter such a cavity, measured by a ybjana every way, is a palya; and that repeated ten cbtís of cótis of times,* is a ságara.

Each of the periods above-mentioned, is stated by Hemachandra, as comprising six aras; the names and duration of which agree with the information communicated to Major Mackenzie: In the one, or the declining period, they pass from the extreme felicity (écánta suc'ha) through

[^106]intermediate gradations, to extreme misery (écánta duhc'ha). In the other, or rising period, they ascend, in the same order, from misery to felicity. During the three first ages of one period, mortals lived for one, two, or three palyas; their stature was one, two, or three leagues (gavyútis); and they subsisted on the fruit of miraculous trees; which yielded spontaneously food, apparel, ornaments, garlands, habitation, nurture, light, musical instruments, and household utensils. In the fourth age, men lived ten millions of years; and their stature was 500 poles (dhanush): in the fifth age, the life of man is a hundred years: and the limit of his stature, seven cubits: in the sixth, he is reduced to sixteen years, and the height of one cubit. In the next period, this succession of ages is reversed, and afterwards they recommence as before.

Here we cannot but observe, that the Jainas are still more extravagant in their inventions than the prevailing sects of Hindus, absurd as these are in their fables.

In his third chapter, Hemachandra, having stated the terms for paramount and tributary princes, mentions the twelve Chacravartis, and adds the patronymics and origin of them. Bharata is surnamed Árshabhi, or son of Ryshabra; Maghavan is son of Vijaya; and Sanatcumara, of Aśwasena. Ś́anti, Cunt'hu, and Ara are the Jinas so named. Sagara is described as son of Sumitra; Subhgma is entitled Cártavírya; Padma is said to be son of Padmbttara; Harisheńa of Hari; Jaya of Vijaya; Brahmadatta of Brahme; and all are declared to have sprung from the race of Icshwícu.

A list follows, which, like the preceding, agrees nearly with the information communicated to Major Mackenzie. It consists of nine persons, entitled Vásudévas, and Crǐshnas. Here Tripryshf'ha is mentioned with the patronymic Prájápatya; Dwiprǐsht'ha is said to have sprung from

Brahme; Swayambhú is expressly called a son of Rudra; and Purushottama, of Sbma, or the moon. Purushasinha is surnamed Śaivi, or son of Śiva; Purushapúdifíca, is maid to have sprung from Maháśiras. Datta is termed son of Agnisinha; Náráyána has the patronymic Dásarat'hi (which belongs to Ramachandra): and Crǐshía is described as sprung from Vasudéva.

Nine other persons are next mentioned, under the designation of Ś́ucla balas, viz. 1. Achala, 2. Vijaya, 3. Bhadra, 4. Suprabha, 5. Sudarśana, 6. Ánanda, 7. Nandana, 8. Padma, 9. Ráma.

They are followed by a list of nine foes of Vishíu: it corresponds nearly with one of the lists noticed by Major Mackenzie, viz. 1. Aśfagríva, 2. Táraca, 3. Meraca, 4. Madhu, 5. Niśumbha, 6. Bali, 7. Prahlada. 8. The king of Lancá (Rávańa). 9. The king of Magadha (Jarásandha).

It is observed, that, with the Jinas, these complete the number of sixty-three eminent personages, viz. 24 Jinas, 12 Chacravartís, 9 Vásulévas, 9 Baladévas, and 9 Prativásudévas.

It appears from the information procured by Major Mackenzie, that all these appertain to the heroic history of the Jaina writers. Most of them are also well known to the orthodox Hindus, and are the principal personages in the Puránáa.

Hemachandra subsequently notices many names of princes, familiar to the Hindus of other sects. He begins with Prǐt'hu son of Véna, whom he terms the first king: and goes on to Mándhátá, Hariśchandra, Bharata son of Dushyanta, \&c. Towards the end of his enumeration of conspicuous princes, he mentions Carńa, king of Champá and Anga; Hála or Śáliváhana; and Cumá-
rapala, surnamed Chaulucya, a royal saint, who seems, from the title of Paramárhata, to have been a Jaina, and apparently the only one in that enumeration.

In a subsequent part of the same chapter, Hеммchandra, (who was himself a theologian of his sect, and author of hymns to JinA,*) mentions and discriminates the various sects; viz. 1st, Árhatas, or Jainas. 2dly, Saugatas, or Bauddhas, and, 3dly, six philosophical schools, viz. 1st. Naiyáyica; 2d. Ybga; 3d. Capilas Sánc'hya; 4th. Vaiśshica; 5th. Várhaspatya, or Nástica; and 6th. Chárváca, or Locáyata. The two last are reputed atheistical, as denying a future state and a providence. If those be omitted, and the two Mimánsás inserted, we have the six schemes of philosophy familiar to the Indian circle of the sciences.

The fourth chapter of Hemachandra's vocabulary relates to earth and animals. Here the author mentions the distinctions of countries which appear to be adopted by the Jainas; viz. the regions (varsha) named Bharata, Airávata, and Vidéhá, to which he adds Curu; noticing also other distinctions familiar to the Hindus of other sects, but explaining some of them according to the ideas of the Jainas. 'Áryavarta,' he observes, ' is the native land of Jinas, Chacris, and Arddhachacris, situated between the Vindhya and Himádri mountains.' This remark confines the theatre of Jaina history, religious and heroic, within the limits of Hindustán proper.

A passage in Bháscara's treatise on the sphere, will suggest further observations concerning the opinions of the Jainas on the divisions of the earth. Having noticed, for the purpose of confuting it, a notion maintained by the

[^107]Bauddhas (whom some of the commentators, as usual among orthodox Hindus, confound with the Jainas,) respecting the descent or fall of the earth in space; he says,* ' the naked sectaries and the rest affirm, that two suns, two moons, and two sets of stars, appear alternately: against them I allege this reasoning. How absurd is the notion which you have formed of duplicate suns, moons, and stars; when you see the revolution of the polar fish.' $\dagger$

The commentators $\ddagger$ agree that the Jainas are here meant : and one of them remarks, that they are described as ' naked sectaries, \&c.' because the class of Digambaras is a principal one among these people.

It is true that the Jainas do entertain the preposterous notion here attributed to them : and it is also true, that the Digambaras, among the Jainas, are distinguished from the Śsuclámbaras, not merely by the white dress of the one, and the nakedness (or else the tawny apparel) of the other; but also by some particular tenets and diversity of doctrine. -However, both concur in the same ideas regarding the earth and planets, which shall be forthwith stated, from the authority of Jaina books; after remarking, by the way, that ascetics of the orthodox sect, in the last stage of exaltation, when they become Paramahansa, also disuse clothing.

The world, which according to the Jainas, is eternal, is figured by them as a spindle resting on half of another; or, as they describe it, three cups, of which the lowest is inverted; and the uppermost meets at its circumference the middle one. They also represent the world by comparison to a woman with her arms akimbo.§ Her waist, or accord-

[^108]ing to the description first mentioned, the meeting of the lower cups, is the earth. The spindle above, answering to the superior portion of the woman's person, is the abode of the gods; and the inferior part of the figure comprehends the infernal regions. The earth, which they suppose to be a flat surface, is bounded by a circle, of which the diameter is one raju.* The lower spindle comprises seven tiers of inferior earths or hells, at the distance of a raju from each other, and its base is measured by seven rajus. These seven hells are Ratna prabhá, Sarcará prabhá, Bálucá prabhá, Panca prabhá, Dhúma prabhá, Tama prabhá, Tamatama prabhá. The upper spindle is also seven rajus high; and its greatest breadth is five rajus. Its summit, which is $4,500,000$ ybjanas wide, is the abode of the deified saints : beneath that are five Vimánas, or abodes of gods: of which the centre one is named Sarvart'hasiddla: it is encompassed by the regions Aparájita, Jayanta, Vaijayanta, and Vijaya. Next, at the distance of one raju from the summit, follow nine tiers of worlds, representing a necklace (graivéyaca), and inhabited by gods, denominated, from their conceited pretensions to supremacy, Ahamindra. These nine regions are, Áditya, Prítincara, Sómanasa, Sumanasa, Suvisála, Sarvatbbhadra, Manbrama, Supravaddha, and Sudarśana.

Under these regions are twelve (the Digambaras say sixteen) other regions, in eight tiers, from one to five rajus above the earth. They are filled with Vimánas, or abodes of various classes of gods, called by the general name of Calpavásis. These worlds, reckoning from that nearest the earth, are, Saudhama and Íśána; Sanatcumára and

[^109]Mahéndra; Brahme; Lántaca; Śucra; Sahasrára; Ánata and Pránáata ; Árańa and Achyuta.

The sect of Jina distinguish four classes of deities, the Vaimánicas, Bhuvanapatis, Jybtishźs, and Vyantaras. The last comprises eight orders of demigods or spirits, admitted by the Hindus in general, as the Rácshasas, Piśáchas, Cinnaras, \&cc. supposed to range over the earth. The preceding class (Jybtishis), comprehends five orders of luminaries ; suns, moons, planets, constellations, and stars, of which more hereafter. The Vaimánicas belong to the various Vimúnas, in the twelve regions, or worlds, inhabited by gods. The class of Bhavanapati includes ten orders, entitled Asuracumára, Nágacumára, \&c.; each governed by two Indras. All these gods are mortal, except, perhaps, the luminaries.

The earth consists of numerous distinct continents, in concentric circles, separated by seas forming rings between them. The first circle is Jumbu dwoipa, with the mountain Sudarśa Méru in the centre. It is encompassed by a ring containing the salt ocean; beyond which is the zone, named Dhátucí dwípa; similarly surrounded by a black ocean. This is again encircled by Pushcara dwipa; of which only the first half is accessible to mankind : being separated from the remoter half, by an impassable range of mountains, denominated Mánushbttara parvata. Dhátucí duópa contains two mountains, similar to Suméru, named Vijanga and Achala; and Pushcara contains two others, called Mandírá and Vidyunmálá.

The diameter of Jambu dwípa being 100,000 great ybjanas,* if the 190 th part be taken, or 526 $6 \frac{6}{9}$, we have the breadth of Bharata varska, which occupies the southern segment of the circle. Airávata is a similar northern seg-

[^110]ment. A band ( 33648 yojanas wide) across the circle, with Sudarśa Méru in the middle of it, is Vidéha varsha, divided by Méru (or by four peaks like elephant's teeth, at the four corners of that vast mountain) into east and west Vidéha. These three regions, Bharata, Airávata, and Vidéha, are inhabited by men who practise religious duties. They are denominated Carmabkimi, and appear to be furnished with distinct sets of Tirthancaras, or saints entitled Jina. The intermediate regions north and south of Méru, are bounded by four chains of mountains; and intersected by two others: in such a manner, that the ranges of mountains, and the intermediate vallies, increase in breadth progressively. Thus Himavat is twice as broad as Bharata varsha (or $100524^{\frac{8}{g}}$ ); the valley beyond it is double its breadth ( $2105 \frac{5}{19}$ ); the mountain Maháhimavat is twice as much ( $4 \underset{2}{2} 10 \dagger_{9}^{0}$ ); its valley is again double ( $8421 \frac{1}{19}$ ); and the mountain Nishadha has twice that breadth (16842 $\left.\frac{9}{10}\right)$. The vallies between these mountains, and between similar ranges reckoned from Airávata (viz. S'ic'harí, Rucmí, and Níla) are inhabited by giants (Yugala), and are denominated Bhogabhumi. From either extremity of the two ranges of mountains named Himavat and Sic'harí, a pair of tusks project over the sea; each divided into seven countries denominated Antara dwípas. There are consequently fifty-six such ; which are called Cubhbgabhami, being the abode of evil doers. None of these regions suffer a periodical destruction; except Bharata and Airávata, which are depopulated, and again peopled at the close of the great periods before-mentioned.

We come now to the immediate purpose for which these notions of the Jainas have been here explained. They conceive the setting and rising of stars and planets to be caused by the mountain Suméru: and suppose three times
the period of a planet's appearance to be requisite for it to pass round Suméru, and return to the place whence it emerges. Accordingly they allot two suns, as many moons, and an equal number of each planet, star, and constellation, to Jambu dwipa; and imagine that these appear, on alternate days, south and north of Méru. They similarly allot twice that number to the salt ocean; six times as many to 'Dhátucí dwópa; 21 times as many, or 42 of each, to the Cálbdadhi; and 72 of each to Pushcara dwípa.

It is this notion, applied to the earth which we inhabit, that Bhiscara refutes. His argument is thus explained by his commentators.
' The star close to the north pole, with those near it to the east and west, form a constellation figured by the Indian astronomers as a fish. In the beginning of the night (supposing the sun to be near Blaraní or Musca), the fish's tail is towards the west, and his head towards the east; but at the close of the night, the fish's tail, having made a half revolution, is towards the east, and his head towards the west : and since the sun, when rising and setting, is in a line with the fish's tail, there is but one sun; not two.' This explanation is given by Muniśwara and Lacshmidása. But the Vásaná bháshya reverses the fish ; placing his head towards the west at sun-set, when the sun is near Bharaní.

## VIII.

# On the Origin and Prculiar Tenets of certain Muhammedan Sbcts. 

> [From the Asiatic Researches, vol. vii. p. 338-344.
> Calcutta 1801. 4to.]

The B6hrahs, numerous in the provinces of the Indian peninsula, but found also in most of the great cities of Hindustán, are conspicuous by their peculiar customs; such, for example, as that of wearing at their orisons an appropriate dress, which they daily wash with their own hands. Their disposition for trade to the exclusion of every other mode of livelihood, and the government of their tribe by a hierarchy, are further peculiarities, which have rendered them an object of inquiry, as a singular sect.

Researches made by myself, among others, were long unsuccessful. My informers confounded this tribe with the Ismááliyahs, with the $A l_{\text {_-iláhiyahs, and even with the }}$ unchaste sect of Cherágh-cush. Concerning their origin, the information received was equally erroneous with that regarding their tenets. But at length a learned Sayyad referred me to the Mejálisu'lmuminín composed by NGrullah of Shuster, a zealous Shéâh, who suffered for his religious opinions in the reign or Jehingír. In the passage, which will be forthwith cited from that work, the Bohrahs are described by the author as natives of Gujrát, converted to the Muhammedan religion about three hundred years before his time, or five centuries ago.

To that passage I shall subjoin extracts from the same vol. II.
work, containing an account of similar tribes, with some of which the B6hrahs may, perhaps, have been sometimes confounded. Concerning the Ismáaliyahs, for whom they have been actually mistaken, it must be remembered, that these form a sect of Shídhs, who take their distinctive appellation from Ismáîl, eldest son and nominated successor of Imám Jáfer, surnamed Śadík. They consider Ismîil as the true heir of the Imámet, and do not acknowledge the legal succession of his brother Músí and of the five last Imáms. This sect flourished under the Egyptian dynasty of khalifs founded by Muhammed Mahadi, who claimed descent from the Imám Ismdíl himself. It was also conspicuous under a dynasty of princes of this sect, the first of whom, Hasan Sabah, founded a principality in Irák.* The sect may still exist in Syria; but it does not seem to be at present known in the Indian portion of Asia.

The Alí-iláhiyahs on the contrary, are become numerous in India. This sect is mentioned by the author of the Dábistán, as prevalent in his time, only at $U z b i l l$, or $A z b a ́ l$, in the mountainous tract near Khatá. It now prevails, according to information which I have received, in a part of the dominions of Nawab Nizamu'l-mulc. The singular tenets of this heretical sect are thus stated by Morsen FAnf. "The Alli-iláhiyahs hold, that celestial spirits, which cannot otherwise be known to mankind, have frequently appeared in palpable shapes. God himself has been manifested in the human form, but especially in the person of Alí Murtezi, whose image, being that of Alf Ulláh, or Alf God, these sectaries deem it lawful to worship. They believe in the metempsychosis; and, like

[^111]others who maintain that doctrine, abstain from fleshmeat. They imagine, that Alf Murtezí, when he quitted this earth, returned to the sun, which is the same with himself; and hence they call the sun Alí Ullah. This sect does not admit the authenticity of the Korán, as it is now extant: some pretending, that it is a forgery of Ab'becr's, Omar's, and Othman's; others condemning it, simply because it was edited by the last mentioned khalif. The members of this sect appear to vary in regard to some points of doctrine; but the leading and universal tenet of this sect is, that, in every age of the world, God is manifested in the persons of prophets and of saints ; for instance, he was Adam, and afterwards Ahmed and Alif: and in like manner these sectaries believe in the transmigration of God into the persons of the Imáms. Some of them affirm, that the manifestation of the divine being, in this age of the world, was Alf Ullah; and after him, his glorious posterity: and they consider Muhammbd as a prophet sent by Alí Ullaf. When God, say they, perceived Muhammed's insufficiency, he himself assumed the human form for the purpose of assisting the prophet."*

It does not appear from any satisfactory information, that the B6hrahs agree with either of these sects, in deifying Alf, or in contesting the legal succession of the six last Imáms. On the contrary, the tribe is acknowledged to consist of orthodox Sunnís, and of true Shíáhs; but mostly of the last mentioned sect. These and other known circumstances corroborate the following account of that tribe, as given by Nórullat of Shuster, in the work before mentioned.
"The B6hrahs are a tribe of the faithful, which is settled chiefly at Ahmedábád and its environs. Their salvation in

[^112]Q 2
the bosom of religion took place about three hundred years ago, at the call of a virtuous and learned man, whose name was Mullí Alí, and whose tomb is still seen at the city of Cambáyat.
" The conversion of this people was thus conducted by him: As the inhabitants of Gujrát were pagans, and were guided by an aged priest, a recreant, in whom they had a great confidence, and whose disciples they were; the missionary judged it expedient, first to offer himself as a pupil to the priest; and after convincing him by irrefragable proofs, and making him participate in the declaration of faith, then to undertake the conversion of others. He accordingly passed some years in attendance on that priest, learnt his language, studied his sciences, and became conversant with his books. By degrees he opened the articles of the faith to the enlightened priest, and persuaded him to become Muslemán. Some of his people changed their religion in concert with their old instructor. The circumstance of the priest's conversion being made known to the principal. minister of the king of that country, he visited the priest, adopted habits of obedience towards him, and became a Muslem. But for a long time, the minister, the priest, and the rest of the converts, dissembled their faith, and sought to keep it concealed, through dread of the king.
" At length the intelligence of the minister's conversion reached the monarch. One day he repaired to his house, and, finding him in the humble posture of prayer, was incensed against him. The minister knew the motive of the king's visit, and perceived that his anger arose from the suspicion that he was, reciting prayers and performing adoration. With presence of mind, inspired by divine providence, he immediately pretended that his prostrations were occasioned by the sight of a serpent, which appeared in the corner of the room, and against which he was
employing incantations. The king cast his eyes towards the corner of the apartment, and it so happened that there he saw a serpent; the minister's excuse appeared credible, and the king's suspicions were lulled.
" After a time, the king himself secretly became a convert to the Muslemán faith; but dissembled the state of his mind, for reasons of state. Yet, at the point of death, he ordered, by his will, that his corpse should not be burnt, according to the customs of the pagans.
"Subsequently to his decease, when Sultán Zefer, one of the trusty nobles of Sultán Fíruz Sháh, sovereign of Dehli, conquered the province of Gujrát; some learned men, who accompanied him, used arguments to make the people embrace the faith, according to the doctrines of such as revere the traditions.* Hence it happened, that some of the tribe of B6hrahs became members of the sect of the Sunnet.
" The party which retains the Imámizeh tenets, comprehends nearly two thousand families. They always have a pious learned man amongst them, who expounds cases of law according to the doctrines of the Imámiyehs. Most of them subsist by commerce and mechanical trades; as is indicated by the name of B6hrah, which signifies merchant, in the dialect of Gujrát. They transmit the fifth part of their gains to the Sayyads of Medínek; and pay their regular eleemosynary contributions to the chief of their learned, who distributes the alms among the poor of the sect. These people, great and small, are honest, pious, and temperate. They always suffer much persecution (for the crime of bearing affection towards the holy family) from the wicked murderers, $\dagger$ who are invested with public authority; and they are ever involved in the difficulties of concealment.

[^113]"The Sadikiyahs are a tribe of the faithful Hindustáa; pious men, and disciples of Sayyad Cabíru'ddin, who derived his descent from Ismiíc, son of Imám Jíper. This tribe is denominated Sadikkiyahs, by reason of the sincere [s'adik] call of that Sayyad. Although that appellation have, according to received notions, a seeming relation to Abtbecr, whose partisans gave him this title; yet it is probable that the sect assumed that appellation for the sake of concealment. However, no advantege ever accrues to them from it. On the contrary, the arrogant inhabitants of Hind, who are Hinduis, being retainers of the son of the impious Hind,* have discovered their attachment to the sect of Shíáhs, and have revived against them the calumnies which five hundred years before they broached against the Ismáliziyahs. They maliciously charge them with impiety ; such, indeed, is their ancient practice. They violate justice, and labour to extirpate this harmless tribe. In short, they cast the stone of calumny on the roof of the name and reputation of this wretched people, and have no fear of God, nor awe of his Prophet. $\dagger$
" In short, nearly thirty thousand persons of this sect are settled in provinces of Hindustán, such as Multár, Láhbr, Dehlí, and Gujrát. Most of them subsist by commerce. They pay the fifth part of their gains to the descendants of Saypad Cabir, who are their priests; and both preceptor and pupil, priests and laymen, all are zealous Shíâhs. God avert evil from them, and make the wiles of their foes recoil!
" The Házárehs of Cábul are an innumerable tribe, who reside in Cábul, Ghaznín, and Kandahar. Many of them

[^114]are Shéahs, and adherents of the holy family. At present, among the chiefs of the Shááhs, is Mirzá Shídmin, with whom the faithful are well pleased, and of whose incursions the Khárejis* of Cábul and Ghaznín bitterly complain.
"The Balfch of Sind; many of these are devoted Shéâhs. They call themselves, and are called by all the faithful, Ali's friends. Sayyad RÁst of Bokhárá exerted himself in the guidance of this tribe; his descendants remain among them, and are occupied with the concerns of the sect."

[^115]IX.

Translation of one of the Inscriptions on the Pillar at Delhí, called the Lát of Firotz Shíh.
[From the Asiatic Researches, vol. vii. p. 179-182.
Calcutta 1801. Ito.]
Sanscrǐt Inscription.*
संवत् १२२० वेशाख मुदी १५ शाकंभरी भूपति श्रीमदवेल्लदेवाल्मज ज्रीमद्बीसलदेवस्य ॥ आविंध्यादाहिमाद्रेवर्वरचितविजयस्तीर्थयानाप्रसंगा-
दुद्वीवेषुपहर्तानृपतिषुविनमत्कन्धरेषुपपन्नः ? आर्यावर्तंयथार्थपुनरपिकृतवान्ये़ेकविकेद्नाभिर्देव:शाकंकरोंद्रोजगतिविजयतेवीसल:क्षोणिपालःः ब्रूतेंप्रतिवाहमानतिलक: :ााकंभरीभूपतिः श्रीमदियहराजलषविजयीसंतानजानात्मनः ? अम्माभि:करदंबधायिहिमवडिंध्यान्नरालंभुवः श्रोषस्वीकरणायमान्मुभवतामुद्योगशून्यंमनः п १० अंभोनामरिपप्रियानयनयो:पत्यर्थिदंतान्तरे प्रत्यक्षाणितृणानिवेशवमिलत्काष्षंयश्तावकं। मार्गोलोकविर्ज्वलविजन:शून्यंमनोविद्विषां ग्रीमडियहराजदेवभवतःपाप्नपययाणोत्सवे ॥

- See Plate i.


## .ललामंदिरसोदरेषुभवतुस्वांतेषुवामभुवां

ह्रूणांननुवियहक्षितिपतेन्याय्यक्यवसस्तव ।
|कावापुरषषोतमस्यभवतोनास्त्येववारांनिधे न्निम्म्मघ्यापहृतश्रिय:किमुभवान्क्रोडेननिद्रायितः ॥ ावत्तंश्रीविक्रमादित्य १२२० वेशाखमुदी १५ गु तलिखितमिदं ........... प्रत्यक्षंगोडान्वयकाय थिमाहवपुत्रश्रीपतिनाअत्रसमयेमहामंत्रीराज पुत्रश्रीमल्नक्षणपालः ๆ शिवभयंकरचक्रवर्ती ॥

Samvat 1220 vaisác'ha sudí 15 sácambharí bhúpati śrimad vélla dévátmaja śrimad visala dévasya.
1 Ávindhyád áhimádrér virachita-vijayas tírt'ha-yátráaprasangád udgrivéshu prahartá nripatishu vinamat candharéshu prasannah
áryávertam yat'hárt'ham punar api crĭtaván mléchch'havichch'hédanábhir dévah ssácambharíndrb jagati vijayaté visalah cshbñipálah.
2 Bruté samprati báhujáta tilacah sácambharí bhupatih śrímad vigraha rája ésha vijayí santánaján átmanah asmábhih caradam vyadháyi himavad-vindhyántarálam bhuvah śésha-swícarañáya mástu bhavatám udybgaśínyam manah.
3 Ambhó náma ripu-priyá-nayanaybh pratyart'hi-dantántaré pratyacsháńi trịnáni vaibhava-milat cásht́am yaśas távacam
márgb lbca-viruddha éva vijanah śúnyam mant vidwishám śrímad vigraha rájadéva bhavatah prapté prayáńbtsavé
4 Lílá-mundira-sódaréshu bhavatuswántéshuvámabhruvám
śatruñán nanu vigraha cshitipaté nyáyyaś cha vásas tava
śancá vá purushbttamasya bhavatb násty éva várán nidhér nirmat'hyápahrìta-śriyah cimu bhaván cródé na nidráyitah.
Samvat órí vicramáditya 1220 vaisác'ha sudỉ 15 gurau lic'hitam idam
pratyacsham gaudánwoaya-ćáyast'ha-máhava-putra-śripatina atra samayé mahá-mantrí rájaputra śrímallacshańapálah.

## Verbal Translation.

" In the year 1220, on the 15th day of the bright half of the month Vaisác'ha, [this monument] of the fortunate Visala Defa, son of the fortunate Vella Déva,* king of Śácambharri.
"As far as Vindhya, $\dagger$ as far as Himádri, $\dagger$ having achieved conquest in the course of travelling to holy places; resentful to haughty kings, and indulgent to those whose necks are humbled ; making Áryáverta $\dagger$ once more what its name signifies, by causing the barbarians to be exterminated; Visala Deva, supreme ruler of Śácambharí, $\ddagger$ and sovereign of the earth, is victorious in the world.
" This conqueror, the fortunateVigraha Rája, § king of

[^116]Śácambharí, most eminent of the tribe which sprang from the arms* [of Brahmá,] now addresses his own descendants: ' By us the region of the earth between Himavat ${ }^{4}$ and Vindhya has been made tribatary; let not your ' minds be void of exertion to subdue the remainder.'
" Tears are evident in the eyes of thy enemy's consort; blades of grass are perceived between thy adversary's teeth ; $\dagger$ thy fame is predominant throughout space; the minds of thy foes are void [of hope]; their route is the desert where men are hindered from passing; O Vigraha Raja Deva, in the jubilee occasioned by thy march.
" May thy abode, O Vigraha, sovereign of the earth, be fixed, as in reason it ought, in the bosoms (akin to the mmanion of dalliance) of the women with beautiful eyebrows, who were married to thy enemies. There is no doubt of thy being the highest of embodied souls $\ddagger$ Didet thou not sleep in the lap of Śri, whom thou didst seize from the ocean, having churned it?§
" In the year from the fortunate Vicrímaditya 1220\| on Thursday the 15th day of the bright half of the month

[^117]Vaisác'ha, this was written in the presence of * by Śrípati, the son of Máhava, a Cáyast'ha of a family in Gauda: at this time the fortunate Lacshańa pála, a Rájaputra, is prime minister.


There are on the same page, some short inscriptions, which I cannot decypher. One of them, however, is partly legible, and appears to be in the Hindustání language. It contains the name of Sultán Ibríhim, and wishes him a long life.

## Note to the preceding Translation.

[From the Asiatic Researches, vol. ix. p. 453. Calcutta, 1807. 4to.]
A passage in the preface of the Sárngadhara paddhati, and another in the body of that work, which were first indicated by Capt. Wilford, $\dagger$ show, that a term, contained in the inscription on the column at Delhi, for which I proposed to substitute, with the advice of the Pañdit who assisted me, the word 'báhujáta' as a conjectural emendation, must be read 'chahúmana,' or 'chahavana;' being the name of the tribe to which the prince, there mentioned, belonged, and which is well known at this day under the appellation of Chäuhan. In the preface, ŚArngadhara describes himself as second in descent from Raghudeva, a priest attending on Hammira king of -Sácambhari, of the tribe of Chäuhán, Cháhuván, or Báhuvána (for the name is variously spelt in different copies). The work itself is a compilation of miscellaneous poetry

[^118]arranged under distinct heads; and one chapter (the 73d) is devoted to the admission of stanzas concerning individual princes. Among them two stanzas occur, which are there cited as an inscription on a royal column of stone, erected as a sacrificial pillar ;* and which, on comparison, are found to be the same with the two first of the stanzas, on the pillar at Delhí. Several copies of the Sárngadhara paddhati have been collated, in all of which, the term in question is written Báhuvána. Comparing this with the preface of the same compilation, and with the inscription itself, we may be allowed to conjecture, that Cháhuvána is the correct reading : the Nágarı́ letters ${ }^{\text {ब and }} \overline{\text { व being }}$ very liable to be confounded.

[^119]
## X. <br> On Ancirnt Mondments, containing Sanscrift <br> Inscriptions. <br> [From the Asiatic Researches, vol. ix. p. 398-444. Calcutta 1807. 4to.]

In the scarcity of authentic materials for the ancient, and even for the modern, history of the Hindu race, importance is justly attached to all genuine monuments, and especially inscriptions on stone and metal, which are occasionally discovered through various accidents. If these be carefully preserved and diligently examined, and the facts ascertained from them, be judiciously employed towards elucidating the scattered information, which can be yet collected from the remains of Indian literature, a satisfactory progress may be finally made in investigating the history of the Hindus. That the dynasties of princes who have reigned paramount in India, or the line of chieftains who have ruled over particular tracts, will be verified; or that the events of war, or the effects of policy, during a series of ages, will be developed; is an expectation which I neither entertain, nor wish to excite. But the state of manners, and the prevalence of particular doctrines, at different periods, may be deduced from a diligent perusal of the writings of authors, whose age is ascertained; and the contrast of different results, for various and distant periods, may furmish a distinct outline of the progress of opinions. A brief history of the nation itself, rather than of its government, will be thus sketched; but if unable to revive the memory of great political events, we may at least be content to know what has been the state of arts, of sciences, of manners, in remote ages, among this very ancient and early civilized people; and to learn what has been the suc-
cession of doctrines, religious and philosophical, which have prevailed in a nation ingenious yet prone to superstition.

Unfortunately, writers have seldom given the dates of their compositions; and the Hindu's love of fable, and distaste for sober narrative, have been as unfiendly to the biography of authors, as to the history of princes. The lives of few celebrated persons have been written; and those which have been composed, exhibit the same fondness for improbable fiction which pervades the mythological works of the Hindus. The age of an author must be, therefore, sought from circumstances mentioned in his writings: and none more frequently affords the desired information, than the author's notice of his patron; who generally is either the sovereign of the country, or some person standing in such relation to the court, as gives occasion to mention the name of the reigning prince. Thus every ancient monument which fixes the date of a reign, or determines the period of a particular dynasty, tends to the ascertainment of the age of writers who flourished in that reign or under that dynasty: and conversely, wherever dates can be, with confidence, deduced immediately from an author's works, these may furnish historical information, and assist the explanation of ancient monuments.

On this account the preservation and study of old inscriptions may be earnestly recommended. It is not on a first or cursory examination, that the utility of any particular monument for the illustration of the civil or literary history of the country can be certainly determined. Even those which at first sight appear uninteresting, may be afterwards found to bear strongly on an important point. Instances might be brought from the few inscriptions which have been already published. But it is not my present purpose to enter on an examination of published monuments, but to urge the communication of every inscription
which may be hereafter discovered; at the same time that I lay before the Society copies and translations of those which have been recently communicated from various parts of India.

It is a subject for regret, that the originals of which versions have before been made public, are not deposited where they might be accessible to persons engaged in researches into Indian literature and antiquities: but much more so, that ancient monuments, which there is reason to consider as important, have been removed to Europe before they had been sufficiently examined, or before they were accurately copied and translated. I may specify, with particular regret, the plate of copper found at Benares, and noticed by Capt. Wilford in the ninth volume of Asiatic Researches (p. 108); and still more a plate which has been mentioned to me by a learned Pańdit, (who assured me that he was employed in decyphering it),* and which appears, from a copy in his possession, to have contained a grant of land by the celebrated Jayachandra, when a young prince associated to the empire of his father; from this information it seems to have been particularly valuable, on account of the genealogy comprised in it.

Translations might indeed be made from the Pańdit's copy of the last-mentioned plate, and from one taken by a learned native in Capt. Wilford's service, from the plate discovered at Benares. But my experience of the necessity of collating the copies made by the best Pandits, from inscriptions in ancient or unusual character, discourages me from placing implicit confidence in their transcripts; and the originals are at present beyond reach of

[^120]reference, having been conveyed to Europe to be there buried in some public museum or private collection.

The only amends, which could be now made for the removal of those interesting monuments, would be the publication of copies correctly made in fac simile. From such transcripts, provided they be executed with great care, the text may be decyphered and translated. An exact copy of the Sanscrit inscription on the stone at Cintra in Portugal, enabled Mr. Wilkins to ascertain the date and scope of that inscription; as well as the names, which it contains.* Similar copies of other inscriptions would, in like manner, furnish oriental scholars with the means of ascertaining their purport; and the publication of fac similes may, for this purpose, be recommended to those who are in possession of the originals.

I now proceed to describe, and so far as I have succeeded in decyphering them, to explain, the several inscriptions on ancient monuments in stone and copper, which have been lately presented to the Asiatic Society.

## I. Inscription on a Plate of Copper found in the district of Tipura.

Towards the end of 1803, a plate of copper was discovered in digging earth for the repair of the highway through the Manamatí hills in the district of Tipura. It was carried to Mr. Eliot, magistrate of the district; and by him communicated to the Asiatic Society. On examination, it has been found to contain an inscription declaratory of a grant of land, dated near 600 years ago.

The plate measures eleven inches in height and nine in breadth, and is engraved on one surface only. The sides

[^121]have a gentle curvature ; and, at top, is an abrupt bend, allowing room to a figure coarsely delineated, and apparently intended to represent a temple. The character agrees nearly with that now in use in Bengal: but some of the letters bear a closer resemblance to the writing of Tirhét.*

The following is an exact copy of the inscription in Nágarí letters, as decyphered by the aid of several Pańdits. A literal translation is subjoined; and a fac simile of the original is exhibited in the annexed plate. $\dagger$

# $\because$ प्रो ॥ <br> तस्मिन्नुच्चेरमलिनकुलेविप्वविख्यातकीर्ति विद्याधारःपरमसुकृतीमण्डनंपणिडतानां। ख्यातःः्रीमानजनिसमहानूहेडिएवाभिधानो यस्यस्वच्छेयवरदनिशंमानसेधर्महंसः १११ तम्मादभ्द्यमकीर्तिकलावितान: <br> श्रीमानमात्यतिलकोमनुजामलेन्दुः । दष्टाशश स्लज्जारजोख्वयथुमानिवसंविभाति १२ः अविरहात्समहाश्वनिबन्धिकः परमतन्वमहत्वमधिषितः । 

[^122]$\dagger$ See Plate ii.

रचिररीतिषुनीतिषुगीष्पतिः सह्जधर्ममुकर्ममुशोभते प३ः दानध्यानमहोदधिःपविचलन्चिनेककारागृं तप्नास्वादतृषामयःकतिदयाधारःपरप्राणिनांध धर्मस्यातुलके लिसद्ममु कृतीगुप्तेकयोगीख्वर: सोथ्यंग्रोधडिएवएकउदभूदानन्द्वन्द्रोभुवि 18 यम्येवाख्वनिबन्धिकोन्यमभवस्ष्षोणीन्द्रचूडामणेस्तस्यश्रीरणवड्रमस्ननृपतेर्लोलापिलोकोतरा। आक्रामद्रिरितस्ततस्तिजगतींयत्यद्योोभि:सिते : प्रासादे $ग$ पिनिजेसहम्तनयनोजातानुलीनायितः $14 \uparrow$ दुर्गोनाराविहारीरचिर विरचितापट्टिकेवानगय्या येयंधर्मस्यकामंमुकुटविरचनाप्रक्रियेवाभिभाति । यामे न्स्येवे जखण्डेनिजसर लद्धदाविंशतिद्रोणभूमि दर्ताचन्द्रार्कमास्तामतिविमलयशःशाम्यसम्यकृषिस $\$ ह युत्तस्तदस्यकीर्तेयत्सर्वत्रभवतिश्रमः त
दत्नादक्षिणचितेनचतुःसीमेतिभू:ःव्वयं ท७ท हंहोबोधतभाविभूमिपतयोयताम्रपत्राड्लुरं युष्मानप्वनिबन्धिकोज्यमधुनाकृतूार्जुलिंयाचते ॥ पाल्याभूमिरियंनवाकतिपयद्रोहेणराज्य स्थितिधिंद्देन्यंविधवेवसावसुमतीयम्यालघीयान्पतिः $\eta$ t $\eta$

## सहजगुणम हिम्नायद्यपीयंस्वभावा- <br> दतिविलसनिगुप्तावंशजानांप्रशस्ति : ?

 विमलकुलगुणोचेर्गाढमाकृथमाणः प्रकटयतितदित्यंमेदिनीलवएषः शही शकनृपतेरतीताअब्दाः१98१रणवड्समल्लम्रोम -त्हरिकालदेवपादानांसप्तदशसम्वत्सरे॰भिलिख्यमानेयताड्बेनापि सम्वत् १७ मूर्यगत्यानुल दिने २६ ःTranglation.

1. " In that* eminent and spotless family, was born, an ornament of the learned, renowned throughout the world, endowed with science, and practising good deeds, the celebrated, happy, and venerable HE6i ; $\dagger$ in whose pure mind, virtue ever ranges, like a swan in the limpid lake.
2. "From him sprung the happy chief of ministers, who exhibits the joys of unsullied glory; a spotless moon among mortals, and at sight of whom the hare-spotted luminary $\ddagger$ appears swoln [with envy], and distempered with alternate increase and wane.

[^123]3. "That venerable officer,* ever relying on holy virtues, $\dagger$ is eminently conversant with well guided morals, and conspicuous for the observance of practical duties.
4. " Himself an ocean of generosity and meditation, yet thirsting to taste, by practice of austerity, that which alone confines the fleeting thoughts ; $\ddagger$ sympathising with other living beings, an unrivalled theatre of virtue, practising good deeds, and, in private, only a contemplative saint, this auspicious Dhabi alone rose, as a luminary of joy above the earth.
5. "Superior to the world was the delight of this pre-eminent sovereign of the earth, the happy Rańabancamalla, whose officer§ he was; for the deity who has a hundred eyes $\|$ is obscured, even in his own abode, by the dazzling glories of that [monarch], which traverse the three worlds, in all directions.
6. "May the twenty drónias $\mathbb{T}$ of land, in the village of Ijac'handa, granted to him by that generous prince, continue as long as sun and moon endure, yielding the ample

[^124]harvest of unsullied praise; for it is land secure from invasion, delightful, like a pleasant painting, and appears like a crest in the assemblage of cities.
7. "This land, with definite boundaries, has been given by the liberal prince himself, the range of whose glory therefore extends, as is fit, in all directions.
8. "O future kings; understand this inscription on copper, by which that officer* humbly now solicits you: this land should be preserved; nor is the permanence of the realm consistent with the slightest injury: a shame on avarice! That land is, as it were, a widow, the sovereign of which is despised [for his covetousness].
9. "Although this excellence of the descendants [of that prince] which is guarded by their natural virtues, be sufficiently apparent, yet does MEdiní, urged by the multitude of the good qualities of that unsullied race, thns make it known. $\dagger$
"Years expired of the Śaca king $1141 ; \ddagger$ dated in the seventeenth year of Rańabanca malla, Śrimat Haricala deva,§ or expressed in numerals, Samvat\|, 17 ; on the 29th of the Sun's being in the balance."

## - Aśvoanibandhica.

$\dagger$ This inscription appears not to be a grant by the sovereign; but a memorial of the grant recorded by the possessor, who must have been the heir of the grantee, and who seems to acknowledge in this place the liberality of the grantor's successors continuing the land to him.
$\ddagger$ Corresponding to A.D. 1219.
§ This prince is probably a different person from the grantor named in the fifth verse.
|| Here Samvat is used for the year of the king's reign. See remarks, towards the close of this paper, on an inscription found at Amgáchhi in Dinajpur.


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## II. Inscription on a Plate of Copper found in the district of Gorakipur.

A plate of copper, containing an inscription in the Sanscrǐt language, declaratory of a grant of land, but without date, was lately found in the district of Gorakhpur, near the river called the little Gandhac. It was brought to Mr. John Ahmuty, magistrate of the district, and by him communicated to Captain Wilford, who has presented it to the Asiatic Society.

The plate, which is $16 \frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and $12 \frac{1}{2}$ broad, is engraved on one face only. The lines, of which there are 24, run in the length of the plate; and on the left side is a curvature, on which a semi-circular appendage is riveted, containing a flat button representing the impression of a seal. The figure is very imperfect, but seems to be intended for some animal.

With the plate itself, Captain Wilpord communicated a copy of its contents as decyphered by a Pandit in his service. On carefully comparing it with the original, I found all the essential passages, as well as the names, correctly given : a few alterations, which this comparison showed to be necessary, have been made with the concurrence of several Pańdits from Tirhút, who assisted me in collating it. I preferred the aid of Pandits of that province, because the peculiarities of the characters where they differ widely, as they do in many instances, from common Dévanágarí, make a nearer approach to the Tirhútíya letters than to any other now in use. The whole inscription is indeed remarkable for the uncommon form of the consonants, and the very unusual manner in which the vowels are marked. On this account an exact copy of the original in fac simile will be subjoined ;* as well as a correct

[^125]transcript in modern Dévanágarí letters. The following version is as literal as the difference of idiom permits.

## Translation.

1. "Salutation to the God, who is manifested in various forms, from earth to the performer of a sacrifice,* who is an universal soul, to be apprehended only by contemplation of saints; and who pervades all.
2. " Salutation to the unborn God, $\dagger$ who makes the world's production, its continuance, and ultimate destruction; and the recollection of whom serves as a vessel of transport across the ocean of mundane ills.
3. "Salutation be to the husband of Lacshmi; to him who reposes on Śsena as on a couch; to him who is Vishíu extracting the thorns of the three worlds; to him who appears in every shape. $\ddagger$
4. "Salutation be to the blessed foot of Parvati,§ which destroyed the demon Mahisha, by whom all had been overcome; and which gives felicity to the world.
5. "Surrounded by groves of lofty canes, || inaccessi-ble through the range of edifices on the hill's summit; encompassed by a deep ditch, in which fountains spring; secure by impassable defence from dread of foes, a

[^126]6. royal abode there is named Vijeyapura," which is situated on the declivity of the northern mountain, where the pain of regret is unknown, and every gratification is found.
7. "There reigned the fortunate Driarmáditya, like another B6dhisatwa, a mighty and prosperous prince, whose glory spread over the four seas. His
8. son was Jayíditya, $\dagger$ adorable like the moon, the fortune of the world, like the tree which bears every desired fruit, and satisfying thirst like a deep lake:
9. humble, though a king; though young, prudent and averse from amorous passion; though liberally bestowing all, yet ever receiving the best result of all.
10. "His minister, learned, intelligent, and vanquisher of foes, the son of a mighty chieftain and counsellor Crytacírti, was the fortunate Madáli, $\ddagger$

[^127]Crita-
11. whose pleasing counsels obtained a ready hearing, and who was by nature eager for the reduction of enemies.*
12. "The village of Dummadumá, $\uparrow$ obtained by him from the royal favour, and rich in tillage, dwellings, and cattle, has been assigned by him to Durgá: $\ddagger$
13. "The opulence of the good, who put their trust in the great, is, indeed, beneficial to others : the clouds gather water from the sea, and shower it down on the 14. growing crop. Rare indeed are those liberal persons, who distinguish not between their own dependants and strangers: how many are the all-productive trees even in the celestial grove? §
15. "Do not imagine, father, that, in the sinful age, a general equality prevails : the sovereign defends the earth, but a weak individual guards not even his house. || 16. Birth and death, success and misfortune, are perpetually passing: why not, therefore, protect another's 17. glory like one's own? He, who bestows fertile land

Cruttacirti may signify ' of established fame:' but, if taken as an epithet, it leaves no other term which can be assumed as the name of the minister's father.

- The text exhibits Pracríti parabaddhacécshó. Though a very unsatisfactory reading, it is here preserved, and has been translated in the most probable sense which I am able to suggest for it.
+ A village of this name is situated in the district of Allahabad, within twenty miles of Bijeypur on the Ganges. But the name is not uncommon: and may belong to some place nearer to the northern mountains.

I Jayáditya's minister, Madali, appears to have assigned this village for general charitable uses, by consecrating it to the goddess Durgí. Such at least seem to be the most consistent reading and interpretation of the text.
§ Indra's garden called Nandana; in which five celestial trees are placed, termed Calpadruma, Párijata, \&e. The Calpadruma yields, as its fruit, every thing which is desired.
|| The intention of this and the following lines is to deprecate the resumption of the grant.
farnished with the means of agriculture, mounts a celestial vehicle, and ascends to heaven, gladdening 18. his progenitors. But he, who foolishly resumes land allotted to gods or priests, assuredly causes his ances-
tors to fall to hell, even though they had previously attained heaven.
19. " Sprung from a very pure race, respectful towards gods, priests, spiritual parents, and the king, a generous 20. founder of temples, who has dug many ponds; by the tenderness of his disposition an image of Sugata,* a treasure of virtues, with subdued organs, wise, and averse from unpleasing discourse: such was the $C a^{\prime}$ yastha Nágadatta. By him was composed with great devoutness, this praise of the minister ; in apt measure and pleasing verse, elegant $\dagger$ and apposite.
22. "The last three verses were written by his younger brother Vidyádatta; for he himself was fearful of proclaiming his own virtues.
23. "Rich and fertile is the village, obtained through

[^128]the king's favour as an endowment for subsistence, and still more productive is this other village for virtuous men."*

त1 श्रीगणेशायनमः ः
क्षित्यादियजमानान्तमूर्नयेविप्वगात्मने मुनीनांध्यानगम्यायसमस्तथापिनेनमः ॥१ ॥ अजायजगदुत्पत्तिस्थितिप्रलयकारिणे । संसारसागरोतारपोतसंस्मृतयेनम: श२ฤ नमोक्तुलर्म्मीपतयेशेषपर्यंकशायिने ।
习्रैलोक्यकंट कोत्वातिविष्णवेविप्वरूपिणे $n ३ n$ नमोग्तुविजिताशेषमहिषामुरघातिने । पार्दतीपाद पद्मायजगदानन्ददायिने $18 \%$ वेणुवनालीविषमाशिखरप्राकारमालयालंघ्या। निद्शर गभीरपरिखादुस्तरमस्तारिसंत्रासाप५ ॥ अविदितवियोगढु:खासन्तोषसमाप्नसकलविष यमुखा 1 अस्त्युत्तरगिरिकटकेविजयपुरंनामनृपधानी $\rrbracket \xi$ तत्रचचतुरम्भोधिभ्रान्तयशा:स्थिरोदयोमहासत्वः। श्रीमान्धरीदित्योनृपतिरभूद्डोधिसत्वद्इव ఇ७ท

[^129]तस्यचशशोवसेयोभाग्यंतोकस्यकल्पशाखीव।
हूदद्इवतृष्णापहरःमुतोग्मवच्छीजयादिल्यःп $t \pi$
राजापियोविनीतोयुवापिधीरोमनोभवड्वेषी।
सर्वप्रदोनपिशम्वत्तर्वस्यगृहीतपरमार्थः जEत तस्यसचिवःः्रुतार्थोमहानुभावोविनिर्जितारातिः । सामन्तस्यसुमहत:कृतकोर्तेंम्मत्रिणस्तनयः 190 ॥ यस्यचसुचाइमंत्रेढ्रतः कर्णो $\quad$ पिलाघवंयातः । प्रकृतिपर बड्यकेक्षोबभूवसश्रमीदालिरिति ท११ दुम्मढुमाकनामायामोराजप्रसादसंप्राप्तः । कृषिवसतिगोधनादोदुर्गायेशासितम्तेन श१२» भवतिहिसताविभूतिःपरोपकृतयेमहान्तमाश्रित्य। जलधेरादायजलंजलदाःशास्यायवर्षन्ति 19 ३३ः स्वपरजननिर्विशेषा:सन्तोविरलाहिसंतिफलदाने । कल्पद्रुमाःकियन्तःःर्र्यन्तेनन्द्रेे पिवने $198 \geqslant$ माकल्यकलियुगे पिहिसमानतांतातसर्वसत्वेन 1 रक्षतिवसुधांनरपतिरावमगहंनेवलघुसत्व: ११५१ जन्ममरणंचसंपड़िपच्वपुंसांमुशाप्वतीभवति। यदिचेवंपरकीर्तीस्वामिवकाम्नानालयेत् ท१र्६ः कृषिकारणसंयुत्तांवमुन्धरांयोददातिशम्यवतीं।

## वजतिविमानारूढ:पितॄनूसआह्लादयन्नाकंत 9 १॥

 अपहरतियोविमोहाद्देवद्विजपादकल्पितांवसुधां स्वर्गस्थानपिनियतंपातयतिसपूर्वजान्नरके १ 9 七» अतिनिर्मलकुलजन्मादे वद्वि जगुरू न पतिनतिसन्तः ? खानितभूरितडाग:कारितदेवाल्यस्त्यागी ॥ 9 e॥ मुगतप्रतिम:कृपयागुणनिधिरभवड्जितेन्द्रियोविद्वानू। विप्रियवादेविमुखःकायस्थोनागदत्नति श२०॥ सचिवस्यतेनरचितालक्षणयुत्तासुवर्णकृतशोभा 1 सद्वृत्तालक्तिपदाभत्तयापरयाप्रशस्तिरियं 丹२११॥ स्वगुणज्ञापनभीरोस्तस्यभ्रात्राकनीयसारचितं 1 आर्याणांत्रितयमिदंदिद्यादनेनभूतार्थ १२२॥ राजप्रसादलब्धाधनकनकसमाकुलातिसक्यवती 1 जीवनपस्निरितिसतांयामोध्यंसझ्यतरःपरः १२३ПIII. Inscription on three Plates of Brass found at Chitradurg.

A grant of land, engraved on three plates of brass, which were found at Chitradurg in the year 1800, and a fac simile of a similar grant found at the same place, have been presented by Major C. Mackenzie to the Asiatic Society.

The plates, which appear to be very similar in both grants, may be described from that, of which the original has been received. They are nearly seven inches wide and as many high, but surmounted by an arch of two inches in height. The two exterior plates have been engraved on the inner side only : the middle one is so on both faces. At the edge is a rim, half a line thick, by which the inscription is sécured from being effaced by the rubbing of the plates. They are held together by a brass ring, on which is a seal of the same metal representing a boar. The engraved surfaces have some appearance of having been once gilt.

The language is Sanscrit, excepting the description of the lands, which is in the Cánara dialect. The whole inscription is in Dévanágarí characters: but some of the letters are formed in a very unusual manner. It contains a grant by the king of Vidyánagar (pronounced Bijánagar), formerly the capital of Carnátaca: and is dated little more than four hundred years ago. Grants, by kings of this dynasty, are not uncommon in the Dekhin; and may be of use in determining the dates of their several reigns. These princes were enlightened patrons of science: especially Harihara and Buccaráya sons of Sangama the founder of the dynasty.

Major Mackenzie forwarded a translation of this inscription made by his interpreter Cavelly Boria. The original is, in some instances, read differently by the Pańdits whom I have consulted: not, however, making any change in the purport, nor in any material passage. The following translation is conformable to their interpretation : and the copy, which is subjoined, exhibits the text as read by them.

## Translation.

1. "Salutation to Gańésa. I bow to Śambeu, graced with the beautiful moon crowning his lofty head; himself the pillar, which upholds the origin of 2. the three worlds.* May he, whose head is like an elephant's, the son of Hara, $\dagger$ the cause of uninterrupted supremacy, the giver of boons, and the luminary 3. which dispels darkness, $\ddagger$ preserve us. May the auspicious primeval boar, § by whom closely embraced, the earth exults, grant us vast prosperity.
2. "The ambrosial moon, brother of the goddess Ramá, is the offspring of the milky ocean, $\|$ having a common origin with the gem Caustubha, the all-pro5. ductive tree and the ever beneficent cow. In the lunar race was born a king named Yadu, $\mathbb{T}$ by a descendant of whom [Crishńa] son of Vasudeva, the earth has
3. been protected. In his line amse a king named San-
[^130]GAMA,* who abounded in weighty virtues, and shunned the society of the wicked.
7. "This king had [five] sons, Harieara, Campa, Buccaríya who was sovereign of the earth, $\dagger$ MArapa and Mudgapa.
8. "Among these five graceful princes, the most celebrated was Bucca, sovereign of the earth, conspicuous for valour, as Arjuna among the Páńbavas.
9. Therefore, did Buccaráya, fierce in battle, become a fortunate prince, applying his left shoulder $\ddagger$ to uphold the burden of the mighty elephants posted at the quar10. ters of the world. When his army, in warlike array, performed evolutions on the frontier of his dominions, the Turashcas felt their mouths parched; the Concańa, terrified, apprehended impending death; the Andhras fled, in consternation, to the caverns; the Gurjaras trembled; the Cámbbjas lost their firmness; and the Calingas were quickly discomfited.§

[^131]$\ddagger$ The text appears to exhibit the negative of dacshina right.
At the eight principal points of the compass, elephants uphold the world.
$\$$ This verse is extremely inaccurate in the original: it has been corrected with the aid of the fac simile of another grant beforementioned. It begins Yasyoddhaya yuddhé guddha rangé, which is unmeaning and contains too many syllables for the metre. It should be, as in the other inscription, Yasybdyad yuddha rangé. A syllable
vol. II.
11. "He was a conspicuous monarch, splendid, and a supreme ruler of kings, but acting towards disobedient princes, as the king of birds towards serpents :
12. embraced by the concubines of kings, destroying hostile chiefs, defending the heroes of Hindú ráya, endowed with knowledge and other qualities.*
13. "By that victorious king was Vidyá nagarí made a permanent metropolis; a fortunate city, which is adapted to promote universal conquest. $\dagger$
14. "Gaurámbicá became his queen; a princess respectable for her virtues; as Rama the beloved wife 15. of Cryshéa; as Gauri, of Śsiva; as Śsachi, of 16. Indra; as Saraswatí, of Brahmá; as Ch'hayá, of Strya. $\ddagger$ By the charms of her graceful gaiety,
is wanting in Turushcifh, written Tushcah. Two were deficient in Bhaya bhara bharitah, expressed Bhava bharitah. Both inscriptions write Cámbhöjăh for Cámbójah. In one, Sapari is erroneously put for Sapadi.

All'the names of nations, which occur in this place, have been repeatedly explained.

- These stanzas are very obscure : and I am not confident, that they are rightly translated. Hindk raya seems to be similar to the Hindkpati of Brondelc'hand: for so the government of that country was denominated under the chiefs, who ruled it in the last and in the preceding century.

The stanzas appear to be similar to two in the grant preserved at Conjeveram: viz. 25th and 26th. (As. Res., vol. iii. p. 47.) But there is some difference in reading as well as interpretation.
$\dagger$ Vidya nagari signifies the city of science. Ferishtai was mistaken, when he affirmed, that it was founded by Ríjí Belííl, dso and named after his son Bíjí raíy. (Scott's History of Dekhan, Intr. p. xi.) It is believed to have been founded by the two brothers Harihara and Bucca ráya.
$\ddagger$ The gods and goddesses, to whom the happy couple is here compared, are mentioned in the text by titles, some of which are uncommon; and have been therefore changed, in the translation, to others
she obscured Tilbttamá; by her happy fidelity to her husband, she excited the envy of Anastixa. $\dagger$
17. "This liberal prince, pre-eminent among kings, begot, on that divine princess, $\ddagger$ a son named Hari18. bara: who is become a protector of the good and punisher of the wicked; who has obtained his wish, with the wise: who is enviable, and is devoted to the god Harihara.
19. "The tree of virtue thrives by water poured with his donations ; $\S$ while he shines with the splendid glory of sixteen kinds of gift.|
20. " In the year 1317 ; $\mathbb{1}$ and, of the cycle, Dháta; in the month of Mágha, and light fortnight; on the day 21. of full moon; under the asterism sacred to the Pitris (Maghá); on Sunday; upon the bank of the river Fungabhadrá, which is adorned by the mountain He22. maclita; in the presence of the auspicious deity, VIbupácsha; ** the valiant Haribara, + + revered among

[^132]mortals, liberal in his gifts of land, and especially atten-. 24. tive to venerable priests, has graciously given, with gold 22. and with a libation of water, to the auspicious descen23. dant of Bhízadwája and follower of the Rigué$d a$, the wise Vishńudicshita Paffabardifi, son of 24. Váchespati surnamed Bhila; and to the learned Anantadicshita son of Rámabhaffa, a descen25. dant of Vasisht'ha and follower of Ápastamba's 28. Yajurvéda, inhabitant of Ruchangi (a place known to have been visited by the Pándavas), the fertile and all25. productive village of Mádénahalli, also named Hari26. harapura, situated in the midst of Bhilichédra, east of 27. the village called Arisicér, south of Gandicéhalli, west of Pallavacatá, and north of Bhudihalli, a place to 29. be honoured by all; marked on the four sides by distinct boundaries; together with its treasures, and hidden deposits, its stones, and every thing which it 30. does or may contain; abounding with objects pleasing to the eye; fit to be enjoyed by two persons; graced with elegant trees; furnished with wells, cisterns, ponds and banks; to be successively possessed by the 31. sons, grandsons and other descendants [of the grantees], as long as the sun and moon endure, subject to be 32. mortgaged, 'sold, or any way disposed of; a village visited by assiduous and gentle priests and attendants, and by various wise persons, who are conversant with holy rites, and surpass in voice melodious birds."*

[^133]A particular description of the bounds of the village, and its land-marks, is next inserted in the Cánara language. After which the patent proceeds thus:
"This patent is of the king Harifara, the sole unalterable tree of beneficence, magnanimous, and whose sweet strains compose this royal grant. By his command this patent has been framed, expressed in due form, in the sacred tongue.*
" The boundaries of the village on all sides, have been stated in the provincial dialect.
" Of original gift or confirmation of it, confirmation is superior to gift; by generous grants a man obtains heaven; by confirmation of them, an unperishable abode; for the confirmation of another's donation is twice as meritorious as a gift made by himself; and his own munificence is rendered fruitless by resumption of another's grants. He who resumes land, whether bestowed by himself or by another, is born an insect in ordure for sixty thousand years. In this world is one only sister of all kings, namely land, which has been conferred on priests : $\dagger$ she must not be enjoyed nor espoused. $\ddagger$ This general maxim of duty for kings, should be strictly observed by you in all times; so Rámachandra earnestly conjures all future sovereigns.§

[^134]"Śrí Viŕf ${ }^{\text {PACBHa }}$; or the auspicious deity with uneven eyes."

## श्रीगणाधिपतयेनम: ॥

नमस्तुड़्गिशरश्बिचन्द्रचामरचारवे 1 त्रैलोक्यनगरारम्भमूलस्तम्भायशम्भवे $१ १ ॥$ अवाद्याहतैख्वर्यकारणंवारणाननः १ वरदस्तीव्रतिमिरमिहिरोहरनन्दनः आ२॥ श्रीमानादिवराहोयः श्रियंदिशतुभूयसीं 1 गाढमालिड्डितायेनमेदिनीयत्रमोदते $\because ३ \Uparrow$ अस्तिकोस्तुभकल्पद्रुकामधेनुसहोदरः 1 रमानुजःसुधानाथःक्षीरसागरसम्भव: ๆ18 ॥ उदभूदन्वयेतस्ययदुन्न्नममहीपति: ? पालितंयत्कुलीनेनवासुदेवेनभूतलं $१ १ 4 \geqslant$ अभूदस्यकुलेश्रीमानूभूमोगुर्गुणोदय: 1 अपास्तटुरितासड्गसड्गुमोनामभूपति: ఇहीः आसन्हरिहरःकम्पोबुकरायमहीपति: ? मारपोमुजपश्रेतिकुमारास्तक्यभूपते: ๗७॥ पन्नानांदृप्नगात्राणांप्रख्यातोबुष्क्रूपतिः ?

[^135] दिबरीन्द्रधुराधारादक्षिणस्कन्धबन्धुरः । बुछरायस्ततःश्रीमानासीदाहवकर्कशः nEः यस्योद्यद्युद्धरड़्गेवितरतिपरितम्ताण्डवंमण्ड लायेवत्तेशुष्कास्तुरूष्काभयभरभरितःकोड्दण : शड्द्रितायुः श
सान्ध्रारन्ध्राणिधावन्त्यधममततयागुर्ज्जराज ज्ज्जराड्डाःःकाम्बोजा:स्विन्नधेय्या:सपदिसमभव न्प्राप्नभड़ा:कलिड्गः $190 \pi$
राजाधिराजस्तेजस्वीयोराजपरमेख्वरः ?
भाषातिरिड़िभूपालभुजड्ग्रमविहंगराट्रा११॥ राजवेश्याभुजड़ग़ोयःपररायतपड्षार: 1
हिन्दुरायसुरत्राण:शास्त्रेत्यादिभिरन्वित: П१२॥ शीविद्यानगरीविश्वविजयोदयशालिनी। राझाविजयिनायेनराजधानीकृत्तास्थिरा ११३ः तस्यगोराम्बिकानाममहिषीसमजायत 1 माननीयगुणामायावस्लभस्ययथारमा 198 ॥ कपर्दईनोयथगोरीशचीवनमुचिदिषः ?
पितामहस्यसावित्रीकायेवद्युमणेरिव श9५॥ विलाशविम्रमोल्बासतिरस्कृततिलोतमा।

अनमूयापिसामूयायत्पातिव्रत्यसम्पदा $१ 9$ ६ई अहीनभोगसम्पत्तिरसोराजशिखामणिः 1
तस्यांहरिहरड़्रोर्योंकुमारमुदपादयत् ఇ१७ः शिष्टन्संरक्षितायखदुष्टानामपिशासकः ? लन्धाप्नोविढुषासाकंश्लाघ्योहरिहरेपरः ఇ9 7 ๆ यस्मिनूषोउशदानानियशसापरिशोभिते । दानाम्बुधारयायस्यवर्घतेधर्मपादप: ११ईई श्रृषिभूवह्रिचन्द्रेतुगणितेधातवत्सरे। माघमासेगुक्लपप्षेपोर्णमास्यांमहातिथो श२०॥ नक्षत्रेपितृदे वत्येभानुवारेणसंयुते तुड़्शभद्रानदीतीरेहेमकूटोपथोभिते ท२१ः श्रीविर्रपाक्षदेवस्यसन्निधोशुभदायिने
भारद्वाजस दृगोत्रायवचोयेसरायच ท२२॥ वाचस्पतेर्मिलाख्यम्यमूनवेसूनतोतनये। पटृवर्धनिनेविष्णुदीक्षितेन्द्रायधीमते १२३ः वशिष्ठगत्रजायापस्तंब्यशाखाययायिने ? रामभद्टमुतानन्तदीक्षितायविपयिते १२8ः प्रसिद्धपाण्डवाव्रान्तर चड़्डिस्थलवासिने भिलिचन्द्राभिधासीमामध्येख्यातंमहोदयं श२५ः पूर्वभागेस्थितंयामादरिसीकेरसंज्ञकात् ।

गडिकेहल्याभिधाद्वामाद्धक्षिणांदिशमाश्रितंश२६ः यामात्पश्नवकटाख्यात्पतीच्याभिमुखाश्रितं। यामान्चभूदिहल्याख्यादुत्तरस्यांदिशिश्रितं ॥२৩॥ प्रतिनाम्नासमाख्यातंपुरंहरिहराभिधं 1 मादेनहल्लीतियामंसर्वसम्यसमन्वितं ท२เท सर्वमान्यंचतुःसीमासंयुतंचसमन्ततः ? निधिनिःक्षेपपाषाणसिद्धसाध्यसमन्वितं श२ईः अक्षिण्यागामिसंयुतंड्विभोग्यंरम्यभूरहं। वापीकूपतडागेसकच्छेनापिसमन्वितं $\eta ३ ० ॥$ पुत्रपोत्रादिभिर्भोग्यंक्रमादाचन्द्रतारकं ? सर्वस्याधमनस्यापिविक्रयस्यापिचोचितं १३१ः परीतप्रयतेः म्मिग्धेःपुरोहितपुरोगमे: ? विविधेर्वबुधेः:习्रोतोपयिकेरपिकेर्गिरा П३२ः वीरोहरिहरणाभून्माननीयोमनस्विनां। भूदानपान्रभूतात्माभूमुरात्माविशेषतः ท३३॥ सहिरण्यपयोधारापूर्वकन्दत्नवान्मुदा। $\pi$
इदमखिलराजशासनमधुकराककारगीतमहात्मनः ॥ राक्षोहरिहरनृपते:शासनमचलेकपारिजातस्य ॥

तस्यतच्छासनेनेवशापनंतुविनिर्मितं 1
शासनाचार्य धर्मेणवाणिदेवेनशिक्षितं $ः$
अस्मिन्यामे अष्टदिश्नुसीमादेशभाषयालिखिता श
दानपालनयोर्मध्येदानाच्छेयोननुपालनं ?
दानात्वर्गमवाप्नोतिपालनादण्युतम्पदं १
स्वदत्ताद्रिगुणंपुण्यम्परदत्नानुपालनं 1
परदत्तापहारेणस्वदत्तंनिःफलंभवेत् ॥
स्वद्ताम्परदत्तांवायोहरेतवमुन्धरां।
षष्टिवर्षसहम्राणिविष्टायांजायतेकृमि: ॥
एकेवभगिनीलोकेसर्वेषामेवभूभुजां।
नभोज्यानकरयास्याविप्रद्तावमुन्धरा ॥
सामान्यो॰्यंधर्ममेतुनृपाणां
कालेकालेपालनीयोभवद्रि: i
सर्वानेतान्भाविनःपार्थिवेन्द्रान्
भूयोभूयोयाचतेरामचन्द्र: $\pi \approx \pi$
IV. Another and similar Inscription found at the same place.
With a fac simile of the foregoing inscription, Major Mackenzie communicated the copy of another inscription found also at Chitradurg and in the same year. The whole of the introductory part, containing the name of the prince, and his genealogy, is word for word the same in both grants: excepting a few places, where the variations are
evidently owing to mistakes of the artist, by whom the plates were engraved. I have consequently derived much assistance from this fac simile in decyphering the original inscription before described.

The grant, here noticed, is by the same prince, and dated in Śáca 1213; only four years anterior to the one before translated. I think it, therefore, unnecessary to complete the decyphering of it, or to insert a copy or translation merely for the name and description of the lands granted, or the designations of the persons on whom they were bestowed.

Concerning the similarity of the grants, it may be romarked, that this circumstance is not a sufficient ground of distrust; for it cannot be thought extraordinary, that a set form of introduction to patents should have been in use; or that grants, made within the space of four years, by the same person, should be alike. I must acknowledge, however, that the inaccuracies of the original have impressed me with some doubt of the genuineness of the preceding grant. I do not, however, suspect it to be a modern forgery : but I apprehend, that it may have been fabricated while the upper Carnátaca continued under the sole domination of Hindu princes. Still it may not be without its use, as an historical monument: since it may be fairly presumed, that the introductory part is copied from a more ancient monument ; perhaps from that, with which it has been now collated.
> V. Inscription on a stone found at Curugbde in the district of Adoni.*

Another ancient monument, for the communication of which the Asiatic Society is indebted to the same gentleman, whose zeal for literary research, and indefatigable
industry in the prosecution of inquiries, cannot be too much praised, was found by him in the upper Carńááaca in 1801, and has been presented to the Asiatic Society, with the following account of its discovery and of the inscription which it contains.
' The accompanying stone was found at Curugbde, fourteen miles north of Ballári, not far from the Tungabhadrá, among the ruins of the ancient town at the foot of the Durg; and was removed thence, in March, 1801, with the consent of the principal inhabitants, under the impression, that this specimen of ancient characters, with which it is covered, would be a desirable acquisition to gentlemen who cultivate the study of Hindu literature.
' The inscription is chiefly written in the ancient Cánara language much mixed with Sanscrit, of which some of the ślocas or stanzas are exclusively composed. It commences with the invocation of S'smbit (Śiva), and after introducing the grant, date, and description of the lands, concludes with several ślocas usually added as a formula in confirmation of such donations.
'A few of the stanzas, said to be written in the Prácrǐt language, could not be understood by the S'ástrís and Pańdits at Triplicane, who explained the greatest part of the inscription to my Bráhmens: by their united efforts and knowledge, the accompanying translation was given, in which I have every confidence after the experience I have had of the fidelity of other translations by the same hands (some of which are already communicated).
'The inscription is useful as an historical record, if the Rájá Racshamalla, mentioned here, be the same with the sovereign of the same name, mentioned in a history of Mysore, who flourished about the eighth century; thus agreeing in date nearly with the monument.
'The beauty of the character was also a strong motive
for removing it, as an appropriate offering to a Society, whose labours have been so successfully employed in illustrating the interesting remains of Hindu antiquity ; and a permanent specimen of a character which appears hitherto to have escaped much notice.
' The common Cánara language and character are used by the natives of all those countries extending from Coimbatore,* north to Balkee, $\dagger$ near Béder, and within the parallels from the eastern Gháts to the western, comprehending the modern provinces of Mysore, $\ddagger$ Sera,§ upper Bednore,\| Soonda, IT Goa, Adoni, Rachore,** Canoul, $+\dagger$ the Dúáb of the Kishnáa and Tungabhadrá, and a considerable part of the modern Subahs of Béder and Bijápur, as far as the source of the Kishría at least. Its limits and point of junction with the Mahrattas may be yet ascertained with more precision; but in 1797, I had the opportunity of observing, that the junction of the three languages, Telinga, Mahrat́ta, and Cánara, took place somewhere about Béder.
' Besides the common character and language, another appears to have been used, denominated at present the Halla or ancient Cánara, in which this inscription is written : it has gone so much into disuse, that it was with some difficulty I could get people to read it. An alphabet will be yet communicated; as several books and ancient inscriptions are written in this character: and the remaining literature of the Jains in Bálághát, appearing to be preserved in it, affords additional motives for pointing it out to the attention of the learned, as probably affording means of extending the field of knowledge of Hindu literature.
'Some of the inscriptions, at Cánara and Salset, appear

| - Coyamutúr. | † Phalací. | $\ddagger$ Mehisur. | § Sirá. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| \\|I Bednur. | It Sunda. | $\bullet$ Ráchür. | †t Candanar. |

to be written in this character; and many monuments of the kind, dispersed over the upper Carnatic, hold out the prospect of further information.
'Among several manuscripts in Cánara, five, relating to the Jain religion and customs, are in my possession.
' The name of Cavelly Boria, a Brakmen, who was highly instrumental in forwarding and facilitating the investigations carried on in Mysore and the Nizám's dominions, is inscribed on the edge of this stone, as a small tribute to the zeal and fidelity of a native who evinced a genius superior to the common prejudices of the natives. He first suggested the idea of removing the stone to some place where it could be useful to European literature; and, by his conciliatory manner, obtained the concurrence and assistance of the natives for that purpose.'

The stone, sent by Major Macrenzie, with the foregoing account of the discovery of it, is nearly five feet high, and three wide, and about ten inches thick. The front is covered with writing in large characters, above which is a representation of the linga in the form usual in temples: it is surmounted by a sun and crescent; and near it stands a bull, intended perhaps for the bull called Nandi, a constantattendant of Ślva : this is followed by the figure of a smaller animal, of similar form. The back of the stone is half covered with writing.

The translation, mentioned by Major Mackenzib, is here subjoined. Not being acquainted with the character in which the original is written, I have not collated the version ; and have therefore used no freedom with it, except that of substituting, in many places, English words for Sanscrit, which the translator had preserved.

## Translation.

"Adoration be to the auspicious Swayambiu nát'ha, or Self-existent Protector.

1. "I prostrate myself before Śsmbнu : whose glorious head is adorned with the resplendent moon; and who is the chief prop of the foundation of the three worlds.*
2. "May Swayambit be propitious: he, who won immortal renown; who grants the wishes of those that earnestly intreat him; who pervades the universe; the Sovereign Lord of Deities; who destroyed the state and arrogance of the demons; who enjoyed the delightful embraces of Pirvati, to whom the learned prostrate themselves: the God above all gods.
3. "I prostrate myself before Śsmbiv; whose unquenchable blaze consumed the magnificent Tripura; whose food is the nectar dropping from the beams of the moon; who rejoiced in the sacrifice of heads by the Lord of Rácshasas ; $\dagger$ whose face is adorned with smiles, when he enjoys the embraces of Gauri.
(The foregoing stanzas are Sanscrit: the fourth, which is Prácrít, is unexplained. Those which follow, are in Cánara.)
4. "By the consort of DEví, whose divinity is adored, the spouse of Parvatí, resplendent with the glorious light of gems reflected from the crowns of the Lords of Gods and demons whose heads lay prostrate at his feet; with a face ever lighted up with smiles; he is the selfexistent deity : may the wealth, and the stations of his saints, be ever granted to us.

[^136]6. "The beams of whose sight, like the frequent waving of the lotus flower, flash reflected from the numerous crowns of glorious kings, of the chief of Gods, of the King of Kings, and of the Lord of Demons; who exists in all things, in all elements, in water, air, earth, ether, and fire, in the sun and moon: the renowned deity manifested in eight forms; Śsmbнu; may he grant our ardent prayers.
7. "Cheerfully I bow to Sambiu in the lotus of the heart; to him who increases and gives life to all; who holds supreme command over all; who, through his three divine attributes, created and animated fourteen worlds; who ever resides in the minds of his saints."
(The two next stanzas have not been explained. The following is in Halla Cánara).
10. "For ever be propitious to Somésimara Devadi, son of the fortunate Bhuvana malla vira, the protector of the world, the chief sovereign of kings, the preeminent monarch, a man of superior virtue, a distinguished personage of the noble race, the ornament of the Chaluca tribe, whose state be increased progressively in this world, so long as the sun and moon endure; who reigns in the city of Calyán, enjoying every happiness and good fortune, with the converse of good men and every other pleasure. In this country of Cuntaladéśa,* a land renowned for beauty and for manly strength over all the sea-girt earth, is situated Condavipattan, placed as the beauty spot on the human face; a city favoured by the goddess of prosperity; as a nosegay of elegant flowers adorning the tresses of the beauteous goddess of the earth.
11. "How is this favoured land? In its towns are nume-

[^137]rous groves of mango; plantations of luxuriant betel and fields of rice : in every town are channels of water, and wells, opulent men and beautiful women ; in every town are temples of the Gods and of the saints: in every town are men blessed with vigour and every virtue.
12. "In its centre, is the mighty hill of Curugbde durg, like the fastnesses * of heaven, ever famed, rearing aloft its top crowned with fortresses; in height and compass surpassing all the strong hills on the right or left.
13. "This Curugbde was established as the capital of his dominions by the king of Cuntala, who was the foe of the king of Chbla; $\dagger$ who terrified the Gurjara; who is the instrument to destroy the plants of Madru; who put Pándya to flight. Is it possible for the king of snakes, though possessed of a thousand tongues, to praise sufficiently the beauty of this city?
14. "What is the description of the delightful gardens that encompass the city? They are gardens wherein are found the tilac, the tamál, the palm, the plantain, the Mimusops, the trumpet-flower, the tremulous fig-tree, the citron, the Oleander, Mesua, and Cassia, the cotton-tree, the Carambola and Poederia, the mango, Butea, and fragrant Nalicá; and various trees, that flourish and produce through all seasons as in the garden Nandana: these surrounded this city of Curogbde."
(The fifteenth stanza is unexplained.)
16. "In the city of Curugbde, the residence of the god-

[^138]dess of prosperity, where are numerous temples of worship; fertile lands, happy spouses, friendly intercourse, a favourable government, every sacred decoration and zealous devotion in the service of Siva;
17. "The Lord of that city, a warrior unrivalled, whose name was Racshámalla, whose breast is tinged with the saffron communicated from the bosom of beauty, whose renown is ever praised over the whole world."
(The eighteenth stanza is in Prácrǐt, and not explained.)
19. "This Rájá Racshámalla, prince of the earth, born of so renowned a race of sovereigns, was happily possessed of valor, of victory, and of wealth.
20. "For the king Racshámalla, who was lord of riches and a devout worshipper of Śiva, had for his consort Somal devi, and begot a son named Nerungala Rájí, husband to the goddess of renown, the bestower of wealth on the distressed, on the learned, and on the unfortunate, to the utmost extent of their wishes.
21. "To Nerungala Rája and to his wife Pacshalá déví (the source of all virtues), were happily born two sons, named Imádi Racshámalla and Somabhúpála, whose renown, like the sky, overspread the whole earth.
22. "What is the description of the eldest of these princes? Imádi (or the second) Racshámalla Rájá, the successor of the former, seated on the excellent throne, attended by many mighty elephants, in colour like the Chamarí,* ruled the whole kingdom under one umbrella, possessing the wonderful power, like Chinna góvinda, of feeding tigers and sheep in the same fold.
23. "The king Racshámalla acquired great power: his mighty splendor and good fortune were such as drew

[^139]the applause of the whole admiring world. The globe was filled with the light of his reputation. The beauty of his person is worthy of the praise even of Cupid, the God famed for beauty. He was the destroyer of sin; eminent above foreign kings, and in battle he was as Vishinu.
24. " May Mrîtu [Ś́iva] graciously bestow eternal wealth and prosperity of empire, on the king Racsiatmalla, among all his chief saints.
" During the gradual increase of the empire of Racsidmalla extending from the north, all around, even to the north, his servant and worshipper, a descendant of CAsyapa's race, manager of the affairs of Talgará amarí, invested with full authority ; equal in knowledge to $\mathrm{Yu}_{\mathrm{u}}$ gandhar, the sun to enlighten the caste of Vajínasa, [as the sun enlightens the sky]; chief of ministers, born by the blessing of the god Swayambiu, the source of wealth, was Bấbarájúv."
(Several lines follow giving an account of the ancestors of Bábarájg, which have not been translated.)
"Such is BAbarájt, who built a temple to the god Swayambit devi, while he was managing the affairs of his sovereign lord, the mighty king, the great Racshámalla, whose god was the self-existent deity.
" The praise of the priests of the temple.
"They were learned in the sacred ceremonies of holy devotion, in self-restraint, in austere fast, appropriate studies, alms, remembrance, silence, religious practice, and the worship of Śrva.
" They were devout in performing the ceremonies of the worship of the gods of the family. Among them was one named Bálasíiva áchárya, unequalled for a good or happy genius. To this famous Balaśiva Acharya was granted this gift with water poured into his hands.
" The charitable donation of lands given to the good Swayambeu in the year of Śsaliváhan 1095* in the Vijaya year of the cycle, and on the 30th of the month Márgasira, on Monday, in the time of an eclipse of the sun."
(It appears unnecessary to insert the description of the lands.)
"Also Chinna g6vinda sítara gundi, king of the city of Bhogavatí, equal to the sovereign of Bhattál, who was acknowledged for ever by the excellent Viracailídéva, the mighty king of the earth named Imadi Racshámalla deva. In the year of Śalivaban $1103, \dagger$ of the cycle Plava, and on the 15th of Cártica, on Monday, in the gracious time of the moon's eclipse, at the time when he made over in alms Tripura Agraharam, granted under Dárápgrbac to Bálaśiva deva, who repaired all the buildings of Swayambiu deva, who is distinguished for knowledge of the pure Védas, and of other religious institutions and pcustoms of the worshippers of Ślva, and for charity in feeding the coor.'،
(The sequel of the inscription is likewise omitted: it relates to a further grant made by the widow of Bábarájut, at the time of her burning herself with the corpse of her husband. The concluding part of it was left untranslated, being stated to be illegible.)

The eclipses, mentioned in these grants, do not appear reconcileable with their dates. According to the table of eclipses calculated by Pingre, $\ddagger$ the solar eclipses, which occurred in 1172 and 1173, fell on 27th January and 23d June, 1172, and 12th June, 1173 ; and the lunar eclipses

[^140]in 1180 and 1181, were on the 13th February and 7th August 1180, and 22d December, 1181. None of these approach to the dates of Márgaśira or Agraháyaña 1095 and Cártica 1103. Unless, then, the era of Śáliváhana have been counted differently in the peninsula of India, from the mode in which it is now reckoned, and on which the comparison of it with the Christian era is grounded, it seems difficult to account for this disagreement of the dates and eclipses in any other way, than by impeaching the inscription, the authenticity of which there is not otherwise any reason to question.

## VI. Inscription on a Stone found at Kurrah.

Having learnt from Captain C. Stewart (a Member of this Society), that an inscription had been remarked by him in the gateway of the fort of Kurrah (Khára), I obtained, through the assistance of Major Lennon, then stationed in the vicinity of that place, the stone itself which contains the inscription. It now belongs to the Asiatic Society.

The inscription is very short ; contains the date 1093 Samvat, the name of the prince, as also names of several places; and is written in a very legible character : yet all my endeavours to arrive at any explanation of it have been unsuccessful. Whether it be only a fragment of an inscription (for the stone is very narrow),* or the inscription have been inaccurately engraved (and this also is countenanced by its appearance), I shall not take upon myself to determine. At present, I can only translate the first six, out of sixteen lines, which run thus: "Samvat 1093, $\uparrow$

[^141]on the first day of the light fortnight of Áshádha. This day, at this auspicious Cata, the great and eminent prince Yaśahpila, $\ddagger$ in the realm of Cauśamba, and village of Payahása, commands, that ———"


* It may be worth remarking, that the inscription discovered at Saranatiha near Benares, dated ten years antecedent to this, relates to a family of princes whose names had a similar termination. As. Res., vol. v. p. 133.


## VII. Inscription on a Plate of Copper found in the district of Diníjpur.

In the beginning of the present year (1806), a plate of copper was found at Ámgách'hi in Sultánpur, by a peasant, digging earth for the repair of a road near his cottage. He delivered it to the nearest police officer, by whom it was conveyed to the magistrate, Mr. J. Pattle : and by him forwarded for communication to the Asiatic Society. Ámgách'hi, though now a small village, is described as exhibiting the appearance of having formerly been a considerable place. Remains of old masonry are found there; and numerous ponds are remarked in the vicinity of that and of the adjacent villages. It is situated at the distance of about fourteen miles from Budál; where an ancient pillar stands, of which a description (as well as the inscription, which is read on it), was published in the first volume of Asiatic Researches (p. 131).

The plate is very large, being fourteen inches high and thirteen broad. It is surmounted by a highly wrought ornament of brass, fixed on the upper part, and advanced some distance on the plate so as to occasion a considerable break in the upper lines. The superior surface is covered with writing in very close lines and crowded characters. The inscription is completed on the inferior surface, which contains sixteen lines (the upper surface having no less than thirty-three). The character is ancient Dévanágarí; and the language Sanscrit : but so great a part of the inscription is obliterated (some portion of every line being illegible), that it is difficult to discover the purport of the inscription. After wasting much time in endeavouring to decypher the whole of it, I have been able only to ascertain the name of the grantor, and a part of his genealogy; with the date
of the grant, which unfortunately is reckoned only by the reign, without any reference to a known era.

The ornament affixed to the plate, and representing a seal, contains a single line of writing, which is distinctly read, Śsí Vigrahapila deva. This name as of the granter, is found at the close of the inscription; and it occurs more than once in the body of the patent. Among his ancestors and predecessors, the following names are distinctly legible.

The first prince mentioned is Lócapála, and after him Dharmapála. The next name has not been decyphered: but the following one is Jayapála, succeeded by Devapála. Two or three subsequent names are yet undecyphered:* they are followed by Rájapala, - páladéva, and subsequently Marípíla deva, Nayapíla and again Vigrahapála deva.

So far as a glimpse has been yet obtained of the purport of the inscription, it seems to be agrant by Vigrahapála deva, in the making of which Nayapála likewise appears to have had some share. It is dated Samvat $\dagger 12$, on the 9th day of Chaitra.

The use of the word Samvat (which properly signifies a year) to denote the year of the king's reign, and not that of Vicramáditya's era, merits particular notice. In the inscription on the plates found at Mongir, $\ddagger$ containing a grant of land by a prince who appears to be of the same family, the date was read by Mr. Wilkins, Samvat 33; which was supposed both by him and by Sir W. Jones to intend the era of Vicramaditya.§ I have always

[^142]entertained doubts of that interpretation : and, among other reasons for hesitating, one has been the improbability, which to my apprehension exists, that the era should have been in use, and denoted by the same abbreviated term, so early after the time at which it commences. Eras by which nations have continued to reckon for a series of ages, have not usually been introduced until a considerable time after the event from which they are counted: and, when first introduced, have been designated by some more definite term than one merely signifying a year. But the word Samvat (abbreviated from Samvatsara a year,) being in that inscription prefixed to a low numeral, and not expressly restricted, as is usual where Vicramaditya's era is meant, was more likely to intend the year of the reigning king (though Sir W. Jones thought otherwise, *) than that of a period reckoned from the birth, or the accession, or the demise of another monarch. It appeared to me likewise, as to Captain Wilford, on examining the fac simile of the inscription in question, $\dagger$ that the character, which stands in the place of the $t$ of Samvat, resembled more nearly the numeral 1 . The date might therefore be 133 instead of 33. I inclined, however, to believe the lower number to have been rightly read by Mr. Wilikins on the original plate: and consequently supposed it to be the date of the reign of Devapalla, the prince who made the grant. The date of the Amgách'hi plate, which must be referred to the reign of the grantor Vigrahapala, seems strongly to corroborate this opinion.

The present inscription, though yet imperfectly decyphered, appears to be useful towards ascertaining the age

[^143]of the Mongir grant. The names of Dhermapila and Defapála occur in both inscriptions; as that of Rájapála does, on the pillar at Budál, as well as on the Ámgách'hi plate. Some of these names are also found in the list of princes enumerated in the Áyín acberi* as having reigned in Bengal before Ballálaséna. The authority of Abg'lfazl, on Hindu history, is indeed not great: but the inscription on the statue of Buddra, which was found at Sáranát'ha, near Benares, $\dagger$ proves, that a family of princes, whose names terminated in pála, did reign over Gauda in Bengal, near eight hundred years ago : and this is consistent with the period to which that dynasty is brought down by Abu'lpazl; namely, the middle of the eleventh century of the Christian era. It appears also, from the same inscription found at Sáranát'ha, that these princes were worshippers of Buddha, a circumstance which agrees with the indications of that faith in the Mongir grant, as translated by Mr. Wiliins. The name of Mahípála, mentioned as king of Gauda in the Sáranát'ha inscription, occurs likewise in the Amgách' $h i$ plate; and if it be reasonable to believe, that the same person is intended in both instances, it will be right to infer, that the grant contained on the plate found at Ámgách'hi is nearly eight hundred years old; and that the plate found at Mongir is more ancient by two or three centuries. This reduces the age of the Mongir grant to the eighth or ninth century of the Christian era; which I cannot but think more probable, than the opinion of its being anterior to the birth of Christ.

[^144]
## VIII. Inscriptions on Plates of Copper at Nidigal and

 Goujda.To the foregoing description of several monuments, which have been presented to the Asiatic Society, I shall add a brief notice of two other inscriptions, of which copies have been received.

Mention has been already made of a grant of land, inscribed on five plates of copper, seen at Nidigal, in the year 1801. It was in the possession of a Bráhmańa residing at that place: and a copy of it was taken by Major Maceenzie, which has been communicated by him to the Society. The grant appears to be from the second Bucca ríjá, who was third in succession from the first prince of that name, and grandson of the king by whom the grants beforementioned were made. If the date have been correctly decyphered from the copy of this inscription, it is of the year 1331 Śáca, corresponding to A.D. 1409.

Another inscription, communicated by Major Mackenzie, purports to be a grant by Janaméjaya, the celebrated monarch who reigned in India at the commencement of the present age or Caliyuga. It is in the hands of the Bráhmens or priests of Goujda Agraharam in Bédnur ; and was, with some reluctance, entrusted by them to Major Maceenzie, who himself took from it a copy in fac simile, the exactness of which is demonstrated by the facility with which the inscription may be decyphered from that copy. The original is described as contained in three plates of copper, fastened together by a ring, on which is the representation of a seal, bearing the figure of a boar with a sun and crescent. The purport of the inscription, for I think it needless to make a complete version of it, is that ' $\mathrm{J}_{\mathrm{A}}$ namejaya, son of Parícshit, a monarch reigning at Hastinápura, made a progress to the south, and to other
quarters, for the purpose of reducing all countries under his domination; and performed a sacrifice for the destruction of serpents, in presence of the god (or idol) Haridra, at the confluence of the rivers Tungabhadrá and Haridrá, at the time of a partial eclipse of the sun, which fell on a Sunday, in the month of Chaitra, when the sun was entering the northern hemisphere; the moon being in the Nacshatra Aśviní.'*

Having completed the sacrifice, the king bestowed gold and lands on certain Bráhmañas of Gautamagráma: whose names and desiguations are stated at full length, with the description and limits of the lands granted. The inscription concludes with two verses; the same with two of those which occur in the plates found at Chitradurg ; $\dagger$ and in those preserved at Conjeveram. $\ddagger$

If reliance might be placed on this as an ancient and authentic monument, its importance, in the confirmation of a leading point of Indian history, would be obvious and great. Major Mackenzie, in communicating the copy of it, expresses a doubt of its authenticity ; but remarks, that it can be no modern forgery, for the people them-

[^145]selves cannot read the inscription. I concur with Major Mackenzie both in distrusting the genuineness of this monument ; and in thinking that it is no recent fabrication.

Numerous and gross errors of grammar and orthography,* which can neither be explained by a gradual change of language, nor be referred to the mistakes of a transcriber or engraver, but are the evident fruit of ignorance in the person who first penned the inscription in Nágarí characters, would furnish reason for discrediting this monument, were it otherwise liable to no suspicion. But, when to this circumstance are added the improbability of the copper-plates having been preserved during several thousand years, and the distrust with which any ancient monument must be received, where its present possessor, or his ancestor, may have had claims under the grant recorded in it, there can be little hesitation in considering this grant of JanameJAYA as unauthentic; independently of any argument deduced from the character, which is not perhaps sufficiently antique ; or from the astronomical data in this inscription, which, however consistent with Indian notions of astronomy and chronology, will hardly bear the test of a critical examination.

- For example samá for samayé (समए for समये) a palpable
error obviously arising from the blunder of an ignorant amanuensis writing from dictation. The mistake occurs more than once; and can be accounted for in no other manner: the syllables é and yé being alike in sound, though dissimilar in form; and the blunder being such as no person acquainted with the rudiments of the Sanscrit language could have committed. Other instances have been remarked, alnost equally strong : as Paricshiti for Paricshit : chacravrartti for chacravartí. Short vowels for long, and vice versâ, in repeated instances; the dental for the palatal $s$; and numerous other errors of spelling; besides faults of grammar and style.


## IX. A grant of Land by Jayachandra, Rájá of Canbj.

It may be proper to notice further, in this place, the inscription of which mention was made at the beginning of this essay, as having been decyphered by a Pańdit (Servóru Trivedi) who communicated to me a copy of it, with the information, that the original has been conveyed to England by the gentleman in whose possession it was seen by him. According to that copy, the genealogy of the prince, who made the grant recorded in the inscriptions, is as follows :

1. Śrípála, a prince of the solar race.
2. His son Mahíchandra.
3. Śríchandra defa, son of the last mentioned; acquired, by his own strength, the realm of Gádhipura or Canyácubja (Can6j); visited Cáśi and other holy places; and repeatedly gave away in alms, his own weight in gold. He appears to have been the first king of Can6j, in this family.
4. Madanapála deva, son and successor of Śrifchandra.
5. Góvinda chandra, son of Madanapála.
6. Vijaya chandra defa, (the same with Jaya chand,) son of Góvinda chandra; is stated in the inscription as issuing his commands to all public officers, and to the inhabitants of Nágulí assembled at Dévapallipaťtana, enjoining them to observe and obey his patent; which is recited as a grant of land to two Bráhmañas, conferred by him on the day of full moon in Mágha 1220,* subsequently to his inauguration as Yuvarája or designated successor and associate in the empire. The inscription concludes by quoting, from a Puráńa, four stanzas to

[^146]deprecate the resumption of the grant : and by a signature importing "this copper was engraved by Jayapála."

Without having seen the original, no opinion can be offered on the probable genuineness of this monument. But it will be observed, that the inscription is consistent with chronology; for Jaya chand, who is described in the Áyín Acberi,* as supreme monarch of India, having the seat of his empire at Can $6 j$, is there mentioned as the ally of Shefábuddin in the war with Prịthavíája or Pit'horá, about the year of the Hejra 558, or A.D. 1192 : twenty-eight years after the date of this grant.

## Remaris.

A few observations on the general subject under consideration will terminate this essay.

Most of the ancient monuments, which have been yet discovered, contain royal grants of land; framed, commonly, in exact conformity to the rules delivered by Hindu writers who have treated of this subject. $\dagger$ That durable memorials have been usually framed to record other events or circumstances, there is no reason to suppose; and this consideration is sufficient to explain the comparative frequency of monuments which recite royal grants. It was the interest, too, of persons holding possession under such grants, to be careful in the preservation of the evidence of their right. But this circumstance, while it accounts for the greater frequency of monuments of this description, suggests a reason for particular caution in admitting their genuineness. Grants may have been forged in support of an occupant's right, or of a claimant's pretensions. It will

[^147]be, therefore, proper to bring a considerable portion of distrust and jealousy to the examination of any inscription on stone or metal, alleged to be ancient, and now possessed by persons who have any claims or pretensions under the grant which it contains. But no such cause of jealousy exists, where the monument in question favours no one's pretensions, and especially where it is accidentally discovered after being long buried. It is, indeed, possible, that such a monument, though now casually found, may have been originally a forgery. But even where that may be suspected, the historical uses of a monument fabricated so much nearer to the times to which it assumes to belong, will not be entirely superseded. The necessity of rendering the forged grant credible, would compel a fabricator to adhere to history, and conform to established notions: and the tradition, which prevailed in his time, and by which he must be guided, would probably be so much nearer to the truth, as it was less remote from the period which it concerned.

In the present state of researches into Indian antiquities, the caution here suggested appears to be that which it is most requisite to observe. When a greater number of monuments shall have been examined and compared, more rules of criticism may be devised; and will, at the same time, become particularly requisite, should the practice arise of purchasing ancient monuments; or of giving rewards for the discovery of them. At present no temptation exists for modern fabrications, and little caution is therefore necessary to avoid imposition.
XI.

## Inscriptions upon Rocrs in South Bifar.*

[From the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. i. p. 201-206.]

Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, while engaged in statistical researches in the provinces subject to the government of Bengal, gave attention to the antiquities of the country, as to other scientific objects, which he had the opportunity of investigating. His reports, comprising the result of his inquiries, are deposited in the Library and Museum of the East-India Company : and, at his instance, the Court of Directors have sanctioned a liberal communication of the information contained in them, to this Society. Among the antiquities collected by him, there are many fac-similes of inscriptions. I purpose submitting to the Society explanations of such among them as are interesting: and I now present the translation of one, which appears curious.

It is an inscription upon a rock, denominated, from an idol delineated on it, Táráchúndí, in the vicinity of Sahasram, in South Bihár ; and contains the protest of a chieftain, named Pratápa dhavala deva, bearing the title of Náyaca, and that of Rájá of Japila, against an usurpation of two villages by certain Bráhmańas in his neighbourhood, under colour of a grant, surreptitiously obtained through corruption of his officers, from the Rájá of Gádhinagara or Cányacubja (Can6j), who was the celebrated Vijaya chandra. Its date is 1229 Samvat, corresponding to A.D. 1173.

[^148]In Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's collection, there are copies of two other inscriptions upon rocks, in the neighbourhood, exhibiting the name of the same chieftain, in conjunction with many of his kindred in the one; and followed by a long series of his successors in the other. I observe little else interesting in them, besides the names and the dates.

The site of the principal inscription is thus described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton. 'In a narrow passage, which separates the northern end of the hills from the great mass, and through which the road leads from Sahasram to Rautásghar, is a place where Táráchándź is worshipped. The image is carved on a ledge of rock; and is so small, and so besmeared with oil and red lead, that I am not sure of its form. It seems, however, to represent a woman sitting on a man's knee; but not in the form usual in Bihár, which is called Hara-gaurí. Adjacent to the image, a cavity in the rock has been enlarged by one or two pillars in front, supporting a roof, so as to form a shed, to which the priest, and a man who sells offerings and refreshments for votaries and passengers, daily repair. A few persons assemble in the month of Srávan. But the chief profit arises from passengers; who are very numerous: and all who can afford, give something. The priest is a Sannyásí. Above the shed, the Moslemans have erected a small mosque, in order to show the triumph of the faith : but it is quite neglected. The image is usually attributed to the Chérbs: and many small heaps between the place and Sahasram, are said to be ruins of buildings erected by the same people. But a long inscription, carved on the rock within the shed, refers to Vijaya chandra, sovereign of Can6j.'

That inscription was strangely misinterpreted by the Pańdita attached to the survey on which Dr. Buchanan

Hamilton was engaged. The Pańdita supposed the chieftain, Pratípa dhavala, to premise an intention of commemorating his descendants; and to proceed to the mention of Vijaya chandra, proprietor of Canój; and Śatrughna, son of the Mahárájá: whence Dr. Hamilton inferred, that Vijaya chandra was son of Pratápa dhavala. Dr. Hamilton observes, indeed, that others gave a totally different interpretation: considering it as ' an advertisement from Pratípa dhavala, that he will not obey an order for giving up two villages, which, he alleges, had been procured by corruption from the officers of Vijaya chandra, king of Can6j.'

The oriental scholar, upon inspection of the fac-simile, will have no difficulty in perceiving that the latter was the right interpretation ; and it is, therefore, needless to pursue remarks which were built upon the Pańlita's grossly erroneous translation.

The style of the protest is singular ; and, on that account alone, I should have thought it very deserving of notice. It serves, however, at the same time to show, that the paramount dominion of Cányacubja extended to the mountains of South Bihár: and it presents an instance of the characteristic turbulence of Indian feudatories.

The second inscription, bearing the name of the same chieftain, Náyaca Pratápa dhavala deva, with the date 1219, (A.D. 1163) Saturday, 4th Jyaisht'ha badi, and underneath the name of his brother, the prince Tribhuvana dhavala, the prince's wife Sulhi, and another female Sómalí, and two sons Lacshmyáditya and Padmíditya; exhibits a rude figure of a goddess Tbtalí déví, attributed to the family priest Viśwarfipa. On the other side of the figure are the names of five daughters, and, at the foot of it, six sons of the Náyaca. These are Varcu, Śstrughna, Bírabala, Sahasa dhavala,

Yami-cárticéya and Śsintayatina déva. Beneath are names of Cayagt'has, Yajnyadhara, and Vidyádhara, sons of Cusumahára; the treasurer Devarája, and the door-keeper (pratihára) Tishala.
The site of this inscription is described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton: ' Where the Tutraki, a branch of the Kudura river, falls down the hills of Tilot'hu, is a holy place, sacred to the goddess Tótalí. The recess, into which this stream falls, is about half a mile deep ; and terminates in a magnificent, abrupt rock, somewhat in the shape of a horseshoe, and from 180 to 250 feet high. In the centre is a deep pool, at all times filled with water, and which receives the stream, that falls from a gap in this immense precipice. This gap may be thirty feet wide; and the perpendicular height there, 180 feet.
' The image is said to have been placed by the Cherbs, about eighteen centuries ago; and, in fact, resembles one of the images very common in the works attributed to that people in Bihár. But this antiquity is by no means confirmed by the inscription, the date of which is evidently in Samvat 1389, or A.D. 1332.
' In another inscription it is said, that the family priest of a neighbouring prince, Pratápa dhatala, had, in A.D. 1158, made the image of the goddess: alluding evidently to a rude figure, carved on rock, and now totally neglected.
' The image now worshipped is, as usual, a slab carved in relief, and represents a female with many arms, killing a man springing from the neck of a buffalo.* It is placed on the highest ledge of the sloping part of the rock, immediately under the waterfall. From two to three hundred votaries, at different times in the month of Śrávan, go to the place, to pray.'

[^149]The third inscription is upon a rock at Bandugháta, on the Sone river, opposite to Japila, which was the chieftain's principality. The date assigned to Mahá nrĭpati (i. e. Mahárájá) Pratápa dhavala, besides the number of twenty-one years (apparently the duration of his reign, as chief of Japila), is, in the fac-simile, written 2219 Samvat; but the first digit being clearly wrong, it must be corrected to 1219 , or 1229 : most likely the latter. No date is assigned to his predecessor Udaya dhavala; nor to the line of his successors, beginning with Vicrama, who is perhaps the same with $\mathrm{V}_{\text {arcu }}$ (the first among his sons, named in the second inscription,) and who appears from the epithet of vijayin, 'victorious,' to have been the reigning prince, when his name was here set down. The rest must have been subsequently, from time to time, added; and the first among them is Sahasa dhavala, perhaps the fourth son of Pratápa dhavala, mentioned in the second inscription.

Above all this, there have been inscribed, at a much later period, other names, viz. 'Mahárájá Nyunat raï or Nyunta raya, who went to heaven (surapura, i. e. the city of the gods) in the year 1643 Samvat;' and 'Mahárájá Pratáparaya, or Pratápa rudra, who went to heaven in the year 1653 Samvat.'

In another part of the inscription, there occurs the name of Mahárájá Manasinha, with the dates of 1652 and 1653 Samvat; and lower down, a string of three names, Mahárájá Cansarája, Pratápa dhavala deva, and Madana sinfa. Between the two last, there is interposed the date of 1624 Samvat.

The name of Pratápa appears then to have been of frequent recurrence. The family, which yet possesses the principality of Bilonja, the representative of which, when visited by Dr. Hamilton, was Rájá Bhopanat'ha
sá, claims descent from Pratápa dhavala, chief of Japila.

Japila is a large estate south of Rautás (Rbkitáśoo), in the district of Rámaghar. But the territories of the ancient chieftain seem to have extended beyond its present limits, and to have reached the vicinity of Sahasram.

These inscriptions have no other chronological value, but as they corroborate the date of one possessing more historical interest, noticed in the Researches of the Asiatic Society of Bengal (vol. ix. p. 441).* It records a grant of land, by the same Rájá of Cányacubja, Vijaya chandra; and, as usual, recites the names of his ancestors, tracing his genealogy through no less than six generations. The original was said to have been transmitted to Great Britain by the late Sir John Murray M'Gregor; but I am unable to say where it has been deposited. $\dagger$ It would be an acceptable communication, as serving to authenticate the history of a prince among the most conspicuous in the annals of his country; on which he inflicted the same calamity which Count Julian did on Spain, by assisting a Musleman conquest of it, in revenge for the

[^150]abduction of his daughter.* The analogy indeed is not quite complete; for it was seduction of a daughter which Count Julian sought to revenge.

Concerning the inscription at Táráchánde, of which a translation is here presented, it is to be remarked, that the denunciation or protest, which it records, is first expressed in verse, $\dagger$ and is then repeated in prose. This repetition has much assisted the decyphering of it, and the correction of some errors, either of the original, or of the copy. A few explanatory notes will be found annexed.

Translation of the Inscription at Táráchándí.
" Pratápa dhavala, wholly divine (déva), possessor of happily risen and celebrated glory, addresses his own race. In these villages, contiguous to Calahańdi, $\ddagger$ that contemptible ill copper§ [grant], which has been obtained by fraud and bribery, from the thievish slaves of the sovereign of Gádhinagara, \| by priests sprung from Suvalluhala: $\mathbb{I}$ there is no ground of faith to be put therein by the people around. Not a bit of land, so much as a needle's point might pierce, is theirs.
" Samvat 1229. Jyéshtha badi 3d, Wednesday.

[^151]"The feet of the sovereign of Japila, the great chieftain, the fortunate Pratapa dhatala deva, declare the truth to his sons, grandsons, and other descendants sprung of his race: this ill copper [grant] of the villages of Calaharddz and Badayitá, obtained by fraud and bribery, from the thievish slaves of the fortunate Vijaya chandra, the king, sovereign of Cányacubja, by Swalluhaníya folks: no faith is to be put therein. Those priests are every way libertines. Not so much land, as might be pierced by a needle's point, is theirs. Knowing this, you will take the share of produce and other dues; or destroy.
" [Signature] of the great Rájaputra (king's son), the fortunate Śstrughen."

## XII.

On Three Grants of Land, inscribed on Copper, found at Ujjayani, and presented by Major James Tod to the Royal Asiatic Society.*

> [From the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. i. p. $230-239$, and $462-466$.]

The translations, which accompanied the Sanscrit inscriptions on copper, presented to the Society by Major Tod, having been made through the medium of an interpreter, I have thought it right to re-examine the originals, at the same time that I undertook the decyphering of a third inscription, likewise presented by Major Tod, but unaccompanied by a translation.

Neither of the three inscriptions in question is complete. They had originally consisted of a pair of plates in each instance : as is evident, both from the contents, and from the very appearance; for they exhibit holes, through which rings were no doubt passed to hold the plates together. In one instance, it is the last of the pair, which has been preserved. In the two others, the first of each remains, and the last has been lost. Enough, however, subsists, in these fragments of inscriptions, to render them useful historical documents; as is amply shown in the very interesting comments on them which Major Tod has communicated.

I now lay before the Society a transcript of the contents of each plate, as read by me; and copies, fac-simile, of the originals. My own translations follow ; and notes will be found annexed.

[^152]On collating the fac-simile with the transcript, the learned reader will observe that errors (for engravers are not less apt, than ordinary copyists, to commit blunders) have been in several places corrected. Where the mistake and requisite correction seem quite obvious, I have in general thought it needless to add a remark. But, wherever it has appeared necessary to give a reason for an emendation, an explanatory note is subjoined.

All these inscriptions are grants of land, recorded upon copper, conformably with the usage of the Hindus, and the direction of the law, which enjoins, that such grants should either be written upon silk, or inscribed upon copper.*

One of these grants or patents, records a donation of land made by the reigning sovereign of Dlárá, on the anniversary of the death of his father and predecessor, in 1191 of the Samvat era; confirmed by the prince his son, at the time of an eclipse of the moon, in Śrávańa 1200 Samvat. It appears from calculation that a lunar eclipse did occur at the time; viz. on the 16th of July A. D. 1144, about $9 \frac{1}{2}$ P. м. apparent time, at $U_{j j}$ ayani.

This date, so authenticated, becomes a fixed point, whence the period, in which the dynasty of sovereigns of Dhárá flourished, may be satisfactorily computed. The series of four princes, whose names are found in these patents, two of them anterior to A.D. 1134 (1190 Samvat), and two of them subsequent to that date, (for the amniversary of Nara varma's funeral rites in 1191, determines his demise in 1190 Samvat;) may be taken to extend from the latter part of the eleventh century of the Christian era to near the close of the twelfth. It is carried retrospectively, through a line of three more princes, to Sindiu, grandfather of Rájá Вно́ла, by the marble at Madhucara ghar, and other evidence ; as shown by Major Tod.

[^153]

#   スゴmどロススa  अनुतानमगमा（स）मा   चाना（च्या ज्वमंग ते 

C．Hullmandel＇s Lithography．

The earliest of the three patents inscribed upon copper, which were procured by Major Tod at $U_{j j a y a n i}$, bears the date of 3d Mágha śudi 1192 Samvat, answering to January A. D. 1137. It has the signature of Yasbvarma deva, who, in the preceding year, 1191 Samvat, had made a donation of land on the anniversary of the demise of his father Nara varma deva, which was confirmed (apparently in Yasóvarma's life-time), by his son Lacshmí varma deva, in 1200 Samvat: as above noticed. The latest of the three grants is by his successor Jaya varma déva, and being incomplete, exhibits no date. Both these patents agree in deducing the line of succession from UdAyaditya defa, predecessor of Nara varma. There is consequently this series perfectly authenticated:


Jaya varma déva. Lacshmí varma déva.

> No. I.

A Grant of Land inscribed on Copper, found at Ujjayani.*
ओं स्वस्ति ก श्री जयोभ्युदय श्व श जयति
बोमकेशोन्सो यः सग्गाय विभर्ति तां। ऐन्दवं
शिरसा लेखां जगङीजांकुराकृतिं $\eta$ तन्वन्तु वः स्मरारातेः कल्याणमनिशं जटाः १ कल्पान्त-

- See Plate iv.

समयोद्दामतडिद्दलयपिड्ग़ल्लाःत परम भद्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेख्वर श्री उदयादित्य देव पादानुध्यात परम भट्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेख्वर श्री नरवम्म देव पादानुध्यात परम भट्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेश्वर ग्री यशो वर्म्मेदेव पादानुध्यात समस्तप्रशस्तोपेतसमधिगतपंचमहाशब्दालंकार विराजमान महाकुमार श्री लक्ष्मी वम्म्मदेवः त श्री महा दादशकमण्डले श्री राजशासनभोगे मुरासणी सम्बह वउउद्याम तेप्नामुवरर्ष प्रासादिका सम्बह उथवणकयामयोः समभूतिषयिक्क पटृकिल जनपदादीन्ब्रालणोत्तरान्बोधयत्यम्तु व: संविदितं ก यथा श्रीमघ्यारायां महाराजाधिराज परमेश्वर श्री यशोवम्म देवेन श्री विक्रम कालातीत सम्वत्सरे कनवत्यधिकशतेकादशेषु काfत्तिक शुदि अष्षम्यां संज्ञात महाराज श्री नरवर्म्म देव साम्वत्सरिके तीर्थम्भोभि: ₹नत्वा देव ॠृषि मनुण पितॄंत्तर्प्पयित्वा भगवन्तं भवानी पतिं समभ्यच्च्य समीकुशातिलान्नाद्याहुतिभिfिरण्यरेतसं हूत्वा भानवे अर्य विधाय कपि-

लां त्रि: प्रदक्षिणीकृत्य संसारस्यासारतां दृष्ट्रा नलिनीदलगतजल्लववतरलतरं जीवितं धनं चावेक्ष्य । उतंच 1 वाताश्रविश्रममिदं वसुधाधिपत्यमापातमान्तमधुरो विषयोपभोग: ? प्राणास्तृणायजलविन्दुसमा नराणंत धम्म्म: सखा परमहो परलोकयाने १ एवमाकलयय अद्रेलवद्धावरि स्थान विनिग्गत भरद्राजगोत्राय भरद्वाज आडड़िरस वाहिम्पत्य त्रिप्रवराय अाप्वलायनशाखिने दाक्षिणायात कर्णाट ब्रासण द्विविद उछुर श्री महिरस्वामिपोत्र श्री विश्वरूपमुत आवसथिक श्री धनपालाय उपरि लिखित वउउद याम उथवणक यामो सवृक्षमालाकुलो निधिनिक्षेप सहितो वापी कूप तडागान्वितो चतुष्कंकटविशुद्घो चंद्रार्बंयावदुदक पूर्वकतया शासनेन प्रदत्तो। सम्वत्तर शतद्वादशकेषु श्रावण शुदि पंचदश्यां सोम यहण पर्वणि श्रीमत्पितृश्रेयोर्थ पुनरेवास्माभि: एतो यामो उदकपूर्त्वकतया शासनेन प्रदतो ? तदनयोर्यामयोर्निवासि समस्त पद्टकिलादिलोकेस्तथा कर्षकेग्न यथोत्पद्यमान करहिएण्य भा-

गभोगादिकमाक्षाश्रवणविधेये मेंत्वा सर्बममुष्मे समुपनेतयम । मामान्यं वे तत्पुण्यफलं बुड्या अम्मडंशजेरन्येरपि भाविक्पपतिभि: ध्म्मादायोन्यं मन्तयःपालनीयय्येति। यतोबहुभिर्बमुधा भुता राजभि:सगरादिभिः १ यस्य यस्य यदा भूमिस्तस्य तस्य तदा फलम् आ ख्वदतां परदत्वाम्वा यो हरेत वसुंधरामू । षष्टि वर्ष सहम्ताणि विष्षायां जायते कृमिःः सर्षानेतान्भा विनः पार्थिवेन्द्रान् भूयो भूयो यावते रामभद्र:। सामन्योग्यं धर्म्मसे [नु:]
" $\mathrm{Om}_{\mathrm{m}}$ ! Well be it! Auspicious victory and elevation. 1
" Victorious is he, whose hair is the etherial expanse;" who, for creation, supports with his head that lunar lines which is a type of the germ in the seed of the universe.
" May the matted locks of love's foe, ${ }^{4}$ reddened by the lightning's ring that flashes at the period of the world's end, spread for you nightless ${ }^{5}$ prosperity.
" The great prince, ${ }^{6}$ resplendent with the decoration of

[^154]five great titles, 7 with which he is thoroughly and excellently embued and possessed, the fortunate Lacshmí varma déva, son ${ }^{8}$ of his Majesty, 9 the great king, sovereign, and supreme lord, the fortunate Yasb varma deva, son of Nara varma déva, son of Udayáditya deva, acquaints the Pattacila ${ }^{10}$ and people, Bráhmańas and others, inhabiting Bádäuda grama, ${ }^{11}$ dependant on Surásañ́, and Ut'havańaca gráma ${ }^{18}$ appertaining to Téptá-suvarńa-prásádicá, ${ }^{13}$ both situated in the twelve great districts ${ }^{14}$ held by royal patent; be it known unto you: Whereas, at the fortunate Dhárá, ${ }^{15}$ the great king, sovereign, supreme lord,
 of the great king, the fortunate Nara varma deva, which

[^155]took place on the 8th of Cártica śudi, years eleven hundred and ninety-one elapsed since Vicrama, having bathed with waters of holy places, having satisfied gods, saints, men and ancestors with oblations, ${ }^{17}$ having worshipped the holy Bhawinípati, ${ }^{18}$ having sacrificed to fire offerings of śamí, sacrificial grass, sesamum and boiled rice, ${ }^{19}$ having presented an arghya ${ }^{20}$ to the sun, having thrice perambulated Capiláa, ${ }^{,{ }^{1}}$ seeing the vanity of the world, deeming life a tremulous drop of water on the leaf of a lotus, and reckoning wealth despicable:-As it is said :
"This sovereignty of the earth totters with the stormy blast; ${ }^{29}$ the enjoyment of a realm is sweet but for an instant; the breath of man is like a drop on the tip of a blade of grass: virtue is the greatest friend in the journey of the other world. -
" Considering this, did grant by patent, preceded by gift of water, ${ }^{23}$ for as long as the sun and moon shall endure,

[^156]unto the Ávasat'hica ${ }^{24}$ the fortunate Vana pála, ${ }^{24 *}$ son of the fortunate Viśwargra, grandson of the fortunate Mahira ${ }^{25}$ swimi, a venerable Bráhmańa of Carnááta in the south, who studies two védas ${ }^{86}$ and appertains to the Áśswaláyana ${ }^{27}$ śác'háa, sprung from the race of BháradwAja, ${ }^{98}$ and tracing a triple line of descent, Bháradwája, Ángirasa, and Várhaspatya, ${ }^{29}$ settled at Adrélavaddhávarist'hána, ${ }^{30}$ the aforesaid Badaüda gráma and Ut'havańaca grama, with their trees, fields and habitations, ${ }^{31}$ together

[^157]VOL. II.
with hidden treasure, and deposits, and adorned with ponds, wells and lakes.
" On the 15th of Śrávaría sudi in the year 1200, at the time of an eclipse of the moon,se for our father's welfare, we have again granted those two villages by patent with the previous gift of water; therefore all inhabitants of both villages, as well the Pattacila and other people, as husbandmen, being strictly observant of his commands, must pay unto him all dues as they arise, tax, money-rent, share of produce, ${ }^{3 s}$ and the rest.
"Considering the fruit of this meritorious act as common, future princes, sprung of our race, and others, should respect and maintain this virtuous donation accordingly. ${ }^{4}$
" By many kings, Sagara as well as others, the earth has been possessed. Whose-soever has been the land, his has then been the fruit. ${ }^{35}$
" He, who resumes land, whether given by himself, or granted by others, is regenerated a worm in ordure, for 60,000 years. ${ }^{36}$

[^158]
"Rámabhadra again and again exhorts all these future rulers of the earth : this universal bridge of virtue . . . . . . ${ }^{37}$ (The remainder, upon another plate, is wanting.)

No. 2.
A Grant of Land, inscribed on Copper, found at Ujjayaní.*
ओं स्वस्ति श्री जयो s्य्युदयग्र ॥ जयति बोमकेशोsसी यः सग्गाय बिभर्ति तां 1 ऐेंदवीं शिरसा ल्लेखां जगद्दीजांकुराकृतिम् ๆ तन्वंतु व: स्मरारातेः कल्याणमनिशं जटाः 1 कल्पा न्तसमयोद्दामतडिद्बलयपिंगला: $\cap$ शी वर्घ मानपुर समावासात् परम भद्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेश्वर्व श्री उदयादिश्यदेवपादा नुध्यात परम भट्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेश्वर श्री नरवम्मदेवपादानुध्यात परम

[^159]भट्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेश्वर श्री यशोवर्म्मदेवपादानुध्यात परम भद्टारक महाराजाधिराज परमेप्वर श्रोमज्ड्यवम्म्मदेवो विजयोदयी $\cap$ वटखेटकषटदत्रिंशत्संबद्य मायमोउकयामे समस्त राजपुरषषान् ब्वालणोत्नरान्पतिनिवासि पदकिल जनपदादींश्र बोधयत्यस्तु वः मंविदितं यथा। चंद्रपुरी समावासितेरम्भाभिः स्नात्वा वरावरगुरू भगवंतं भवानीपतिं समभ्यन्च्य संसारस्यासारतां हूष्टा तथा हि 1 वाताभ्रविभ्रममिदं वमुधाधिपत्यमापातमात्रमधुरो विषयोपभोगः 1 प्राणास्तृ णायजलविंदुसमा नराणां धर्म्म: सखा परमहो परलोकयाने शी अ्रमतसंसारवल्गायधाराधारामिमांश्रियं $\}$ प्राय ये न दद्युस्तेषां पश्वात्ताप: परं फलम् ॥ इति जगतो विनश्वरं स्वरूपमा कलययादृष्टफलमुररीकृत्य चंद्रार्बतर्षवक्षितिसमकालं यावत्परया भुत्तपा राजन्रहपुर्या दक्षिणदेशान्तःपाति अद्रियलविदावरीस्थान विनिग्ग्गताय भारद्राज....

[^160]which is a type of the germ contained in the seed of the universe.
" May the matted locks of love's foe, reddened by the lightning's ring, that flashes at the period of the worlds' end, spread for you nightless prosperity. ${ }^{1}$
" From his abode at the auspicious Bardlamánapura, his Majesty, the great king, sovereign, and supreme lord, the fortunate Jaya varma déa, whom victory attends, son of Yaśó varma deva, son of Nara varma deva, son of Udayáditya déva, acquaints all king's officers, Bráhmańas and others, and the Pattacila and people, \&c. inhabiting the village of Máyambdaca which appertains to the thirty-six villages of Vata: ${ }^{2}$ Be it known unto you: Whereas we, sojourning at Chandrapurí, having bathed, having worshipped the holy, beneficent and adorable Bhawánípati:-

Considering the world's vanity :
for
This sovereignty of the earth totters with the stormy blast; the enjoyment of a realm is sweet but for an instant; the breath of man is like a drop of water on the tip of a blade of grass: virtue is the greatest friend in the journey of the other world.-
" Having gained prosperity, which is the receptacle of the skips and bounds ${ }^{3}$ of a revolving world, whoever give not donations, repentance is their chief reward.-
" Reflecting on the perishable nature of the world, prefer-

[^161]ring unseen (spiritual) fruit, [do grant] to be fully possessed, so long as moon and sun, sea and earth, endure [unto.........sprung from the race] of Bhiradwíja* ............settled at Adriya lambi dávarí st'hána, situated within the southern region, at Rája brahma purí. " (The remainder, inscribed on a separate plate, is wanting.)

No. 3.

## A grant of Land inscribed on Copper, found at Ujjayani.* श्री मोमल देवी सांवत्सरिक कल्पितत्वानु ड्यमान देवल पाटकाहूदल ब्य परिवर्तेन

 ब्रालणमाप्य कीयतदलड्डय सम्बड्ये वीकरिका याम विभाग उभयजन दाभ्यां भूनिवर्तन सप्नदशकोपेतमूहलेकाद शक सम्बडे समस्त उपरि लिखित लघु वैड्गण पद्रयामस्तथा विक्षरिका यामार्घश्न स्वसीमा तृणद्यति गोचर पर्यन्तः सवृक्षमालाकुलः सहिरण्यभागभोगः सोपरि करः सर्बादायसमेतश्न मातापित्रोरालमनख पुण्ययशोभिवृद्यये शासनेनोद कपूर्बकतया प्रदत्तस्त न्मत्वा यथा दीयमान भागभोग कर हिरण्यादिकमाब्ञाश्रवणविधेयेर्भूत्वा सर्घमेताभ्यां समु -[^162]


पनेतयं 1 सामान्यं वे तत्पुण्यफलं बुड्दाग्र्मघंशजेरन्येरपि भाविभोन्नभिरक्मत्पद्तन्त धर्मादायोء्यमनुमन्तयः पालनीयश्व। उतंचत्वानुभिर्वसुधा भुत्ता राजभिः सगरादिभिः 1 यस्य यम्य यदा भूमिम्तस्य तस्य तदा फलम् $n$ यानीह दत्तानि पुरा नरेन्द्रे द्रानानि धम्मार्थयशास्कराणि निर्म्माल्यवन्ति प्रतिमानि तानि को नाम साधु: पुनराददीत ॥ अस्मत्कुलक्रममुदारमुदाहरद्रिरन्येश्व दानमिदमभ्यनुमोदनीयं। लक्ष्यास्तडिद्डलय बुदुदतुंदिलाया दानं फलं परयशः परिपालनं च ॥ सर्बानेतान्भाविनः पार्थिवेन्द्रान्भूयो भूयो याचते रामभद्र:। सामान्योงयं धम्मसेतुनृपाणां काले काले पालनीयो भवद्धि: ता इति कमलदलाम्बुविंदुलोलां त्रियमनुचिंत्य मनुणजीवितं च सकलमिदमुदाहृतं बहुधा नहि पुरषेः परकीर्नयो विलोया दूति श सम्वत् ११ई२ माघवदि३दू० पुरोहित ठकुर श्री वामन स्वामि ठक्षुर शी पुरषोतममहाप्रधान राजपुत्र श्री देवधर प्रभृतयः ๆ मंगलं महा श्रीः त

## . <br> स्वहस्तो॰यं महाराज श्रीमघ्यशोवर्म्मदेवस्य अधि 1 श्री: १

(The beginning, inscribed upon another plate, is wanting).
" In respect of two portions ${ }^{1}$ of Bráhmańa's allowance, by exchange for two portions allotted to the attendant of the temple and the reader, to be held as assigned for the anniversary of the auspicious Mómala devi; ${ }^{2}$ and in respect of seventeen nivartanas ${ }^{3}$ of land, with eleven ploughs of land, assigned to both persons in a partition of Vícaricá gráma; ; the whole of the aforesaid little Vaingańapadra gráma, also a moiety of Viccaricá gráma within the proper bounds, extending to the grass and pasture, with trees, fields and habitations, with money-rent, and share of produce, with superior taxes, and including all dues; for increase of merit and fame of my mother, of my father, and of myself, are granted by patent, with the

[^163]previous gift of water. Aware of this, and obedient to his commands, they must pay all due share of produce, taxes, money-rent, \&c. to them both.
" Considering the fruit of this meritorious act as common, future princes, sprung of our race, and others, should respect and maintain this virtuous donation, as by us given.
" And it is said,-By many Kings, Sagara as well as others, the earth has been possessed. Whose-soever has been the land, his has then been the fruit.
"The gifts, which have been here granted by former princes, producing virtue, wealth, and fame, are unsullied reflections. What honest man would resume them?
"This donation ought to be approved by those who exemplify the hereditary liberality of our race, and by others. The flash of lightning from Lacshmís swoln with the raindrop, ${ }^{5}$ is gift; and the fruit is preservation of another's fame.
"Rámabhadra again and againexhorts all those future rulers of the earth : this universal bridge of virtue for princes is to be preserved by you from time to time.
" Considering therefore prosperity to be a quivering drop of water on the leaf of a lotus; and the life of man is such; and all this is many ways ${ }^{6}$ exemplified; men therefore should not abridge the fame of others.
" Samvat 1192, 3d of Mágha badi (dark half); witness

[^164]314 ON THREE GRANTS OF LAND, \&c.
the venerable purbhita, Vamana; the venerable swámí, Purushótтama; the prime minister and king's son, Devadhara; and others.
" Auspiciousness and great prosperity.
R.
"This is the sign manual of the fortunate Yaśbiarma deva."

> Adhi. Śrí.

## XIII.

## Or Inscriptions at Temples of the Jaina Sect in South Bihár.*

> [From the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. i. p. $520-523$.

As connected with the subject of an essay on the ŚSároacs or Jainas, $\dagger$ read at a former meeting, I lay before the Society copies of inscriptions found by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in South Bihár. Though not ancient, they may be considered to be of some importance, as confirming the prevalence of a Jaina tradition relative to the site of the spot where the last of the Jinas terminated his earthly existence, and as identifying the first of his disciples with Gautama, whose death and apotheosis took place, according to current belief, in the same neighbourhood.

In the Calpa sutra and in other books of the Jainas, the first of Mahávira's disciples is mentioned under the name of Indra bheti : but, in the inscription, under that of Gautama swimi. The names of the other ten precisely agree : whence it is to be concluded, the Gautama, first of one list, is the same with Indra bheti, first of the other.

It is certainly probable, as remarked by Dr. Hamilton and Major Delamaine, that the Gautama of the Jainas and of the Bauddhas is the same personage : and this

[^165]leads to the further surmise, that both these sects are branches of one stock. Aecording to the Jainas, only one of Mahávíra's eleven disciples left spiritual successors: that is, the entire succession of Jaina priests is derived from one individual, Sudharma swámi. Two only out of eleven survived Mahávíra, viz. Indrabhúti and Sudharma:* the first, identified with Gautama swámí, has no spiritual successors in the Jaina sect. The proper inference seems to be, that the followers of this surviving disciple are not of the sect of Jina, rather than that there have been none. Gautama's followers constitute the sect of Bauddha, with tenets in many respects analogous to those of the Jainas, or followers of Sudharma, but with a mythology or fabulous history of deified saints quite different. Both have adopted the Hindu Pantheon, or assemblage of subordinate deities; both disclaim the authority of the védas; and both elevate their pre-eminent saints to divine supremacy.

In a short essay on their philosophical opinions, which will be likewise submitted to the Society, it will be shown that a considerable difference of doctrine subsists on various points ; but hardly more between the two sects, than between the divers branches of the single sect of Bauddha.

It deserves remark, that the Bauddhas and the Jainas agree in placing within the limits of the same province, South Bihar, and its immediate vicinity, the locality of the death and apotheosis of the last Buddha, as of the last Jina, and of his predecessor and his eldest and favourite disciple. Both religions have preserved for their sacred language the same dialect, the Páli or Prácritt, closely resembling the Mágadhí or vernacular tongue of Magadha (South Bihár). Between those dialects (Páli

[^166]and Prácrǐt) there is but a shade of difference,* and they are often confounded under a single name.

The traditional chronology of the two sects assigns nearly the same period to their Gautama respectively: for, according to the Bauddhas, the apotheosis of Gautama buddha took place 543 years before the beginning of the Christian era; and according to the Jainas, the apotheosis of Mahávira, Gautama swámi's teacher, was somewhat earlier, viz. about 600 years before the Christian era. The lapse of little more than half a century is scarcely too great for the interval between the death of a preceptor and of his pupil; or not so much too great as to amount to anachronism.

Without relying much upon a similarity of name, it may yet not be foreign to remark, that the Buddha, who preceded Gautama buddha, was Cáśyapa: and that Mahávira, the preceptor of Gautama swámi, was of the race of Caśyara.

I take Párśwanát'ha to have been the founder of the sect of Jainas, which was confirmed and thoroughly established by Mahavira and his disciple Sudharma; by whom, and by his followers, both Mahávíra and his predecessor Párśwanat'ha have been venerated as deified saints (Jinas), and are so worshipped by the sect to this day.

A schism, however, seems to have taken place, after Mahivíra, whose elder disciple, Indra bhéti, also named Gautama swámi, was by some of his followers raised to the rank of a deified saint, under the synonymous designation of Buddha; (for Jina and Buddha bear the same meaning, according to both Buddhists and Jainas). The preceding Buddha, according to this branch of the sect, was CÁsfapa, who is not improbably the same with

[^167]Śramańa Vardhamána Mahívira, son (borm of the wife) of Siddhart'ha, a Suryavanśsi prince of the Cáśyapa race.

It is to be observed, without, however, attaching much weight to this coincidence, that the name of Siddhírt'ha is common to Mahávira's father and to Gautama buddha, whom I suppose to be the same with the Jina's disciple, Gautama swhmi.

The appellative Gautama is unquestionably a patronymic (derived from G6tama), however Śsicya sinha may have come by it, whether as descendant of that lineage, nearer or remoter, or for whatever other cause. His predecessor among Buddhas is, in like manner, designated by a patronymic as above noticed, viz. CAśyapa.

The name of Gautama occurs also as an appellative in other instances besides that of the sixth Buddha, or of the twenty-fourth Jina's eldest disciple. One of the legislators of the Hindus is Gautama, whose aphorisms of law are extant.*

The gentile name of the last Buddha has prevailed in China and Japan, where he is best known under the designation of Śsacya. His appellation of Gautama remains current in countries bordering upon India.

## Inscription at Naghaur. $\dagger$

संवत् 9 ६ $t$ ६ वर्षे वेशाखे सुदि 94 दिने मंत्री दल वंश चोपरा गोत्रे ठ० विमल दास तत्पुत्र उ० तुलसी दास तत्पुत्र ठ० संयाम गोवर्घन दास तन्माता ठ० नीहालो तस्य भार्यी ठ० - देया

[^168]



## गोतम स्वामिका वरण पक्र - करापिता

 वृहत्वरतर गच्छे पूज्य श्री युतीय शी शी जिन राज मूरी विद्यमाने पु० य - - धर्मेति प्रतिष्षा कृता ॥ ॥" In the year 1686 Samvat, on the 15th day of Vaisác'ha sudi, the lotus of Gattama swámi's feet was here placed by Nifílo mother of Tha. (Thaccur), Sangrima g6vardhana dása, son of Tha. Tulasí dása, son of Tha. Vimala dísa, of the race of Chópará and lineage of [Bharata Chacravarti's] prime councillor: the fortunate Jina-rája stri, the venerable guide of the great Charatara tribe, being present."

The same pious family, which is here recorded for erecting, or more probably restoring, the representation of Gautama swamis feet at Nakhaur, is in like manner commemorated by three inscriptions, bearing date six years later (viz. 1692 Samvat),* for the like pious office of erecting images of the feet of Mahávira and of his eleven disciples, at Páwápurí, which, or its vicinity, is in those inscriptions stated to be the site of that saint's extinction (nirvána) or translation to bliss.

The same names recur, with those of many other persons, inhabitants (as this family was) of the town of Bihar, where a numerous congregation of Jainas seems to have then dwelt; and with the same additions and designations more fully set forth : whence it appears, that the designation of "descendant of a prime councillor" bears reference to a supposed descent from the prime minister of the universal or paramount sovereign, Bharata, son of the first Jina Ryshabha.

[^169]Sangráma and Gbvardhana, here joined as an appellation of one person, are in those inscriptions separated as names of two brothers, sons of Tulasif dasa and his wife Ninilib. In other respects, the inscriptions confirm and explain each other.*

[^170]
## XIV.

## On the Indian and Arabian Divisions of the Zodiac.

[From the Asiatic Researches, vol. ix. p. 323-376. Calcutta, 1807. 4to.]

The researches, of which the result is here laid before the Asiatic Society, were undertaken for the purpose of ascertaining correctly the particular stars, which give names to the Indian divisions of the zodiac. The inquiry has, at intervals, been relinquished and resumed: it was indeed attended with considerable difficulties. None of the native astronomers, whom I consulted, were able to point out, in the heavens, all the asterisms for which they had names: it became, therefore, necessary to recur to their books, in which the positions of the principal stars are given. Here a fresh difficulty arose from the real or the seeming disagreement of the place of a star, with the division of the zodiac, to which it was referred; and I was led from the consideration of this and of other apparent contradictions, to compare carefully the places assigned by the Hindus to their nacshatras, with the positions of the lunar mansions, as determined by the Arabian astronomers. After repeated examination of this subject, with the aid afforded by the labours of those who have preceded me in the same inquiry, I now venture to offer to the perusal of the Asiatic Society the following remarks, with the hope that they will be found to contain a correct ascertainment of the stars
by which the Hindus have been long accustomed to trace the moon's path.

The question, which I proposed to myself for investigation, appeared to me important, and deserving of the labour bestowed upon it, as obviously essential towards a knowledge of Indian astronomy, and as tending to determine another question; namely, whether the Indian and Arabian divisions of the zodiac had a common origin. Sir William Jones thought that they had not; I incline to the contrary opinion. The coincidence appears to me too exact, in most instances, to be the effect of chance : in others, the differences are only such as to authorize the remark, that the nation, which borrowed from the other, has not copied with servility. I apprehend that it must have been the Arabs who adopted (with slight variations) a division of the zodiac familiar to the Hindus. This, at least, seems to be more probable than the supposition, that the Indians received their system from the Arabians: we know, that the Hindus have preserved the memory of a former situation of the Colures, compared to constellations, which mark divisions of the zodiac in their astronomy; but no similar trace remains of the use of the lunar mansions, as divisions of the zodiac, among the Arabs, in so very remote times.

It will be found, that I differ much from Sir William Jones in regard to the stars constituting the asterisms of Indian astronomy. On this, it may be sufficient to remind the reader, that Sir William Jones stated only a conjecture founded on a consideration of the figure of the nacshatra and the number of its stars, compared with those actually situated near the division of the ecliptic, to which the nacshatra gives name. He was not apprized that the Hindus themselves place some of these constellations far out of the limits of the zodiac.

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 |  | 28 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Names of the Nacshatras ...... | Aswini. | Bharani. | Crittica. | Róhisís | Révatt. |
| Presiding deities or regents of each asterism ............. | The Aświns. | Yama. | Fire. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Praján } \\ \text { Pati. } \end{gathered}$ | BHAN. |
| The figures of the Nacshatras according to Srípati, \&c...\} | A horse's head. | The Yóni. | A razor or knife. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { A wheelec } \\ & \text { Carriage. } \end{aligned}$ | bor. |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { Their figures according to other } \\ \text { authors . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |  | A temple. ${ }^{\bullet}$ |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { Number of stars according to } \\ \text { Srípati, \&c. ................... } \end{array}\right\}$ | 3 | 3 | 6 | 5 |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Other numbers assigned by dif- } \\ & \text { ferent authorities .......... } \end{aligned}$ | $2+$ |  |  |  |  |
| Relative situation of the prin-? cipal star; according to the $\}$ Surya siddhánta. | N. | S. | S. | E. |  |
| Place of the star in 6ths of degrees from the origin of the Nacshatra; according to the same $\qquad$ | 48 | 40 | 65 | 57 |  |
| Its place, in degrees, from the ? origin of the Ecliptic ...... | $8^{\circ}$ | $20^{\circ}$ | $37^{\circ} 30^{\prime}$ | $49^{\circ} 30$ | $9^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ |
| Its distance from the Ecliptic .. | $10^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $12^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $5^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $5^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Place of the star in degrees, } \\ \text { measured on the Ecliptic, ac- } \\ \text { cording to Brahmbaupta.. }\end{array}\right\}$ | $8^{\circ}$ | $20^{\circ}$ | $37^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ | $49^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ | Do |
| Distance from the Ecliptic ...... | $10^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $12^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $4^{\circ} 31 / \mathrm{N}$. | $4^{0} 33 / 8$. |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{r} \text { Place in degrees measured on } \\ \text { the Ecliptic, according to the } \\ \text { Siddhanta siromaKi........ } \end{array}\right\}$ | $8^{\circ}$ | $20^{\circ}$ | $37^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ | $49^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ |  |
| Distance from the Ecliptic .... | $10^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $12^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $4^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $4^{\circ} 30 \cdot \mathrm{~S}$. |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { Place in degrees measured on } \\ \text { the Ecliptic, according to } \\ \text { the Graha laghava ........ } \end{array}\right\}$ | $8^{\circ}$ | $21^{\circ}$ | $38^{\circ}$ | $49^{\circ}$ | 0 |
| Distance from the Ecliptic .... | $10^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $12^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $5^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $5^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. |  |
| True longitude according to $\}$ the Siddhánta sárvabhauma.\} | $12^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$ | $25^{\circ} 8^{\prime}$ | $35^{\circ} 2^{\prime}$ | 4809 | ${ }^{\circ} 50$ |
| True latitude | $10^{\circ} 50 \mathrm{~N}$ | $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$ | $4^{\circ} 44^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $4^{\circ} 40^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$. |  |
| Star supposed to be meant. | a Arietis. | Musca. | ${ }^{n}$ Tauri. <br> Pleiades. | «Tauri. Aldebaran. | Pigam. |

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I shall examine the several nacshatras and lunar mansions in their order; previously quoting from the Hindu astronomers, the positions assigned to the principal star, termed the yógatárá. This, according to Brahmegupta, (as cited by Lacshmidisa in his commentary on the Síromanii,) or according to the Brahme siddhánta (cited by Bhudhara, is the brightest star of each cluster. But the Súrya siddhánta specifies the relative situation of the Yogatárá in respect of the other stars; and that does not always agree with the position of the most conspicuous star.

The number of stars in each asterism, and the figure under which the asterism is represented, are specified by Hindu astronomers: particularly by Śsifati in the Ratnamálá. These, with the positions of the stars relatively to the ecliptic, are exhibited in the annexed table. It contains the whole purport of many obscure and almost enigmatical verses, of which a verbal translation would be nearly as unintelligible to the English reader as the original text.

The authorities, on which I have chiefly relied, because they are universally received by Indian astronomers, are the Súrya siddhánta, Śiromańi, and Graha lághava. They have been carefully examined, comparing at the same time several commentaries. The Ratnamálá of Śrípati is cited for the figures of the asterisms ; and the same passage had been noticed by Sir William Jones.* It agrees nearly with the text of Vasisht'ha cited by Muniśmara, and is confirmed in most instances by the Muhurta chintámañi. The same authority, confirmed with rare exceptions by Vasishtr'ha, Sacalya, and the Ábharańa, is quoted for the number of stars in each asterism. The works of

[^171]Brahmegupta have not been accessible to me: but the Maríchi, an excellent commentary on the Siddhánta śirbmańi, by Muníswara, adduces from that author a statement of the positions of the stars; and remarks, that it is founded on the Brahme siddhánta, contained in the Vishnudhermbttara.* Accordingly, I have found the same passage in the Brahme siddhánta, and verified it by the gloss entitled Vásaná ; and I, therefore, use the quotation without distrust. Later authorities, whose statements coincide exactly with some of the preceding (as Camalícara in the Tatwavivéca) would be needlessly inserted : but one (Muniśwara in the Siddhánta sárvabhauma), exhibiting the position of the stars differently, is quoted in the annexed table.

The manner of observing the places of the stars is not explained in the original works first cited. The Súrya siddhánta only hints briefly, 'that the astronomer should frame a sphere, and examine the apparent longitude and latitude. $\dagger$ ' Commentators, $\ddagger$ remarking on this passage, describe the manner of making the observation: and the same description occurs, with little variation, in commentaries on the Śirómańi.§ They direct a spherical instrument (Gblayantra) to be constructed, according to instructions contained in a subsequent part of the text. This, as will be hereafter shewn, is precisely an armillary sphere. An additional circle graduated for degrees and minutes, is directed to be suspended on the pins of the axis as pivots.

[^172]It is named Védhavalaya or intersecting circle, and appears to be a circle of declination. After noticing this addition to the instrument, the instructions proceed to the rectifying of the Gblayantra, or armillary sphere, which is to be placed, so that the axis shall point to the pole, and the horizon be true by a water-level.

The instrument being thus placed, the observer is instructed to look at the star Révatí through a sight fitted to an orifice at the centre of the sphere; and having found the star, to adjust by it the end of the sign Pisces on the ecliptic. The observer is then to look, through the sight, at the yoga star of Aśriniń, or at some other proposed object ; and to bring the moveable circle of declination over it. The distance in degrees, from the intersection of this circle and ecliptic, to the end of Mína or Pisces, is its longitude (dhruvaca) in degrees; and the number of degrees on the moveable circle of declination, from the same intersection to the place of the star, is its latitude (vicshépa) north or south.*

The commentators $\dagger$ further remark, that 'the latitude, so found, is (sp'huta) apparent, being the place intercepted between the star and the ecliptic, on a circle passing through the poles; but the true latitude (asp'huta) is found on a circle hung upon the poles of the celestial sphere, as directed in another place.' The longitude, found as above directed, is, in like manner, the space intercepted between the origin of the ecliptic and a circle of declination passing

[^173]through the star : differing, consequently, from the true longitude. The same commentators add, that the longitudes and latitudes, exhibited in the text, are of the description thus explained : and those, which are stated in the Súrya siddhánta, are expressly affirmed to be adapted to the time when the equinox did not differ from the origin of the ecliptic in the beginning of Mésha.

It is obvious, that, if the commentators have rightly understood the text of their authors, the latitudes and longitudes there given, require correction. It will indeed appear, in the progress of this inquiry, that the positions of stars distant from the ecliptic, as there given, do not exactly correspond with the true latitudes and longitudes of the stars supposed to be intended : and the disagreement may be accounted for, by the circumstance of the observations having been made in the manner above described.

Another mode of observation is taught in the Siddhánta sundara, cited and expounded by the author of the Siddhánta sárvabhauma. 'A tube, adapted to the summit of a gnomon, is directed towards the star on the meridian : and the line of the tube, pointed to the star, is prolonged by a thread to the ground. The line from the summit of the gnomon to the base is the hypotenuse; the height of the gnomon is the perpendicular ; and its distance from the extremity of the thread is the base of the triangle. Therefore, as the hypotenuse is to its base, so is the radius to a base, from which the sine of the angle, and consequently the angle itself, are known. If it exceed the latitude, the declination is south; or, if the contrary, it is north. The right ascension of the star is ascertained by calculation from the hour of the night, and from the right ascension of the sun for that time. The declination of the corresponding point of the ecliptic being found, the sum or difference
of the declinations, according as they are of the same or of different denominations, is the distance of the star from the ecliptic. The longitude of the same point is computed; and from these elements, with the actual precession of the equinox, may be calculated the true longitude of the star; as also its latitude on a circle passing through the poles of the ecliptic.'

Such, if I have rightly comprehended the meaning in a single and not very accurate copy of the text, is the purport of the directions given in the Siddhánta sundara and sárvabhaumu: the only works in which the true latitudes and longitudes of the stars are attempted to be given. All the rest exhibit the longitude of the star's circle of declination, and its distance from the ecliptic measured on that circle.

I suppose the original observations, of which the result is copied from Brahmegupta and the Súrya siddhánta, with little variation, by successive authors, to have been made about the time, when the vernal equinox was near the first degree of Mésha.* The pole then was nearly seventeen degrees and a quarter from its present position, and stood a little beyond the star near the ear of the Cameleopard. On this supposition it will be accordingly found, that the assigned places of the nacshatras are easily. reconcileable to the positions of stars likely to be meant.

I shall here remark, that the notion of a polar star, common to the Indian and Grecian celestial spheres, implies considerable antiquity. It cannot have been taken from our present pole-star (a Ursæ minoris), which, as Mons. Bailly has observed, $\dagger$ was remote from the pole, when

[^174]Eudoxus described the sphere; at which time, according to the quotation of Hipparchus, there was a star situated at the pole of the world.* Bailiy conjectures, as the intermediate stars of the sixth magnitude are too small to have designated the pole, that $x$ Draconis was the star meant by Eudoxus, which had been at its greatest approximation to the pole, little more than four degrees from it, about 1326 years before Christ. It must have been distant, between seven and eight degrees of a great circle, when Eudoxus wrote. Possibly the great star in the Dragon ( $\alpha$ Draconis), which is situated very near to the circle described by the north pole round the pole of the ecliptic, had been previously designated as the polar star. It was within one degree of the north pole about 2836 years before Christ. As we know, that the idea could not be taken from the star in the tail of Ursa minor, we are forced to choose between Bailly's conjecture or the supposition of a still greater antiquity. I should, therefore, be inclined to extend to the Indian sphere, his conjecture respecting that of Eudox us.

I shall now proceed to compare the nacshatras with the manzils of the moon, or lunar mansions.
I. Aśrviná, now the first nacshatra, but anciently the last but one, probably obtained its present situation at the head of the Indian asterisms, when the beginning of the zodiac was referred to the first degree of Mésha, or the Ram, on the Hindu sphere. As measuring a portion of the zodiac, it occupies the first $13^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ of Mésha: and its beginning follows immediately after the principal star in the last nacshatra (Révátî), reckoned, by some exactly, by others nearly, opposite to the very conspicuous one, which forms the fourteenth asterism. Considered as a constellation,

[^175]Aświní comprises three stars figured as a horse's head; and the principal, which is also the northern one, is stated by all ancient authorities, in $10^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. and $8^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. from the beginning of Mésha.

The first manzil, or lunar mansion, according to the Arabs, is entitled Sherat́án, (by the Persians corruptly called, as in the oblique case, Sheratain), and comprises two stars of the third magnitude on the head of Aries, in lat. $6^{\circ} 36^{\prime}$ and $7^{\circ} 51^{\prime}$ N., and long. $26^{\circ} 13^{\prime}$ and $27^{\circ} 7^{\prime}$.* With the addition of a third, also in the head of the Ram, the asterism is denominated Ashrát. The bright star of the second or third magnitude which is out of the figure of the Ram, according to Ulugh beg, but on the nose according to Hipparchus cited by this author from Prolemy, is determined Nátik: it is placed in lat. $9^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$. and long. $1^{8} 0^{\circ} 43^{\prime}$, and is apparently the same with the principal star in the Indian asterism; for Muhammed of Tizín, in his table of declination and right ascension, expressly terms it the first star of the Sheratain. $\dagger$

Many pańdits, consulted by me, have concurred in pointing to the three bright stars in the head of Aries ( $\alpha \beta$ and $\gamma$ ) for the Indian constellation Aświní. The first star of Aries (a) was also shown to Dr. Hunter, at Ujjayiní, for the principal one in this asterism; and Mr. Davis $\ddagger$ states the other two, as those which were pointed out to him by a skilful native astronomer, for the stars that distinguish Aśviní. The same three stars, but with the addition of three others, were indicated to Le Gentil, for this constellation.§ I entertain, therefore, no doubt, that Sir

[^176]William Jonss* was right in placing the three stars of As'vinı̂ in, and near, the head of the Ram ; and it is evident, that the first nacshatra of the Hindus is here rightly determined, in exact conformity with the first lunar mansion of the Arabs; although the longitude of $\alpha$ Arietis exceed, by half a degree, that which is deduced, for the end of A'swiní, from the supposed situation of the Virgin's spike opposite to the beginning of this nacshatra; and although its circle of declination be $13^{\circ}$ instead of $8^{\circ}$ from the principal star in Révati.
II. Bharañ́, the second Indian asterism, comprises three stars figured by the Ybní or pudendum muliebre: and all ancient authorities concur in placing the principal and southern star of this nacshatra in $12^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. The second manzil, entitled Butain, is placed by Ulugh beg $\dagger$ in lat. $1^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ and $3^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$; and this cannot possibly be reconciled with the Hindu constellation. But Muhammed of $T ı z i n, \ddagger$ assigns to the bright star of Butain a declination of $23^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. exceeding by nearly $2^{\circ}$ the declination allotted by him to Nátih, or his first star in Sheratain. This agrees with the difference between the principal stars of Aświní and Bharañ́; and it may be inferred, that some among the Muhammedan astronomers have concurred with the Hindus, in referring the second constellation to stars that form Musca. There were no good grounds for supposing Bharañz to correspond with three stars on the tail of the Ram;§ and I have no doubt, that the stars, which compose this nacshatra, have been rightly indicated to me, as three in Musca, forming a triangle almost equilateral : their brightness, and their equal distance from the first and third asterisms, corroborate this opinion, which will be confirmed by showing, as will be done in the progress of

[^177]this comparison, that the nacshatras are not restricted to the limits of the zodiac.
III. Crïtticá, now the third, but formerly the first, nacshatra, consists of six stars figured as a knife or razor, and the principal and southern star is placed in $4 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ or $5^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. and in 65 sixths of degrees (or $10^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$ ) from its own commencement, according to the Surya siddhánta, or $37^{\circ} 28^{\prime}$ to $38^{\circ}$ from the beginning of Mésha, according to the Siddhánta śirbmañi, and Graha lághava, respectively. This longitude of the circle of declination corresponds nearly with that of the bright star in the Pleiades, which is $40^{\circ}$ of longitude distant from the principal star of Révatí.

The stars indicated by Ulugh beg for Thurayyá, also correspond exactly with the Pleiades; and these were pointed out to the Jesuit missionaries,* as they have since been to every other inquirer, for the third nacshatra. If any doubt existed, Mythology might assist in determining the question; for the Critticás are six nymphs, who nursed Scanda, the god of war, named from these, his foster mothers, Cárticeya or Shánmatura.
IV. We retain on our celestial globes the Arabic name of the fourth lunar mansion Debarán (or with the article, Aldebarán): applied by us, however, exclusively to the bright star called the Bull's-eye; and which is unquestionably the same with the principal and eastern star of R6hiní, placed in $4 \frac{1^{\circ}}{}{ }^{\circ}$ or $5^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. and $49 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. by the Hindu writers on Astronomy. This nacshatra, figured as a wheeled carriage, comprises five stars, out of the seven which the Greeks named the Hyades. The Arabs, however, like the Hindus, reckon five stars only in the asterism; and Sir William Jones rightly supposed them to be in the head and neck of the Bull; they probably are $\alpha \rho y \delta s$ Tauri, agreeably to Mons. Bailly's conjecture. $\dagger$

[^178]Hindu astronomers define a point in this constellation, of some importance in their fanciful astrology. According to the Súrya siddhánta, when a planet is in the 7th degree of Vrisha (Taurus) and has more than two degrees of south latitude, or, as commentators expound the passage, $2^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$; the planet is said to cut the cart of R6hiní. This is denominated śacatabhéda, or the section of the wain. Lalla and the Graha lághava give nearly the same definition; and it is added in the work last mentioned, that, when Mars, Saturn, and the Moon, are in that position (which occurs, in regard to the moon, when the node is eight nacshatras distant from Punarvasu, and might happen in regard to the rest during another yuga), the world is involved in great calamity. Accordingly, the puránas contain a legendary story of Dasarat'ha's dissuading Saturn from so traversing the constellation Rokiní.
V. Mrigaśiras, the fifth nacshatra, represented by an antelope's head, contains three stars; the same which constitute the fifth lunar mansion Hakâh; for the distance of $10^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. assigned to the northern star of this nacshatra, will agree with no other but one of the three in the head of Orion. The difference of longitude ( $24^{\circ}$ to $25 \frac{1^{\circ}}{\circ}$ ) from Critticá corresponds with sufficient exactness; and so does the longitude of its circle of declination ( $62^{\circ}$ to $63^{\circ}$ ) from the end of Révatí; since the true longitude of $\lambda$ Orionis, from the principal star in Révatí ( $\}$ Piscium), is $63 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. It was a mistake to suppose this asterism to comprise stars in the feet of Gemini, or in the Galaxy.*
VI. Árdrá, the sixth nacshatra, consists of a single bright star, described as a gem, and placed in $9^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. by one authority, but in $11^{\circ}$ by others, and at the distance of $4 \xi^{\circ}$ to $4^{\circ}$ in longitude from the last asterism. This indicates the star in the shoulder of Orion ( $\alpha$ Orionis); not, as

[^179]was conjectured by Sir Willam Jones, the star in the knee of Pollux.*

The sixth lunar mansion is named by the Arabs, Hanah; and comprises two stars in the feet of the second Twin, according to Ulugh beg, though others make it to be his shoulder. $\dagger$ Muhammed of Tizín allots five stars to this constellation; and the Kúmus, among various meanings of Hanahh, says, that it is a name for five stars in the left arm of Orion; remarking, also, that the lunar mansion is named Taháyi, comprising three stars called Tahyát. Either way, however, the Indian and Arabian asterisms appear in this instance irreconcileable.
VII. The seventh nacshatra, entitled Punarvasu, and represented by a house, or, according to a Sanscritt work cited by Sir William Jones, $\ddagger$ a bow, is stated by astronomers as including four stars, among which the principal and eastern one is $30^{\circ}$ or $32^{\circ}$ from the fifth asterism; but placed by all authorities in $6^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. This agrees with ( $\beta$ Geminorum) one of the two stars in the heads of the Twins, which together constitute the seventh lunar mansion Ziraf́, according to Mubammed of Tús and Muhammed of Trzin and other Arabian authorities.§

It appears from a rule of Sanscrit grammar, $\|$ that $\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{u}}$ narvasu, as a name for a constellation, is properly dual, implying, as it may be supposed, two stars. On this ground, a conjecture may be raised, that Punarvasu originally comprised two stars, though four are now assigned to it. Accordingly, that number is retained in the Sácalya sanhitá.

It may be further observed, that the seventh lunar

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - As. Res., vol. ii. p. } 298 . \quad \text { Hydr, Com. p. } 7 \text { and } 44 . \\
& \ddagger \text { As. Res., vol. ii. p. } 295 . \quad \text { § Hyde on Uluon beg, p. } 43 . \\
& \text { Páfimi, l. ii. } 63 .
\end{aligned}
$$

mansion of the Arabs is named Zirad ul ased according to Jauharf and others cited by Hyde;* and that the Kámús makes this term to be the name of eight stars in the form of a bow.

Upon the whole, the agreement of the Indian and Arabian constellations is here apparent, notwithstanding a variation in the number of the stars; and I conclude, that Punarvasu comprises, conformably with Sir William Jones's supposition, $\dagger$ stars in the heads of the twins; viz. a, $\beta$, Geminorum; and which were indicated to Dr. Hunter by a Hindu astronomer at Ujjayiní: to which, perhaps, $\theta$ and $\tau$ may be added to complete the number of four.
VIII. Pushya, the eighth asterism, is described as an arrow ; and consists of three stars, the chief of which, being also the middlemost, has no latitude, and is $12^{\circ}$ or $13^{\circ}$ distant from the seventh asterism, being placed by Hindu astronomers in $106^{\circ}$ of longitude. This is evidently dCancri; and does not differ widely from the eighth lunar mansion Nethrah, which, according to Ulugh beg and others, $\ddagger$ consists of two stars, including the nebula of Cancer. The Indian constellation comprises two other stars, besides $\delta$ Cancri, which are perhaps $\gamma$ and $\beta$ of the same constellation ; and Sir William Jones's conjecture, that it consists of stars in the body and claws of Cancer, was not far from the truth.
IX. The ninth asterism, Aśléshá, contains five stars figured as a potter's wheel, and of which the principal or eastern one is placed in $7^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$., and according to different tables, $107^{\circ}, 108^{\circ}$, or $109^{\circ}$, E. This appears to be intended for the bright star in the southern claw of Cancer ( $\alpha$ Cancri),

[^180]and cannot be reconciled with the lunar mansion Tarf or Tarfah, which comprises two stars* near the lion's eye; the northernmost being placed by Muhammed of Tizín in $24^{\circ}$ of N . declination. $\dagger$ The Jesuit missionaries, if rightly quoted by Costard, $\ddagger$ made $A$ áléshá correspond with the bright stars in the heads of Castor and Pollux, together with Procyon. This is evidently erroneous. Sir William Jones's supposition that Aśléshá might answer to the face and name of Leo, nearly concurs with the Arabian determination of this lunar mansion, but disagrees with the place assigned to the stars by Hindu astronomers. Bailly committed the same mistake, when he affirmed, that Aśléshá is the lion's head.§
X. The tenth asterism, Maghá, contains, like the last, five stars; but which are figured as a house. The prizcipal or southern one has no latitude; and, according to all authorities, has $129^{\circ}$ longitude. This is evidently Regulus ( $a$ Leonis): which is exactly $1293^{\circ}$ distant from the last star in Révatí.

According to the Jesuits cited by Costard, Maghá answers to the Lion's mane and heart; and the tenth lunar mansion of the Arabians, Jebkah, comprises three (some say four) stars, nearly in the longitude of the lion's heart.|| In this instance, therefore, the Indian and Arabian divisions of the zodiac coincide: and it is owing to an oversight, that Sir William Jones states the nacshatra as composed of stars in the lion's leg and haunch. It appears to consist of $\alpha \boldsymbol{\gamma} \varsigma n$ and, Leonis.
XI. Two stars, constituting the eleventh nacshatra, or preceding P'hálguní, which is represented by a couch or

- Hyde's Com., p. 8.
$\ddagger$ Hist. of Astr., p. 51.
\| Hyde's Com., p. 101.
§ Astr. Ind., p. 328.
bedstead, are determined by the place of the chief star (the northernmost according to the Surya siddhánta) in $12^{\circ}$ N. and $144^{\circ}$ E. or, according to Brahmegupta, the Śirbmańi and the Graha lághàva $147^{\circ}$ or $148^{\circ}$ E. They are probably $\delta$ and $\theta$ Leonis: the same which form the lunar mansion Zubrah or Khertán.*

It may be conjectured, that Brahmegupta and Bedscara selected the southern for the principal star; while the Súrya siddhánta took the northern: hence the latitude, stated by those several Hindu authorities, is the mean between both stars ; and the difference of longitude, compared to the preceding and subsequent asterisms, may be exactly reconciled upon this supposition.
XII. Two other stars, constituting the twelfth nacshatra, or following P'hálguní, which is likewise figured as a bed, are ascertained by the place of one of them (the northernmost) $13^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. and $155^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. This indicates $\beta$ Leonis; the same which singly constitutes the Arabian lunar mansion Śerfah, $\dagger$ though Muhammed of Tizín seems to hint that it consists of more than one star. $\ddagger$ By an error regarding the origin of the ecliptic on the Indian sphere, Sir William Jones refers to the preceding nacshatra, the principal star of this asterism.
XIII. Hasta, the thirteenth nacshatra, has the name and figure of a hand; and is suitably made to contain five stars. The principal one, towards the west, next to the north-western star, is placed according to all authorities in $11^{\circ}$ and $170^{\circ} \mathbf{E}$. This can only belong to the constellation Corvus : and accordingly five stars in that constellation ( $\alpha \beta \gamma \delta \varepsilon$ Corvi), have been pointed out to me by Hindu astronomers for this nacshatra.

[^181]Avroá, the thirteenth lunar mansion of the Arabs, is described as containing the same number of stars, situated under Virgo, and so disposed as to resemble the letter Alif. They are placed by Ulugh beg in the wing.*

In this instance the Indian and Arabian divisions of the zodiac have nothing in common but the number of stars and their agreement of longitude. It appears, however, from a passage cited from Sfri by Hyde, $\dagger$ that the Arabs have also considered the constellation of Corvus as a mansion of the moon.
XIV. The fourteenth nacshatra, figured as a pearl, is a single star named Chitrá. It is placed by the Súrya siddhánta in $2^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. and $180^{\circ}$ E., and by Brahmegupta, the Śirbmańi and Graha lághava, in $1_{4}^{\frac{30}{\circ}}$ or $2^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. and 1830 E. This agrees with the Virgin's spike (a Virginis ;) and Hindu astronomers have always pointed out that star for Chitrá. The same star constitutes the fourteenth lunar mansion of the Arabs, named from it Simác ul aázil. Le Gentil's conjecture, $\ddagger$ that the fourteenth nacskatra comprises the two stars $\delta$ and $\varepsilon$ Virginis, was entirely erroneous. And Mons. Bailly was equally incorrect in placing 0 Virginis in the middle of this asterism. §
XV. Another single star constitutes the fifteenth nacshatra, Swátú, represented by a coral bead. The Súrya siddhánta, Brahmegupta, the Śriromańi and Graha lághava, concur in placing it in $37^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. They differ one degree in the longitude of its circle of declination; three of these authorities making it $199^{\circ}$, and the other $198^{\circ}$.

The only conspicuous star, nearly in the situation thus assigned to Swátt́, (and the Indian astronomers would hardly travel so far from the zodiac to seek an obscure

[^182]star ;) is Arcturus, $33^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. of the ecliptic in the circle of declination, and $198^{\circ} \mathbf{E}$. from the principal star of Révatí. I am therefore disposed to believe, that Swátí has been rightly indicated to me by a native astronomer who pointed out Arcturus for this nacshatra. The longitude, stated by Muníśmara (viz. $1 \frac{1}{2}{ }^{\circ}$ less than Chitrá) indicates the same star : but, if greater reliance be placed on his latitudes, the star intended may be : Bootis. At all events, Mons. Bailly mistook, when he asserted, on the authority of Le Gentil, that the fifteenth nacshatra is marked by $a V_{i}$ ginis; and that this star is situated at the beginning of the nacshatra.*

The Indian asterism totally disagrees with the lunar mansion Ghafr, consisting of three stars in the Virgin's foot, according to Ulugh beg, $\dagger$ but in, or near, the balance, according to others.
XVI. Viśac'há, the sixteenth nacshatra, consists of four stars described as a festoon. Authorities differ little as to the situation of the principal and northernmost star: placing it in $1^{\circ}, 1^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$, or $1^{\circ} 30^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$., and in $212^{\circ}, 212^{\circ} 5^{\prime}$ or $213^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. The latitude seems to indicate the bright star in the southern Scale (a Libre), though the longitude disagree: for this suggests a remote star (possibly $x$ Libre). I apprehend the first to be nearest the truth; and hence conclude the four stars to be $\alpha \boldsymbol{y}$, Libre and $\gamma$ Scorpii.

The sixteenth lunar mansion, named Zubanah or Zubániyah, is according to Muнammbd of Tizín, $\ddagger$ the bright star in the northern Scale ( $\beta$ Libre), which Sir William Jones supposed to be the fifteenth nacshatra.

Father Souciet, by whom Corona Borealis is stated

> - Astr. Ind., p. 139 and 227.
> + Hyde, p. 82, and Com., p. 50.
> $\ddagger$ Hyde, Com., p. 104.
for the asterism Viśác'há, is censured by Sir William Jones, under an impression, that all the nacshatras must be sought within the zodiac. The information, received by Father Souciet, does appear to have been erroneous; but the same mistake was committed by a native astronomer, who showed to me the same constellation for Viśác'há; and the nacshatras are certainly not restricted to the neighbourhood of the ecliptic.
XVII. Four stars, (or, according to a different reading, three, described as a row of oblations, that is, in a right line, constitute the seventeenth nacshatra named Anurádhá. Here also, authorities differ little as to the situation of the chief and middlemost star; which is placed in $3^{\circ}$, or $2^{\circ}$, or $1^{\circ} 45^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$., and in $224^{\circ}$ or $224^{\circ} 5^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. This must intend the starnear the head of the Scorpion( $\delta$ Scorpionis); and the asterism probably comprises $\beta \delta \pi$ and $\rho$ Scorpionis.

The seventeenth lunar mansion of the Arabs called Iclal or Iclílu'ljebhah, contains four (some say three, and others six,*) stars lying in a straight line. Those assigned by Ulugh beg+ for this mansion, are $\beta \delta y \pi$ Scorpionis.

Here the Indian and Arabian divisions appear to concur exactly; and Sir William Jones, $\ddagger$ as well as the missionaries cited by Costard, § have apparently understood the same stars; though the latter extend the nacshatra to the constellation Serpentarius.
XVIII. Jyésht'ha, the eighteenth nacshatra, comprises three stars figured as a ring. In regard to this, also, authorities are nearly agreed in the position of the principal and middlemost star, placed in $4^{\circ}, 3 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, or $3^{\circ}$ S., and in $229^{\circ}, 229^{\circ} 5^{\prime}$, or $230^{\circ} \mathbf{E}$. This position clearly indicates Antares or the Scorpion's heart (a Scorpionis); which is

[^183]also the eighteenth lunar mansion, named Kalb or Kalbul'ákrab. The three stars of the Indian asterism may be $a \sigma$ and $\tau$ Scorpionis.
XIX. The nineteenth asterism, Mula, represented by a lion's tail, contains eleven stars, of which the characteristic one, the easternmost, is placed in $9^{\circ}, 8 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, or $8^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$., and in $241^{\circ}$ or $242^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. Although the latitude of $\nu$ Scorpionis be five degrees too great, there seems little doubt that either that or the star east of it, marked $\nu$, must be intended; and this determination agrees with the eighteenth lunar mansion of the Arabs called Shaulah, consisting of two stars near the Scorpion's sting. The Hindu asterism probably includes all the stars placed by us in the Scorpion's tail, viz. $\operatorname{si} \zeta \eta \theta / x$ $\lambda \nu$ and $\nu$ Scorpionis.
XX. The twentieth nacshatra, entitled preceding Áshá$d h a$, figured as an elephant's tooth, or as a couch, consists of two stars, of which the most northern one is placed in $5 \frac{1^{\circ}}{}, 5 \frac{1}{3}^{\circ}$, or $5^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$., and $254^{\circ}$ or $255^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. This suits with $\delta$ Sagittarii, which is also one of the stars of the twentieth lunar mansion called Nâaim. It consists of four, or, according to some authorities, of eight stars. The Indian asterism seemingly comprises $\delta$ and $\varepsilon$ Sagittarii.
XXI. Two stars constitute the twenty-first asterism, named the subsequent Áshádha, which is represented by a couch or by an elephant's tooth. The principal star, which also is the most northerly one, is placed in $5^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$., and $260^{\circ}$, or $261^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. This agrees with a star in the body of Sagittarius ( $\tau$ Sagittarii), and the other star is perhaps the one marked $\zeta$.

The twenty-first lunar mansion of the Arabians, named Baldah, comprises six stars, two of which are placed by Muhammed of Tizín in declination $21^{\circ}$ and $16^{\circ}$. One of these must be a star in the head of Sagittarius. Some authors, on the contrary, describe the lunar mansion as
destitute of stars.* At all events, the Hindu and Arabian divisions appear, in this instance, to be but imperfectly reconcileable.
XXII. Three stars, figured as a triangle, or as the nut of the floating Trapa, form the twenty-second asterism, named Abhijit; which, in the modern Indian astronomy, does not occupy an equal portion of the ecliptic with the other nacshatras, but is carved out of the contiguous divisions. Its place (meaning that of its brightest star) is very remote from the zodiac ; being in $60^{\circ}$ or $62^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. The longitude of its circle of declination, according to different authorities, is $265^{\circ}, 266^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$, or $268^{\circ}$. Probably the bright star in the Lyre is meant. It was shewn to Dr. Huntre, at Ujjayinı́ for the chief star in Abhijit; and the same was pointed out to me for the asterism, by a Hindu astronomer at this place.

The Arabian lunar mansion Zábih, consists of two stars (some reckon fourt) in the horns of Capricorn, totally disagreeing with the Indian nacshatra.
XXIII. Śravańá, the twenty-third nacshatra, represented by three footsteps, contains three stars, of which one, the middlemost, is by all authorities placed in $30^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$., but they differ as to its longitude; the Súrya siddhánta placing it in $280^{\circ}$; Brahmegupta and the Sirbmanio, in $278^{\circ}$; and the Graha lághava in $275^{\circ}$. The assigned latitude indicates the bright star in the Eagle, whence the three may be inferred to be $\alpha \beta$ and $\gamma$ Aquilæ.

The twenty-third mansion of the moon, called by the Arabs Balá, consists of two stars in the left hand of Aquarius. Consequently the Arabian and Hindu divisions are here at variance.

[^184]XXIV. Dhanisht'há, the twenty-fourth asterism, is represented by a drum or tabor. It comprises four stars, one of which (the westernmost) is placed in $36^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$., and according to the Súrya siddhánta, Brahmegupta and the Sirbmańi, in $290^{\circ}$ E., though the Graha lághava state $286^{\circ}$ only. This longitude of the circle of declination, and the distance of the star on it from the ecliptic, indicate the Dolphin ; and the four stars probably are $\alpha \beta \gamma$ and $\delta$ Delphini. The same constellation is mentioned by the Jesuit missionaries as corresponding to Dhanisht'há;* and there can be little doubt that the ascertainment is correct. The longitude stated by Muníswara, (viz. $294^{\circ} 12^{\prime}$ ) supports the conclusion, though his latitude ( $26^{\circ} 25^{\prime}$ ) be too small. To determine accurately the position of this nacshatra is important, as the solstitial colure, according to the ancient astronomers, passed through the extremity of it, and through the middle of $A$ śléshá.

The twenty-fourth mansion, called by the Arabs Súud, comprises two stars in Aquarius ( $\beta$ and $\xi$ Aquarii); totally disagreeing with the Hindu division.
XXV. Satabhishá, the twenty-fifth nacshatra, is a cluster of a hundred stars figured by a circle. The principal one, or brightest, has no latitude; or only a third, or at the utmost half, a degree of south latitude; and all the tables concur in placing it in long. $320^{\circ}$. This will suit best with $\lambda$ Aquarii. These hundred stars may be sought in the stream from the Jar, where Sir William Jones places the nacshatra; and in the right leg of Aquarius.

Akhbiyah, the twenty-fifth lunar mansion, is stated to consist of three stars only, which seem to be the three in the wrist of the right hand of Aquarius. $\dagger$ However, it appears from Ulugh beg's tables, as well as from Mu-

[^185]hammed of Tizín's, that four stars are assigned to this mansion.*

The Hindu and Arabian asterisms differ here less widely than in the instances lately noticed : and a passage, cited by Hyde from Fíruzábádí, even intimates the circular figure of the constellation. $\dagger$
XXVI. The twenty-sixth of the Indian asterisms, called the preceding Bhádrapada, consists of two stars represented by a couch or bed, or else by a double-headed figure; one of which is placed by Hindu astronomers in $24^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$., and $325^{\circ}$ or $326^{\circ}$ E. The only conspicuous star, nearly in that situation, is the bright star in Pegasus ( $a \mathrm{Pe}-$ gasi) ; and the other may be the nearest considerable star in the same constellation ( $\zeta$ Pegasi.) I should have considered $\beta$ Pegasi to be the second star of this nacshatra, were not its yoga or chief star expressly said to be the most northerly. Mukaddim, the twenty-sixth lunar mansion, consists of the two brightest stars in Pegasus ( $\alpha$ and $\beta \ddagger$ ); and thus the two divisions of the zodiac nearly concur.
XXVII. Two other stars constitute the twenty-seventh lunar mansion named the subsequent Bhádrapada. They are figured as a twin, or person with a double face, or else as a couch. The position of one of them (the most northerly) is stated in $26^{\circ}$ or $27^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$., and $337^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. I suppose the bright star in the head of Andromeda to be meant; and the other star to be the one in the extremity of the wing of Pegasus ( $\gamma$ Pegasi). This agrees exactly with the twentyseventh lunar mansion of the Arabians, called Muakkher. For Ulugh beg assigns those stars to it. §
XXVIII. The last of the twenty-eight asterisms is named Révatí, and comprises thirty-two stars figured as

[^186]a tabor. All authorities agree that the principal star, which should be the southernmost, has no latitude, and two of them assert no longitude; but some make it ten minutes short of the origin of the ecliptic, viz. $359^{\circ} 50^{\prime}$. This clearly marks the star on the ecliptic in the string of the Fishes ( $\zeta$ Piscium) ; and the ascertainment of it is important in regard to the adjustment of the Hindu sphere.

The Arabic name of the 28th mansion, Rishá, signifying a cord, seems to indicate a star nearly in the same position. But the constellation, as described by Jauharí cited by Gourus, consists of a multitude of stars in the shape of a fish, and termed Betnu'lhut ; in the navel of which is the lunar mansion: and Murammed of Tizin, with some others, also makes this lunar mansion to be the same with Betnu'lhut, which appears, however, to be the bright star in the girdle of Andromeda ( $\beta$ Andromedæ); though others describe it as the northern Fish, extending, however, to the horns of the Ram.* The lunar mansion and Indian asterism are, therefore, not reconcileable in this last instance.

The result of the comparison shows, I hope satisfactorily, that the Indian asterisms, which mark the divisions of the ecliptic, generally consist of nearly the same stars, which constitute the lunar mansions of the Arabians : but, in a few instances, they essentially differ. The Hindus have likewise adopted the division of the ecliptic and zodiac into twelve signs or constellations, agreeing in figure and designation with those of the Greeks; and differing merely in the place of the constellations, which are carried on the Indian sphere a few degrees further west than on the Grecian. That the Hindus took the hint of this mode of dividing the ecliptic from the Greeks, is not perhaps altogether improbable; but, if such be the origin of it, they

[^187]have not implicitly received the arrangement suggested to them, but have reconciled and adapted it to their own ancient distribution of the ecliptic into twenty-seven parts.*

In like manner, they may have either received or given the hint of an armillary sphere as an instrument for astronomical observation : but certainly they have not copied the instrument which was described by Ptolemy, for the construction differs considerably.

In the Arabic epitome of the Almagest entitled Talriri'lmejestí, $\dagger$ the armillary sphere (Zát ul halk) is thus described. "Two equal circles are placed at right angles; the one representing the ecliptic, the other the solstitial colure. Two pins pass through the poles of the ecliptic; and two other pins are placed on the poles of the equator. On the two first pins are suspended a couple of circles, moving the one within, the other without, the first mentioned circles, and representing two secondaries of the ecliptic. On the two other pins a circle is placed, which encompasses the whole instrument, and within which the different circles turn; it represents the meridian. Within the inner secondary of the ecliptic a circle is fitted to it, in the same plane, and turning in it. This is adapted to measure latitudes. To this internal circle, two apertures, or sights, opposite to each other, and without its plane, are adapted, like the sights of an instrument for altitudes. The armillary sphere is complete when consisting of these six circles. The ecliptic and secondaries are to be gra-

[^188]duated as minutely as may be practicable. It is beat to place both secondaries, as by some directed, within the ecliptic (instead of placing one of them without it), that the complete revolution of the outer secondary may not be obetructed by the pins at the poles of the equator. The Meridian, likewise, should be doubled, or made to consist of two circles; the external one graduated, and the internal one moving within it. Thus the pole may be adjusted at its proper elevation above the horizon of any place. The instrument so constructed consists of seven circles.
" It is remarked, that when the circle representing the meridian, is placed in the plane of the true meridian, so that it cuts the plane of the horizon at right angles, and one of the poles of the equator is elevated above the horizon conformably with the latitude of the place; then the motions of all the circles round the poles represent the motions of the universe.
" After rectifying the meridian, if it be wished to observe the sun and moon together, the outer secondary of the ecliptic must be made to intersect the ecliptic at the sun's place for that time: and the solstitial colure must be moved until the place of intersection be opposite to the sun. Both circles are thus adjusted to their true places; or if any other object but the sun, be observed, the colure is turned, until the object be seen in its proper place, on that secondary referred to the ecliptic: the circle representing the ecliptic being at the same time in the plane of the true ecliptic and in its proper situation. Afterwards, the inner secondary is turned towards the moon (or to any star intended to be observed), and the smaller circle within it, bearing the two sights, is turned, until the moon (or to any star intended to be observed), and the smaller circle within it, bearing the two sights, is turned, until the moon be seen in the line of the apertures. The intersection of the
secondary circle and ecliptic is the place of the moon in longitude; and the arc of the secondary, between the aperture and the ecliptic, is the latitude of the moon on either side (north or south)."

The same instrament, as described by Montucla from the text of Ptolemy (1. 3. c. 2.*), consists of six cincles: first, a large circle representing the meridian; next, four circles united together, representing the equator, ecliptic and two colures, and turning within the first circle on the poles of the equator; lastly, a circle turning on the poles of the ecliptic, furnished with sights and nearly touching, on its concave side, the circumference of the ecliptic.

The armillary sphere, described by the Arabian epitomiser, differs, therefore, from Ptolemy's, in omitting the equator and equinoctial colure, and adding an inner secondary of the ecliptic, which, as well as the meridian, is doubled.

According to Lalande, the astrolabe of Ptolemy, from which Tycho Brahe derived his equatorial armillary, consisted only of four circles : two placed at right angles to represent the ecliptic and solstitial colure; a third turning on the poles of the ecliptic and serving to mark longitudes; and a fourth, within the other three, furnished with sights to observe celestial objects and measure their latitudes and longitudes. $\dagger$

Whether the ancient Greeks had any more complicated instrument formed on similar principles, and applicable to astronomical observations, is perhaps uncertain. We have no detailed description of the instrument which Archimedes is said to have devised to represent the phenomena and motions of the heavenly bodies; nor any sufficient

[^189]hint of its construction ;* nor does Cicero's account of the sphere exhibited by Posidonius $\dagger$ suggest a distinct notion of its structure.

Among the Arabs, no addition is at present known to have been made to the armillary sphere, between the period when the Almagest was translated, $\ddagger$ and the time of Alhazen, who wrote a treatise of optics, in which a more complicated instrument than that of Pтolemy, is described. Alfazen's armillary sphere is stated to have been the prototype of Tycio Brahe's;§ but neither the

[^190]§ Adhibuit (Tycho) armillare quoddam instrumentum, quod tamen comperi ego positum et adhibitum olim fuisse ante Tychonem ab Alhazeno, lib. 7. opt. C. 1. prop. 15. et a Vitell. lib. 10. propos. 49. cujus instrumenti astronomice collocati ope atque usu, (vide instrumentum multiplex armillare apud Tycho. in Mechanicis Astronomix), eandem elevationem falsam 9 scrupulorum invenit, quam per alia duo diversa instrumenta compererat.-Bettini Apiaria, vol. ii. p. 41.
original treatise, nor the Latin translation of it, are here procurable; and I am therefore unable to ascertain whether the sphere, mentioned by the Arabian author, resembled that described by Indian astronomers. At all events, he is more modern* than the oldest of the Hindu writers whom I shall proceed to quote. $\dagger$

The construction of the armillary sphere is briefly and rather obscurely taught in the Súrya siddhánta. The following is a literal translation.
" Let the astronomer frame the surprising structure of the terrestrial and celestial spheres.
" Having caused a wooden globe to be made, [of such size] as he pleases, to represent the earth; with a staff for the axis passing through the centre, and exceeding the globe at both ends ; let him place the supporting hoops, $\ddagger$ as also the equinoctial circle.
" Three circles must be prepared, (divided for signs and degrees,) the radius of which must agree with the respective diurnal circles, in proportion to the equinoctial : the three circles should be placed for the Ram and following signs, respectively, at the proper declination in degrees, N. or S.; the same answer contrariwise for the Crab and other signs. In like manner, three circles are placed in the southern hemisphere, for the Balance and the rest, and contrariwise for Capricorn and the remaining signs. Circles are similarly placed on both hoops for the asterisms in both hemispheres, as also for Abhijit; and for the seven Rüshis, Agastya, Brahme, and other stars.

[^191]$\ddagger$ They are the colures.
" In the middle of all these circles is placed the equimoctial. At the intersection of that and the supporting hoops, and distant from each other half the signs, the two equinoxes should be determined; and the two solstices, at the degrees of obliquity from the equinoctial; and the places of the Ram and the rest, in the order of the signs, should be adjusted by the strings of the curve. Another circle, thus passing from equinox to equinox, is named the ecliptic; and by this path, the sun, illuminating worlds, for ever travels. The moon and the other planets are seen deviating from their nodes in the ecliptic, to the extent of their respective greatest latitudes [within the zodiac]."

The author proceeds to notice the relation of the great circles before mentioned to the horizon ; and observes, that, whatever place be assumed for the apex of the sphere, the middle of the heavens for that place is its horizon. He concludes by showing, that the instrument may be made to revolve with regularity, by means of a current of water; and hints, that the appearance of spontaneous motion may be given, by a concealed mechanism, for which quicksilver is to be employed. The manner of using this instrument for astronomical observations has been already explained (p. 324, \&c.)

More ample instructions for framing an armillary sphere are delivered in the Siddhánta śirbmańi. The passage is too long for insertion in this place; and I reserve it for a separate article, on account of the explanations which it requires, and because it leads to the considerations of other topics,* which cannot be sufficiently discussed in the pre-

[^192]sent essay. A brief abstract of Bháscara's description may here suffice. In the centre he places a small globe to represent the earth encompassed with circles for the orbits of the planets arranged like the curved lines in a spider's web. On an axis passing through the poles of the earth, and prolonged on both sides, a sphere, or assemblage of circles, is suspended, by means of rings or tubes adapted to the axis, so that the sphere may move freely on it. This assemblage of circles comprises a horizon and equator adjusted for the place, with a prime vertical and meridian, and two intermediate verticals (intersecting the horizon at the N. E. and S.W. and N.W. and S. E. points); as also the equinoctial colure. Another circle is suspended within this sphere on the poles of the horizon, apparently intended to measure the altitude and amplitude of an object.

Another sphere or assemblage of circles is in like manner suspended on the pole of the equator. It consists of both colures, and the equinoctial, with the ecliptic adjusted to it ; and six circles for the planetary orbits duly adjusted to the ecliptic ; as also six diurnal circles parallel to the equinoctial, and passing through the extremities of the several signs.

This, though not a complete description of Bháscara's armillary sphere, will convey a sufficient notion of the instrument for the purpose of the present comparison; and will justify the remark, that its construction differs greatly from that of the instrument specified by Ртоlemy.

In the description of the armillary sphere cited from the Surya siddhánta, mention is made of several stars not included in the asterisms which mark the divisions of the ecliptic. The following table exhibits the positions of

[^193]those, and of the few other stars which have been particularly noticed by Hindu astronomers.

|  | Brahme siddhanta \& sì'oman'i. |  | Graha laghava. |  | $S$. sárvabhauma. |  | Sarya siddhánta. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Agastya | $\begin{gathered} \text { Lat. } \\ 77^{\bullet} \mathrm{S} . \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { Long. } \\ 87^{\circ} \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Let. } \\ 76^{\circ} \mathrm{S} . \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { Long. } \\ \hline 80^{\circ} \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Lat. } \\ 77^{\circ} 16^{\prime} \mathrm{S} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { Long. } \\ 85^{\circ} \end{array} 5^{\prime}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Lat. } \\ 80^{\circ} \mathrm{S} . \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Looge } \\ & 90^{\circ} \end{aligned}$ |
| Lubdhaca, or the hunter | $40^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ | $86^{\circ}$ | $40^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. | $81^{\circ}$ | $40^{\circ} 4^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$ | $84^{\circ} 36^{\prime}$ | $40^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. | $80^{\circ}$ |
| Agni | - | - | $8^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $53^{\circ}$ | $8^{\circ} 14 \mathrm{~N}$. | $57^{\circ} 4$ | $8^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $52^{\circ}$ |
| Brahmehrrdaya | - | - | $31^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $56^{\circ}$ | $30^{\circ} 49 \mathrm{~N}$ | $58^{\circ} 36^{\prime}$ | $30^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$ | $52^{\circ}+$ |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Prajapati, } \\ \text { or Brahma }\end{array}\right\}$ | - | - | $39^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $61^{\circ}$ | $38^{\circ} 38^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$ | $56^{\circ} 53^{\prime}$ | $38^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$ | $57^{\circ}$ |
| Apámvatsa... | - | - | $3^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $183^{\circ}$ | $3^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $183^{\circ}$ | $3^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $180^{\circ}$ |
| Ápas |  | - | - | - | - | - | $9^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. | $180^{\circ}$ |

The seven Rishis
According to the
Sácalya sankitá.
Lat.
Cratu . . . . . . . . . . $55^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$.
Pulaha . . . . . . . . . $50^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$.
Pulastya . . . . . . . . . . $50^{\circ}$ N.
Atri . . . . . . . . . . . $56^{\circ}$. .
Angiras . . . . . . . . . . $57^{\circ}$.
Vasishf'ha . . . . . . . . . $60^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$.
Maríchi . . . . . . . . . . $60^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$.
Here Agastya is evidently Canopus; as Lubdhaca is Sirius. Brahmehridaya seems to be Capella, which was shown, under that Indian name, to Dr. Hunter at $U_{j j} a-$
$\dagger$ The Sacalya sanhite and Tativa vivéca agree with the Surya siddhanta as to the positions of the first four stars. They omit theother three.
yiní. Agni may be the bright star in the northern horn of the Bull ( $\beta$ Tauri): Prajápati is perhaps the star on the head of the Waggoner ( $\partial$ Aurigæ). The distances of the three last mentioned stars from the ecliptic do not exactly agree with the places stated: but no conspicuous stars are found nearer to the assigned positions : and it may be remarked, that they are all nearly in the longitude of the nacshatra Mrigaśiras, corresponding to the head of Orion; and that the latitude, assigned to them by Hindu astronomers, is as much too small, as that of Mrigaśiras is too great.

The star, mentioned in the Súrya siddhánta under the name of Ápas or water, is doubtless $\delta$ Virginis; and Apámvatsa comprises the nebulous stars in the same constellation, marked b. 1. 2. 3.

Astronomers give rules for computing the heliacal rising and setting of the star Agastya, on account of certain religious ceremonies to be performed when that star appears. Varáha mihira says, 'Agastya is visible at Ujjayinî, when the sun is $7^{\circ}$ short of the sign Virgo.' But he afterwards adds, that ' the star becomes visible, when the sun reaches Hasta, and disappears when the sun arrives at R6hiníl.' His commentator remarks, that the author has here followed earlier writers; and quotes Parásara, saying, ' When the sun is in Hasta, the star rises; and it sets when the sun is in Rohiní?.' Bhat́fotpala cites from the five Siddhántas $\dagger$ a rule of computation, analogous to that which will be forthwith quoted from the Bháswatí; and remarks, that three periods of Agastya's heliacal rising

## - दृश्यते स किल हम्तगते , कें रोहिणीमुपगते

 ॰स्तमुपेति 1[^194]VOL. II.
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are observed, viz. 8th and 15th of Áswina and 8th of Cártica.

The Bháswatí directs the day of Agastya's rising for any particular latitude to be found by the following rule. 'The length of the shadow of a gnomon* at a particular latitude, on the day of the equinox, is multiplied by 25 ; and to the product 900 are added; the sum, divided by 225 , gives in signs and degrees the place of the sun, on the day when Agastya rises or appears in the south, at the close of night.' The commentator adds, that ' the day of the star's setting may be computed by deducting the sum found as above, from 1350 ; the difference reduced to signs and degrees, is the place of the sun, on the day when Agastya sets in the southwest.' According to these rules, Agastya in latitude $26^{\circ} 34^{\prime}$, rises when the sun is in $4^{s} 20^{\circ}$ and sets when the sun is in $1^{s} 10^{\circ}$.

The Graha lághava teaches another method of calculation. The length of the shadow of the gnomon is multiplied by 8 , and the product is added to 98 for the sun's place in degrees, on the day when Agastya rises; or is deducted from 78, to find the sun's place when that star sets. By this rule, the star should rise, in latitude $26^{\circ} 34^{\prime}$, when the sun is at the 26 th degree of the Lion, and should set when the sun quits the Ram. Accordingly, the Bhavishya and the Brahmevaivarta puráńas ordain oblations for Agastya three days before the sun reaches the zodiacal sign Virgo; though the inhabitants of the province of Gaura, as observed in the last-mentioned puráńa, perform this ceremony three days earlier.

In regard to the passages above quoted, it may be remarked, that the rule, stated in the Bháswatí, implies the distance of three signs, from the beginning of Aries, to

[^195]Agastya, and supposes the star to become visible when distant one sign from the sun. But the rule delivered in the Graha lághava places the star at the distance of $88^{\circ}$ from the beginning of Mésha, and supposes it visible in the right sphere, when $10^{\circ}$ distant from the sun. According to the quotation from Parisara, the right ascension of the star must have been, in his time, not less than $100^{\circ}$ reckoned from the beginning of Mésha; and the star, rising cosmically, became visible in the oblique sphere, at the distance of $60^{\circ}$ from the sun; and disappeared, setting acronychally, when within that distance. Making allowance, therefore, for the star's proper motion, and change of declination and right ascension, it remains probable, that Parisara's rule was framed for the north of India, at a period when the solstitial points were, as stated by that author, in the middle of Aśléshá and beginning of Dkanisht'ha.*

I have purposely reserved for separate consideration the seven Rushis, who give name to seven stars in Ursa major ; not only because their positions are not stated by Brahmegupta, Bháscara, and the Súrya siddhárita, but also because the authors, who give their positions, ascribe to them a particular motion, or variation of longitude, different from other stars, and apparently unconnected with the precession of the equinoxes.

Varáha mihira has a chapter in the Váráhi sankitá expressly on the subject of this supposed motion of the Rüshis. He begins by announcing the intention of stating their revolution conformably with the doctrine of Vríddha Garga, and proceeds as follows: 'When king Yudhisht'hira ruled the earth, the Munis were in Maghá, and the period of the era of that king is 2526 years. They

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\text { - As. Res., vol. ii. p. } 393 .
$$

2 A 2
remain for a hundred years in each asterism, being connected with that particular nacshatra, to which, when it rises in the east, the line of their rising is directed.*

The commentator, Bhaffotpala, supports the text of his author by quotations from Vryddha Garga and Cásyapa. 'At the junction of the Cali and Droápara ages,' says Garga, ' the virtuous sages, who delight in protecting the people, stood at the asterism, over which the Pitrís preside.' That is at Maghá. 'The mighty sages,' says Cásyapa, ' abide during a hundred years in each asterism, attended by the virtuous Arundhati.'

The author next states the relative situation of the seven Rishis, with Arundhatí near her husband Vasisbeiba; and the remainder of the chapter is devoted to astrology.

The revolution of the seven Rïshis, and its periods, are noticed in puránas. The following passage is from the Śrí Bhágavata. $\dagger$
' From your birth (Paricshit is addressed by Śuca) to the inauguration of $\mathrm{NANDA}^{\mathrm{A}} 1115$ years will elapse.

## - आसन्मघामु मुनयःशासतिपृथ्वींयुधिष्टिरे नृपतो ? <br> षड्र्विकपंचड्वियुतःशककालस्तस्यराज्यस्य ? <br> एकेकस्मिन्ग्रृक्षेशतंशतंतेचरन्तिवर्षाणां? <br> प्रागुदयतो ง्त्तबिबराद्ध डूदयंतन्तयुत्ता: ๆ

According to a different reading noticed by the commentator, the concluding hemistich signifies " they constantly rise in the north-east; together with Arundiati."
प्रागुनरतथयेतेसदोदयंतेससाधवीकाः ।

[^196]' Of the seven Rishis, two are first perceived, rising in the sky ; and the asterism, which is observed to be at night even with the middle of those two stars, is that, with which the $R$ Rushis are united, and they remain so during a hundred years of men. In your time, and at this moment, they are situated in Maghá.
'When the splendour of Vishíu, named Cry̌shńa, departed for heaven, then did the Cali age, during which men delight in $\sin$, invade the world. So long as he continued to touch the earth with his holy feet, so long the Cali age was unable to subdue the world.
' When the seven Rĭshis were in Maghá, the Cali age comprising 1200 [divine] years* began ; and when, from Maghá, they shall reach Purváshádha, then will this Cali age attain its growth under Nanda and his successors.'

The commentator Śsididara swám remarks, that the constellation, consisting of seven stars, is in the form of a wheeled carriage. Marichi, he observes, is at the extremity ; and next to him, Vasisif'ina in the arched part of the yoke; and beyond him Angiras: next to whom are four stars in a quadrangle : Atri at the northeast corner; south of him Pulastya; next to whom is Pulaha; and Cratu is north of the last. Such being their relative position, the two stars, which rise first, are Pulaha and Cratu; and whichever asterism is in a line south from the middle of those stars, is that with which the seven Rǐshis are united; and they so remain for 100 years.

A similar passage is found in the Vishriu purária,† and a similar exposition of it is given by the commentator Ratnagarbiat but the period, there stated to elapse between the birth of Paricshit and the inauguration of NANDA, is 1015 years only.

[^197]The Matsya puráńa contains a passage to the like effect ; but allows 1050 years from the birth of Paricshit to the inauguration of Marípadma; and the seven Rüshis are stated as being in a line with the constellation sacred to fire (that is Crïtticá), 836 years later, in the time of the Andhra kings.

In the Brahme siddhánta of Sacalya, denominated from its reputed author Sácalya sanhitá, the supposed motion of the seven Rishis is thus noticed:* 'At the commencement of the yuga, Cratu was near the star sacred to Vishńu (Śravańá), at the beginning of the asterism. Three degrees east of him, was Pulaia; and Pulastya, at ten degrees from this; Atri followed at three degrees from the last ; and Angiras, at eight degrees from him ; next came Vabishf'ba, at the distance of seven degrees; and lastly, Marichi at ten. Their motion is eight liptas (minutes) in a year. Their distances from the ecliptic, north, were respectively $55^{\circ}, 50^{\circ}, 50^{\circ}, 56^{\circ}$, $57^{\circ}, 60^{\circ}$, and $60^{\circ}$. For, moving in the north into different positions, the sages employ 2700 years in revolving through the assemblage of asterisms; and hence their positions may be easily known at any particular time.'

Lalla, cited by Muniswara in his gloss on the Sírbmañi, says, ' If the number of years of the Cali age, less fourteen, be divided by 100 , the quotient, as the wise declare, shows the asterisms traversed by Marichi and other celestial sages, beginning from the asterism of Vi ranchi (ВванмA).'

Here lalla is generally understood to mean Rbhiní, which is sacred to Prajápati (or Brahma). But Muní́wara has remarked, in another place, that Lalla may intend Ablijit, which is sacred to Vidhi or Brahmá;

[^198]and consequently may mean Śravanáa, of which Abhijit forms a part: and thus Lalla and Sácalya may be reconciled.

Most of the commentators on the Súrya siddhánta and Śirómańi are silent on the subject of the seven Rüshis. But Nrisinha, in his várticá to the Vásaná bháshya, or gloss on the Sirbmaní, quotes and expounds the Sácalya sanhitá, and rejects $\mathrm{V}_{\text {arána's }}$ rule of computation, as disagreeing with puráñas. Muniśwara, in his commentary on the Sirbmaní, cites some of the passages above noticed, and remarks, that Bhascara has omitted this topic on account of contradictory opinions concerning it, and because it is of no great use.

The same author, in his own compilation entitled Siddhánta sárvabhauma, has entered more fully into this subject. He observes, that the seven Rǐshis are not, like other stars, attached by spikes to the solid ring of the ecliptic, but revolve in small circles round the northern pole of the ecliptic, moving by their own power in the etherial sphere above Saturn, but below the sphere of the stars. He places the Russhis in the same relative positions, which Sácalya had assigned to them; states in other terms the same distances from the ecliptic, and the same annual motion ; and directs their place to be computed by deducting 600 from the years of the Cali age, doubling the remainder and dividing by fifteen : the quotient, in degrees, is divided by 30 , to reduce it into signs. Munísiwara supports this mode of calculation on the authority of SAcalya, against Varáha mifira and lalla; and affirms, that it agrees with the phenomena, as observable at the period of his compilation. It appears, however, to be a correction of SÁcalya's rule.

Camalácara, in the Tatwavivéca, notices the opinion delivered in the Siddhánta sárvabhauma; but observes,
that no such motion of the stars is perceptible. Remarking, however, that the authority of the puránias and sanhitás, which affirm their revolution, is incontrovertible, he reconciles faith and experience by saying, that the stars themselves are fixed; but the seven Rishis are invisible deities, who perform the stated revolution in the period specified.

If Camalácara's notion be adopted, no difficulty remains: yet it can hardly be supposed, that Varíha mihira and lalla intended to describe revolutions of invisible beings. If then it be allowed, that they have attributed to the stars themselves an imaginary revolution grounded on an erroneous theory, a probable inference may be thence drawn as to the period when those authors lived, provided one position be conceded; namely, that the rules, stated by them, gave a result not grossly wrong at the respective periods when they wrote. Indeed it can scarcely be supposed, that authors, who, like the celebrated astronomers in question, were not mere compilers and transcribers, should have exhibited rules of computation, which did not approach to the truth, at the very period when they were proposed.

If this reasoning be admitted, it would follow, that Varáha mihira composed the Váráhí sanhitá about 2800 years after the period assigned by him to the commencement of the reign of Yudhishf'hira, or near the close of the third century after the expiration of Yudisisit'hira's era as defined by him. For the circle of declination passing between Cratu and Pulaha (the two first of the seven $R \check{s}$ shis), and cutting the ecliptic only $2^{\circ}$ short of the beginning of Maghá, was the solstitial colure, when the equinox was near the beginning of Crǐtticá ; and such probably was the reason of that line being noticed by ancient Hindu astronomers. It agrees with the solstitial
olure on the sphere of Eudoxus, as described by Hipparchus.* A similar circle of declination, passing between the same stars, intersected the ecliptic at the beginning of Maghá when the solstitial colure was at the middle of Aśléshá; and a like circle passed through the next asterism, when the equinox corresponded with the first point of Mésha. An astronomer of that period, if he were apprised of the position assigned to the same stars by Gargat , reputed to have been the priest of Cryshía and the Páńłus, might conclude with Varíha mibira, that one revolution had been completed, and that the stars had passed through one nacshatra of the second revolution. In corroboration of this inference respecting the age of Varatam mitira's astrological treatise, it may be added, that he is cited by name in the Pancha tantra, the original of the fables of Pilpay, which were translated for Noshirvin more than 1200 years ago. $\dagger$

The theory being wholly unfounded, Varáha mihira's rule of computation soon ceased to agree with the phenomena, and other rules have been successively introduced by different authors, as Lalla, Sícalya, and lastly,

[^199]Muniśwara; whose rule, devised less than two hundred years ago, does not yet grossly betray its insufficiency.

This pretended revolution of the stars of Ursa Major is connected with two remarkable epochas in Indian chronology; the commencement of the Cali yuga, or sinful age, in the reign of Yudhishf'hira; and its prevalence, on the failure of the succession of Cshatriya princes, and establishment of a different dynasty, 1015 years after the birth of Paricshit, according to the Vishńu puránía; or 1115 years, according to the Bhágavata; but 1498 years, if a correction, which has been proposed by Śrídiara swimi and some other commentators, be admitted. This subject has been already noticed by Capt. Wilford in his Essay on Vicramiditya;* and it is, therefore, unnecessary to enlarge upon it in this place.

It has been noticed, towards the beginning of the present essay, that the principal star of each nacshatra, is denominated Ybgatárá. Perhaps it may not be superfluous to cantion the reader against confounding these ybga stars with the yogas, of which a list is inserted in Sir William Jones's Treatise on the Indian Zodiac. $\dagger$ They are mentioned by him as divisions of the ecliptic: but it will presently appear, that they cannot in strictness be so denominated. Their principal purpose regards astrology; but they are also employed in regulating certain moveable feasts; and they are of such frequent use, that every Indian almanac contains a column specifying the ybga for each day, with the hour of its termination.

The yoga is nothing else than a mode of indicating the sum of the longitudes of the sun and moon. The rule for its computation, as given in the Súrya siddhánta, Bháswatí, and Graha lághava, directs, that the longitude of the

[^200]sun be added to the longitude of the moon; and the sum, reduced to minutes, is to be divided by 800 (the number of minutes in $13^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$ ): the quotient exhibits the elapsed yogas, counted from Vishcumbha.* It is obvious, therefore, that the yogas are twenty-seven divisions of $360^{\circ}$ of a great circle, measured upon the ecliptic. But, if they be represented on a circle, it must be a moveable one in the plane of the ecliptic.

Astrologers also reckon twenty-eight ybgas, which correspond to the twenty-eight nacshatras or divisions of the moon's path ; varying, however, according to the day of the week. As the Indian almanacs sometimes appropriate a column to the moon's $y$ bga for each day, I shall insert in a note a list of these yogas, with the rule by which they are determined. $\dagger$

[^201]Another topic, relative to the zodiac, and connected with astrology, remains to be noticed. I allude to the Dréshcánas answering to the Decani of European astrologers. The Hindus, like the Egyptians and Babylonians, from whom that vain science passed to the Greeks and Romans, divide each sign into three parts, and allot to every such part a regent exercising planetary influence under the particular planet whom he there represents.

The description of the thirty-six Dréshcáñas is given towards the close of Varíha mihira's treatise on the casting of nativities, entitled Vrĭhat játaca. It is here translated conformably with the gloss of Bhaffotpala: omitting, however, some variations in the reading of the text, which are noticed by him; but which can be of no use, unless occasion should arise for reference to them in comparing the description of the dréshcánias with some amulet or ancient monument in which the Decani may be supposed to be figured. Even for that purpose, the following description will probably suffice.

1. [Mars] A man with red eyes, girt round the waist
nominated Carana; and consist of seven variable and four invariable, as in the subjoined list:

| Variable Carañas. | Invariable Carańas. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1. Bava. | 1. Sacuni. |
| 2. Bálava. | 2. Chatushpád. |
| 3. Caulava. | 3. Naga. |
| 4. Taitila. | 4. Cintughna. |
| 5. Gara. |  |
| 6. Van'ij. |  |
| 7. Visht'i. |  |

They answer successively to half a tit'hi or lunar day; Cintughna being always assigned to the first half of the first tit'hi; and the variable carainas afterwards succeeding each other regularly, through eight repetitions: they are followed by the three remaining invariable carañas, which conclude the month; Chatushpád and Nága appertaining to Amávásya or the new moon, and Śacuni being appropriated to the latter half of the preceding tit'hi.
with a white cloth, of a black complexion, as formidable as able to protect, holds a raised battle-axe.
2. [The Sun] A female, clad in red apparel, with her mind fixed on wearing ornaments, having a mare's head, and a belly like a jar, thirsty and resting on one foot, is exhibited by Yavana as the figure of the d́réshcáría in the middle of Mésha.*
3. [Jupiter] A fierce and wrathful man, conversant with arts, of a tawny complexion, solicitous of action, but unsteady in his resolves; holds in his hands a raised stick, and wears red clothes. He is the third in the tripatite division of Mésha.
4. [Venus] A woman with hair clipped and curled, a body shaped like a jar, her clothes burnt, herself thirsty, disposed to eat, and fond of ornaments : such is the figure of the first in Vrishabha.
5. [Mercury] A man with the head of a goat, and a shoulder like a bull, clothed in dirty apparel, skilful in regard to the plough and the cart, acquainted with field, grain, house, and kine, conversant with arts; and in disposition, voracious.
6. [Saturn] A man with a body vast as an elephant's, and feet great as a Sarabha's, $\dagger$ with white teeth and a tawny body, his mind busied upon the wool of wild sheep, occupies the extremity of the sign Taurus.
7. [Mercury] Such as are conversant with the subject, declare the first in the tripartite partition of the third sign, to be a woman fond of working with the needle, beautiful, delighting in ornaments, childless, amorous, and with her arms elevated.

[^202]8. [Venus] In the middle of the sign Gemini is a man, with the face of a garuda,* standing in a grove: he is an archer clad in armour, and holds a bow ; he meditates on sport, his children, ornaments, and wealth.
9. [Saturn] At the end of the sign Gemini is a man decorated with ornaments, having as many gems as the ocean contains; clad in armour and furnished with bow and quiver; skilled in dance, music, and song, and practising poetry.
10. [The Moon] The wise declare the first in Cancer to be an animal with the body of an elephant, the feet of a Sarabha, a boar's head and horse's neck, standing in a grove under a sandal-wood tree, $\dagger$ and upholding leaves, root, and fruit.
11. [Mars] In the middle of the sign Cancer, a woman, in prime of youth, with blossoms of lotus on her head, attended by a serpent, cries while standing in a forest, resting against the branch of a palás $a \ddagger$ tree.
12. [Jupiter] Last in Cancer is a man with his head inclined; he is decorated with golden ornaments, and, embarking on a vessel and encompassed by serpents [twined round him,] he traverses the ocean to seek ornaments for his wife.
13. [The Sun] A vulture and shakal stand on a cotton tree:§ a dog is near: and a man, in a squalid dress, laments for his father and mother. This representation is pronounced to be the first of the Lion.
14. [Jupiter] A man formed like a horse, bearing on his head a garland of yellowish white flowers, wears a leather dress: unconquered like a lion; armed with a bow, and

[^203]distinguished by a hooked nose; he is placed in the middle of Leo.
15. [Mars] The third in the tripartite division of Leo, is a man having the head of a bear, with a long beard and curled hair ; in disposition similar to an ape; and holding a staff, fruits, and flesh.
16. [Mercury] A damsel, bearing a jar filled with blossoms, (her person clothed in apparel soiled with dirt,) solicitous for the union of dress with opulence, is going towards the family of her spiritual parent: such is the first of Virgo.
17. [Saturn] A man of a dark complexion, with a cloth on his head, holds a pen, and is casting up accounts of receipts and disbursements : he bears a large bow, and his body is covered with hair: he is placed in the middl of the sign.
18. [Vends] A woman of a fair complexion, dressed in bleached silk, tall, holding in her hand a jar and ladle; is devoutly going towards a temple of the gods. The wise pronounce this to be the last of Virgo.
19. [Venus] A man is proceeding along the middle of a highway; holding a balance, and having weights in his hand; he is skilled in measuring and meting, and meditates on commodities and their prices. The Yavanas declare this form to be first of Libra.*
20. [SATURN] A man with the head of a vulture, carrying a water-pot, is anxious to proceed, being hungry and thirsty ; in thought, he visits his wife and son. He is middlemost of the balance-bearer (Libra.)

[^204]21. [Mercury] A man, in figure like an ape, adorned with gems, bearing a golden quiver and armour, and carrying fruits and flesh, is scaring deer, in a forest: such is the figure exhibited by the Yavanas.*
22. [MARs] A woman, without clothes or ornaments, comes from the great ocean, to the shore; she has fallen from her place ; round her feet are serpents entwined; but she is pleasing : such is the first of the sign Scorpio.
23. [Jupiter] A woman, with a body like a tortoise and a jar, and with serpents entwined round her person; is solicitous to prepare local comforts for her husband. This figure the wise pronounce to be the middle one of Scorpio.
24. [The Moon] The last of the Scorpion is a lion with a large and stooping head resembling that of a tortoise ; he guards the place where sandal-wood grows, terrifying dogs, deer, boars, and shakals.
25. [JUPITER] An animal with the body of a horse and head of a man, holding a larye bow, stands near a hermitage and devoutly guards the implements of sacrifice: such is the first of the three divisions of the bow (Sagittarius.)
26. [Mars] A pleasing female, of golden complexion like the champaca, $\dagger$ moderately handsome, sits on a throne, distributing marine gems. This is described as the middle division of the bow.
27. [The Sun] A man with a long beard, of a complexion yellow like the champaca, is sitting on a throne with a staff in his hand: he wears silk raiment and 2 deer's skin : such is the third figure of the ninth sign.
28. [Saturn] A man, of a terrible aspect, with the

[^205]body of a hog, hairy, having tusks like a Macara,* holds a yoke, a net, and fetters. He is first of Capricorn.
29. [VEnus] In the middle of Macara is a woman skilled in music, with eyes large like the petals of the lotos, and with a dark complexion. She seeks various things; she is decorated with jewels; and wears metallic ornaments in her ears.
30. [Mercury] A man, shaped like a Cinnara, $\dagger$ clothed in a woollen cloth, and furnished with quiver, bow, and armour, bears on his shoulder a jar adorned with gems: he is last of the sign Macara.
31. [The Sun] The first of the jar (Aquarius) is a man with the head of a vulture, clothed in silk and wearing an antelope's hide with a woollen cloth : his mind is busied in obtaining oil, ardent spirits, water, and food.
32. [Mercury] In a burnt carriage, a woman clad in soiled apparel, bearing vessels on her head, is collecting metals in a forest containing cotton trees.
33. [VENUS] A man of a dark complexion, with hairy ears, adorned with a diadem, carries and transports vases with articles of metal, and with bark, leaves, gum, and fruit. He is last of Cumbha.
34. [Jupiter] The first of the fish (Pisces) navigates the sea in search of ornaments for his wife : he has jewels, and his hands are full of vessels used in sacrifice, together with pearls, gems, and shells.
35. [The Moon] A woman, surpassing in complexion the blossom of the champaca, ascends a ship with lofty masts and flags; and approaches the shore of the sea, accompanied by her retinue. This is declared by sages to be the second in the tripartite division of Mina.

- A sea monster. Perhaps the Narwhal may be intended.
+ A human figure with the head of a horse.
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36. [Mars] Near a cavern, in a forest, a naked man, with serpents entwined round his body, and tormented by robbers and fire, laments. He is the last of the fish.

Arabian astronomers in like manner divide each sign of the Zodiac into three parts, denominated Wajeh (رجه) or in the plural $W u j u ́ h$ (وجور), which severally belong to the different planets* thence called Rab ul wajeh. The proper import of the term (وجه) is face or countenance ; agreeing with the Greek $\pi \rho \circ \sigma \sigma \pi o v$, which is similarly employed in this acceptation. $\dagger$

The near correspondence of the dréshcánas with the Decani of Roman authors and $\Delta$ eravoi of Grecian writers will be evident from the following passage of Manilius, supported by quotations from other authors, which I shall insert on the faith of Saumaise; $\ddagger$ the original works, from which they are taken, not being here procurable.

Manilius says§
Quam partem deciman dixere Decania gentes;
A numero nomen positum est, quod partibus astra
Condita triceuis propria sub sorte feruntur,
Et tribuunt denas in se coeuntibus astris,
Inque vicem terris habitantur sidera Signis.
Hephestion expressly declares,|| that "each sign of the zodiac is divided into three Decani comprising ten

[^206]degrees each: the first division of Aries is named Chontare; the second Chontachre, and the third Sicet."

Firmicus differs in the names, and does not allow ten complete degrees to each Decanus. Thus, in the sign Aries, the three first degrees are, according to him, unappropriated; the five next belong to the first Decanus Asitan; the next nine are vacant; and the four following appertain to the second Decanus Senacher; five degrees are again unoccupied; and the four last belong to the third Decanus Sentacher.*

We learn from Psellus that the several Decani were figured with different attributes and dresses; and, from Demophilus and Firmicus $\ddagger$ that they represent the planets. The first appertained to Mars : the second to the Sun ; and the third to Venus (the Hindu author says, Jupiter).

This astrological notion was confessedly received from foreign nations. The doctrine seems to be ascribed by Firmicus to Nerepso, king of Egypt:§ and Psellus cites a Babylonian author, whom he calls Teucer; and who is also noticed by Porphyrius : besides, the names of

[^207]the Decani, stated by Hephestion and Firmicus, are decidedly barbarous. It was not, therefore, without reason, that Saumaise and Kircher sought a derivation of the word Decanus itself from a foreign language. It cannot be deduced, as Scaliger proposes, from the similar term for an inferior officer commanding ten men;* since this office and its designation were first introduced later than the time of Manilius, by whom the astrological term is employed; and Porphyrius expressly affirms that the word was used by those whom he denominates ' ancients.' $\dagger$ Huet, not concurring in either of the opinions above-mentioned, supposes the term to have been corruptly formed by the astrologers of Alexandria from the Greek numeral with a Latin termination. ${ }_{\ddagger}$ If this be admitted, it still remains not improbable that some affinity of sound, in the Egyptian or in the Chaldaic name, may have suggested the formation of this corrupt word.

The Sanscrit name apparently comes from the same source. I do not suppose it to be originally Sanscritt; since, in that language, it bears no etymological signification. For the same reason, it is likely, that the astrological doctrine itself may be exotic in India. One branch of divination, entitled Tájaca, has been confessedly borrowed from the Arabians: and the technical terms used in it, are, as I am informed by Hindu astrologers, Arabic. The casting of nativities, though its practice is of more ancient date in India, may also have been received from Western astrologers: Egyptians, Chaldeans, or even Greeks. If so, it is likely that the Hindus may have received astronomical hints at the same time.

[^208]By their own acknowledgment,* they have cultivated astronomy for the sake of astrology; and they may have done so with the aid of hints received from the same quarter, from which their astrology is derived. In the present instance Varíha mifira himself, as interpreted by his commentator, quotes the Yavanas (meaning perhaps Grecian authors), in a manner which indicates, that the description of the dréshcáñas is borrowed from them.

The name of Yavanáchárya, who is cited by Bhat́t́trala, would not be alone decisive. He is frequently quoted by Hindu astronomers : and it is possible, though by no means certain, that, under this name, a Grecian or an Arabian author may be intended. To determine that point, it will be requisite (unless the work attributed to him be recovered) to collect all the passages, in which Yavanachárya is cited by Sanscrǔt authors; and to compare the doctrines ascribed to him with those of the Grecian and Arabian writers on astronomy. Not being prepared for such a disquisition, I shall dismiss this subject for the present, without offering any positive opinion on the question, which has been here proposed.

[^209]XV.

On the Notion of the Hindu Astronomers concerning the Precession of the Equinoxes and Motions of the Planets.
[From the Asiatic Researches, vol. xii. p. 209-250. Calcutta, 1816. 4to.]

In an essay on the Indian and Arabian divisions of the zodiac, inserted in the ninth volume of the Asiatic Re searches, I adverted to a passage of Bhiscara, on the precession of the equinoxes, and intimated an intention of further noticing this subject in a separate essay.* The passage which I had then in view, occurs in Bhascara's description of the armillary sphere. $\dagger$ It appears to me deserving of distinct examination for the information which it contains, the difficulties which it presents, and the variety of topics which it suggests. I shall here quote the original, and add a verbal translation.

## विषुवत्क्रान्तिवलययोस्सम्पातःक्रान्तिपातःस्यातू । तद्नगणा: सोरोत्ता ब्यस्ता अयुतत्र्यं कल्पे ๆ१૭॥ अयनचलनं यदुतं मुञ्जालाद्ये: स लवायं । तत्पक्षे तद्धगणाकल्पे गोड़ग्तुनन्दगोचन्द्रा: श9 1 ॥

'The intersection of the ecliptic and equinoctial circles is the Crántipáta, or intersecting point of the sun's path.

[^210]Its revolutions, as declared on the authority of Súrya (Sauroctáh), are retrogade three myriads in a calpa. This is the same with the motion of the solstice, as affirmed by Munjíla, and others. But, according to their doctrine, its revolutions are 199, 669 in a calpa.'

This is the very passage to which the commentator on the Súrya siddhánta, cited by Mr. Davis,* alludes, where he says, ' the meaning of Bhiscara íchárya was not that Sfrya [in the Súrya siddhánta,] gave 30,000 as the revolutions of the places of the colures, in a calpa; the name he used being Saura not Súrya, and applied to some other book.'

It is certainly true, as here observed by this commentator, that Bháscara's quotation does not agree with the text of the Súrya siddhánta, which expresses, ' The circle of the asterisms moves eastward thirty scores in a yuga. Multiplying the number of elapsed days by that, and dividing by the terrestrial days, [which compose the cycle,] the quantity obtained is an arc, which, multiplied by three, and divided by ten, $\dagger$ gives degrees (anśa) termed ayana, [or the place of the colure.]'

## त्रिंशत्कृत्यो युगे भानां चक्रं प्रावपरिलम्बते । तडुणाद्रूदिनेर्भक्ताद्युगणाद्यद्वापते 1 तद्दोस्त्रिघ्ना दशाप्तांशा विक्षेया अयनाभिधा थ

Here the number of revolutions is 600 in a yuga, answering to 600,000 in a calpa; and not, as stated by Bháscara, 30,000 . But the commentator's mode of reconciling the contradiction, by supposing a different book from the Súrya siddhánta to have been intended, is incom-

[^211]patible with Bháscara's own explanation of his text in the Vásaná bháshya, containing annotations by himself on his own treatise. He there says in express words, 'the revolutions of the intersecting point of the sun's path are stated in the Súrya siddhánta, as amounting to 30,000 in a calpa.'*

## अतोءस्य क्रान्तिपातझ्य भगणा:कल्पे sयुतत्र्यं तावत्मूर्यसिद्धान्तोत्ता: १

His commentator, Munísiwara, has therefore recourse to other expedients for reconciling the contradiction between Bháscara's quotation and the text of the Súrya siddhánta. Some, he observes, have proposed to read niyuta 'a hundred thousand,' for ayuta 'a myriad.' $\dagger$ Others have supposed the calpa to be a twentieth part only of the period usually so denominated. The commentator further suggests the resolution of the term vyastáh, translated ' retrograde,' into vi for vinśati ' twenty,' and astáh, which he makes to signify ' multiplied,' and expounds the phrase, ' thirty thousand multiplied by twenty.' But, dissatisfied with this and with another exposition, by which trayam 'three' is construed into 'sixty,' he gives the

[^212]preference to an equally strained interpretation, which divides the sentence into two members: 'its revolutions are declared by SGrya, and [according to a different authority] are retrogade three myriads in a calpa.'

However unsatisfactory these explanations of the text may be, they prove the concurrence of the commentators of both works, in the received interpretation of the obscure passage of the Súrya siddhánta, which is the subject of their discussion. That interpretation is supported by corresponding passages of the Soma siddhánta, Laghu vasisht'ha, and Sácalya sanhitá, in which the number of six hundred revolutions is explicitly stated:* as well as by other quotations, which clearly demonstrate, that a libration of the equinoxes, at the rate of six hundred in a yuga, was there meant. For, in all the passages quoted, the revolution, as it is termed, of the equinoctial points, consists in a libration of them within the limits of twenty-seven degrees east, and as many west, of the beginnings of Aries and Libra : and that such is the meaning conveyed in the text of the Súrya siddhánta, is distinctly shown by the

## - युगे षद्शातकृत्वाहि भचर्रं पाग्विलंबते । तनुणो भूदिनेर्भक्नो दुगुणो -यनखेचरः ः Soma siddhanta. तत्पशान्वलितं चक्रम् इल्येतदेकंक प्राक्तलनं युगे तानि च षद्शातं ः

Sácalya sanhitá, i. 286-291.
अब्दाःवखर्नुमिभीज्यास्तद्दोत्विध्न दशाहता ॥
Laghu vasisht'ha siddhánta, cited by Dádíbhíi and Nrĭsinha, on the Surya siddbanta.
commentator cited by Mr. Davis,* as well as by the other commentators on that work.

The same doctrine is taught in the Párásara siddhánta, as quoted by Muniśwara; and, if we may rely on the authority of a quotation by this author from the works of Áryabhat́fa, it was also maintained by that ancient astronomer : but, according to the first-mentioned treatise, the number of librations amounts to 581,709 , and, according to the latter, 578,159 in a calpa, instead of 600,000 ; and Áryabhat́t́áa has stated the limits of the libration at $24^{\circ}$ instead of $27^{\circ} . \dagger$

Bháscara himself, adopting the doctrine for which he quotes the authority of Munjála, in the passage above cited, mentions a complete revolution of the places of the colures through the twelve signs of the zodiac, at the rate of 5954 lutions in a calpa. Having computed upon the same principle, the quantity of the precession in his own time
 sake of facility in calculation, assumes in his practical treatise, named Carańa cutúhala, the actual precession in whole numbers at eleven degrees, and allows the annual motion to be taken at one minute. $\ddagger$ The time for which this
> - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 267. The commentator is Nrĭsinha. + वतुर्वशशत्यंश्रैंक्रमुमयतोगच्केत्त थ

Áryabiaíta, in the Áryashtaśata; quoted by Munistara. It is especially necessary to distinguish the particular work of this author, to which reference is made: for Brahmegupta reproaches him for his inconsistency in affirming revolutions of the nodes in the Áryashtasata, which he denied in the Daśa gítica. It is therefore probable, that the libration of the equinoxes (considered as nodes) for which the first-mentioned work is quoted, may not be stated in the other.
$\ddagger$ Muniśwara, in his commentary on the Sírománi.
computation was made, is the same with the epocha of the Carańa cutúhala;* which is the year 1105 Sáca, $\dagger$ thirtythree years after the Śirómańi was completed. $\ddagger$

Bháscara's authority, supporting that of Munjála, and countenanced by Vishíu chandra's, § has not availed with Indian astronomers. Even his commentator Muníśwara rejects the notion of a complete revolution; and, in his own treatise entitled Siddhánta sárvabhauma, asserts the doctrine of libration, and attempts to refute the other opinion, not indeed by argument, but in deference to the Súrya siddhánta and other authorities to which it is opposed. Upon the same ground, Camalácara in the Siddhánta tatwavivéca says, 'The degrees of the colures, as stated by Munjála, and taught in the Śirbmańi, contrary to what is declared by Arca (Súrya) and others, from not rightly understanding what was by them declared,

[^213]must be rejected by the wise.' He certainly here expresses the prevalent opinion of the Hindu astronomers, which is decidedly in favour of a libration of the places of the colures.

Besides Munjála mentioned by Bháscara, the only other ancient author, whose name I find quoted for a complete revolution of the equinoctial and solstitial points, is Vishíu chandra, from whose works a passage is cited by Prit'hudacaswami, declaratory of a solstitial yuga, or period of the ayana. The text is corrupt in respect of the lowest digits of the number; and, having found no other quotation of it, I shall not attempt to state the period from a conjectural emendation of this passage.

It is necessary to observe, that some of the ancient writers on astronomy have not admitted a periodical motion of the equinoxes. This is adverted to by Bháscara himself,* who instances Brahmegupta. Thereason of that omission or denial is supposed by Bháscarat to have been the inconsiderable quantity of the deviation or precession, not then remarkable, and consequently unheeded by Brahmegupta; since whose time it is become sensible, and therefore it is now taken into account. $\ddagger$ Bháscaba next inquires 'why Brahmegupta and the rest did not

[^214]- Why has it not been stated by Brahmeaupta and other skilful astronomers? It was not perceived by them, because it was then inconsiderable. But it is perceived by the moderns, because it is now considerable. Accordingly it is concluded, that there is motion, [of the solstice.'] Bhíscara in the Vásaná bháshya.
nevertheless state it on the strength of authority, since it had been declared in the Saura siddhánta; in like manner as the numbers of revolutions, the periphery of epicycles, \&c. ? ${ }^{*}$

He replies: ' In mathematical science holy tradition is authority, so far ouly as it agrees with demonstration.' He goes on to say, 'Such motion, as results from the assigned revolutions, by which, places being calculated agree with those which are observed, must be admitted, whether taught by a holy sage or by a temporal teacher. If then the same places are deducible from other revolutions, which of the assigned motions is the true one? The answer is, whichever agrees with present observation must be admitted. But, if in process of time, the difference become great, then men of genius, like Brahmegupta, will arise, who will acknowledge such motions as agree with present observation, and compose books (śástras) conformable thereto. Accordingly this mathematical science has no end in eternal time.'

But Brahmegupta's commentator, expounding a passage of this author, $\dagger$ which he considers to be levelled against those who affirmed a periodical revolution of the solstitial points, and which does deny such a revolution, and declares the solstice to be invariable, because the longest day and shortest night occur constantly at the end of Mit'huna or Gemini, adverts, in the course of his exposition of the text, to passages which place the southern and northern solstice respectively in the middle of Aśléshá, and beginning of Dhanisht'há, and proceeds to remark 'this

## - यद्येवमनुपत्न्धो॰पि सोरसिद्धान्तोतत्वादागमप्रामाणयेनभगणपरिध्यादिवत्कथंतेन्नोत्तः n

+ Ch. ii.
only proves a shifting of the solstice, not numerous revolutions of it through the ecliptic.' His notion appears then to have been, that his author was aware of the fact of a change in the positions of the solstitial and equinoctial points, but did not admit the inference that the motion must be periodical.

From all that has been said, it appears, that some of the most celebrated astronomers, as Brahmegupta, have been silent on the subject of a change in the places of the colures, or have denied their regular periodical motion. That others, as Munjála and Bháscara (we may add Vishíu chandra) have asserted a periodical revolution of the places of the colures. But that the greater number of celebrated writers, and all the modern Hindu astronomers, have affirmed a libration of the equinoctial points.

The earliest known author who is cited for the support of this doctrine, as far as present research has gone, is Áryabhaft́a, who is undoubtedly more ancient than Brahmegupta; for he is repeatedly quoted in the Brahme sp'huta siddhánta which is ascribed to Brahmegupta, and which there is every reason to consider genuine, since the text of the book accords with the quotations from that celebrated astronomer to be found in treatises of various dates.

I purposely omit in this place the Súrya siddlhánta, Soma, Sácalya, Vasisht'ha and Párásara, because their authenticity and age are subjects of question or of controversy.

Relying then upon the quotation from the work of Áryabhaffa, and on the tendency of Bháscara's observations both in his text and notes, it may be inferred, that the notion of a libration of the equinoxes is of some antiquity in India: since Brahmegupta, by whom Áryabhaft́a is repeatedly mentioned, is either author or
republisher of an astronomical system which was copied by Bháscara in 1150 a.d., but which is adapted to a much earlier age.

The doctrine in question found advocates formerly among the astronomers of Europe and of Arabia. Arzael, a Spaniard, and a mathematician of the eleventh century,* author of a treatise, entitled observations on the obliquity of the zodiac, affirmed a libration or trepidation in longitude within the limits of $10^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. and W . at the rate of a degree in seventy-five years. $\dagger$ Two centuries after him, Thábit ben Korrah, an astrologer, $\ddagger$ assigned to this supposed trepidation the limits of 22 E. and W.§ To the same astrologer, by some supposed to have lived as much earlier, as he is here stated to have been later, a different doctrine is ascribed, affirming a motion of the intersected points of the ecliptic and equinoctial in a small circle described with the radius $4^{\circ} 18^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime} . \|$

They were led to that hypothesis (according to a remark quoted by the authors who have refuted the notion \|) by considering that ' Hermes had found some of the fixed stars more distant from the beginning of Aries, than Prolemy subsequently did: for instance the bright star of Hydra in $7^{\circ}$ of Leo, placed by Ptolemy in $30^{\circ}$ of Cancer; and the star named Vultur Cadens, in $24^{\circ}$ of Sagittarius, but by Ptolemy in $17^{\circ}$.'

[^215]The notion of a trepidation in longitude, but at a rate not equable, had been entertained by the astronomers, who compiled the Alphonsine Tables, though Alphonsus himself was subsequently led to the adoption of a correcter opinion, and to the consequent alteration of the tables first published by him.*

The earliest mention of a libration in longitude, which has been found in any Arabic writer, is in the work of Muhammed ben Jaber, surnamed Albátani, and by us called Albategnius. This celebrated astronomer, an Arabian by birth and Sabian by religion, flourished at the end of the ninth century; $\dagger$ or, to speak with precision, about the year of Christ $879 ;{ }_{+}^{+}$and from him we learn, that certain astronomers whom he does not appear to have any where named, had before him affirmed a libration of the fixed stars within the limits of $8^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. and W . at the rate of a degree in eighty or eighty-four years.§ He himself maintained the doctrine of a uniform motion at the rate of a degree in sixty-six years. ||

I have dwelt the longer upon the history of this opinion, because it appears to me deserving of attention on more than one account. Albitaní is the earliest of the Arabian astronomers who improved upon Ptolemy: (for Alfargíni, who was a century earlier, is not cited as correcting the Greek astronomer on this point.) It was he then, who first, among the astronomers of the west of Asia, computed the motion of the stars at a degree in sixty-six years; which is almost the same with the rate of the motion of trepi-

[^216]dation according to the Súrya siddhánta, and the herd of Hindu astronomers, who reckon a degree and a-half in a century.* He is the first also, as far as can be discovered, in whose works mention is made of a motion of trepidation, and we may be permitted to conjecture, that the earlier astronomers alluded to by him were Indian; since we find Áryabhaffa, an author seemingly of an earlier age, quoted for a libration of the equinoctial points within the limits of twenty-four degrees, at the rate of one in seventyeight years; and since we know that an Arabian astronomer, anterior by nearly a century to Albitani, had compiled tables in conformity to rules of astronomy apparently Indian. $\dagger$

We may then safely conclude, that, on the subject of the precession of the equinoxes, the Hindus had a theory, which, though erroneous, was their own; and which, at a subsequent time, found advocates among the astronomers of the west. That they had a knowledge of the true doctrine of an uniform motion in antecedentia, at least seven hundred years ago, $\ddagger$ when the astronomers of Europe also were divided on the question. That they had approximated

[^217]to the true rate of that motion much nearer than Pтоlвmy, before the Arabian astronomers, and as near the truth as these have ever done since. From this we may perhaps be led to a further conclusion, that the astronomy of the Hindus merits a more particular examination than it has yet obtained, not indeed with any expectation of advancing the science of astronomy, which needs not such aid, and can derive none from the labours of astronomers who have recorded no observations; but for the history of the science, and ascertainment of the progress which was here made : and that, with this view, the works of Hindu astronomers, whose age is precisely known, and in particular, those of Bhiscara, which contain a complete course of astronomy and of sciences connected with it, should be carefully perused; as well as those of Brahmegupta, which are full of quotations from earlier astronomers, as Áryabhaft́a,* Varáhamihira, $\dagger$ Ś́ríshé́a, $\ddagger$ Vishńuchandra, § and some others, who are cited by him for the purpose of exposing and correcting their errors.

In regard to Varáhamihira and the Súrya siddhánta, both separately quoted in the Bráhme sp’huta siddhánta of Brahmegupta, I may here remark that a book entitled Súrya siddhánta is mentioned by Varáhamihira himself, in his most undoubted work, the treatise on Astrology, entitled Váráhí sanhitá, where, describing the qualifications requisite to form an accomplished astrologer, he says, ' the astrologer should be conversant with divisions of time and geometrical figures, as taught in the five Siddhántas, or

[^218]systems of astronomy, called Paulisa, Rbmaca, Vúsishíha, Saura, and Paitámaha.' *

Varáhamihira, as appears from the quotations of his own commentator Bhaff́btpala and many other astronomical writers, is likewise author of a treatise entitled Pancha siddhánticá, in which the five systems above mentioned are compared; and, as far as can be gathered from quotations, their agreements and disagreements noticed. A passage of this treatise as cited by Bhaffotpala, is sufficiently remarkable to be here inserted, since it bears relation to the subject of this paper. It corresponds in import to a passage quoted by Mr. Davis, and Sir William Jones, $\dagger$ from the third chapter of the Váráhí sanhitá; but refers the actual position of the colures to the asterisms instead of the signs of the zodiac.
अश्लेषार्घादासीद्यदा निवृत्तिःकिलोष्णकिरणस्य । युत्तमयनं तदासीत्सांप्रतमयनं पुनर्वमुतः ः
' When the return of the sun took place from the middle of Aśléshá, the tropic was then right. It now takes place from Punarvasu.'

The same five systems of astronomy from which Vardhamihira is understood to have compiled the astronomical treatise just now quoted, and which are named by him in

## - तत्र यहगणिते पोलिसरोमकवासिषसोरपेतामहेष पन्वस्वेतेषु सिद्धान्तेष युगवर्षाय नन्तुमा-सपक्षाहोरानयाममुह्र्र्नाडीविनाडीप्राणन्नुटिनुचाव्यवयवस्य कालस्य क्षेत्रस्य च वेता ता

$\dagger$ As. Kes., vol, ii. p. 391.
the passage of his astrology before cited, are mentioned by Brahmegupta also as standard authorities, and enumerated by him in the same order : and his names, which are precisely the same with those in Vardiaminira's enumeration,* are explained by Bhatfotpala, as intending the Puliśa siddhánta, Romaca siddhánta, Vasisht́ ha siddhánta, Súrgu siddhánta, and Brábme siddhánta.

All these books are frequently cited in astronomical compilations, and are occasionally referred to their real or supposed authors. The first is every where assigned to Puliśa, whose name it bears. The Romaca siddhánta is ascribed by the scholiast of Brarmbgupta, and by a commentator of the Surya siddhánta, to Śrísena or Srishería (for the name is variously written). The Vásisht'ha siddhánta is by the same authority given to Vishńuchandra. Both these authors are repeatedly mentioned with censure by Brahmegupta; and it is acknowledged that they are entitled to no particular deference.

## - पोलिषरोमकवासिष्ठसोरपेतामहेषु यत्प्रो-

## लं तन्नक्षन्रानयनं नार्यमट्टोंतं तदुत्तिरतः ः

This passage, in which the Paulisha, Romaca, Vasisht'ha, Saura, and Paitámaha are specified, is introductory to a division of the lunar asterisms (for astrological purposes, it should seem), in unequal portions, by allotting to fifteen of them a quantity equivalent to the mean diurnal motion of the moon in minutes of a degree ( $790135^{\prime \prime}$ ), and half as much more to six of those asterisms ( $1185^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime}$ ), and so much less to the like namber of nacshatras ( $395^{\prime} 17^{\prime \prime}$ ) and assigning the complement of the circle ( $254^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime}$ ) to the supplementary nacshatra called Abhijit.
( Bhaffótpala, and from Bháscara's commentators; being stated by them at the nearest second: for the moon's mean daily motion according to Brahmbgupta and Bhíscara is a little less than 790 35".)

The Bráhme siddhánta, which is the basis of Brahmeoupta's work, is not any where attributed to a known author; but referred in all quotations of it which have fallen under observation, either to the Vishńu dharmbttara purána, of which it is considered as forming a part, or to Brahme (also called Pitimaha), who is introduced into it as the speaker in a dialogue with Bhrigu; or it is acknowledged to be the work of some unknown person.* The true author it may be now impracticable to discover, and would be vain to conjecture.

The Surya siddhánta (if the same which we now possess) is in like manner ascribed to no certain author, unless in the passage cited by our colleague Mr. Bentley, $\dagger$ who says, that 'in the commentary on the Bháswatí, it is declared, that Varíha was the author of the Súrya siddhánta;' and who adds, that 'Satínanda, the author of the Bhássoatí, was a pupil of Variha under whose directions he himself acknowledges he wrote that work.'

The concluding remark alludes to the following verse of the Bháswatí caraña.

## अथ प्रवक्ष्ये मिहिरोपदेशात् तत्सूर्यसिद्धान्तसमं समासात् थ

' Next I will propound succinctly, from Mihira's instruction, [this system] equal to the Súrya siddhánta.'

[^219]It is preceded by an introductory couplet which will be found quoted at the foot of the page,* or is omitted in some copies: but the correct reading, as appears from collation of text and scholia, retains both.

Admitting then its authenticity, and supposing, with most of the commentators, that Varáhamihira is here intended by the single word Mikira, which, however, is a name of the sun, and may here allude to the fabled dialogue of SGrya with Meya, as is observed by the scholiast Balabhadra; $\dagger$ still the passage is not unambiguous. It does not necessarily imply oral tuition, and may refer to instruction derived from the works of Varára; especially from the Pancha siddhánticá of that author, in which the Súrya siddhánta was explained concurrently with four other treatises termed Siddhánta.
To return from this digression. It appears from what had been before said, that a work bearing the title of Surya siddhánta is named as authority by Varahamifira, in whose time, according to his assertion, the place of the

```
* नत्वा मुरारेशरणारविन्दं
    श्रीमान् सतानन्द इति प्रसिघ्घः
    तां भास्वतीं शिष्थहितार्थमाह
    शांके विहीने शश्रिपक्षिखेके \
```

[^220]summer solstice was at the beginning of the sign Carcata, and in the asterism Punarvasu. A treatise under the same title is similarly mentioned by Brahmegupta, who has likewise noticed Varahamihira himself, and who is supposed by Bhascara to have lived when the colures had not sensibly deviated from that position.

It may be questioned whether this testimony be not overthrown by proofs of a more modern date (between seven and eight hundred years ago), drawn from internal evidence, as set forth by Mr. Bentley, in his ingenious essays inserted in the sixth and eighth volumes of our Researches.*

Without entering at present into any disquisition on this subject, or discussing the accuracy of the premises; but acceding generally to the position, that the date of a set of astronomical tables, or of a system for the computation of the places of planets, is deducible from the ascertainment of a time when that system or set of tables gave results nearest to the truth; and granting that the date abovementioned approximates within certain limits to such an ascertainment; I shall merely observe, that supposing the dates otherwise irreconcileable, still the book which we now have under the name of Surya, or Saura, siddhánta, may have been, and probably was, modernized from a more ancient treatise of the same name, the later work borrowing its title from an earlier performance of a different author. We have an instance of this practice in the kindred case of the Bráhme siddhánta; for we are acquainted with no less than three astronomical treatises bearing this title; one extracted from the Vishriu dharmbttara; another termed the Sácalya; and the third the Sp'hut́a siddhánta of Brahmegupta: and an equal number of tracts entitled Vásisht'ha siddhánta may be

[^221]traced in the quotations of authors; one by Vishívchandra; another termed Lághu vasisht́tha, which from its name should be an abridgment; and the third, apparently an ample treatise, distinguished as the Vriddha vásishéha. This solution of the objection also is entirely compatible with the tenor of the references to the Saura, which have been yet remarked in the works of Brahmegupta and Varáhamihira; none of them being relative to points that furnish arguments for concluding the age of the book from internal evidence.

At all events, whatever may be thought of the Súrya siddhánta, we have the authority of a quotation from Áryabhaft́a, to show, that the Hindus had ascertained the quantity of the precession more correctly than Prolemy ; and had accounted for it by a motion in libration or trepidation, before this notion was adopted by any other astronomer whose labours are known to us.

It appears also from a passage of Brahmegupta's refutation of the supposed errors of that author, and from his commentator's quotation of Áryabhaffa's text, that this ancient astronomer maintained the doctrine of the earth's diurnal revolution round its axis. 'The sphere of the stars,' he affirms 'is stationary; and the earth, making a revolution, produces the daily rising and setting of stars and planets.'* Brahmbgupta answers, 'If the earth move a minute in a práría, then whence and what route does it proceed? If it revolve, why do not lofty objects fall ?' $\dagger$ But his commentator, Prit'hedaca swamí, re

## - भपग्जरः स्थिरो भूरेवावृत्यावृत्य प्रातिदेवमिको उदयाम्तमयो संपादयति नक्षत्र्यहाणां।

 Áryabráffa cited by Prǐt'hudaca.+ प्राणेनेति कलां भूर्यदि तत्कुतो वजेत्कमध्वानं।
plies, 'Áryabhaffa's opinion appears nevertheless satisfactory; since planets cannot have two motions at once: and the objection, that lofty things would fall, is contradicted; for, every way, the under part of the earth is also the upper; since, wherever the spectator stands on the earth's surface, even that spot is the uppermost point.'

We here find both an ancient astronomer and a later commentator* maintaining, against the sense of their countrymen, the rational doctrine which Heraclidess of Pontus, the Pythagorean Ecphantus, and a few others among the Greeks, had affirmed of old, but which was abandoned by the astronomers both of the east and of the west, until revived and demonstrated in comparatively modern times. $\dagger$

Brahmegupta is more fortunate in his reasoning where he refutes another theory of the alternation of day and night imagined by the Jainas, who account for the diurnal change by the passage of two suns, and as many moons, and a double set of stars and minor planets, round a pyramidical mountain, at the foot of which is this habitable earth. His confutation of that absurdity is copied by Buiscara, who has added to it from Pryt'hudaca's gloss on a different passage of Brahmbgupta, a refatation of another notion ascribed by him to the same sect, respecting the translation of the earth in space.

This idea has no other origin than the notion, that the earth, being heavy and without support, must perpetually descend: and has, therefore, no relation whatever to the modern opinion of a proper motion of the sun and stars.

आवर्तनमर्वाक्चेन्न पतन्ति समुच्क्शाया:कस्मात् ॥

## Bráhme sp'huta siddhanta.

- The commentator wrote at least seven centuries ago; for he is quoted by Bhíscara in the text and notes of the Siromańi.
+ For an outline of Áryabraífa's system of astronomy, see a note at the close of this Essay. (p. 414.)

Part of the passage of Bhascara has been quoted in a former essay.* What regards the further subject now noticed, is here subjoined.
' The earth stands firm, by its own power, without other support in space.
' If there be a material support to the earth, and another upholder of that, and again another of this, and so on, there is no limit. If finally self-support must be assumed, why not assume it in the first instance? why not recognise it in this multiform earth?
' As heat is in the sun and fire, coldness in the moon, fluidity in water, hardness in iron; so mobility is in air ; and immobility in the earth, by nature. How wonderful are the implanted faculties!
' The earth possessing an attractive force, $\dagger$ draws towards itself any heavy substance situated in the surrounding atmosphere, and that substance appears as if it fell. But whither can the earth fall in ethereal space which is equal and alike on every side?
' Observing the revolution of the stars, the Bauddhas $\ddagger$ acknowledge, that the earth has no support ; but as nothing heavy is seen to remain in the atmosphere, they thence conclude that it falls in ethereal space.
' Whence dost thou deduce, O Bauddha, this idle notion, that, because any heavy substance thrown into the air, falls to the earth, therefore the earth itself descends?'§

He adds this further explanation in his notes: ' For if the earth were falling, an arrow shot into the air would not return to it when the projectile force was expended, since

[^222]both would descend. Nor can it be said that it moves slower, and is overtaken by the arrow ; for heaviest bodies fall quickest, and the earth is heaviest.'

It has been observed in a former part of this essay, that Brahmegupta's treatise of astronomy is founded on an anterior one entitled Bráhme siddhánta; and the authenticity of the book extant under Brahmegupta's name has been relied upon, and passages have been freely cited from it, as the genuine performance of that ancient astronomer. These matters appear to be of sufficient importance to deserve a more particular explanation of their grounds.

The source from which Brahmegupta drew, is indicated by the author himself, in his introductory couplet, cited by Lacshmidása in the commentary on Bhágcara; *

## बलोत्तयहगणितं महता कालेन यत्विलीभूतं ? अभिधीयते स्फुटं तत् जिष्णुमुतबसगुप्नेन ः

which, in a literal version, will stand thus :-' The computation of planets, as declared by Brahmá, and become imperfect by great length of time, is perspicuously (sp'huta) explained by Brabmegupta, son of Jishńu.'

The ambiguity imputable to this passage is obviated by the more explicit terms of the initial stanza of his eleventh chapter, where Brahmegupta announces a refutation of opinions opposed to the Bráhme siddhánta:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ये न्बानपटलारहददशो न्यड्डालाइदन्ति सिघ्या- } \\
& \text { न्तात्। तेषांयुगादिभेदाघ दोषाष्तान्प्रक्ष्यामित }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^223]' I will refute the errors (respecting the yugas and other matters) of those who, misled by ignorance, maintain things contrary to the Bráhme siddhánta.'

What the work is, to which Brahmegupta refers under the title specified by him, and corresponding to a subse quent mention by him of the Paitámaha siddhanta (both titles being of the same import), is explained by the scholiasts of Bhíscara and of the Súrya siddhánta. NrYsinha, a commentator on both texts,* affirms that Brabmegupta's rules are formed from the Vishńu dharmbttara puráńa, in which the Bráhme siddhánta is contained ;† Bháscara's commentator, Munísiwara $\ddagger$, remarks, that Brarmegupta, having verified by observation the revolutions stated in the Bráhme siddhánta of the Vishoru dharmbttara, and having found them suitable to his own time, adopted these numbers, rejecting the revolutions taught by Súrya and the rest. In other places the commentator cites parallel passages from Brahmegupta and the Bráhme (also termed by him Paitámaha) siddhánta of the Vishn'u dharmbttara:§ and these with numerous

[^224]5 Take the following as examples:
Ist. The number of sidereal days in a calpa, (viz. $1582,236,450,000$ )
quotations from Brahmegupta in the Chintámańi and in other commentaries on Bhascara, as well as in the author's notes on his own text, are exactly conformable with the Brákme sp'hutu siddhánta now in my possession, and which is accompanied by the gloss of Brahmegupta's celebrated commentator Chaturveda Prit'hudaca swami.

It appears then, from a collation of the passages so cited, that Brabmegupta's work is, at least in part, a paraphrase of the Brákme or Paitámaha; containing, how-
which the Paitamaha siddhanta of the Fishiu dhermottara (cited in Matichi, ch. i.) expresses by these words:

## चत्वारि शून्यानि पन्न्नवेदरसाग्नियमपक्षाष्टशरेन्दवः कल्पेन प्रति नश्षत्रोदयाः त

and Brahmeaupta renders by the equivalent terms,

## परिवर्ती खचतुष्यश्ररान्धिरमगुणयमक्विवसु-

## तिथयः $\pi$

2d. The commencement of the calpa, on Sunday, lst. Chaitra, at the moment of sunrise on the meridian of Lanca, which the Brahme siddhánta of the Vishtu dharmóttara purána (Mârichi, ch. ii.) thus expremes:
लड्षायामर्कोदये चेत्रशुक्लपतिपदारम्भे न्कदिनादावश्विन्यादो किंस्तुप्नादो रोद्रादो काले प्रवृति: ?
and Brabmegupta by the following couplet,

## चेत्रसितादेतदययाद्रानोर्ழिनमासवर्षयुगकल्पाः । मृष्यादो लङ्ञायां समं प्रवृत्तादिने ग्कस्य श

ever, additional matter : and it is accordingly termed by one of the scholiasts of the Súrya siddhánta,* a commentary on the Paitámaha; and Chaturvéda's gloss is denominated, by the same scholiast, an interpretation of the Paitámaha bháshya.

In support of what has been here said, I shall adduce a few instances of quotation on subjects possessing some degree of interest.

The first is one in which Bhíscara vindicates a passage of Brahmegupta from the objections of his commentator, quoting the passage itself in his notes, and there naming the scholiast, Chaturveda: from which, be it remarked, the commentary is ascertained to be anterior to Bhascara's work: I have a further reason, however, for citing the passage, as it furnishes occasion for some observations on the Indian theory of astronomy.

The Hindus, as is well known, place the earth in the centre of the world, and make the Sun and Moon and minor planets revolve round it, apparently in concentric orbits, with unequal or irregular motion. For a physical explanation of the phænomena, they imagine the planets driven by currents of air along their respective orbits (besides one great vortex carrying stars and planets with prodigious velocity, round the earth, in the compass of a day). The winds or currents, impelling the several planets, communicate to them velocities, by which their motion should be equable and in the plane of the ecliptic; but the planets are drawn from this course by certain controlling powers, situated at the apogees, conjunctions, and nodes.

These powers are clothed by Hindu imaginations with celestial bodies invisible to human sight, and furnished with hands and reins, by which they draw the planets from their

[^225]direct path and uniform progress. The being at the apogee, for instance, constantly attracts the planet towards itself, alternately, however, with the right and left hands. The deity of the node diverts the planet, first to one side then to the other, from the ecliptic. And lastly, the deity at the conjunction causes the planet to be one while stationary, another while retrograde, and to move at different times with velocity accelerated or retarded. These fancied beings are considered as invisible planets; the nodes and apogees having a motion of their own in the ecliptic.

This whimsical system, more worthy of the mythologist than of the astronomer, is gravely set forth in the Súrya siddhánta: and even Bráscara gives into it, though not without indications of reluctant acquiescence; for he has not noticed it in his text, and only briefly in his notes.

To explain on mathematical principles the irregularity of the planetary motions, the Hindu astronomers remove the earth from the centre of the planet's orbit, and assume the motion in that excentric to be really equable, though it appear irregular as viewed from the earth. Another hypothesis is also taught by them; according to which the planet revolves with an equal but contrary motion in an epicycle, of which the centre is carried with like but direct motion on a concentric orbit.

Bháscara remarks, that both theories are equivalent, giving the same results in computation: but he maintains, that the planet's motion in an excentric orbit (pratiman'dala) is consonant to the truth; and the other hypothesis of an epicycle (nichbchcha vritta) is merely a device for the facility of computation.

Both theories, with certain modifications, which will be subsequently noticed, suffice for the anomaly of the Sun and Moon. ' To account for the still greater apparent irre-
gularities of the five minor planets, the Hindu astronomers make them revolve with direct motion on an epicycle borne on an excentric deferent. (In the case of the two inferior planets, the revolution in the excentric is performed in the same time with the Sun : consequently the planet's motion in its epicycle is in fact its proper revolution in its orbit. In the instance of the superior planets, on the contrary, the epicycle corresponds in time to a revolution of the Sun, and the excentric deferent answers to the true revolution of the planet in its orbit.)

So far the Indian system, as already remarked by Mr. Davis in his treatise on the astronomical computations of the Hindus," agrees with the Ptolemaic. At the first glance it will remind the reader of the hypothesis of an excentric orbit devised by Hipparchus; and of that of an epicycle on a deferent, said to have been invented by Apollonius, but applied by Hipparchos. At the same time the omission of an equant (having double the excentricity of the deferent) imagined by Ptolemy for the five minor planets, as well as the epicycle with a deferent of the centre of the excentric, contrived by him to account for the evection of the Moon ; and the circle of anomaly of excentricity, adapted to the inequality of Mercury's motions, cannot fail to attract notice.

The Hindus, who have not any of Prolemy's additions to the theory of Hipparchus, have introduced a different modification of the hypothesis, for they give an oval form to the excentric or equivalent epicycle, as well as to the planet's proper epicycle. That is, they assume the axis of the epicycle greater at the end of the (sama) even quadrants of anomaly (or, in the line of the apsides and conjunctions), and least at the end of the (vishama) odd

[^226]quadrants (lst and 3d), and intermediately in proportion.* This contrivance of an oval epicycle is applied by certain astronomers to all the planets; and by others, is restricted to few; and by some, is altogether rejected. Áryabhaffa, for example, and the Súrya siddhánta, make both epicycles of all the planets oval, placing however the short axis of the proper epicycles of Jupiter and Saturn in the line of mean conjunction, termed by Hindu astronomers their quick apogee (śg $h r b c h c h a$ ). Brahmegupta and Bháscara, on the contrary, acknowledge only the epicycles of Mars and Venus to be oval, and insist that the rest are circular. The author of the Siddhánta sárvabhauma goes a step further, maintaining that all are circular, and taking the mean between the numbers given in the Súrya siddhánta.

[^227]Dimeneions of the Epioyoles in Drgrees of the Drferent.

| Epicycle of anomaly ...... Brammbaupta | $\stackrel{\ominus}{13^{\circ} 40^{\prime}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathbb{C} \\ 31^{\circ} 36 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \stackrel{\delta}{\circ} \\ 70^{\circ} \pm 6^{\circ} 40^{\prime \prime} \end{gathered}$ | $\stackrel{\ominus}{68^{\bullet}} 0^{\prime}$ | $33^{4} 0^{\prime}$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{c} 8 \\ 11^{\circ} \end{array}{ }^{8 z} 9^{\circ}+\right\|$ | $\begin{gathered} h \\ 30^{\circ} 0 \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bhíboara ......... |  |  |  | - |  | - |  |
|  | 140 | 320 | 75 0- | 300 | 330 | 12 |  |
|  | 1340 | 3140 | 720 - | 280 | 320 | il | 48 |
| Proper epicycle | - | - | $24340 \pm 640^{\circ}$ | 1320 | 680 | 2588263+ | 400 |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { Circle on the great axis of } \\ \text { the oval epicyle ....... } \end{array}\right\} \text { (Sarya siddhanta).... }$ | - | - | 2350 - | 1330 | 720 | 262 | 40 |
| Circle on the less axis | - | - | 2320 - | 1320 | $70 \quad 0$ | 260 | 390 |

- The epicycles of Mars, according to Brahmegupta and Bhísoara, are increased in six signs and diminished in six other signs of anomaly, by a quantity found by this proportion; sine of $45^{\circ}$ : sine or cosine of anomaly (whichever be the least) :: $6^{\circ} \mathbf{4 0 \prime}$ : correction additive in six first signs, and subtractive in six last.
$\dagger$ The epicycles of Venus are oval, and the circles described on the transverse and conjugate axis (circles circumscribed and inscribed) are here stated.

A further difference of theory, though not of practice, occurs among the Hindu astronomers, in regard to the curvature of the excentric deferents, and the consequent method of computing on the equivalent hypothesis of epicycles.

A reference to Mr. Davis's Essay,* and to the diagrams which accompeny it, will render intelligible what has been already said, and what now remains to be explained. It is there observed, that it is only in computing the retrogradations, and other particulars respecting the minor planets, that the Hindus find the length of the carńa $\in \oplus \dagger$ (or line drawn from the centre of the earth to the planet's place in the epicycle). In other cases, as for the anomalistic equation of the Sun and Moon, they are satisfied to take $h c$ es equal to the sine $l m \ddagger$, (that is, the sine of mean anomaly, reduced to its dimensions in the epicycle in parts of the radius of the concentric, equal to the sine of the anomalistic equation). The reason is subjoined: 'The difference, as the commentator on the Súrya siddhánta observes, being inconsiderable.'

Most of the commentators on the Súrya siddhánta do assign that reason; but some of them adopt BrahmegUPTA's explanation. This astronomer maintains, that the operation of finding the carría is rightly omitted in respect of the excentrics or equivalent epicycles of all the planets, and retained in regard to the proper epicycles of the minor planets carried by the excentric deferents. His hypothesis, as briefly intimated by himself, and as explained by Bháscara, supposes the epicycle, which represents the excentric, to be augmented in the proportion

- As. Res., vol. ii. p. 249.
+ As. Res., vol. ii. p. 250. Diagram, fig. 2.
$\ddagger$ 1bid.
which carna (or the distance of the planet's place from the earth's centre) bears to the radius of the concentric ; and it is on this account, and not as a mere approximation, that the finding of the carnia, with the subsequent operation to which it is applicable, is dispensed with.*

The scholiast of Brahmegupta objects to his author's doctrine on this point, that, upon the same principle, the process of finding the carna, with the subsequent employment of it to find the sine of the anomalistic equation, should in like manner be omitted in the proper epicycle of the five minor planets; and he concludes therefore, that the omission of that process has no other ground, but the very inconsiderable difference of the result in the instance of a small epicycle. For, as remarked by another author, $\dagger$ treating on the same subject, the equation itself and its sine are very small near the line of the apsides; and at a distance from that line, the carria and radius approach to equality.

Bháscara, in the Śrifomańi, quotes succinctly Brahmegupta's doctrine, and the scholiast's objection to it ; and replies to the latter : and in his notes in the Vásaná bháshya, cites the text of Brahmegupta and Chaturveda's reasoning, which he tries to confute. His quotation agrees perfectly with the present text of the Brahme

[^228]sp'hut́a siddhánta and commentary of Chaturveda Prít'hudaca swami, which is annexed to it.

The passage which has required so much preparatory explanation, is itself short :

## त्रिज्याभत्तः कर्णः परिधिगुणोवाहुकोटिगुणकारः। असकृन्मन्दे तत्फलमाद्यसमं नात्र कर्णो $\frac{\text { म्मात्त } n}{n}$

'The carn'a, or longest side of the triangle, multiplied by the periphery of the epicycle and divided by radius, becomes the multiplier of the sine and cosine of anomaly. The same result, as before, is obtained by a single operation in the instance of the anomalistic epicycle : and therefore carna is not here employed.'

Bháscara's words in the Śirbmani are these: 'Some say that in this system, in the operation of finding the equation of anomaly, the carna or long side of the triangle is not employed, because the difference in the two modes of computation is very inconsiderable. But others maintain that, if the carńa be used, the periphery of the epicycle must in this operation be corrected, by multiplying it by carna and dividing by radius. Wherefore the result is the same as by the former method; and on that account, they say, the carnia is not employed. It is not to be objected, why is not the same method used in the síghra epicycle? For the principles of the two differ.'

In his notes on this part of his text, he cites, as before observed, the precise passage of Brahmegupta which has been inserted above, and a portion of Chaturveda's comment on it, and names the author.

In another instance Bháscara quotes in his Śirbmańi Brahmegupta by name, and the commentator by implication, (and fuller quotations of both occur in the notes and commentaries), for a disagreement in regard to the latitude
of stars and planets measured from the ecliptic both on a circle drawn through its poles, and on one passing through the poles of the equator; the latter termed sp'huta or apparent, and the other asp'hut́a or unapparent.* Beaiscara remarks that Brahmegupta has directed the latitudes of planets to be computed by one mode, and has given those of the stars in the other, but has stated no rule for reducing the latitude of one denomination to the other, or for rectifying the true latitude from the measure given on the circle of declination. The reason he considers to be the little difference between them (which is true in respect of the planets, though not so in the case of most of the stars), and the frequent occasion in astronomical computations, for the declination of stars, while their proper latitude is not an element in any calculation; whereas, in the case of the planets, both are employed on different occasions: he adverts to a strained interpretation proposed by the commentator to construe Brahmegupta's rule as adapted to the same denomination of latitude which is employed by him for the stars. Bhascara refutes that interpretation, and justifies Brahmegupta's text taken in its obvious and natural sense.

This passage of the Sirbmañi $\dagger$ confirms what was said

[^229][^230]by me, from other authority, in a former essay,* concerning the Hindu method of determining a star's place with reference to the ecliptic, by the intersection of a circle of declination, and by taking the latitude and longitude of the star to that point of intersection, instead of employing a perpendicular to the ecliptic.

The only other passage to which I shall draw the reader's attention, is one of considerable length, in which BrahmeGUPTA, although he has rightly given the theory of solar and lunar eclipses, with the astronomical principles on which they are to be computed, affirms in compliance with the prejudices of Hindu bigots, the existence of Ráhu as an eighth planetand as the immediate cause of eclipses, and reprehends Varáhamifira, Áryabhaft́a, Śsíshéna and Vishíuchandra for rejecting this orthodox explanation of the phenomenon. The passage is quoted by Bhiscara's commentator in the Chintámańi on the occasion of a more concise text of the Sirbmani affirming the agency of Ráhu in eclipses. $\dagger$

This quotation from the Bráhme siddhánta comprising seven couplets in the Chintámańi, has been verified in the text of the Bráhme sp'huíta siddhánta of Brahmbgupta. $\ddagger$

All these, with numerous other instances in the annotations and commentaries of the Sirbmańi, which I refrain from adducing, lest the reader's patience should be tired, have established to my entire conviction the genuineness of the Sp'huta siddhánta founded on a prior treatise entitled Bráhme siddhánta.

I am not unapprised, that, under a feeling of great distrust or unwillingness to admit the conclusions which follow from this position, a variety of hypotheses might be formed

[^231]to a different effect. Brahmegupta, supposing him to be entirely an original writer, may have referred to an imaginary work to give that kind of authority to his performance which the Hindus most fancy; or he may have fathered on a puránía a synopsis of his own doctrine for the same purpose; or some other writer, from whatever motive, may have fabricated a pretended extract of a puránía containing the heads of Brahmegupta's system, and have given currency to it on the strength of the reference in that astronomer's treatise to an anterior work. These and other suppositions grounded on surmise of fraud and forgery may be formed. I shall not discuss them : for I have no concern but with the facts themselves. Bháscara, writing 650 years ago, declares, and so do all his commentators, that he has followed Brafmegupta as his guide. They quote numerous passages from his work; and Bháscara affirms that Brahmegupta took the number of revolutions assigned to the planets in the great period termed calpa from an earlier authority. The commentators, who wrote from two to four centuries ago, assert, that those numbers were taken from a treatise in form of dialogue between Bhígatat (or Bráhma) and Bhrĭgu, inserted in the Vishńu dharmbttara puráńa and distinguished by the title of Brálma or Paitámaha siddhánta. They cite parallel passages, which do in fact exactly accord in sense and import. They occasionally quote observations on Brahmegupta by his scholiast Chaturveda Prifthúdaca swímí. A book is extant (a copy, partly deficient, however, having come into my possession with other astronomical collections) and which consists of a text under the title of Bráhme sp'hutá siddhánta accompanied by a continual commentary by Chaturveda Pry̌t'húdaca swímí. The text contains the same astronomical doctrine which Bháscara teaches, and which he professes to have derived
from Brahmegupta; and passages quoted by him in his text, or at more length in his notes, or by his commentators, or by other astronomical writers, as the words of BrahmegUPTA, are found verbatim in it. I consider it therefore as the genuine text of the treatise used by Bháscara, as Brahmegupta's; and seeing no reason for suspicion and distrust, I quote it as the authentic work of that celebrated astronomer.

As the evidence which has been here collected with reference to particular points, bears also upon other questions, I shall now state further conclusions, regarding the history of Indian astronomy, which appear to me to be justly deducible from the premises. Those conclusions will be supported, when necessary, by additional references to authorities.

Brahmegupta and Varáhamihira, though named at the head of astronomers by Bháscara and Satínanda and by the herd of later writers, are not to be considered as the authors of the Indian system of astronomy. They abound in quotations from more ancient astronomers, upon whose works their own are confessedly grounded. In addition to the names before-mentioned,* those of Pradyumna, lála sinha, and Ládíhíchárya, may be here specified. But the Bráhme siddhánta and the works of Áryabhafta are what principally engages Brahmegupta's attention : and the five Siddhántas have been the particular subject of Varáhamihira's labours. He appears to have been anterior to Brahmegupta, being actually cited by him among other writers, whose errors are exposed and corrected.

Varabamifira, constantly quoted as the author of the Váráhí sanhitá and Pancha siddhánticá, must be

[^232]judged from those works, which are undoubtedly his by the unanimous consent of the learned, and by the testimony of the ancient scholiast Bhatfotpala. The minor works, ascribed to the same author, may have been composed in later times, and the name of a celebrated author have been affixed to them, according to a practice, which is but too common in India as in many other countries. The Játacárnava, for example, which has been attributed to him, may not improbably be the work of a different author. At least, I am not apprized of any collateral evidence (such as quotations from it in books of some antiquity) to support its genuineness, as a work of Varifamihira's.

In the Váráhí sanhitá, this author has not followed the system which is taught in the Surrya siddhánta. For instance, his rule for finding the year of the cycle of sixty years, founded on the mean motions of Jupiter, shews that he employed a different number from that which the Surrya siddhánta furnishes, viz. 364,224 revolutions in a yuga, instead of 364,200 ; and it appears from a quotation of the scholiast that Áryabhat́fa is the authority for that number of revolutions of Jupiter.

Before the age of Varifamihira and BrahmbgUpta, and subsequently to that of Garga, a number of illustrious astronomers flourished, by whom the science was cultivated and promoted, but whose works unhappily are lost, or at least have not been yet recovered, and are at present known to us only by quotation. No less than ten intermediate writers are cited by Brahmegupta; of whom five at the least are noticed by Vardhamihira.*

The proficiency of the Yavanas in astronomy was known to Varáhamihira. He has mentioned it with applause, $\dagger$

- See before, p. 386, 388, and 409.
† म्युच्बा हि यवनास्तेषु सम्यक्शात्बमिंद स्थितं।
and has more than once referred to the authority of their writers. The name of Yavanácharya, which occurs frequently in the compilations of Hindu astronomers,* has apparently reference to an author of that nation; which is characterized by Varíhamifira as a people of Mléch'has, or barbarians. The title of Romaca siddhánta, given by Śrishéńa to his astronomical treatise, which is quoted under this title by Varáhamihira and Brahmegupta, may be presumed also to carry some allusion to the system of the astronomers of the West.

If these circumstances, joined to a resemblance hardly to be supposed casual, which the Hindu astronomy, with its apparatus of excentrics and epicycles, bears in many respects to that of the Greeks, be thought to authorize a belief, that the Hindus received from the Greeks that knowledge which enabled them to correct and improve their own imperfect astronomy, I shall not be inclined to dissent from the opinion. There does, indeed, appear ground for more than a conjecture, that the Hindus had obtained a knowledge of Grecian astronomy before the Arabs began to cultivate the science; and that the whole cluster of astronomers mentioned by Brahmegupta must be placed in the internal between the age of Hipparchus, and possibly that of Ptolemy, and the date of Brahmegupta's revision of the Bráhme siddhánta.

In reforming the Indian astronomy, Brahmegupta, and the astronomers who preceded him, did not take implicitly the mean motions of the planets given by the Gre-

## अृषिवते गपि पूज्यन्ते निं पुनर्देवविद्डिजः ः

[^233]cian astronomer. In general they are wider from the truth than Ptolemy.* But, in the instance which is the subject of this paper, they made a nearer approach to accuracy than he had done, and must therefore have used other observations besides those which he has recorded.

The Arabs adopted in its totality Ptolbmy's theory of the motions of the planets; which the Hindus have only


In this comparative table computed to fourth minutes, it will be remarked, that the Hindu astronomers mostly agree to third minutes, and differ in the fourths. They disagree with Ptolemy at the thirds, and give, in almost every instance, slower motions than be does, to the planets, and still slower than the truth. In the moon's syoodical motion, however, they are very nearly correct. On the other hand, the equation of the centre deducible from the epicycles (page 404) is a nearer approximation to the truth than results from the excentricity assigned by Ptolemy to the orbits of the planets. For instance,

Excentrioity of the Sun's Orbit.
Súrya siddlıánta and Brabmegupta (Rad. of the epicycle) $\stackrel{\circ}{2} \begin{array}{lll}10 & 17 \\ 30\end{array}$
Hipparchus and Ptolemy (Alm., 1. 3. c. 4.) in parts, of which radius contains 60 ............................. 22930 Albítaní (c. 28.) ............................................. 2445

Greatbet Equation of the Sun's Cbntrb:
Surya siddhánta, \&c. (computed by the commentators) .. 21032
Ptolemy (Ricc. Alm. nov.) ............................. 28230
Albítanf................ ................................. 159 10
Alphonsine Tables ........................................ 210 . 0
Kвріев, \&c. ................................................... 2446
Lalande (3d edit.).......................................... 155 36t
in part. But the Arabs improved on his astronomy by careful observations : a praise to which the Hindus are not equally entitled. Albátaní discovered the motion of the Sun's apogee, and suspected from analogy a motion of the apsides of the minor planets.* The Hindus surmised the motion of the apogee of the Sun, and nodes and apsides of the planets, from analogy to the Moon's; $\dagger$ but were unable to verify the conjecture by observation; and have, in fact, merely assigned arbitrary numbers to the supposed revolutions, to bring out the places right, (or as nearly so as they had determined them,) relatively to the origin of the ecliptic at a vastly remote period. Bháscara, when treating of the manner of verifying or of finding the number of revolutions of the planets, \&c. in a given period, teaches the mode of observing the planetary motions, but considers the life of man too short for observing the motion of the apsides and nodes (the Moon's excepted); and certainly the revolutions assigned to them by him and other Hindu astronomers are too few, and the motions too slow, (the quickest not exceeding seven degrees in 100,000 years) to have been assumed on any other ground but the arbitrary one just now stated. The astronomical instruments employed by the Hindus, of which Bháscara describes nine, including one of his own invention, and comprehending the quadrant, semicircle and entire circle, besides the armillary sphere, horary ring, gnomon and clepsydra, $\ddagger$ were too rudely executed, whatever may be thought of their design, to enable the astronomers to make very delicate observations; and they were not assisted, as in the precession of the equinoxes, by the memory of a former position recorded in their ancient writings.

[^234]
## Note referred to prom Plar 397.

According to Áryarbaff́a as quoted by Brabmbgupta and bis scholiast Prǐt'hGdaca swímí,

| One yuga contains |  | Years | $1,080,000$ |  |
| :--- | :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| One mahá yuga | $=$ | 4 yngas | $4,320,000$ |  |
| One Menu yuga | $=$ | 72 mahá yugas | $311,040,000$ |  |
| One calpa | $=$ | 14 Menus | $=1008$ mahá yugas, | $4,354,560,000$ |

WThe calpa began on Thursday lst Chaitra sucla, at the moment of sun-rise at Lancá.

Years expired from the commencement of the calpa to the war of the Bharata, or beginning of the Cali age $1,986,120,000$

Add expired years of the Cali to the Sáca era...... 3, 3179
Years from the beginning of the calpa to the com- $\}$
mencement of the Śáca era
$1,986,123,179$
Years expired from the commencement of the present Mahá yruga, to the beginning of the Cali age, when there was a conjunction 3,240,000

Revolutions of the earth round its own axis, in a qua-
druple yuga or mahá yuga $\therefore . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .$. . $1,582,237,500$
Hence, deducting revolutions of the sun, ........... $4,320,000$
Remain, nycthemera, or savana days, in a maha yuga $\overline{1,577,917,500}$
Length of the sidereal year is d. s. in d. t. ir therefore, according to Áryabsaffa, 365153115 or $365 \quad 61230$
N. B. Áryabhaffía taught the earth's diurnal revolution round its axis; a doctrine which Brammegupta controverts; but to which his scholiast Pry̌t'hgdaca swámí inclines.

According to the Paulísi siddhánta cited by Braffótpala on Varíhamitira's Sanhita, and by Prǐt'bidaca ewími on Bratmegupta's Siddhanta,

| Crita yuga, | 4,80 | $=1,728,000$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tréta, | 3,600 | $=1,296,000$ |
| Deoapara, | 2,400 | 864,000 |
|  |  | 3,888,000 |
| Cali, | 1,200 | $=432,000$ |
| Maha yuga |  | =IIT 4,320,000 |

[^235]
## Years expired from the commencement of the present

 maha yuga to the first conjunction of the planets, in the Crita yugaYears expired to the commencement of the Cali yuga 3,888,000
Mean solar (saura) days, termed by other astronomers stivana days, in one mahá yuga . . ...................... . 1,577,917,800

罗 Length of the year, according d. s. in in d. b. in in to the Paulisa siddhanta .............. 365153130 or 36561236
N. B. The difference of 300 days in the computations of Áryabeatf́a and Pulisa, gives one day in 14,400 years, as is remarked by Brahmegupta.

Length of the year accord- d. \&. in an mir d. in in in iv ing to the Sarya siddhanta .. $36515313124=365612363336$

According to Brahme-
oupta
$36515302230=3656129$
The computation of the yuga and calpa, according to these authorities, is well known, and need not be exhibited in this place. They make it begin on Sunday; the one at midnight, the other at sun-rise, on the meridian of Lancá; and the elapsed years to the beginning of the Cali age are, $1,972,944,000$. To which Brabmegupta adds 3,179 years to the Sáca era. The Surya siddhanta deducts $17,064,000$ years; making the epoch of a supposed conjunction of planets by so many years later than the beginning of the calpa.

Revolutions of the Planets.


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and Varíhamibira's rule for the cycle of sixty years of Jupiter is founded on that number. The periods assigned by these two authors to other planets have not been ascertained; except Saturn's aphelion, reckoned by áryabbaf́f́a at fify-four revolutions in a calpa. ÁryabHiff́t's numbers are said to have been derived from the Párásara siddhanta. (As. Res., vol. ii. p. 242.)

## XVI.

## Dissertation on the Algebra of the Hindus.

[Prefixed to the Author's 'Algebra, with Arithmetic and Mensuration, from the Sanscrǐt of Brahmegupta and Bháscara.' London, 1817. 4to.]

The history of sciences, if it want the prepossessing attractions of political history and narration of events, is nevertheless not wholly devoid of interest and instruction. A laudable curiosity prompts to inquire the sources of knowledge ; and a review of its progress furnishes suggestions tending to promote the same or some kindred study. We would know the people and the names at least of the individuals, to whom we owe particular discoveries and successive steps in the advancement of knowledge. If no more be obtained by the research, still the inquiry has not been wasted, which points aright the gratitude of mankind.

In the history of mathematical science, it has long been a question to whom the invention of Algebraic analysis is due? among what people, in what region, was it devised? by whom was it cultivated and promoted? or by whose labours was it reduced to form and system? and finally, from what quarter did the diffusion of its knowledge proceed? No doubt, indeed, is entertained of the source from which it was received immediately by modern Europe; though the channel have been a matter of question. We are well assured, that the Arabs were mediately or immediately our instructors in this study. But the Arabs themvol. 11.2 E
selves scarcely pretend to the discovery of Algebra. They were not in general inventors but scholars, during the short period of their successful culture of the sciences: and the germ at least of the Algebraic analysis is to be found among the Greeks in an age not precisely determined, but more than probably anterior to the earliest dawn of civilization among the Arabs; and this science in a more advanced state subsisted among the Hindus prior to the earliest disclosure of it by the Arabians to modern Europe.

The object of the present publication is to exhibit the science in the state in which the Hindus possessed it, by an exact version of the most approved treatise on it in the ancient language of India, with one of the earlier treatises (the only extant one) from which it was compiled. The design of this preliminary dissertation is to deduce from these and from the evidence which will be here offered, the degree of advancement to which the science had arrived in a remote age. Observations will be added, tending to a comparison of the Indian with the Arabian, the Grecian, and the modern Algebra: and the subject will be left to the consideration of the learned, for a conclusion to be drawn by them from the internal, no less than the external proof, on the question who can best vindicate a claim to the merit of having originally invented or first improved the methods of computation and analysis, which are the groundwork of both the simple and abstruser parts of Mathematics; that is, Arithmetic and Algebra : so far, at least, as the ancient inventions are affected; and also in particular points, where recent discoveries are concerned.

In the actual advanced condition of the analytic art, it is. not hoped, that this version of ancient Sanscrit treatises on Algebra, Arithmetic, and Mensuration, will add to the resources of the art, and throw new light on mathematical science, in any other respect, than as concerns its history.

Yet the remark may not seem inapposite, that had an earlier version of these treatises been completed, had they been translated and given to the public when the notice of mathematicians was first drawn to the attainments of the Hindus in astronomy and in sciences connected with it; some addition would have been then made to the means and resources of Algebra for the general solution of problems by methods which have been re-invented, or have been perfected, in the last age.

The treatises in question, which occupy the present volume, are the Víja ganiita and Lálávatı́ of Bháscara áchárya, and the Ganitádhyáya and Cuittacádhyáya of Brahmegupta. The two first mentioned constitute the preliminary portion of Bhíscara's Course of Astronomy, entitled Siddhánta śirbmañi. The two last are the twelfth and eighteenth chapters of a similar course of astronomy; by Brahmegupta, entitled Bráhma siddhánta.

The questions to be first examined in relation to these works are their authenticity and their age. To the consideration of those points we now proceed.

The period when Bháscara, the latest of the authors now named, flourished, and the time when he wrote, are ascertained with unusual precision. He completed his great work, the Siddhánta śiromańi, as he himself informs us in a passage of it,* in the year 1072 Śáca. This information receives corroboration, if any be wanted, from the date of another of his works, the Carańa cutuhala, a practical astronomical treatise, the epoch of which is 1105 Śáca; $\dagger$ thirty-three years subsequent to the completion of the systematic treatise. The date of the Siddhánta śirbmańi, of which the Víja ganita and Lílávatí are parts,

[^236]is fixed, then, with the utmost exactness, on the most satisfactory grounds, at the middle of the twelfth century of the Christian era, A.D. 1150.*

The genuineness of the text is established with no less certainty by numerous commentators in Sanscrit, besides a Persian version of it. Those commentaries comprise a perpetual gloss, in which every passage of the original is noticed and interpreted : and every word of it is repeated and explained. A comparison of them authenticates the text where they agree; and would serve, where they did not, to detect any alterations of it that might have taken place, or variations, if any had crept in, subsequent to the composition of the earliest of them. A careful collation of several commentaries, $\dagger$ and of three copies of the original work, has been made ; and it will be seen in the notes to the translation how unimportant are the discrepancies.

From comparison and collation, it appears then that the work of Bháscara, exhibiting the same uniform text which the modern transcripts of it do, was in the hands of both Muhammedans and Hindus, between two and three centuries ago: and, numerous copies of it having been diffused throughont India, at an earlier period, as of a performance held in high estimation, it was the subject of study and habitual reference in countries and places so remote from each other as the north and west of India and the southern peninsula; or, to speak with the utmost precision, Jambusara in the west, Agra in North Hindustan, and Párthapura, Gblagráma, Amarávatí, and Nandigráma, in the south.

[^237]This, though not marking any extraordinary antiquity, nor approaching to that of the author himself, was a material point to be determined : as there will be in the sequel occasion to show, that modes of analysis, and, in particular, general methods for the solution of indeterminate problems both of the first and second degrees, are taught in the $V_{i j a}^{\prime}$ ganitita, and those for the first degree repeated in the Lílávatí, which were unknown to the mathematicians of the west, until invented anew in the last two centuries by algebraists of France and England. It will be also shown, that Bháscara, who himself flourished more than six hundred and fifty years ago, was in this respect a compiler, and took those methods from Indian authors as much more ancient than himself.

That Bhascara's text (meaning the metrical rules and examples, apart from the interspersed gloss) had continued unaltered from the period of the compilation of his work until the age of the commentaries now current, is apparent from the care with which they have noticed its various readings, and the little actual importance of these variations; joined to the consideration, that earlier commentaries, including the author's own explanatory annotations of his text, were extant, and lay before them for consultation and reference. Those earlier commentaries are occasionally cited by name: particularly the Ganita cau$m u d i ́$, which is repeatedly quoted by more than one of the scholiasts.*

No doubt then can be reasonably entertained, that we now possess the arithmetic and algebra of Bhiscara, as composed and published by him in the middle of the twelfth century of the Christian era. The age of his precursors cannot be determined with equal precision. Let

[^238]us proceed, however, to examine the evidence, such as we can at present collect, of their antiquity.

Towards the close of his treatise on Algebra,* Beíscara informs us, that it is compiled and abridged from the more diffuse works on the same subject, bearing the names of Brahme, (meaning no doubt Brahmegupta,) Śrídhara and Padmaníbha; and in the body of his treatise, he has cited a passage of Śridhara's algebra, $t$ and another of Padmanábha's. $\ddagger$ He repeatedly adverts to preceding writers, and refers to them in general terms, where his commentators understand him to allude to Áryabhaffa, to Brahmegupta, to the latter's scholiast Chaturveda Prit'hedaca swámí, § and to the other writers above mentioned.

Most, if not all, of the treatises, to which he thus alludes, must have been extant, and in the hands of his commentators, when they wrote; as appears from their quotations of them; more especially those of Brahmegupta and Áryabhat́fa, who are cited, and particularly the first mentioned, in several instances. || A long and diligent research in various parts of India, has, however, failed of recovering any part of the Padmanábha víja (or Algebra of Padmanábia), and of the algebraic and other works of Áryabhaft́a. $\dagger$ But the translator has been more fortunate in regard to the works of Śsidhara and Brahmegupta, having in his collection Śriditara's compendium of arithmetic, and a copy, incomplete however, of the text and scholia of Brahmegupta's Bráhma siddhánta, comprising among other no less interesting matter, a chapter treating of arithmetic and mensuration; and another,

[^239]the subject of which is algebra: both of them fortunately complete.*

The commentary is a perpetual one ; successively quoting at length each verse of the text; proceeding to the interpretation of it, word by word ; and subjoining elucidations and remarks: and its colophon, at the close of each chapter, gives the title of the work and the name of the author. $\dagger$ Now the name, which is there given, Chaturveda Prit'hedaca swámi, is that of a celebrated scholiast of Brahmegupta, frequently cited as such by the commentaries of Bháscara and by other astronomical writers : and the title of the work, Bráhma sidllhánta, or sometimes Bráhma sp'hut́a siddhánta, corresponds, in the shorter form, to the known title of Brahmegupta's treatise in the usual references to it by Bháscara's commentators ; $\ddagger$ and answers, in the longer form, to the designation of it, as indicated in an introductory couplet which is quoted from Brahmegupta by Lacshmídísa, a scholiast of Bháscara.§

Remarking this coincidence, the translator proceeded to collate, with the text and commentary, numerous quota- tions from both, which he found in Bháscara's writings, or in those of his expositors. The result confirmed the indication, and established the identity of both text and scholia as Brahmegupta's treatise, and the gloss of Prit'hgdaca. The authenticity of this Bráhma siddhánta is further confirmed by numerous quotations in the commentary of Bhaffótpala on the sanhitá of Varáha-

[^240]mihira : as the quotations from the Bráhma siddhánta in that commentary, (which is the work of an author who flourished eight hundred and fifty years ago,) are verified in the copy under consideration. A few instances of both will suffice, and cannot fail to produce conviction.*

It is confidently concluded, that the chapters on arithmetic and algebra, fortunately entire in a copy, in many parts imperfect, of Brahmegupta's celebrated work, as here described, are genuine and authentic. It remains to investigate the age of the author.

Mr. Davis, who first opened to the public a correct view of the astronomical computations of the Hindus, $\dagger$ is of opinion, that Brahmegupta lived in the seventh century of the Christian era. $\ddagger$ Dr. William Huntbr, who resided for some time with a British embassy at $U_{j j}$ ayaní, and made diligent researches into the remains of Indian science at that ancient seat of Hindu astronomical knowledge, was there furnished, by the learned astronomers whom he consulted, with the ages of the principal ancient authorities. They assigned to Brahmegupta the date of 550 Śáca; which answers to A.D. 628. The grounds on which they proceeded are unfortunately not specified : but, as they gave Bháscara's age correctly, as well as several other dates right, which admit of being verified; it is presumed that they had grounds, though unexplained, for the information which they communicated.§

Mr. Bentley, who is little disposed to favour the antiquity of an Indian astronomer, has given his reasons for considering the astronomical system which BrahmegUpTa teaches, to be between twelve and thirteen hundred years old (1263 零 years in A.D. 1799). \| Now, as the system taught by this author is professedly one corrected

[^241]and adapted by him to conform with the observed positions of the celestial objects when he wrote,* the age, when their positions would be conformable with the results of computations made as by him directed, is precisely the age of the author himself: and so far as Mr. Bentley's calculations may be considered to approximate to the truth, the date of Brahmigupta's performance is determined with like approach to exactness, within a certain latitude however of uncertainty for allowance to be made on account of the inaccuracy of Hindu observations.

The translator has assigned on fonner occasionst the grounds upon which he sees reason to place the author's age, soon after the period when the vernal equinox coincided with the beginning of the lunar mansion and zodiacal asterism Aśviní, where the Hindu ecliptic now commences. He is supported in it by the sentiments of Beiscara and other Indian astronomers, who infer from Brahmeg upta's doctrine concerning the solstitial points, of which he does not admit a periodical motion, that he lived when the equinoxes did not, sensibly to him, deviate from the beginning of Aświní and middle of Chitrá on the Hindu sphere. $\ddagger$ On these grounds it is maintained, that Brafmegupta is rightly placed in the sixth or beginning of the seventh century of the Christian era; as the subjoined calculations will more particularly show.§ The age when BrahmegUPTA flourished, seems then, from the concurrence of all these arguments, to be satisfactorily settled as antecedent to the earliest dawn of the culture of sciences among the Arabs; and consequently establishes the fact, that the Hindus were in possession of algebra before it was known to the Arabians.

[^242]Brahmegupta's treatise, however, is not the earliest work known to have been written on the same subject by an Indian author. The most eminent scholiast of BHiscara* quotes a passage of Áryabhat́fa specifying algebra under the designation of $V_{i j}^{\prime} a$, and making separate mention of Cuttaca, which more particularly intends a problem subservient to the general method of resolution of indeterminate problems of the first degree: he is understood by another of Bháscara's commentators $\dagger$ to be at the head of the elder writers, to whom the text then under consideration adverts, as having designated by the name of Madhyamáharańa the resolution of affected quadratic equations by means of the completion of the square. It is to be presumed, therefore, that the treatise of Áryabhaffa then extant, did extend to quadratic equations in the determinate analysis, and to indeterminate problems of the first degree; if not to those of the second likewise, as most probably it did.

This ancient astronomer and algebraist was anterior to both Varáhamihira and Brahmegupta, being repeatedly named by the latter; and the determination of the age when he flourished is particularly interesting, as his astronomical system, though on some points agreeing, essentially disagreed on others, with that which those authors have followed, and which the Hindu astronomers still maintain. $\ddagger$

He is considered by the commentators of the Surya siddhánta and Śiromañi,§ as the earliest of uninspired and mere human writers on the science of astronomy ; as having introduced requisite corrections into the system of

[^243]Paráśara, from whom he took the numbers for the planetary mean motions; as having been followed in the tract of emendation, after a sufficient interval to make further correction requisite, by Durgasinha and Mifira; who were again succeeded after a further interval by Brahmegupta son of Jishíu.*

In short, Áryabhat́tia was founder of one of the sects of Indian astronomers, as Pulíśa, an author likewise anterior to both Varáhamihira and Brahmegupta, was of another: which were distinguished by names derived from the discriminative tenets respecting the commencement of planetary motions at sun-rise according to the first, but at midnight according to the latter, $\dagger$ on the meridian of Lancá, at the beginning of the great astronomical cycle. A third sect began the astronomical day, as well as the great period, at noon.

His name accompanied the intimation which the Arab astronomers (under the Abbasside Khalifs, as it would appear,) received, that three distinct astronomical systems were current among the Hindus of those days: and it is but slightly corrupted, certainly not at all disguised, in the Arabic representation of it Arjabahar, or rather Arjabhar. $\ddagger$ The two other systems were, first, Brahmegupta's

[^244]Siddhánta, which was the one they became best acquainted with, and to which they apply the denomination of the sind-hind; and second, that of Arca the sun, which they write Árcand, a corruption still prevalent in the vulgar Hindí.*

Áryabhaft́a appears to have had more correct notions of the true explanation of celestial phenomena than Brafmegupta himself; who, in a few instances, correcting errors of his predecessor, but oftener deviating from that predecessor's juster views, has been followed by the herd of modern Hindu astronomers, in a system not improved, but deteriorated, since the time of the more ancient author.

Considering the proficiency of Áryabhaffa in astronomical science, and adverting to the fact of his having written upon Algebra, as well as to the circumstance of his being named by numerous writers as the founder of a sect, or author of a system in astronomy, and being quoted at the head of algebraists, when the commentators of extant treatises have occasion to mention early and original $\dagger$ writers on this branch of science, it is not necessary to seek further for a mathematician qualified to have been the great improver of the analytic art, and likely to have been the person by whom it was carried to the pitch to which it is found to have attained among the Hindus, and at which it is observed to be nearly stationary through the long lapse of ages which have since passed : the later additions being few and unessential in the writings of Brahmegupta, of Bháscara, and of Jnyana rája, though they lived at intervals of centuries from each other.

Áryabhaft́fa then being the earliest author known to

- See notes I, K, and N.
+ SGrya dísa on Vija ganita, ch. 5.
have treated of Algebra among the Hindus, and being likely to be, if not the inventor, the improver of that analysis, by whom too it was pushed nearly to the whole degree of excellence which it is found to have attained among them; it becomes in an especial manner interesting to investigate any discoverable trace in the absence of better and more direct evidence, which may tend to fix the date of his labours, or to indicate the time which elapsed between him and Brahmegupta, whose age is more accurately determined.*

Taking Áryabhaffa, for reasons given in the notes, to have preceded Brahmegupta and Varíhamihira by several centuries; and Brahmegupta to have flourished about twelve hundred years ago; $\dagger$ and Varáhamitira, concerning whose works and age some further notices will be found in a subjoined note, $\ddagger$ to have lived at the beginning of the sixth century after Christ,§ it appears probable that this earliest of known Hindu algebraists wrote as far back as the fifth century of the Christian era; and, perhaps, in an earlier age. Hence it is concluded that he is nearly as ancient as the Grecian algebraist Diophantus, supposed, on the authority of Abulparaj, to have flourished in the time of the Emperor Julian, or about A.D. 360.

Admitting the Hindu and Alexandrian authors to be nearly equally ancient, it must be conceded in favour of the Indian algebraist, that he was more advanced in the science; since he appears to have been in possession of the resolution of equations involving several unknown, which it is not clear, nor fairly presumable, that Diophantus

[^245]knew; and a general method for indeterminate problems of at least the first degree, to a knowledge of which the Grecian algebraist had certainly not attained; though he displays infinite sagacity and ingenuity in particular solutions; and though a certain routine is discernible in them.

A comparison of the Grecian, Hindu, and Arabian algebras, will more distinctly show, which of them had made the greatest progress at the earliest age of each, that can be now traced.
'The notation or algorithm of Algebra is so essential to this art, as to deserve the first notice in a review of the Indian method of analysis, and a comparison of it with the Grecian and Arabian algebras. The Hindu algebraists use abbreviations and initials for symbols : they distinguish negative quantities by a dot,* but have not any mark, besides the absence of the negative sign, to discriminate a positive quantity. No marks or symbols indicating operations of addition, or multiplication, \&c. are employed by them : nor any announcing equality $\dagger$ or relative magnitude (greater or less). $\ddagger$ But a factum is denoted by the initial syllable of a word of that import,§ subjoined to the terms which compose it, between which a dot is sometimes interposed. A fraction is indicated by placing the divisor under the dividend, $\|$ but without a line of separation. The two sides of an equation are ordered in the same manner, one under the other : $\mathbb{T}$ and this method of placing

[^246]terms under each other being likewise practised upon other occasions,* the intent is in the instance to be collected from the recital of the steps of the process in words at length, which always accompanies the algebraic process. That recital is also requisite to ascertain the precise intent of vertical lines interposed between the terms of a geometric progression, but ased also upon other occasions, to separate and discriminate quantities. The symbols of unknown quantity are not confined to a single one: but extend to ever so great a variety of denominations: and the characters used are initial syllables of the names of colours, $\dagger$ excepting the first, which is the initial of yávat-távat, ' as mach as'; words of the same import with Bombelli's tanto, used by him for the same purpose. Colour therefore means unknown quantity, or the symbol of it: and the same Sanscrǐt word, varńa, also signifying a literal character, letters are accordingly employed likewise as symbols; either taken from the alphabet $\ddagger \ddagger$ or else initial syllables of words signifying the subjects of the problem; whether of a general nature,§ or specially the names of geometric lines in algebraic demonstrations of geometric propositions or solution of geometric problems.|| Symbols too are employed, not only for unknown quantities, of which the value is sought; but for variable quantities of which the value may be arbitrarily put ( $V_{j}^{\prime} j$. Ch. 6 , note on commencement of § 153-156), and especially in demonstrations, for both given and sought quantities. Initials of the terms for square and solid respectively denote those powers; and combined they indicate the higher. These are reckoned not by the sums of the powers, but by their products. An initial $\mathbb{\|}$ syllable is in like manner

[^247]used to mark a surd root.* The terms of a compound quantity are ordered according to the powers; and the absolute number invariably comes last. It also is distinguished by an initial syllable, as a discriminative token of known quantity. $\dagger$ Numeral coefficients are employed, inclusive of unity which is always noted, and comprehending fractions $; \ddagger$ for the numeral divisor is generally so placed, rather than under the symbol of the unknown: and in like manner the negative dot is set over the numeral coefficient : and not over the literal character. The coefficients are placed after the symbol of the unknown quantity.§ Equations are not ordered so as to put all the quantities positive; nor to give precedence to a positive term in a compound quantity: for the negative terms are retained, and even preferably put in the first place. In stating the two sides of an equation, the general, though not invariable, practice is, at least in the first instance, to repeat every term, which occurs in the one side, on the other : annexing nought for the coefficient, if a term of that particular denomination be there wanting.

If reference be made to the writings of Diophantus, and of the Arabian algebraists, and their early disciples in Europe, it will be found, that the notation, which has been here described, is essentially different from all theirs, much as they vary. Diopanantus employs the inverted medial of ${ }^{2} \lambda \lambda \varepsilon \iota \psi \stackrel{s}{ }$, defect or want (opposed to $\dot{\pi} \pi a \rho \xi!$, substance or abundance \|) to indicate a negative quantity. He prefixes that mark $\uparrow$ to the quantity in question. He calls the unknown, ápı0 ${ }^{\prime} \varsigma$; representing it by the final $\varsigma$, which

[^248]he doubles for the plural; while the Arabian algebraists apply the equivalent word for number to the constant or known term ; and the Hindus, on the other hand, refer the word for numerical character to the coefficient. He denotes the monad, or unit absolute, by $\mu^{\boldsymbol{+}}$; and the linear quantity is called by him arithmos; and designated, like the unknown, by the final sigma. He marks the further powers by initials of words signifying them: $\delta^{\nu}, x^{\nu}$, $\delta \delta^{\nu}, \delta x^{\nu}, x x^{\nu}, \& c$. for dynamis, power (meaning the square); cubos, cube; dynamo-llynamis, biquadrate, \&c. But he reckons the higher by the sums, not the products, of the lower. Thus the sixth power is with him the cubo-cubos, which the Hindus designate as the quadrate-cube, (cube of the square, or square of the cube).

The Arabian algebraists are still more sparing of symbols, or rather entirely destitute of them. $\dagger$ They have none, whether arbitrary or abbreviated, either for quantities known or unknown, positive or negative, or for the steps and operations of an algebraic process; but express every thing by words, and phrases, at full length. Their European scholars introduced a few, and very few abbreviations of names: $c^{0}, c^{c}, c^{u}$, for the three first powers; $c^{0}, q^{2}$, for the first and second unknown quantities; $p, m$, for plus and minus; and R for the note of radicality; occur in the first printed work, which is that of Paciolo. $\ddagger$ Leonardo Bonaccı of Pisa the earliest scholar of the Arabians, § is said by Targioni Tozzetti to have used the small letters of the alphabet to denote quantities. || But Leo-

[^249]nardo only does so because he represents quantities by straight lines, and designates those lines by letters, in elucidation of his algebraic solutions of problems.*

The Arabians termed the unknown (and they wrought but on one) shai thing. It is translated by Leonardo of Pisa and his disciples, by the correspondent Latin word res and Italian cosa; whence Regola de la Cosa, and Rule of Coss, with Cossike practice and Cossike number of our older authors, $\dagger$ for Algebra or Speculative practice, as Paciolo $\ddagger$ denominates the analytic art; and Cossic number, in writers of a somewhat later date, for the root of an equation.

The Arabs termed the square of the unknown mál, possession or wealth; translated by the Latin census and Italian censo; as terms of the same import: for it is in the acceptation of amount of property or estate§ that census was here used by Leonardo.

The cube was by the Arabs termed câb, a die or cube; and they combined these terms mál and câb for compound names of the more elevated powers, in the manner of Diophantus, by the sums of the powers; and not like the Hindus by their products. Such, indeed, is their method in the modern elementary works: but it is not clear that the same mode was observed by their earlier writers; for their Italian scholars denominated the biquadrate and higher powers Relato primo, secundo, tertio, \&c.

Positive they call záïd additional; and negative nákis deficient : and, as before observed, they have no discrimi native marks for either of them.

[^250]The operation of restoring negative quantities, if any there be, to the positive form, which is an essential step with them, is termed jebr, or with the article Aljebr, the mending or restoration. That of comparing the terms and taking like from like, which is the next material step in the process of resolution, is called by them mukúbalah, comparison. Hence the name of Tarík aljebr wa almukábalah, ' the method of restoration and comparison,' which obtained among the Arabs for this branch of the analytic art ; and hence our name of Algebra, from Leonardo of Pisa's exact version of the Arabic title. Fi istikhráju'l majhúlát be tarík aljebr wa almukábalah,* De solutione quarundam quæstionum secundum modum Algebra et Almuchabala. $\dagger$

The two steps or operations which have thus given name to the method of analysis, are precisely what is enjoined without distinctive appellations of them, in the introduction of the arithmetics of Diophantus, where he directs, that, if the quantities be positive on both sides, like are to be taken from like, until one species be equal to one species; but if on either side or on both any species be negative, the negative species must be added to both sides, so that they become positive on both sides of the equation : after which like are again to be taken from like, until one species remain on each side. $\ddagger$

The Hindu algebra not requiring the terms of the equation to be all exhibited in the form of positive quantity, does not direct the preliminary step of restoring negative quantity to the affirmative state, but proceeds at once to the operation of equal subtraction (samaśsdhana) for the difference of like terms, which is the process denominated

[^251]by the Arabian algebraists comparison（mukábalah）．On that point，therefore，the Arabian algebra has more affinity to the Grecian than to the Indian analysis．

As to the progress which the Hindus had made in the analytic art，it will be seen，that they possessed well the arithmetic of surd roots；＊that they were aware of the infinite quotient resulting from the division of finite quan－ tity by cipher；that they knew the general resolution of equations of the second degree，and had touched upon those of higher denomination，resolving them in the sim－ plest cases，and in those in which the solution happens to be practicable by the method which serves for quadratics：$\ddagger$ that they had attained a general solution of indeterminate problems of the first degree；§ that they had arrived at a method for deriving a multitude of solutions of answers to problems of the second degree from a single answer found tentatively，$\|$ which is as near an approach to a general solution of such problems as was made until the days of Lagrange，who first demonstrated，that the problem，on which the solutions of all questions of this nature depend， is always resolvable in whole numbers．TI The Hindus had likewise attempted problems of this higher order by the application of the method which suffices for those of the first degree；＊＊with indeed very scanty success，as might be expected．

They not only applied algebra both to astronomyt＋and

[^252]to geometry,* but conversely applied geometry likewise to the demonstration of algebraic rules. $\dagger$ In short, they cultivated algebra much more, and with greater success, than geometry; as is evident from the comparatively low state of their knowledge in the one, $\ddagger$ and the high pitch of their attainments in the other : and they cultivated it for the sake of astronomy, as they did this chiefly for astrological purposes. The examples in the earliest algebraic treatise extant (Brahmegupta's) are mostly astronomical: and here the solution of indeterminate problems is sometimes of real and practical use. The instances in the later treatise of algebra by Bháscara are more various: many of them geometric; but one astronomical ; the rest numeral : among which a great number of indeterminate; and of these some, though not the greatest part, resembling the questions which chiefly engage the attention of Diophantus. But the general character of the Diophantine problems, and of the Hindu unlimited ones, is by no means alike : and several in the style of Diophantine are noticed by Bháscara in his arithmetical, instead of his algebraic, treatise. §

To pursue this summary comparison further, Diophantus appears to have been acquainted with the direct resolution of affected quadratic equations; but less familiar with the management of them, he seldom touches on it. Chiefly busied with indeterminate problems of the first degree, he yet seems to have possessed no general rule for their solution. His elementary instructions for the preparation of equations are succinct; $\|$ his notation, as before

[^253]observed, scanty and inconvenient. In the whole science he is very far behind the Hindu writers, notwithstanding the infinite ingenuity by which he makes up for the want of rule, and although presented to us under the disadvantage of mutilation ; if it be, indeed, certain that the text of only six, or at most seven, of thirteen books, which his introduction announces, has been preserved.* It is sufficiently clear from what does remain, that the lost part could not have exhibited a much higher degree of attainment in the art. It is presumable, that so much as we possess of his work is a fair specimen of the progress which he and the Greeks before him (for he is hardly to be considered as the inventor, since he seems to treat the art as already known) had made in his time.

The points in which the Hindu algebra appears particularly distinguished from the Greek, are, besides a better and more comprehensive algorithm,-lst, The management of equations involving more than one unknown term. (This adds to the two classes noticed by the Arabs, namely, simple and compound, two, or rather three, other classes of equation.) 2 d , The resolution of equations of a higher order, in which, if they achieved little, they had, at least, the merit of the attempt, and anticipated a modern discovery in the solution of biquadratics. 3d. General methods for the solutions of indeterminate problems of first and second degrees, in which they went far, indeed, beyond Diophantus, and anticipated discoveries of modern algebraists. 4th, Application of algebra to astronomical investigation and geometrical demonstration, in which also they hit upon some matters which have been reinvented in later times.

This brings us to the examination of some of their anti-

[^254]cipations of modern discoveries. The reader's notice will be here drawn to three instances in particular.

The first is in the demonstration of the noted proposition of Pythagoras, concerning the square of the base of a rectangular triangle, equal to the squares of the two legs containing a right angle. The demonstration is given two ways in Bháscara's algebra ( $V_{i j}^{\prime} j$-gań. § 146). The first of them is the same which is delivered by Wallis in his treatise on angular sections (ch. vi.), and, as far as appears, then given for the first time.*

On the subject of demonstrations, it is to be remarked that the Hindu mathematicians proved propositions both algebraically and geometrically : as is particularly noticed by Bhíscara himself, towards the close of his algebra, where he gives both modes of proof of a remarkable method for the solution of indeterminate problems, which involve a factum of two unknown quantities. The rule which he demonstrates is of great antiquity in Hindu algebra, being found in the works of his predecessor Brahmegupta, and being there a quotation from a more ancient treatise; for it is injudiciously censured, and a less satisfactory method by unrestricted arbitrary assumption given in its place. Bháscara has retained both.

The next instance, which will be here noticed, is the general solution of indeterminate problems of the first degree.

[^255]It was first given among moderns by Bachet de Meziriac in 1624.* Having shown how the solution of equations of the form $a x-b y=c$ is reduced to $a x-b y= \pm 1$, he proceeds to resolve this equation; and prescribes the same operation on $a$ and $b$ as to find the greatest common divisor. He names the residues $c, d, e, f, \& c$. and the last remainder is necessarily unity : $a$ and $b$ being prime to each other. By retracing the steps from $e \bar{\mp}$ or $f^{ \pm} 1$ (according as the number of remainders is even or odd) $e \mp 1=1$,
$\frac{e d \pm 1}{e}=\delta, \frac{\delta c \overline{+} 1}{d}=\gamma, \frac{\gamma b \pm 1}{c}=\beta, \frac{\beta a \mp 1}{b}=\alpha$
or $f \pm 1=\zeta, \frac{\zeta e \overline{+}}{f}=\varepsilon, \frac{\varepsilon d \pm 1}{e}=\delta, \& c$.
The last numbers $\beta$ and $\alpha$ will be the smallest values of $x$ and $y$. It is observed, that if $a$ and $b$ be not prime to each other, the equation cannot subsist in whole numbers, unless $c$ be divisible by the greatest common measure of $a$ and $b$.

Here we have precisely the method of the Hindu algebraists, who have not failed, likewise, to make the last cited observation. See Brahm. Algebra, section 1. and Bhasc. Lél. ch. xii. Víj. ch. ii. It is so prominent in the Indian algebra as to give name to the oldest treatise on it extant, and to constitute a distinct head in the enumeration of the different branches of mathematical knowledge in a passage cited from a still more ancient author. See Líl. § 248.

Confining the comparison of Hindu and modern algebras to conspicuous instances, the next for notice is that of the solution of indeterminate problems of the second degree; for which a general method is given by Brahmegupta,

[^256]besides rules for subordinate cases, and two general methods (one of them the same with Brahmegupta's) besides special cases, subservient, however, to the universal solution of problems of this nature; and, to obtain whole numbers in all circumstances, a combination of the method for problems of the first degree with that for those of the second, employing them alternately, or, as the Hindu algebraist terms it, proceeding in a circle.

Bháscara's second method ( $V^{\prime} j$. § $80-81$ ) for a solution of the problem on which all indeterminate ones of this degree depend, is exactly the same which Lord Brouncker devised to answer a question proposed by way of challenge by Fermat in 1657. The thing required was a general rule for finding the innumerable square numbers, which multiplied by a proposed (non-quadrate) number, and then assuming an unit, will make a square. Lord Brouncker's rule, putting $\boldsymbol{n}$ for any given number, $r^{2}$ for any square taken at pleasure, and $d$ for difference between $n$ and $r^{2}\left(r^{2}\right.$ © $n$ ) was $\frac{4 r^{2}}{d^{2}}\left(=\frac{2 r}{d} \times \frac{2 r}{d}\right)$ the square required. In the Hindu rule, using the same symbols, $\frac{2 r}{d}$ is the square root required.* But neither Brounceer, nor Wallis, who himself contrived another method, nor Fermat, by whom the question was proposed, but whose mode of solution was never made known by him, (probably because he had not found any thing better than Wallis and Brouncker discovered $\dagger$ ), nor Frenicle, who treated the subject without, however, adding to what had been done by Wallis and Brouncker, $\ddagger$ appear to have been aware of the importance of the problem and its universal use ; a discovery which, among the moderns, was reserved for Euler in the middle of the last century. To him,

[^257]among the moderns, we owe the remark which the Hindus had made more than a thousand years before,* that the problem was requisite to find all the possible solutions of equations of this sort. Lagrange takes credit for having further advanced the progress of this branch of the indeterminate analysis, so lately as 1767 ; $\dagger$ and his complete solution of equations of the second degree appeared no earlier than 1769. $\ddagger$

It has been pretended, that traces of the art are to be discovered in the writings of the Grecian geometers, and particularly in the five first propositions of Euclid's thirteenth book; whether, as Wallis conjectures, what we there have be the work of Theon or some other ancient scholiast, rather than of Euclid himself: § also examples of analytic investigation in Pappus; $\|$ and indications of a method somewhat of a like nature with algebra, or at least the effects of it, in the works of Archimedes and Apollonius, though they are supposed to have very studiously concealed this their art of invention. $\boldsymbol{T}$

This proceeds on the ground of considering analysis and algebra as interchangeable terms; and applying to algebra Euclid's or Theon's definition of analysis, 'a taking of that as granted, which is sought, and thence by consequences arriving at what is confessedly true. ${ }^{* *}$

Undoubtedly they possessed a geometrical analysis; hints or traces of which exist in the writings of more than

[^258]one Greek mathematician, and especially in those of Archimedes. But this is very different from the algebraic calculus. The resemblance extends, at most, to the method of inversion; which both Hindus and Arabians consider to be entirely distinct from their respective algebras; and which the former, therefore, join with their arithmetic and mensuration.*

In a very general sense, the analytic art, as Hindu writers observe, is merely sagacity exercised, and is independent of symbols, which do not constitute the art. In a more restricted sense, according to them, it is calculation attended with the manifestation of its principles; and, as they further intimate, a method aided by devices, among which symbols and literal signs are conspicuous. $\dagger$ Defined, as analysis is by an illustrious modern mathematician, $\ddagger$ ' a method of resolving mathematical problems by reducing them to equations,' it assuredly is not to be found in the works of any Grecian writer extant, besides Diophantus.

In his treatise the rudiments of algebra are clearly contained. He delivers in a succinct manner the algorithm of affirmative and negative quantities; teaches to form an equation; to transpose the negative terms; and to bring out a final simple equation comprising a single term of each species known and unknown.

Admitting, on the ground of the mention of a mathematician of his name, whose works were commented by Hypatia about the beginning of the fifth century, § and on the authority of the Arabic annals of an Armenian Christian, $\|$ which make him contemporary with Julian, that

[^259]he lived towards the middle of the fourth century of the Christian era; or, to speak with precision, about the year 360 ;* the Greeks will appear to have possessed in the fourth century so much of algebra, as is to be effected by dexterous application of the resolution of equations of the first degree, and even the second, to limited problems; and to indeterminate also, without, however, having attained a general solution of problems of this latter class.

The Arabs acquired algebra, extending to simple and compound (meaning quadratic) equations; but it was confined, so far as appears, to limited problems of those degrees ; and they possessed it so early as the close of the eighth century, or commencement of the ninth. Treatises were at that period written in the Arabic language on the algebraic analysis, by two distinguished mathematicians who flourished under the Abasside Almímún; and the more ancient of the two, Muhammed ben Musa al Khuwárazmí, is recognized among the Arabians as the first who made algebra known to them. He is the same who abridged, for the gratification of Almámen, an astronomical work taken from the Indian system in the preceding age, under Almanstr. He framed tables, likewise, grounded on those of the Hindus, which he professed to correct. And he studied and communicated to his countrymen the Indian compendious method of computation; that is, their arithmetic, and, as is to be inferred, their analytic calculus also. $\dagger$

The Hindus in the fifth century, perhaps earlier, $\ddagger$ were in possession of Algebra extending to the general solution

[^260]of both determinate and indeterminate problems of the 1st and 2 d degrees : and subsequently advanced to the special solution of biquadratics wanting the second term; and of cubics in very restricted and easy cases.

Priority seems then decisive in favour of both Greeks and Hindus against any pretensions on the part of the Arabians, who in fact, however, prefer none, as inventors of algebra. They were avowed borrowers in science; and, by their own unvaried acknowledgment, from the Hindus they learnt the science of numbers. That they also received the Hindu algebra, is much more probable, than that the same mathematician who studied the Indian arithmetic and taught it to his Arabian brethren, should have hit upon algebra unaided by any hint or suggestion of the Indian analysis.

The Arabs became acquainted with the Indian astronomy and numerical science before they had any knowledge of the writings of the Grecian astronomers and mathematicians; and it was not until after more than one century, and nearly two, that they had the benefit of an interpretation of Diophantus, whether version or paraphrase, executed by Muhammed Abulwafá al Buzjání; who added, in a separate form, demonstrations of the propositions contained in DiofhanTUs; and who was likewise author of commentaries on the algebraic treatises of the Khuxarezmite Muhammed ben Musa, and of another algebraist of less note and later date, Abu Yahya, whose lecture she had personally attended.* Any inference to be drawn from their knowledge and study of the Arithmetics of Diophantus, and their seeming adoption of his preparation of equations in their own algebra, or at least the close resemblance of both on this point, is of no avail against the direct evidence,

[^261]with which we are furnished by them, of previous instruction in algebra and the publication of a treatise on the art, by an author conversant with the Indian science of computation in all its branches.

But the age of the earliest known Hindu writer on algebra not being with certainty carried to a period anterior, or even quite equal to that in which Diophantus is on probable grounds placed, the argument of priority, so far as investigation has yet proceeded, is in favour of Grecian invention. The Hindus, however, had certainly made distinguished progress in the science, so early as the century immediately following that in which the Grecian taught the rudiments of it. The Hindus had the benefit of a good arithmetical notation : the Greeks, the disadvantage of a bad one. Nearly allied as algebra is to arithmetic, the invention of the algebraic calculus was more easy and natural where arithmetic was best handled. No such marked identity of the Hindu and Diophantine systems is observed, as to demonstrate communication. They are sufficiently distinct to justify the presumption, that both might be invented independently of each other.

If, however, it be insisted, that a hint or suggestion, the seed of their knowledge, may have reached the Hindu mathematicians immediately from the Greeks of Alexandria, or mediately through those of Bactria, it must at the same time be confessed, that a slender germ grew and fructified rapidly, and soon attained an approved state of maturity in Indian soil.

More will not be here contended for : since it is not impossible, that the hint of the one analysis may have been actually received by the mathematicians of the other nation; nor unlikely, considering the arguments which may be brought for a probable communication on the subject of astrology; and adverting to the intimate connexion between
this and the pure mathematics, through the medium of astronomy.

The Hindus had undoubtedly made some progrees at an early period in the astronomy cultivated by them for the regulation of time. Their calendar, both civil and religious, was governed chiefly, not exclusively, by the moon and sun : and the motions of these luminaries were carefully observed by them, and with such success, that their determination of the moon's synodical revolution, which was what they were principally concerned with, is a much more correct one than the Greeks ever achieved.* They had a division of the ecliptic into twenty-seven and twenty-eight parts, suggested evidently by the moon's period in days, and seemingly their own: it was certainly borrowed by the Arabians. $\dagger$ Being led to the observation of the fixed stars, they obtained a knowledge of the positions of the most remarkable; and noticed, for religious purposes, and from superstitious notions, the heliacal rising, with other phonomena of a few. The adoration of the sun, of the planets, and of the stars, in common with the worship of the elements, held a principal place in their religious observances enjoined by the Védas: $\ddagger$ and they were led consequently by piety to watch the heavenly bodies. They were particularly conversant with the most splendid of the primary planets; the period of Jupiter being introduced by them, in conjunction with those of the sun and moon, into the regulation of their calendar, sacred and civil, in the form of the celebrated cycle of sixty years, common to them and to the Chaldeans, and still retained by them. From that cycle they advanced by progressive stages, as the Chaldeans likewise did, to larger periods; at first by combining

[^262]that with a number specifically suggested by other, or more correctly determined, revolutions of the heavenly bodies; and afterwards, by merely augmenting the places of figures for greater scope, (preferring this to the more exact method of combining periods of the planets by an algebraic process, which they likewise investigated*), until they arrived finally at the unwieldy cycles named Maháyugas and Calpas. But it was for the sake of astrology that they pushed their cultivation of astronomy, especially that of the minor planets, to the length alluded to. Now divination, by the relative position of the planets, seems to have been, in part at least, of a foreign growth, and comparatively recent introduction, among the Hindus. The belief in the influence of the planets and stars upon human affairs is with them, indeed, remotely ancient; and was a natural consequence of their creed, which made the sun a divine being, and the planets gods. But the notion, that the tendency of that supposed influence, or the manner in which it will be exerted, may be foreseen by man, and the effect to be produced by it foretold, through a knowledge of the position of the planets at a particular moment, is no necessary result of that creed; for it takes from beings believed divine, free-agency in other respects, as in their visible movements.

Whatever may have been the period when the notion first obtained, that foreknowledge of events on earth might be gained by observations of planets and stars, and by astronomical computation, or wherever that fancy took its rise, certain it is, that the Hindus have received and welcomed communications from other nations on topics of astrology : and although they had astrological divinations of their own as early as the days of Parásira and

[^263]Garga, centuries before the Christian era, there are yet grounds to presume that communications subsequently passed to them on the like subject, either from the Greeks, or from the same common source (perhaps that of the Chaldeans) whence the Greeks derived the grosser superstitions engrafted on their own genuine and ancient astro$\log y$, which was meteorological.

This opinion is not now suggested for the first time. Former occasions have been taken of intimating the same sentiment on this point:* and it has been strengthened by further consideration of the subject. As the question is closely connected with the topics of this dissertation, reasons for this opinion will be stated in the subjoined note. $\dagger$

Joining this indication to that of the division of the zodiac into twelve signs, represented by the same figures of animals, and named by words of the same import with the zodiacal signs of the Greeks; and taking into consideration the analogy, though not identity, of the Ptolemaic system, or rather that of Hipparchus, and the Indian one of excentric deferents and epicycles, which in both serve to account for the irregularities of the planets, or at least to compute them, no doubt can be entertained that the Hindus received hints from the astronomical schools of the Greeks.

It must then be admitted to be at least possible, if not probable, in the absence of direct evidence and positive proof, that the imperfect algebra of the Greeks, which had advanced in their hands no further than the solution of equations, involving one unknown term, as it is taught by Diophantus, was made known to the Hindus by their Grecian instructors in improved astronomy. But, by the

[^264]ingenuity of the Hindu scholars, the hint was rendered fruitful, and the algebraic method was soon ripened from that slender beginning to the advanced state of a well arranged science, as it was taught by Áryabhaffa, and as it is found in treatises compiled by Brahmegupta and Bháscara, of both which versions are here presented to the public.

## NOTES AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

A.

Scholiasts of Bháscara.
The oldest commentary of ascertained date which has come into the translator's hands, and has been accordingly employed by him for the purpose of collation, as well as in the progress of translation, is one composed by Gangidhara, son of Gbbardhana, and grandson of Divícara, inhabitant of Jambusara.* It appears from an example of an astronomical computation which it exhibits, + to have been written about the year 1342 Śaca (A.D. 1420). Though confined to the Lilávatí, it expounds and consequently authenticates a most material chapter of the Vija ganiita, which recurs nearly verbatim in both treatises; but is so essential a part of the one, as to have given name to the algebraic analysis in the works of the early writers. $\ddagger$ His elder brother Vishíu pań-

[^265]bira was author of a treatise of arithmetic, \&c. named Ganita sára, a title borrowed from the compendium of Śríhara. It is frequently quoted by him.

The next commentary in age, and consequent importance for the objects now under consideration, is that of SGrya suri, also named Suryadísa, native of Párt'hapura, near the confluence of the Godá and Vidarbhá rivers.* He was author of a complete commentary on the Siddhánta sírbmańi ; and of a distinct work on calculation, under the title of Gañita málatí; and of a compilation of astronominal and astrological doctrines, Hindu and Muhammedan, under the name of Siddhánta sanhitá sára samuchchaya, in which he makes mention of his commentary on the Siromanii. The gloss on the Lílávatí, entitled Ganitámrǐta, and that on the Víja ganiita, named Súrya pracáśa, both excellent works, containing a clear interpretation of the text, with a concise explanation of the principles of the rules, are dated the one in 1460, the other in 1463 Saca; or A.D. 1538 and 1541. His father Jnyánaríja, son of Náganát'ha, a Bráhmen and astronomer, was author, among other works, of an astronomical course, under the title of Siddhántasundara, still extant, $\dagger$ which, like the Siddhánta śirbmañi, comprises a treatise on algebra. It is repeatedly cited by his son.

Gańeśa, son of Ceśava, a distinguished astronomer, native of Nandi gráma, near Dévagiri, (better known by the Muhammedan name of Dauletábád), $\ddagger$ was author of a commentary on the Siddhánta śirbmańi, which is mentioned by his nephew and scholiast Nrǐsinia, in an

[^266]enumeration of his works, contained in a passage quoted by Viśwanát'ha on the Grahalághava. His commentary on the Lílávatí bears the title of Buddhivilásiní, and date of 1467 Śaca, or A.D. 1545. It comprises a copious exposition of the text, with demonstrations of the rules; and has been used throughout the translation as the best interprcter of it. He, and his father Céśava, and nephew Nrǐsinha, as well as his cousin Lacshmídísa, were authors of numerous works both on astronomy and divination. The most celebrated of his own performances, the Grahalághava, bears date 1442 Śaca, answering to A.D. 1520.
 gańita, is supplied by that of Crǐshńa, son of Ballala, and pupil of Vishíu, the disciple of Gańésís nephew Nrǐsinha. It contuins a clear and copious exposition of the sense, with ample demonstrations of the rules, much in the manner of Gańśśa, on the Lílávatí; whom also he imitated in composing a commentary on that treatise, and occasionally refers to it. His work is entitled Calpalatávatára. Its date is determined at the close of the sixteenth century of the Christian era, by the notice of it and of the author in a work of his brother Ranganát'ha, dated 1524 Śaca (A.D. 1602), as well as in one by his nephew Muniśwara. He appears to have been astrologer in the service of the Emperor Jbhángir, who reigned at the beginning of the seventeenth century.

The gloss of Ranganát'ha on the Vásaná, or demonstratory annotations of Bháscara, which is entitled Mitabháshiníá, contains no specification of date; but is determined, with sufficient certainty, towards the middle of the sixteenth century of the Śaca era, by the writer's relation of son to Nrysinha, the author of a commentary on the Súrya siddhánta, dated 1542 Śaca, and of the Vásaná
vártica (or gloss on Bháscara's annotations of the Śrirbmańi), which bears date in 1543 Śaca, or A.D. 1621 ; and his relation of brother, as well as pupil, to Camalácara, author of the Siddlánta tatwa vivéca, also composed towards the middle of the same century of the Śaca era. Nrisinha, and his uncle Viśwanát'ha, author of astrological commentaries, describe their common ancestor Divicara, and his grandfather RAma, as Maháráshíra Bráhmens, living at Gblagráma,* on the northern bank of the Gbdávarí, and do not hint a migration of the family. Nrysinha's own father, CrYshína, was author of a treatise on algebra in compendious rules (sutra), as his son affirms.

The $V_{i j}^{\prime} a \operatorname{prabbdha,~a~commentary~on~the~Vija~gańita,~}$ by Rama Crǐshía, son of Lacshmańa, and grandson of Nry̌sinha, inhabitant of Amarávatí, $\dagger$ is withont date or express indication of its period ; unless his grandfather Nrisinha be the same with the nephew of Viswanat'ha just now mentioned; or else identified with the nephew of Gańesa and preceptor of Vishńv, the instructor of Crǐshía, author of the Calpalatávatára. The presumption is on either part consistent with proximity of country : Amarávatı́ not being more than 150 miles distant from Nandigráma, nor more than 200 from Gblagráma. It is on one side made probable by the author's frequent reference to a commentary of his preceptor Críshía, which in substance corresponds to the Calpalatávatára; but the title differs, for he cites the Naváncura. On the other side it is to be remarked, that Cry̌shía, father of the Nrisinia, who wrote the Vásaná vártica, was author of a treatise on algebra, which is mentioned by his son, as before observed.

The Mantranjana, another commentary on the Lilávat́,

[^267]which has been used in the progress of the translation, bears no date, nor any indication whatsoever of the period when the author Ráma críshía déva, son of Sadidéva, surnamed Apadeva, wrote.

The Ganita caumudí, on the Lílávatí, is frequently cited by the modern commentators, and in particular by Surya suri and Ranganát'ha; but has not been recovered, and is only known from their quotations.

Of the numerous commentaries on the astronomical portion of Bháscara's Siddhánta śroromańi, little use having been here made, either for settling the text of the algebraic and arithmetical treatises of the author, or for interpreting particular passages of them, a reference to two commentaries of this class, besides those of SGrya suri and Gańéśa (which have not been recovered), and the author's own annotations, and the interpretation of them by NrYsinha above noticed, may suffice: viz. the Ganiita tatwa chintámańi, by Lacshmidása, grandson of Césíava, (probably the same with the father of Gańésa before mentioned), and son of Váchespati, dated 1423 Śaca, A.D. 1501); and the Márícha, by Muniśwara, surnamed ViśwarGpa, grandson of Ballíla, and son of Ranganit'ha, who was compiler of a work dated 1524 Śaca, A. D. 1620), as before mentioned. Muniśwara himself is the author of a distinct treatise of astronomy entitled Siddhánta sárvabhauma.

Persian versions of both the Lílávatí and $V_{z i j a}$ gañita have been already noticed, as also contributing to the authentication of the text. The first by Faizí, undertaken by the command of the Emperor Acber, was executed in the 32d year of his reign; A.H. 995, A.D. 1587. The translation of the $V_{j}^{\prime} j a$ ganita is later by half a century, having been completed by Ata Ullah Rashidi, in the 8th year of the reign of Sháh Jehán ; A. H. 1044. A. D. 1634.

## B.

## Astronomy of Brahmegupta.

Brahmegupta's entire work comprises twenty-one lectures or chapters; of which the ten first contain an astronomical system, consisting (lst and 2d) in the computation of mean motions and true places of the planets; 3d, solution of problems concerning time, the points of the horizon, and the position of places; 4th and 5th, calculation of lunar and solar eclipses; 6th, rising and setting of the planets; 7th, position of the moon's cusps ; 8th, observation of altitudes by the gnomon; 9th conjunctions of the planets; and, 10th, their conjunction with stars. The next ten are supplementary, including five chapters of problems with their solutions: and the twenty-first explains the principles of the astronomical system in a compendious treatise on spherics, treating of the astronomical sphere and its circles, the construction of sines, the rectification of the apparent planet from mean motions, the cause of lunar and solar eclipses, and the construction of the armillary sphere.

The copy of the scholia and text, in the translator's possession, wants the whole of the 6th, 7th, and 8th chapters, and exhibits gaps of more or less extent in the preceding five; and appears to have been transcribed from an exemplar equally defective. From the middle of the 9 th, to near the close of the 15th chapters, is an uninterrupted and regular series, comprehending a very curious chapter, the 11 th, which contains a revision and censure of earlier writers: and next to it the chapter on arithmetic and mensuration, which is the 12th of the work. It is followed in the 13th, and four succeeding chapters, by solutions of problems concerning mean and true motions of planets, finding of
time, place, and points in the horizon; and relative to other matters, which the defect of the two last of five chapters renders it impracticable to specify. Next comes, (but in a separate form, being transcribed from a different exemplar,) the 18th chapter on Algebra. The two which should succeed, (and one of which, as appears from a reference to a chapter on this subject, treats of the various measures of time under the several denominations of solar, siderial, lunar, \&o.; and the other, from like references to it, is known to treat of the delineation of celestial phenomena by diagram,) are entirely wanting, the remainder of the copy being defective. The twenty-first chapter, however, which is last in the author's arrangement, (as the corresponding book on spherics of Bhascara's Siddhánta siromañi is in his,) has been transposed and first expounded by the scholiast : and very properly so, since its subject is naturally preliminary, being explanatory of the principles of astronomy. It stands first in the copy under consideration; and is complete, except one or two initial couplets.

## C.

Brahma siddhánta, title of Brahmegupta's Astronomy.
The passage is this: " Внанмbcta-graha-gañitam mahatá cáléna yat c'hilí-bhútam, abkidhíyaté sp’hutan tat Jishńu-suta Brahmeguptena."
'The computation of planets, taught by Brarma, which had become imperfect by great length of time, is propounded correct by Brahmegupta, son of Jishńv.'

The beginning of Prǐt'húdaca's commentary on the Brahma siddhánta where the three initial couplets of the text are expounded, being deficient, the quotation cannot at present be brought to the test of collation. But the title is still more expressly given near the close of the
eleventh chapter," (§59) "Bráhmé sp’huta-siddhánté ravindu-bhú-yógam, \&c."

And again, (§ 61) "Chandra-ravi-grahanéndu-ch'háyádishu sarvadá yatb Bráhmé, drĭg-gañitaicyam bhavati, sp'hut'a-siddhántas tat6 Bráhmah." 'As observation and computation always agree in respect of lunar and solar eclipses, moon's shadow (i. e. altitude) and other particulars, according to the Bráhma, therefore is the Bráhma a correct system (sp'hut́a siddhánta).'

It appears from the purport of these several passages compared, that Brahmegupta's treatise is an emendation of an earlier system, (bearing the same name of Bráhma siddhánta, or an equivalent title, as Pitámaha siddhánta, or adjectively Paitámaha,) which had ceased to agree with the phænomena, and into which requisite corrections were therefore introduced by him to reconcile computation and observation; and he entitled his amended treatise 'Correct Brahma siddhánta.' That earlier treatise is considered to be the identical one which is introduced into the Vishríu dharmbttara puráńa, and from which parallel passages are accordingly cited by the scholiasts of Bháscara. (See following note.) It is no doubt the same which is noticed by Varáhamihira under the title of Paitámaha and Bráhma siddhánta. Couplets, which are cited by this commentator Bhaffotpala from the Brahma siddhánta, are found in Brahmegupta's work. But whether the original or the amended treatise be the one to which the scholiast referred, is nevertheless a disputable point, as the couplets in question may be among passages which Brahmegupta retained unaltered.

## D.

## Verification of the Text of Brahmegopta's Treatise of Astronomy.

A passage, referring the commencement of astronomical periods and of planetary revolutions to the supposed instant of the creation, is quoted from Brahmegupta, with a parallel passage of another Brahma siddhánta (comprehended in the Vishńu dharmbttara puráńa) in a compilation by Muníśwara, one of Bháscara's glossators.* It is verified as the 4th couplet of Brahmegupta's first chapter (upon mean motions) in the translator's copy.

Seven couplets, specifying the mean motions of the planets' nodes and apogees, are quoted after the parallel passage of the other Brahma siddhánta, by the same scholiast of Bháscara, as the text of Brahmegupta: and they are found in the same order from the 15th to the 21st in the first chapter of his work in the copy abovementioned.

This commentator, among many other corresponding passages noticed by him on various occasions, has quoted one from the same Brahma siddhánta of the Vishríu dharmbttara concerning the orbits of the planets deduced from the magnitude of the sky computed there, as it also is by Brahmegupta (ch. 21,§9), but in other words, at a circumference of 18712069200000000 yojanas. He goes on to quote the subsequent couplet of Brahmegupta, declaring that planets travel an equal measured distance in their orbits in equal times; and then cites his scholiast (tícacára) Chaturvédáchárya.

The text of Brahmegupta (ch. 1, §21), specifying the diurnal revolutions of the siderial sphere, or number of

[^268]siderial days in a calpa, with the correspondent one of the Paitámaha siddhánta in the Vishńu dharmbttara, is another of the quotations of the same writer in his commentary on Bháscara.

A passage relating to oval epicycles,* cited by the same author in another place, is also verified in the 2 d chapter (in the rectification of a planet's place).

A number of couplets on the subject of eciipsest is cited by Lacshmidasa, a commentator of Bhascara. They are found in the 5th chapter (on eclipses) § 10 and 24 ; and in a section of the 21 st (on the cause of eclipses) § 37 to 46 , in the copy in question.

Several couplets, relating to the positions of the constellations and to the longitudes and latitudes of principal fixt stars, are cited from Brahmegupta in numerous compilations, and specifically in the commentaries on the Súrya siddhánta and Siddhánta śiromañi. $\ddagger$ They are all found correct in the 10th chapter, on the conjunctions of planets with fixt stars.

A quotation by Gańeśa on the Lílávatí (A.D. 1545) describing the attainments of a true mathematician, § occurs with exactness as the first couplet of the 12th chapter, on arithmetic; and one adduced by Bháscara himself, in his arithmetical treatise ( $\S 190$ ), giving a rule for finding the diagonal of a trapezium, $\|$ is precisely the 28th of the same chapter.

A very important passage, noticed by Bháscara in his notes on his Siddhánta śirbmańi, and alluded to in his text, and fully quoted by his commentator in the Márícha, relative to the rectification of a planet's true place from the

[^269]mean motions,* is found in the 21st chapter, § 27. Brisscara has, on that occasion, alluded to the scholiast, who is accordingly quoted by name in the commentary of Lacshmidisa (A.D. 1501): and here again the correspondence is exact.

The identity of the text as Brahmegupta's, and of the gloss as his scholiast's, being (by these and many other instances, which have been collated) satisfactorily established; as the genuineness of the text is by numerous quotations from the Brahma siddhánta (without the author's name) in the more ancient commentary of Bhaffotpala (A.D. 968) on the works of Varáhamihira, which also have been verified in the mutilated copy of the Brahma siddhánta under consideration; the next step was the examination of the detached copy of a commentary on the 18th chapter, upon algebra, which is terminated by a colophon so describing it, and specifying the title of the entire book Brahma siddhánta, and the name of its author Brahmegupta.

For this purpose materials are happily presented in the scholiast's enumeration, at the close of the chapter on arithmetic, of the topics treated by his author in the chapter on algebra, entitled Cut́taca: $\dagger$ in a general reference to the author's algorithm of unknown quantities, affirmative and negative terms, cipher and surd roots, in the same chapter; $\ddagger$ and the same scholiast's quotations of the initial words of four rules; one of them relative to surd roots; § the other three regarding the resolution of quadratic equations: \| as also in the references of the scholiast of the

[^270]algebraic treatise to passages in the astronomical part of his author's work.*

The quotations have been verified: and they exactly agree with the rule concerning surds (§ 26 ) and the three rules which compose the section relating to quadratic equations (§ 32-34); and with the rule in the chapter on the solution of astronomical problems concerning mean motions (ch. $13, \S 22$ ): and this verification and the agreement of the more general references demonstrate the identity of this treatise of algebra, consonantly to its colophon, as Brahmegupta's algebra entitled Cuttaca and a part of his Brahma siddhánta.

## E.

Chronology of Astronomical Authorities according to Astronomers of Ujjayaní.

The names of astronomical writers with their dates, as furnished by the astronomers of $U_{j j}$ ayaní, who were consulted by Dr. William Honter sojourning there with a British embassy, are the following:

|  | Varíhamihira | . 122 Saca | [A.D. 200-1] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Another | Varímamibira | ... 427 | [A.D. 505-6] |
|  | Brahmegupta | ... 550 | [A.D. 628-9] |
|  | Munjúla | .. 854 | [A.D. 932-3] |
|  | Bhaftótrala | .. 890 | [A.D. 1068-9] |
|  | Swetotpala | . 939 | [A.D. 1017-8] |
|  | Varufa bhafta | .. 962 | [A.D. 1040-1] |
|  | Bhbja rája | . 964 | [A.D. 1042-3] |
|  | Bhíscara ... | . . 1072 | [A.D. 1150-1] |
|  | Calyana ghand | A . 1101 | [A.D.1179-80] |

The grounds on which this chronology proceeds are unexplained in the note which Dr. Hunter preserved of the communication; but means exist for verifying two of the dates specified and corroborating others.

[^271]The date assigned to Bhascara, is precisely that of his Siddhánta śirbmani, plainly concluded from a passage of it, in which he declares, that it was completed by him, being thirty-six years of age ; and that his birth was in 1036 Śaca.

Rájá Broja déva, or Bhója rája, is placed in this list of Hindu astronomers apparently on account of his name being affixed, as that of the author, to an astrological treatise on the calendar, which bears the title of Rája mártañ́la, and which was composed probably at his court and by astrologers in his service. It contains no date; or at least none is found in the copy which has been inspected. But the age assigned to the prince is not inconsistent with Indian History: and is supported by the colophon of a poem entitled Subháshita ratna sand6ha, composed by a Jaina sectary named Amitagati, who has given the date of his poem in 1050 of Vicramaditya, in the reign of Munja. Now Munja was uncle and predecessor of Bhója raja, being regent, with the title of sovereign, during his nephew's minority: and this date, which answers to A.D. 993-4, is entirely consistent with that given by the astronomers of $U_{j j a y a n i ́, ~ v i z . ~} 964$ Śaca corresponding to A.D. 1042-3: for the reign of Bhója deva was long; extending, at the lowest computation, to half a century, and reaching, according to an extravagant reckoning, to the round number of an hundred years.

The historical notices of this King of Dhúrá** are examined by Major Wilford and Mr. Bentley in the ninth and eighth volumes of Asiatic Restarches: and they refer him to the tenth century of the Christian era, the one making him ascend the throne in A.D. 982; the other, in A.D. 913. The former, which takes his reign

[^272]at an entire century, including of course his minority, or the period of the administration, reign, or regency, of his uncle Munja, is compatible with the date of Amitagati's poem (A.D. 993) and with that of the Rája mártanida or other astrological and astronomical works ascribed to him (A.D. 1042) according to the chronology of the astronomers of $U_{j j a y a n i ́ . ~}^{\text {a }}$

The age assigned to Brahmegupta is corroborated by the arguments adduced in the text. That given to Munjila is consistent with the quotation of him as at the head of a tribe of authors, by Bháscara, at the disstance of two centuries. The period allotted to Varáhamifira, that is, to the second and most celebrated of the name, also admits corroboration. This point, however, being specially important to the history of Indian astronomy, and collaterally to that of the Hindu algebra, deserves and will receive a full and distinct consideration.

## F.

Age of Brahmegupta inferred from Astronomical data.
The star Chitrá, which unquestionably is Spica Virginis,* was referred by Brahmegupta to the 103d degree counted from its origin to the intersection of the star's circle of declination ; $\dagger$ whence the star's right ascension is deduced $182^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$. Its actual right ascension in A.D. 1800 was $198^{\circ} 40^{\prime} 2^{\prime \prime} . \ddagger$ The difference, $15^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 2^{\prime \prime}$, is the quantity by which the beginning of the first zodiacal asterism and lunar mansion, Aśviní, as inferrible from the position of the star Chitrá, has receded from the equinox : and it indicates

[^273]the lapse of 1216 years (to A.D. 1800) since that point coincided with the equinox; the annual precession of the star being reckoned at $47^{\prime \prime}, 14 .{ }^{*}$

The star Révatí, which appears to be $\zeta$ Piscium, $\dagger$ had no longitude, according to the same author, being situated precisely at the close of the asterism and commencement of the following one, Aświní, without latitude or declination, exactly in the equinoctial point. Its actual right ascension in 1800 was $15^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} . \ddagger$ This, which is the quantity by which the origin of the Indian ecliptic, as inferrible from the position of the star Révat'́, has receded from the equinox, indicates a period of 1221 years elapsed to the end of the eighteenth century ; the annual precession for that star being $46^{\prime \prime}, 63 . \S$

The mean of the two is 1218 $\frac{1}{2}$ years; which, taken from 1800, leave 581 or 582 of the Christian era. Brahmegupta then appears to have observed and written towards the close of the sixth, or the beginning of the following century; for, as the Hindu astronomers seem not to have been very accurate observers, the belief of his having lived and published in the seventh century, about A.D. 628, which answers to 550 Śaca, the date assigned to him by the astronomers of $U_{j j} a y a n i$, is not inconsistent with the position, that the vernal equinox did not sensibly to his view deviate from the beginning of Aries or Mésha, as determined by him from the star Révatí ( $\zeta$ Piscium) which he places at that point.

The same author assigns to Agastya or Canopus a distance of $87^{\circ}$, and to Lubdhaca or Sirius $86^{\circ}$, from the

[^274]beginning of Mésha. From these positions a mean of 1280 years is deducible.

The passage in which this author denies the precession of the colures, as well as the comment of his scholiast on it, being material to the present argument, they are here subjoined in a literal version.
'The very fewest hours of night occur at the end of Mit'huna, and the seasons are governed by the sun's motion; therefore the pair of solstices appears to be stationary, by the evidence of a pair of eyes.'*

Scholia: 'What is said by Vishńu chandra at the beginning of the chapter on the yuga of the solstice (" Its revolutions through the asterisms are here [in the calpa] a hundred and eighty-nine thousand four hundred and eleven. This is termed a yuga of the solstice, as of old admitted by Brahma, Arca, and the rest.") is wrong: for the very fewest hours of night to us occur when the sun's place is at the end of Mit'huna [Gemini]; and of course the very utmost hours of day are at the same period. From that limitary point, the sun's progress regulates the seasons; namely, the cold season (s'isíra) and the rest, comprising two months each, reckoned from Macara [Capricorn]. Therefore what has been said concerning the motion of the limitary point is wrong, being contradicted by actual observation of days and nights.
' The objection, however, is not valid: for now the greatest decrease and increase of night and day do not happen when the sun's place is at the end of Mit'huna: and passages are remembered, expressing "The southern road of the sun was from the middle of Aślésha; and the northern one at the beginning of Dhanisht'ha;" $\dagger$ and

[^275]others [of like import]. But all this only proves, that there is a motion; not that the solstice has made many revolutions through the asterisms.'*

It was hinted at the beginning of this note, that Brafmegupta's longitude (dhruvaca) of a star is the arc of the ecliptic intercepted by the star's circle of declination, and counted from the origin of the ecliptic at the beginning of Mésha; as his latitude (vicshépa) of a star is the star's distance on a circle of declination from its point of intersection with the ecliptic. In short, he, like other Hindu astronomers, counts longitude and latitude of stars by the intersection of circles of declination with the ecliptic. The subject has been before noticed. $\dagger$ To make it more clear, an instance may be taken : and that of the scholiast's computation of the zenith distance and meridian altitude of Canopus for the latitude of Canyacubja (Canouj) may serve as an apposite example.

From the vicshépa of the star Agastya, $78^{\circ}$, he subtracts the declination of the intersected point of the ecliptic $23^{\circ} 58^{\prime}$; to the remainder, which is the declination of the star, $53^{\circ} 2^{\prime}$, he adds the latitude of the place $26^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$; the sum, $79^{\circ} 37^{\prime}$, is the zenith distance; and its complement to ninety degrees, $10^{\circ} 23^{\prime}$, is the meridian altitude of the star. $\ddagger$

The annual variation of the star in declination, $1^{\prime \prime}, 7$, is too small to draw any inference as to the age of the scholiast from the declination here stated. More especially as it is taken from data furnished by his author ; and as he appears to have been, like most of the Hindu astronomers, no very accurate observer; the latitude assigned by him to

[^276]the city in which he dwelt being no less than half a degree wrong: for the ruins of the city of Canouj are in $27^{\circ} 5^{\prime}$. N.
G.

## Áryabhaffa's Doctrine.

Áryabhatŕa was author of the Áryáshtááata (800 couplets) and Daśagíticá (ten stanzas), known by the numerous quotations of Brahmegupta, Bhat́f́́tpala, and others, who cite both under these respective titles. The Laghu Árya siddhánta, as a work of the same author, and, perhaps, one of those above-mentioned, is several times quoted by Bháscara's commentator Muníśwara. He likewise treated of algebra, \&c. under the distinct heads of Cuttaca, a problem serving for the resolution of indeterminate ones, and $V_{i j} a$, principle of computation, or analysis in general.-Líl. c. 11.

From the quotations of writers on astronomy, and particularly of Brahmegupta, who, in many instances, cites Áryabhaf́t́a to controvert his positions, (and is in general contradicted in his censure by his own scholiast Prit'hgdaca, either correcting his quotations, or vindicating the doctrine of the earlier author), it appears that Áryabhatifa affirmed the diurnal revolution of the earth on its axis, and that he accounted for it by a wind or current of aerial fluid, the extent of which, according to the orbit assigned to it by him, corresponds to an elevation of little more than a hundred miles from the surface of the earth : that he possessed the true theory of the causes of lunar and solar eclipses, and disregarded the imaginary dark planets of the mythologists and astrologers, affirming the moon and primary planets (and even the stars) to be essentially dark, and only illumined by the sun : that he 2 н 2
noticed the motion of the solstitial and equinoctial points, but restricted it to a regular oscillation, of which he assigned the limit and the period : that he ascribed to the epicycles, by which the motion of a planet is represented, a form varying from the circle and nearly elliptic : that he recognised a motion of the nodes and apsides of all the primary planets, as well as of the moon; though in this instance, as in some others, his censurer imputes to him variance of doctrine.

The magnitude of the earth, and extent of the encompassing wind, is among the instances wherein be is reproached by Brahmegupta with versatility, as not having adhered to the same position throughout his writings; but he is vindicated on this, as on most occasions, by the scholiast of his censurer. Particulars of this question, leading to rather curious matter, deserve notice.

Áryabhaffa's text specifies the earth's diameter, 1050 ybjanas; and the orbit or circumference of the earth's wind [spiritus vector] 3393 ybjanas; which, as the scholiast rightly argues, is no discrepancy. The diameter of this orbit, according to the remark of Brafmbgupta, is 1080.

On this it is to be in the first place observed, that the proportion of the circumference to the diameter of a circle, here employed, is that of 22 to 7 ; which not being the same which is given by Brahmegupta's rule (Arithm. § 40 ), must be presumed to be that which Áryabiaffia taught. Applying it to the earth's diameter as by him assigned, viz. 1050, the circumference of the earth is 3300 ; which evidently constitutes the dimensions by him intended : and that number is accordingly stated by a commentator of Bháscara. See Gań. on Líl. § 4.

This approximation to the proportion of the diameter of a circle to its periphery, is nearer than that which both

Brahmegupta and Śridhara, though later writers, teach in their mensuration, and which is employed in the Súrya siddhánta; namely, one to the square-root of ten. It is adopted by Bháscara, who adds, apparently from some other authority, the still nearer approximation of 1250 to 3927.-(Líl. § 201.)

Áryabhaffa appears, however, to have also made use of the ratio which afterwards contented both Brahmegupta and Śrídiara; for his rule adduced by Gańeśa (Líl. § 207) for finding the arc from the chord and versed sine, is clearly founded on the proportion of the diameter to the periphery, as one to the square root of ten : as will be evident if the semicircle be computed by that rule : for it comes out the square root of $\frac{10}{4}$, the diameter being 1 .

A more favourable notion of his proficiency in geometry, a science, however, much less cultivated by the Hindus than algebra, may be received from his acquaintance with the theorem containing the fundamental property of the circle, which is cited by Prit'hedaca.-(Brahm. 12, § 21.)

The number of 3300 ybjanas for the circumference of the earth, or $9 \frac{1}{6}$ ybjanas for a degree of a great circle, is not very wide of the truth, and is, indeed, a very near approach, if the ybjana, which contains four crósas, be rightly inferred from the modern computed cr $\sigma_{s} a$ found to be 1, 9 B. M.* For, at that rate of 7, 6 miles to a y6jana, the earth's circumference would be 25080 B. miles.

The difference between the diameter of the earth and that of its air (váyu), by which term Áryabiaffa seems to intend a current of wind whirling as a vortex, and causing the earth's revolution on its axis, leaves 15 ybjanas, or

[^277]114 miles, for the limit of elevation of this atmospheric current.

## H.

Scantiness of the Additions by later Writers on Algebra.
The observation in the text on the scantiness of the improvements or additions made to the algebra of the Hindus in a long period of years after Áryabhat́fa probably, and after Brahmegupta certainly, is extended to authors whose works are now lost, on the faith of quotations from them. Śridhara's rule, which is cited by Bháscara ( $V_{i}^{\prime}$ :-gań. § 131), concerning quadratics, is the same in substance with one of Brahmegupta's (ch. 18. §32-33). Padmanábia, indeed, appears from the quotation from his treatise ( $V_{i j}^{\prime} j$-gań. § 142) to have been aware of quadratic equations affording two roots; which BrahmegUPTA has not noticed; and this is a material accession which the science received. There remains an uncertainty respecting the author, from whom Bháscara has taken the resolution of equations of the third and fourth degrees in their simple and unaffected cases.
The only names of algebraists who preceded Buáscara, to be added to those already mentioned, are, lst, an earlier writer of the same name (Bháscara), who was at the head of the commentators of Áryabhatta; and, 2d, the elder scholiast of the Brahma siddhánta, named Bhat́fa Balabhadra. Both are repeatedly cited by the successor of the latter in the same task of exposition, Pryt'húdaca swimi, who was himself anterior to the author of the Śiromaní, being more than once quoted by him. As neither of those earlier commentators is named by the younger Bháscara, nor any intimation given of his having consulted and employed other treatises besides
the three specified by him in the compilation of the $V_{i}^{\prime} j a$ ganita, it is presumable, that the few additions, which a comparison with the Cuttaca of Brahmegupta exhibits, are properly ascribable either to Śridiara or to Padmanabha: most likely to the latter, as he is cited for one such addition; * and as Śsidmara's treatise of arithmetic and mensuration, which is extant, is not seemingly the work of an author improving on the labours of those who went before him. $\dagger$ The corrections and improvements introduced by Bháscara himself, and of which he carefully apprizes his readers, $\ddagger$ are not very numerous, nor in general important.§

## I.

## Age of Áryabhaftáa.

Under the Abbasside khalifi Almansér and Almámún, in the middle of the eighth and beginning of the ninth centuries of the Christian era, the Arabs became conversant with the Indian astronomy. It was at that period, as may be presumed, that they obtained information of the existence and currency of three astronomical systems among the Indians; $\|$ one of which bore the name of Áryabiatifa, or, as written in Arabic characters, Árjabaharđ (perhaps

[^278]intended for Árjabiar), which is as near an approximation as the difference of characters can be expected to exhibit. This then unquestionably was the system of the astronomer whose age is now to be investigated; and who is in a thousand places cited by Hindu writers on astronomy, as author of a system and founder of a sect in this science. It is inferred from the acquaintance of the Arabs with the astronomical attainments of the Hindus, at that time, when the court of the khalif drew the visit of a Hindu astrologer and mathematician, and when the Indian determination of the mean motions of the planets was made the basis of astronomical tables compiled by order of the khalifs, ' for a guide in matters pertaining to the stars,' and when Indian treatises on the science of numbers were put in an Arabic dress; adverting also to the difficulty of obtaining further insight into the Indian sciences, which the author of the Táríkhu'l hucamá complains of, assigning for the cause the distance of countries, and the various impediments to intercourse : it is inferred, we say, from these, joined to other considerations, that the period in question was that in which the name of Áryabhaffa was introduced to the knowledge of the Arabs. This, as a first step in inquiring the antiquity of this author, ascertains his celebrity as an astronomical authority above a thousand years ago.

He is repeatedly named by Hindu authors of a still earlier date: particularly by Brahmegupta, in the first part of the seventh century of the Christian era. He had been copied by writers whom Brahmegupta cites. Vardhamihira has allusions to him, or employs his astronomical determinations in an astrological work at the beginning of the sixth century. These facts will be further weighed upon as we proceed.

For determining Áryabhaffa's age with the greater precision of astronomical chronology, grounds are pre-
sented, at the first view promising, but on examination insufficient.

In the investigation of the question upon astronomical grounds, recourse was in the first place had to his doctrine concerning the precession of the equinoxes. As quoted by Muníswara, a scholiast of Bháscara, he maintained an oscillation of the equinoctial points to twenty-four degrees on either side; and he reckoned 578159 such librations in a calpa.* From another passage cited by Bhaffotpala on Varáhamifira, $\dagger$ his position of the mean equinozes was the beginning of Aries and of Libra. $\ddagger$ From one more passage quoted by the scholiast of Brahmegupta, § it further appears, that he reckoned 1986120000 years expired \| before the war of the Bhárata: and the duration of the calpa, if he be rightly quoted by Brahmegupta, $\|$ is 1008 quadruple yugas of 4320000 years each.

From these data it follows that, according to him, the equinoctial point had completed 263699 oscillations at the epoch of the war of the Bhárata. But we are without any information as to the progress made in the current oscillation when he wrote, or the actual distance of the equinox from the beginning of Mésha: the position of which, also, as by him received, is uncertain.

His limit of the motion in trepidation, $24^{\circ}$, was evidently suggested to him by the former position of the colures declared by Párísiara; the exact difference being $23^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$.

[^279]But the commencement of Parásara's Aślésha, in his sphere, or the origin of his siderial Mésha, are unascertained. Whether his notions of the duodecimal division of the zodiac were taken from the Grecian or Egyptian spheres, or from what other immediate source, is but matter of conjecture.

Quotations of this author furnish the revolutions of Jupiter in a yuga,* and of Saturn's aphelion in a calpa; $\dagger$ and those of the moon in the latter period: but the same passage, $\ddagger$ in which the number of lunar revolutions in that great period are given, supplies those of the sun; namely, 4320000000 ; differing from the duration of the calpa according to this author as cited by more ancient compilers. The truth is, as appears from another quotation, § that Áryabhafta, after delivering one complete astronomical system, proceeds in a second and distinct chapter to deliver another and different one as the doctrine of Párásiara; whose authority, he observes, prevails in the Cali age : and though he seems to indicate the calpa as the same in both, he also hints that in one a deduction is made for the time employed in creation; and we have seen, that the duration of the calpa differs in the quotations of compilers from this author.

The ground then being insufficient, until a more definitive knowledge of either system, as developed by him, be recovered, to support any positive conclusion, recourse must be had, on failure of precise proof, to more loose presumption. It is to be observed, that he does not use the Śaca or Sambat of Vicramáditya, nor the Śaca era of ŚAlivahana, but exclusively employs the epoch of the war of the Bhárata, which is the era of Yudish-

[^280]f'hira and the same with the commencement of the Cali yuga. Hence it is to be argued, that he flourished before this era was superseded by the introduction of the modern epochas. Varáramifira, on the other hand, does employ the Śaca, termed by him Śaca-bhúpa-cála and Śacéndracála: which the old scholiast interprets 'the time when the barbarian kings called Śaca were discomfited by Vicramíditya:" and Brahmegupta uses the modern Śaca era, which he expresses by Śaca-nrǐpánté, interpreted by the scholiast of Bhascara' the end [of the life or reign] of Vicramáditya, who slew a people of barbarians named Śacas.' Varíhamirira's epoch of Śaca appears to have been understood by his scholiast Bhaftotpala to be the same with the era of Vicramaditya, which now is usually called Sambat, and which is reckoned to commence after 3044 years of the Cali age were expired : and Brahmegupta's epoch of Saca is the era of Śaliváhana, beginning at the expiration of 3179 years of the Cali yuga: and accordingly this number is specified in his Brahma siddhánta. When those eras were first introduced is not at present with certainty known. If that of Vicramáditya, dating with a most memorable event of his reign, came into use during its continuance, still its introduction could not be from the first so general as at once and universally to supersede the former era of Yudisishf'hira. But the argument drawn from Áryabhaft́a's use of the ancient epoch, and his silence respecting the modern, so far as it goes, favours the presumption that he lived before the origin of the modern eras. Certainly he is anterior to Brahmegupta, who cites him in more than a hundred places by name; and to Varáhamifira, whose compilation is founded, among other authorities, on

[^281]the Rómaca of Śríshesía, and Vásishíha of Vishńv chandra, which Brahmegupta affirms to be partly taken from Áryabhafta.* The priority of this author is explicitly asserted likewise by the celebrated astronomer Gańtsa, who, in explanation of his own undertaking, says: ' Rules framed by other holy sages were right in the Trétáa and Dwápara; but, in the present age, Pírdśara's. Áryabhafta, however, finding his imperfect, after great lapse of time, reformed the system. It grew inaccurate, and was therefore amended by Durgasinia, Mihira, and others. This again became insufficient : and correct rules were framed by the son of Jishíu [Brahmegupta] founded upon Brahma's revelation. His system also, after a long time, came to exhibit differences. Ceśava rectified it. Now, finding this likewise a little incorrect after sixty years, his son GańkSA has perfected it, and reconciled computation and experience.' $\dagger$
Áryabhatfa then preceded Brahmegupta, who lived towards the middle of the sixth century of the Saca era; and Vardhamitira placed by the chronologers of $U_{j j a-}$ yani at the beginning of the fifth or of the second; (for they notice two astronomers of the name.) He is prior also to Vishíu chandra, Śfishéta, and Durgasinaa; all of them anterior to the second Varíhamiaira; and an interval of two or of three centuries is not more than adequate to a series of astronomers following each other in the task of emendation, which process of time rendered successively requisite.

On these considerations it is presumed, that Áryabhatfa is unquestionably to be placed earlier than the fifth century of the Śaca: and probably so, by several (by

[^282]more than two or three) centuries: and not unlikely before the commencement of either Śaca or Sambat eras. In other words, he flourished some ages before the sixth century of the Christian era: and perhaps lived before, or, at latest, soon after its commencement. Between these limits, either the third or the fourth century might be assumed as a middle term. We shall, however, take the fifth of Christ as the latest period to which Áryabhaffa can, on the most moderate assumption, be referred.

## K.

## Writings and Age of Varahamifira.

This distinguished astrological writer, a native of $U_{j j}$ ayaní, and son of Ádityadísa,* was author of a copious work on astrology, compiled, and, as he declares, abridged from earlier writers. It is comprised in three parts; the first on astronomy; the second and third, on divination: together constituting a complete course. Such a course, he observes in his preface to the third part, has been termed by ancient writers Sanhitá, and consists of three scandhas or parts : the first, which teaches to find a planet's place by computation (ganita), is called tantra; the second, which ascertains lucky and unlucky indications, is named $h 6 r a ́$; it relates chiefly to nativities, journeys, and weddings; the third, on prognostics relative to various matters, is denominated sác'há. The direct and retrogade

[^283]motions of planets, with their rising and setting, and other particulars, he goes on to say, had been propounded by him in a treatise termed Caraña, meaning, as the scholiast remarks, his compilation entitled Pancha siddhánticá: which constitutes the first and astronomical portion of his entire work. What relates to the first branch of astrology (hórá), the author adds, had likewise been delivered by him, including nativities and prognostics concerning journeys and weddings. These astrological treatises of his author, the scholiast observes, are entitled Vrǐhat játaca, Vrĭhad yátrá, and Vrĭhad viváha patala. The author proceeds to deliver the third part of his course, or the second on divination, omitting, as he says, superfluous and pithless matter, which abounds in the writings of his predecessors : such as questions and replies in dialogue, legendary tales, and the mythological origin of the planets.

The third part is extant, and entire ; and is generally known and cited by the title of Vrǐhat sanhitá, or great course of astrology: a denomination well deserved; for, notwithstanding the author's professions of conciseness, it contains about four thousand couplets distributed in more than a hundred chapters, or precisely (including the metrical table of contents) 106.

Of the second part, the first section, on casting of nativities, called Vrĭhat játaca, is also extant, and comprises twenty-five chapters, or, with the metrical table of contents and peroration which concludes it, twenty-six. The other two sections of this part of the course have not been recovered, though probably extant in the hands of Hindu astrologers.

The scholia of the celebrated commentator of this author's works, who is usually called Bhatrotrala, and who in several places of his commentary names himself Utpala (quibbling with stimulated modesty on his appellation, for
the word signifies stone),* are preserved; and are complete for the third part of the author's course, and for the first section of the second: and the remainder of it likewise is probably extant, as the copy of the first section in the possession of the author of this dissertation terminates abruptly after the commencement of the second.

This commentator is noticed in the list of authorities furnished by the astronomers of Ujjayaní, and is there stated as of the year 890 of the Saca era (A.D. 1068). Sir William Jones supposed him to be the son of the author, whose work is expounded by him. The grounds of this notion, which is not, however, very positively advanced by that learned orientalist, $\dagger$ are not set forth. No intimation of such relation of the scholiast to his author appears in the preface or the conclusion, nor in the colophon, of the commentary which has been inspected : nor in the body of the work, where the author is of course repeatedly named or referred to, without however any addition indicative of filial respect, as Hindu writers usually do employ when speaking of a parent or ancestor. Neither is there any hint of relationship in the commentary of the same scholiast Bhaffotrala on a brief treatise of divination, entitled Praśna-cbsht́́, comprizing fifty-six stanzas by Prǐt'huyaśas son of Varáhamihira. The suggestion of the filial relation of the scholiast is probably therefore a mere error.

The Pancha siddhánticá of Varáhamihira has not yet been recovered; and is only at present known from

[^284]quotations of authors; and particularly a number of passages cited from it by his scholiast in course of interpreting his astrological writings. An important passage of it so quoted will be noticed forthwith.

It is a compilation, as its name implies, from five siddhántas; and they are specified in the second chapter of the Vrǐhat sanhitá, where the author is enumerating the requisite qualifications of an astronomer competent to calculate a calendar. Among other attainments, he requires him to be conversant with time measured by yugas, \&c. as taught in the five siddhántas upon astronomy named Pauliśa, Rbmaca, Vásisht'ha, Saura, and Paitámaha.*

The title of Varahamihira's compilation misled a writer on Hindu astronomy $\dagger$ into an unfounded supposition, that he was the acknowledged author of the five siddhántas; the names of two of which moreover are mistaken, Sbma and Paulastya being erroneously substituted for Rómaca and Pauliśa. These two, as well as the Vásisht' $h a$, are the works of known authors, namely, Puliśa, Śsíshéfa, and Vishńu chandra; all three mentioned by Brahmegupta: by whom also the whole five siddhántas are noticed under the very same names and in the same order $\ddagger \ddagger$ and who has specified the authors of the first three.§ The Vásisht́ha of Vishíu chandra was indeed preceded by an earlier work (so entitled) of an unknown author, from which that, as well as the Rbmaca, is in part taken; $\|$ and it may be deemed an amended edition : but the Rbmaca and Pauliśa are single of the names ; and no Hindu astronomer, possessing any knowledge of the history of the science cultivated by him, ever

[^285]ever could imagine, that Varáhamihira composed the work which takes its name from Puliśa, the distinguished founder of a sect or school in astronomy opposed to that of Áryabhat́t́a.

The passage of the Pancha siddhánticá cited by the scholiast,* and promised to be here noticed, has been quoted in an essay inserted in the researches of the Asiatic Society, $\dagger$ as well as a parallel passage of the Vrïhat sanhitá, $\ddagger$ both relative to the ancient and actual position of the colures; and deemed parallel (though one be less precise than the other), since they are cited together as of the same author, and consequently as of like import, by the scholiast.§ The text of the Vrǐhat sanhitá is further authenticated by a quotation of it in the commentary of Pryt'húdaca on Brahmegupta; $\|$ and the former position of the colures is precisely that which is described in the calendar appendant on the Védas, $\|$ 'and which is implied in a passage of PAráśara concerning the seasons, which is quoted by Bhatfotpala.

The position of the colures, affirmed as actual in his time by Varáhamihira, in the Vrihat sanhitá, implies an antiquity of either 1216 or 1440 years before A.D. 1800, according to the origin of the ecliptic determined from the star Chitrá (Spica virginis) distant either $180^{\circ}$ or $183^{\circ}$ from it; or a still greater antiquity, if it be taken to have corresponded more nearly with the Grecian celestial sphere. The mean of the two numbers (disregarding the surmise of greater antiquity), carries him to A.D. 472. If Varáhamifira concurred with those Indian astronomers, who allow an oscillation of the equinox to $27^{\circ}$ in

[^286]1800 years, or a complete oscillation of that extent both E. and W. in 7200 years, he must have lived soon after the year 3600 of the Cali yuga, or 421 Saca, answering to A.D. 499 ; which is but six years from the date assigned to him by the astronomers of $U_{j j}$ ayaní, and twenty-seven from the mean before inferred.

It is probable, therefore, that he flourished about the close of the fifth century of the Christian era; and this inference is corroborated by the mention of an astrologer of this name in the Panchatantra, the Sanscrit original of the fables of Pilpay, translated in the reign of Nushirvan, King of Persia, in the latter part of the sixth century and beginning of the seventh.*

To that conclusion there is opposed an argument drawn from a passage of the Bháswatí carańa; in which the author of that treatise, dated 1021 Śaca (A.D. 1098), professes to have derived instruction from Mihira, meaning, it is supposed, oral instruction from Varáhamihira; and the argument has been supported by computations which make the Súrya siddhánta and Játacárnáa, the latter ascribed to Varáhamihira, to be both works of the same period, and as modern as the eleventh century. $\dagger$

To this it has been replied, that the Mihira, from whom Satánanda, author of the Bháswatí, derived instruction, is not the same person or personage with the author of the Vrihat sanhitá; if indeed Satananda's expression do intend the same name, Varáha. $\ddagger$ That expression must be allowed to be a very imperfect designation, which omits half, and that the most distinctive half, of an appellation : and it is not such as would be applied

[^287]by a contemporary and auditor to an author and lecturer, whose celebrity could not yet be so generally diffused, as to render a part of his name a sufficient intimation of the remainder, without previous and well established association of the terms. But even conceding the interpretation, it would then be right to admit a third Varafamifira, besides the two noticed by the chronologists of Ujjayaní; and the third will be an astronomer, contemporary with Raja Bhbja deva, and the preceptor of Satánanda, and author of the Játacárńava, supposing this treatise on nativities to be properly ascribed to an author bearing that name, and to be on sufficient grounds referred to the eleventh century.

There remains to be here noticed another treatise on casting of nativities, to which the same favourite name of a celebrated astrologer is affixed. It is a concise tract entitled Laghu játaca: and its authenticity as a work of the astrologer of $U_{j j a y a n t}$ is established by the verifying of a quotation of the scholiast Bhaffotpala, who cites a passage of his author's compendious treatise on the same subject (svalpa játaca), in course of expounding a rule of prognostication concerning the destination of a prince to the throne, and his future character as a monarch (Vrihat játaca 11. 1.). That passage occurs in the Laghu játaca (Misc. Chap.). It is hardly to be supposed, that the same writer can have given a third treatise on the same subject of nativities, entitled Játacárńava.

The question concerning the age of the Surya siddhánta remains for consideration. It is a very material one, as both Varáhamihira and Brahmegupta speak of a Saura (or Solar) siddhánta, which is a title of the same import: and unless a work bearing this title may have existed earlier than the age which is assigned, for reasons to be at a future time examined, to the Súrya siddhánta,
the conclusions respecting the periods when they respectively wrote, are impeached in the degree in which those grounds of calculation may deserve confidence. Those grounds in detail will be discussed at a separate opportunity. But independently of this discussion of their merits, sufficient evidence does exist to establish, that more than one edition of a treatise of astronomy has borne the name of Súrya (with its synonyma) the sun. For Lacshmidisa cites one under the title of Vrǐhat súrya siddhánta* (for a passage which the current solar Siddhánta does not exhibit), in contradistinction to another more frequently cited by him without the distinctive epithet of Vrihat : and in these latter instances his quotations admit of verification. A reference of Bháscara to a passage of the Saura, or, as explained by his own annotation, the Súrya siddhánta, does not agree with the text of the received Súrya siddhánta. $\dagger$ His commentators indeed do not unreservedly conclude from the discrepancy a difference of the work quoted, and that usually received under the same title. Yet the inference seems legitimate. At all events the quotation from the Vrĭhat súrya siddhánta, in the Ganita tatwa chintámañi of Lacshmidása, proves beyond question, that in that commentator's opinion, and consistently with his knowledge, more than one treatise bearing the same name existed.

There is evidence besides of Arabian writers, that a system of astronomy bearing the equivalent title of Árca (Solar) was one of three, which were found by them current among the Hindus, when the Arabs obtained a knowledge of the Indian astronomy in the time of the Abbasside khalifs, about the close of the eighth century or commencement of the ninth of the Christian era. $\ddagger$ Árcand,

[^288]the name by which the Arabs designate one of those three astronomical systems, assigning it as an Indian term, is the well known corruption of Árca in the common dialects, and is familiar in the application of the same word as a name of a plant (Asclepias gigantea), which bearing all the synonyma of the sun, is called vulgarly Ácand or Árcand.

The solar doctrine of astronomy appears then to have been known by this name to the Arabians as one of the three Indian astronomical systems a thousand years ago. The fact is, that both the title and the system are considerably more ancient. Revisions of systems occasionally take place; like Brahmegupta's revisal of the Brahma siddhánta, to adapt and modernize them; or, in other words, for the purpose, as Brahmegupta intimates, of reconciling computation and observation. The Súrya or Árca siddhánta, no doubt, has undergone this process, and actually exhibits manifest indications of it.*

In every view; it is presumed, that any question concerning the present text of the Súrya siddhánta, or determination of that question, will leave untouched the evidence for the age of the author of the Vrĭhat sanhitá, Varáhamihira, son of Ádityadása, an astrologer of Ujjayaní, who appears to have flourished at the close of the fifth, or beginning of the sixth century of the Christian era. He was preceded, as it seems, by another of the same name, who lived, according to the chronologists of Ujjayaní, at the close of the second century. He may have been followed by a third, who is said to have flourished at the court of Rájá Bhoja deva of Dhara, and to have had Satánanda, the author of the Bháswatí, for his scholar.

[^289]
## L.

Introduction and Progress of Algebra among the Italians.
Leonardo of Pisa was unquestionably the first who made known the Arabian algebra to Christian Europe. The fact was, indeed, for a time disputed, and the pretensions of the Italians to the credit of being the first European nation which cultivated algebra, were contested, upon vague surmises of a possible, and therefore presumed probable, communication of the science of algebra, together with that of arithmetic, by the Saracens of Spain to their Christian neighbours in the Peninsula, and to others alleged to have resorted thither for instruction. The conjecture hazarded by Wallis (Algebra historical and practical) on this point, was assisted by a strange blunder, in which Blancanus was followed by Vossius and a herd of subsequent writers, concerning the age of Leonardo, placed by them precisely two centuries too low. The claims of the Italians in his favour, and for themselves as his early disciples, were accordingly resisted with a degree of acrimony (Gua ; Mém. de l'Acad. des Sc. 1741. p. 436.) which can only be accounted for by that disposition to detraction, which occasionally manifests itself in the literary, as in the idler, walks of society. The evidence of his right to acknowledgments for transplanting Arabian algebra into Europe was for a long period ill set forth: but, when diligently sought, and carefully adduced, doubt was removed and opposition silenced.*

The merit of vindicating his claim belongs chiefly to Cossali. $\dagger$ A manuscript of Leonardo's treatise on

[^290]arithmetic and algebra, bearing the title of Liber Abbaci compositus a Leonardo filio Bonacci Pisano in anno 1202, was found towards the middle of the last century by Targioni Tozzetti* in the Magliabecchian library at Florence, of which he had the care; and another work of that author, on square numbers, was afterwards found by the same person inserted in an anonymous compilation, treating of computation, (un trattato d'Abbaco), in the library of a royal hospital at the same place. A transcript of one more treatise of the same writer was noticed by Tozzetti in the Magliabecchian collection, entitled Leonardi Pisani de filiis Bonacci Practica Geometria composita anno 1220. The subject of it is confined to mensuration of land; and being mentioned by the author in his epistle prefixed to the revised Liber Abbaci, shows the revision to be of later date. It appears to be of $1228 . \dagger$ Tozzetti subsequently met with a second copy of the Liber Abbaci in Magliabecchi's collection : but it is described by him as inaccurate and incomplete. + A third has been since discovered in the Riccardian collection, also at Florence : and a fourth, but imperfect one, was communicated by Nelli to Cossali.§ No diligence of research has, however, regained any trace of the volume which contained Leonardo's treatise on square numbers: the library in which it was seen having been dispersed previously to Cossalr's inquiries.

It appears from a brief account of himself and his travels, and the motives of his undertaking, which Leonardo has introduced into his preface to the Liber Abbaci, that he

[^291]travelled into Egypt, Barbary, Syria, Greece, and Sicily ; that being in his youth at Bugia in Barbary, where his father Bonacci held an employment of scribe at the Custom-house, by appointment from Pisa, for Pisan merchants resorting thither, he was there grounded in the Indian method of accounting by nine numerals: and that finding it more commodious, and far preferable to that which was used in other countries visited by him, he prosecuted the study,* and with some additions of his own and taking some things from Euclid's geometry, he undertook the composition of the treatise in question, that " the Latin race might no longer be found deficient in the complete knowledge of that method of computation." In the epistle prefixed to the revision of his work he professes to have taught the complete doctrine of numbers according to the Indian method. $\dagger$

His peregrinations then, and his study of the Indian computation through the medium of Arabic, in an African city, took place towards the close of the twelfth century; the earliest date of his work being A.C. 1202.

He had been preceded by more than two centuries, in the study of arithmetic under Muhammedan instructors, by Gerbert (the Pope Silvester II.) $\ddagger$, whose ardour for the acquisition of knowledge led him, at the termination of a two years noviciate as a Benedictine, to proceed by stealth into Spain, where he learnt astrology from the Saracens, and with it more valuable science, especially

[^292]arithmetic. This, upon his return, he communicated to Christian Europe, teaching the method of numbers under the designation of $\boldsymbol{A b a c u s}$, a name apparently first introduced by him (rationes numerorum Abaci*), by rules abstruse and difficult to be understood, as William of Malmesbury affirms: Abacum certe primus a Saracenis rapiens, regulas dedit, qua a sudantibus Abacistis vix intelliguntur. $\dagger$ It was probably owing to this obscurity of his rules and manner of treating the Arabian, or rather Indian arithmetic, that it made so little progress between his time and that of the Pisan.

Leonardo's work is a treatise of arithmetic, terminated, as Arabic treatises of computation are similarly, $\ddagger$ by the solution of equations of the two first degrees. In the enumeration and exposition of the parts comprised in his fifteenth chapter, which is his last, he says, Tertia erit super modum Algebra et Almucabala; and, beginning to treat of it, Incipit pars tertia de solutione quarundam quastionum secundum modum Algebra et Almucabala, scilicet oppositionis et restaurationis. The sense of the Arabic terms are here given in the inverse order, as has been remarked by Cossali, and as clearly appears from Leonardo's process of resolving an equation, which will be hereafter shown.

He premises the observation, that in number three considerations are distinguished : one simple and absolute, which is that of number in itself : the other two relative, being those of root and of square. The latter, as he adds,

[^293]is called census, which is the term he afterwards employs throughout.

It is the equivalent of the Arabic mál, which properly signifies wealth, estate; and census seems therefore to be here employed by Leonardo, on account of its correspondent acceptation (quicquid fortunarum quis habet. Stepr.); in like manner as he translates the Arabic shai by res, thing, as a designation of the root unknown.

He accordingly proceeds to observe, that the simple number, the root, and the square (census), are equalled together in six ways: so that six forms of equality are distinguished ; the three first of which are called simple, and the three others compound. The order in which he arranges them is precisely that which is copied by Paciolo.* It differs by a slight transposition from the order in which they occur in the earliest Arabic treatises of algebra; $\dagger$ and which, no doubt, was retained in the Italian version from the Arabic executed by Guglielmo dilunis, and others who are noticed by Cossali upon indications which are pointed out by him. $\ddagger$ For Paciolo cautions the reader not to regard the difference of arrangement, as this is a matter of arbitrary choice.§ Leonardo's six-fold distinction, reduced to the modern algebraic notation, is 1st, $x^{2}=p x . \quad 2 \mathrm{~d}, x^{2}=n . \quad 3 \mathrm{~d}, p x=n . \quad 4 \mathrm{th}, x^{2}+p x=n$. 5th, $p x+n=x^{2}$. 6th, $x^{2}+n=p x$. In Paciolo's abridged notation it is $1 \mathrm{st}, c^{\circ} e c^{c}$. 2d, $c^{\circ} e n^{\circ}$. 3d, $c^{a} e n^{\circ}, \& c . \|$ The Arabic arrangement, in the treatise of the Khuwarezmite, is, 1st, $x^{2}=p x$. 2d, $x^{2}=n$. 3d, $p x=n .4$ th, $x^{2}+p x=n$. 5th, $x^{2}+n=p x$. 6th, $p x+n=x^{2}$. Later compilations transfer the third of these to the first place. $\mathbb{\pi}$

[^294]Like the Arabs, Leonardo omits and passes unnoticed the fourth form of quadratic equations, $x^{2} \perp p x+n=0$. It could not, indeed, come within the Arabian division of equations into simple, between species and species, and compound, between one species and two :* quantity being either stated affirmatively, or restored in this algebra to the positive form. Paciolo expressly observes, that in no other but these six ways is any equation between those quantities possible: Altramente che in questi 6 discorsi modi non e possible alcuna loro equatione.

Leonardo's resolution of the three simple cases of equation is not exhibited by Cossall. It is, however, the same, no doubt, with that which is taught by Paciolo; and which precisely agrees with the rules contained in the Arabic books. $\dagger$ To facilitate comparison, and obviate distant reference, $\mathbf{P a c l o l o}^{\text {a }}$ s rules are here subjoined in fewer words than he employs.
lst, Divide the things by the squares [coefficient by coefficient], the quotient is the value of thing.

2d, Divide the number by the squares [by the coefficient of the square], the root of the quotient is the value of thing.

3d, Divide the number by the things [that is, by the coefficient], the quotient is the value of thing. $\ddagger$

The resolution of the three cases of compound equations is delivered by Cossali from Leonardo, contracting his rugged Latin into modern algebraic form.

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1 st, Be \(x^{2}+p x=n\). Then \(x=-\frac{1}{2} p+\sqrt{ }\left(\frac{1}{4} p^{2}+n\right)\).
\(2 \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{Be} x^{2}=p x+n\). Then \(x=\frac{1}{2} p+V\left(\frac{1}{4} p^{2}+n\right)\).
\(3 \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{Be} x^{2}+n=p x\). Then, if \(\frac{1}{4} p^{2}<n\), the equation is
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[^295]impossible. If $\frac{1}{4} p^{2}=n$, then $x=\frac{1}{2} p$. If $\frac{1}{2} p^{2} 7 n$, then $\left.x=\frac{1}{2} p-\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}} p^{2}-n\right)$, or $=\frac{1}{2} p+\sqrt{2}\left(\frac{1}{2} p^{2}-n\right.$.

He adds the remark : Et sic, si non solvetur quastio cume diminutione, solvetur cum additione.

The rules are the same which are found in the Arabic treatises of algebra.* The same rules will be likewise found in the work of Paciolo, expressed with his usual verboseness in his Italian text: to which, in this instance, he has added in the margin the same instructions delivered in a conciser form in Latin memorial verses. As they are given at length by Montucla, it is unnecessary to cite them in this place. On the subject of the impossible case $P_{\text {aciolo adds, as a Notandum utilissimum, ' Sel numero }}$ qual si trova in la ditta equatione accompagnato con lo censo, sel non e minore o veramente equale al quadrato de la mita de le cose, el caso essere insolubile: e per consequente dico aguaglimento non potere avenire per alcun modo.' Summa, 8, 4, 12.

Concerning the two roots of the quadratic equation in the other case, under the same head, he thus expands the short concluding remark of Leonardo: Sicche luno e l'altro modo satisfa al tema: ma a le volte se have la verita a l'uno modo, a le volte a l'altro; $\dagger$ el perche, se cavando la radice del ditto remanente de la mita de le cose non satisfacesse al tema, la ditta radice aggiongni a la mita de le cose, e averai el quesito: e mai fallara che a l'uno di tai modi non sia satisfatto al quesito, cioe giongnendo la, ovvero cavando la del dimeciamento de le cose. Summa, 8, 4, 12.

Bombelli remarks somewhat differently on the same point. Nei quesiti alcuna volta, ben che di rado, il restante non servi, ma ben si la somma sempre. Alg. 2. 262.

[^296]The rules for the resolution of compound equations are demonstrated by Leonardo upon rectilinear figures; and in the last instance he has reference to Euclid.-Lib. 2. Th. 5. There is room then to surmise, that some of the demonstrations are among the additions which he professes to have made.

Among the many problems which he proceeds to resolve, two of which are selected by Cossali for instances of his manner, it will be sufficient to cite one, in the resolution of which the whole thread of his operations is exhibited; substituting, however, the more compendious modern signs. His manner of conducting the algebraic process may be fully understood from this single instance.

Problem : To divide the number 10 into two parts, such that dividing one by the other, and adding 10 to the sum of the quotient, and multiplying the aggregate by the greater, the amount is finally 114.

Let the right line $a$ be the greater of the parts sought ; which I call thing (quam pono rem): and the right line $b \mathrm{~g}$ equal to 10 : to which are joined in the same direction $g d, d e$, representing the quotients of division of the parts, one by the other. Since $a$ multiplied by $b e$ is equal to 114, therefore $a \times b g+a \times g d+a+d e=114$; and taking from each side $a \times b \mathrm{~g}$, there will be $a \times g d+a \times d e=114$ $-a \times b g$, Be $g d$ the quotient $\frac{10-a}{a}$, there will arise $10-a+a \times d e=114-a \times b g=114-10 a$; since $b g$ is equal to 10. Whence $a \times d e=104-9 a$. But $d e$ is the quotient $a$ : wherefore $a^{2}=104-9 a$. So that $\overline{10-a} \quad \overline{10-a}$
$a^{0}=1040-194 a+9 a^{2}$. Restore diminished things (restaura res diminutas), and take one square from each side (et extrahe unum censum ab utraque parte), the remainder
is $8 a^{?}+1040=194 a$; and dividing by eight, $a^{2}+130=$ $24 \frac{1}{4} a$; and resolving this according to rule, $a=97-$ $\sqrt{\frac{(97)^{2}}{8}-1} \overline{30}=\frac{97}{8}-\frac{33}{8}=8:$ consequently $10-a=2 . \overline{8}$

Besides his great work on arithmetic and algebra, Leonardo was author of a separate treatise, as already intimated, on square numbers. Reference is formally made to it by Paciolo, who drew largely from this source, and who mentions Le quali domande (questions concerning square numbers) sono difficillissime quanto ala demonstratione dela practica: comme sa chi ben l' a scrutinato. Maxime Leonardo Pisano in un particulare tractato che fa de quadratis numeris intitulato. Dove con grande sforzo se ingegna dare norma e regola a simili solutioni. Summa 1.4.6.

The directions for the solution of such problems being professedly taken by Paciolo chiefly from Leonardo, and the problems themselves which are instanced by him being probably so, it can be no difficult task to restore the lost work of Leonardo on this subject. The divination has accordingly been attempted by Cossali, and with a considerable degree of success. (Origine, \&c. dell' Algebra, c. 5.)

Among problems of this sort which are treated by Paciolo after Leonardo, several are found in the current Arabic treatises; others, which belong to the indeterminate analysis, occur in the algebraic treatises of the Hindus; some, which are more properly Diophantine, may have been taken from the Arabic translation, or commentary, of the work of Diophantus. Leonardo's endeavour to reduce the solution of such problems to general rule and system, according to Paciolo's intimation of his efforts towards that end, must have been purely his own : as nothing systematic to this effect is to be found in the

Arabic treatises of algebra; and as he clearly had no communication through his Arab instructors, nor any knowledge of the Hindu methods for the general resulution of indeterminate problems, simple or quadratic.

Montucla, who had originally underrated the performance of Leonardo, seems to have finally conceded to it a merit rather beyond its desert, when he ascribes to that author the resolution of certain biquadratics as derivative equations of the second degree. The derivative rules were, according to Cardan's affirmation, added to the original ones of Leonardo by an uncertain author; and placed with the principal by Paciolo. Cardan's testimony in this respect is indeed not conclusive, as the passage in which the subject is mentioned is in other points replete with errors; attributing the invention of algebra to Muhammed son of Musa, and alleging the testimony of Leonardo to that point; limiting Leonardo's rules to four, and intimating that Paciolo introduced the derivative rules in the same place with the principal : all which is unfounded and contrary to the fact. Cossali, however, who seems to have diligently examined Leonardo's remains, does not claim this honour for his author; but appears to admit Cardan's position, that the derivative, or, as they are termed by Paciolo, the proportional equations, and rules for the solution of them, were devised by an uncertain author, and introduced by Paciolo into his compilation under a separate head : which actually is the case. (Summa, 8, 6, 2, \&c.)

In regard to the blunder, in which Montucla copied earlier writers, respecting the time when Leonardo of Pisa flourished, he has defended himself (2d edit. Additions) against the reprehension of Cossali, upon the plea, that he was not bound to know of manuscripts existing in certain libraries of Italy, which served to show the age in
which that author lived. The excuse is not altogether valid: for Targioni Tozzetti had announced to the public the discovery of the manuscripts in question, with the date, and a sufficient intimation of the contents, several years before the first volumes of Montucla's History of Mathematics appeared.*

I am withbeld from further animadversion on the negligence of an author who has in other respects deserved well of science, by the consideration, that equal want of research, and in the very same instance, has been manifested by more recent writers, and among our own countrymen. Even so lately as in the past year (1816) a distinguished mathematician, writing in the Encyclopædia which bears the national appellation, $\dagger$ has relied on obsolete authorities and antiquated disquisitions concerning the introduction of the denary numerals into Europe, and shown total unacquaintance with what was made public sixty years ago by Targioni Tozzetti, and amply discussed by Cossali in a copious work on the progress of algebra in Italy, and in an earlier one on the origin of arithmetic, published more than twenty years since : matter fully recognised by Montucla in his second edition, and briefly noticed in common biographical dictionaries. $\ddagger$

In the article of the Encyclopædia to which reference has been just made, the author is not less unfortunate in all that he says concerning the Hindus and their arithmetical knowledge. He describes the Lílávatí as " a short and

[^297]meagre performance headed with a silly preamble and colloquy of the gods." (Where he got this colloquy is difficult to divine; the Lílávatí contains none.) "The examples," he says, " are generally very easy, and only written on the margin with red ink." (Not so written in any one among the many copies collated or inspected.) "Of fractions," he adds, " whether decimal or vulgar, it treats not at all." (See Ch. 2. Sect. 3 and Ch. 4. Sect. 2. also § 138.)

He goes on to say, " the Hindus pretend, that this arithmetical treatise was composed about the year 1185 of the Christian era, \&c." Every thing in that passage is erroneous. The date of the Lálávatí is 1150 , at the latest. The uncertainty of the age of a manuscript does not, as suggested, affect the certainty of the date of the original composition. It is not true, as alleged, that the oriental transcriber is accustomed to incorporate without scruple such additions in the text as he thinks fit. Nor is it practicable for him to do so with a text arranged in metre, of which the lines are numbered: as is the case with Sanscrit text books in general. Collation demonstrates that no such liberty has been taken with the particular book in question.

The same writer affirms, that " the Persians, though no longer sovereigns of Hindustan, yet display their superiority over the feeble Gentoos, since they generally fill the offices of the revenue, and have the reputation of being the most expert calculators in the east." This is literally and precisely the reverse of the truth; as every one knows, who has read or heard any thing concerning India.

The author is not more correct when he asserts, that " it appears from a careful inspection of the manuscripts preserved in the different public libraries in Europe, that the Arabians were not acquainted with the denary numerals

[^298]before the middle of the thirteenth century of the Christian era." Lronardo of Pisa had learned the Indian numerals from Arabian instruction in the twelfth century, and taught the use of them in the second year of the thirteenth : and the Arabs were in possession of the Indian mode of computation by these numerals so far back as the eighth century of the Christian era.*

To return to the subject.
After Leonardo of Pisa, and before the invention of the art of printing, and publication of the first printed treatise on the science, by Paciolo, algebra was diligently cultivated by the Italian mathematicians; it was publicly taught by professors; treatises were written on it, and recurrence was again had to the Arabian source. A translation of " the Rule of Algebra" (La Regola dell' Algebra) from the Arabic into the language of Italy, by Guglielmo di Lunis, is noticed at the beginning of the Ragionamento di algebta by Raffaelo Caracci, the extant manuscript of which is considered by antiquarians to be of the fourteenth century. $\dagger$ A translation of the original treatise of Muhammed ben Musa, the Khuwarezmite, appears to have been current in Italy; and was seen at a later period by both Cardan and Bombelli. $\ddagger$ Paolo della Pergola, Demetrio Bragadini, and Antonio Cornaro, are named by Paciolo as successively filling the professor's chair at Venice; the latter his own fellow-disciple. He himself taught algebra publicly at Peroscia at two different periods. In the preceding age a number of treatises on algorithm, some of them with that title: others like Leonardo's, entitled De Abaco, and

[^299]probably like his touching on algebra as well as arithmetic, were circulated. Paolo di Dagomari, in particular, a mathematician living in the middle of the fourteenth century, obtained the surname of Dell' Abaco for his skill in the science of numbers, and is besides said to have been conversant with equations (whether algebraic or astronomical may indeed be questioned), as well as geometry.*

With the art of printing came the publication of Paciolo, and the subsequent history of the inventions in algebra by Italian masters, is too well-known to need to be repeated in this place.

> M.

## Arithmetics of Diophantus.

Five copies of Diophantus, viz. three in the Vatican (Cossali, Orig. dell' Alg. i. 4. § 2.); Xylander's, supposed (Coss. ib. §5.) to be the same with the Palatine inspected by Saumaise, though spoken of as distinct by Bachet, (Epist. ad lect.); and the Parisian used by Bachet himself (ib.); all contain the same text. But one of the Vatican copies, believed to be that which Bombelli consulted, distributes a like portion of text into seven instead of six books. (Coss. ib. §5.) In truth the division of manuscript books is very uncertain : and it is by no means improbable, that the remains of Diophantus, as we possess them, may be less incomplete and constitute a larger portion of the thirteen books announced by him (Def. 11.), than is commonly reckoned. His treatise on polygon numbers, which is surnised to be one (and that the last of the thirteen,) follows, as it seems, the six (or

[^300]seven) books in the exemplars of the work, as if the preceding portion were complete. It is itself imperfect : but the manner is essentially different from that of the foregoing books: and the solution of problems by equations is no longer the object, but rather the demonstration of propositions. There appears no ground, beyond bare surmise, to presume, that the author, in the rest of the tracts relative to numbers, which fulfilled his promise of thirteen books, resumed the algebraic manner : or in short, that the algebraic part of his performance is at all mutilated in the copies extant, which are considered to be all transcripts of a single imperfect exemplar. (Васнет, Ep. ad lect.)

It is indeed alleged, that the resolution of compound equations (two species left equal to one) which Diophantus promises ( $D e f .11$ ) to show subsequently, bears reference to a lost part of his work. But the author, after confining himself to cases of simple equations (one species equal to one species) in the first three books, passes occasionally to compound equations (two species equal to one, and even two equal to two species) in the three following books. See iv. Q. 33 ; vi. Q. 6 and 19; and Bachet on Def. 11, and i. Q. 33. In various instances he pursues the solution of the problem, until he arrives at a final quadratic equation; and, as in the case of a simple equation, he then merely states the value inferrible, without specifying the steps by which he arrives at the inference. See iv. Q. 23 ; vi. Q. 7, 9 and 11. But, in other places, the steps are sufficiently indicated: particularly iv. Q. 33 and 45 ; v. Q. 13 ; vi. Q. 24 : and his method of resolving the equation is the same with the second of Brahmegupta's rules for the resolution of quadratics (Brahm. 18. § 34). The first of the Hindu author's rules, the same with Sridhara's quoted by Bháscara ( $V_{i}^{\prime} j$.-gán. § 131. Brahm. 18. § 32.), differs from that of Nugnez (Nonius) quoted by

Bachet (on Dioph. i. 33), in dispensing with the preliminary step of reducing the square term to a single square : a preparation which the Arabs first introduced, as well as the distinction of three cases of quadratics: for it was practised neither by Diophantus, nor by the Hindu algebraists.

Diophantus has not been more explicit, nor methodical, on simple, than on compound, equations. But there is no reason to conclude, that he returned to either subject in a latter part of his work, for the purpose of completing the instruction, or better explaining the method of conducting the resolution of those equations. Such does not seem to be the manner of his arithmetics, in which general methods and comprehensive rules are wanting. It is rather to be ${ }^{\text {i }}$ inferred, as Cossali does, from the compendious way in which the principles of Algebra are delivered, or alluded to, by him, that the determinate analysis was previously not unknown to the Greeks, wheresoever they got it; and that Diophantus, treating of it cursorily as a matter already understood, gives all his attention to cases of indeterminate analysis, in which perhaps he had no Greek precursor. (Coss. Orig. dell' Alg. i. 4. § 10.) He certainly intimates, that some part of what he proposes to

 expects the student to be previously exercised in the algorithm of algebra. The seeming contradiction is reconciled by conceiving the principles to have been known; but the application of them to a certain class of problems concerning numbers to have been new.

Concerning the probable antiquity of the Diophantine algebra, all that can be confidently affirmed is, that it is not of later date than the fourth century of Christ. Among the works of Hypatia, who was murdered A.D.

415, as they are enumerated by Suidas, is a commentary on a work of a Diophantus, most likely this author. An epigram in the Greek anthologia (lib. ii. c. 22.) is considered with probability to relate to him: but the age of its author Lucillius is uncertain. Bachet observes, that, so far as can be conjectured, Lucrilius lived about the time of Nero. This, however, is mere conjecture.

Diophantus is posterior to Hypsicles, whom he cites in the treatise on polygon numbers. (Prop. 8.) This should furnish another fixed point. But the date of Hypsicles is not well determined. He is reckoned the author, or at least the reviser,* of two books subjoined to Euclid's elements, and numbered 14th and 15th. In the introduction, he makes mention of Apollonius, one of whose writings, which touched on the ratio of the dodecaedron and icosaedron inscribed in the same sphere, was considered by Basilides of Tyre, and by the father of him (Hypsicles) as incorrect, and was amended by them accordingly : but subsequently he (Hypsicles) met with another work of Apollonius, in which the investigation of the problem was satisfactory, and the demonstration of the proposition correct. Here again Bachet observes, that, so far as can be conjectured, from the manner in which he speaks of Apollonius, he must have lived not long after him. Cossali goes a little further: and concludes on the same grounds, that they were nearly contemporary. (Orig. dell Alg. i. 4. §4.) The grounds seem inadequate to support any such conclusion : and all that can be certainly inferred is, that Hypsicles of Alexandria was posterior to Apollonius, who flourished in the reign of Ptolemy Euergetes: two hundred years before Christ.

[^301]Several persons of the name of Diophantus are noticed by Greek authors; but none whose place of abode, profession, or avocations, seem to indicate any correspondence with those of the mathematician and algebraist: one, a pretor of Athens, mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, Zenobius, and Suidas; another, secretary of king Herod, put to death for forgery, as noticed by Tzetzes; and a third, the instructor of Libanius in eloquence, named by Suidas in the article concerning that sophist and rhetorician.

The Armenian Abu'lfaraj places the algebraist Diophantus under the emperor Julian. But it may be questioned, whether he has any authority for that date, besides the mention by Greek authors of a learned person of the name, the instructor of Libanius, who was contemporary with that emperor.

Upon the whole, however, it seems preferable to abide by the date furnished in a professed history, even an Arabic one, on a Grecian matter; and to consider Diophantus as contemporary with the emperor Julian, about A.D. 365. That date is consistent with the circumstance of Hypatia writing a commentary on his works; and is not contradicted by any other fact, nor by the affirmation of any other writer besides Bombelli, on whose authority Cossali nevertheless relies.

Bombelli, when he announced to the public the existence of a manuscript of Diophantus in the Vatican, placed the author under the emperor Antoninus Pius, without citing any grounds. His general accuracy is, however, impeached by his assertion, that the Indian authors are frequently cited by Diophantus. No such quotations are found in the very manuscript of that author's work, which he is known to have consulted, and which has been purposely re-examined. (Coss. i. 4. § 4.) Вом-
belli's authority was, therefore, very properly rejected by Bachet, and should have been so by Cossali.

## N.

Progress and proficiency of the Arabians in Algebra.
In the reign of the second Abbasside khalif Almansur, and in the 156th year of the Hejira (A.D. 773), as is related in the preface to the astronomical tables of BENal Adami, published by his continuator Al Cásem in 308. H. (A.D. 920), an Indian astronomer, well versed in the science which he professed, visited the court of the khalif, bringing with him tables of the equations of planets according to the mean notions, with observations relative to both solar and lunar eclipses and the ascension of the signs; taken, as he affirmed, from tables computed by an Indian prince, whose name, as the Arabian author writes it, was Phighar. The khalif, embracing the opportunity thus happily presented to him, commanded the book to be translated into Arabic, and to be published for a guide to the Arabians in matters pertaining to the stars. The task devolved on Muhammed ben Ibráhím Alfazárí; whose version is known to astronomers by the name of the greater Sind-hind or Hind-sind, for the term occurs written both ways.* It signifies, according to the same author Ben al Adami, the revolving ages, Al dehr al dáher; which Casiri translates perpetuum aternumque. $\dagger$

No Sanscritt term of similar sound occurs, bearing a signification reconcilable to the Arabic interpretation. If a

[^302]conjecture is to be hazarded, the original word may have been Siddhánta. Other guesses might be proposed, partly combining sound with interpretation, and taking for a termination sindhu ocean, which occurs in titles now familiar for works relative to the regulation of time, as Cála sindhu, Samaya sindhu, \&c. or adhering exclusively to sound, as Indu sindhu, or Indu siddhánta; the last a title of the same import with S6ma siddhánta still current. But whatever may have been the name, the system of astronomy which was made known to the Arabs, and which is by them distinguished by the appellation in question, appears to have been that which is contained in the Brahma siddhánta, and which is taught in Brahmegupta's revision of it. This fact is deducible from the number of elapsed days between the beginning of planetary motions and the commencement of the present age of the world, according to the Indian reckoning, as it is quoted by the astrologer of Balkh, Abu Mashar, and which precisely agrees with Brahmegupta. The astrologer does not indeed specify which of the Indian systems he is citing. But it is distinctly affirmed by later Arabian authorities, that only one of the three Indian doctrines of astronomy was understood by the Arabs; and that they had no knowledge of the other two beyond their names.* Besides, Áryabhaff́a and the Arca siddhánta, the two in question, would have furnished very different numbers.

The passage of Abu Mashar, to which reference has been now made, is remarkable, and even important; and, as it has been singularly misunderstood and grossly misquoted by Bailly, in his Astronomie Ancienne (p. 302), it may be necessary to cite it at full length in this place.

[^303]It occurs at the end of the fourth tract (and not, as Bailly quotes, the beginning of the fifth), in Abu Mashar's work on the conjunctions of planets. The author there observes, that 'the Indians reckoned the beginning [of the world] on Sunday, at sunrise (or, to quote from the Latin version, Et æstimaverunt Indi quod principium fuit die dominica sole ascendente); and between that day and the day of the deluge (et est inter eos, s. inter illum diem et diem diluvii) 720634442715 days equivalent to 1900340938* Persian years and 344 days. The deluge happened on Friday (et fuit diluvium die Veneris) 27th day of Rabe 1st, which is 29 from Cibat and 14 from Adristinich. Between the deluge and the first day of the year in which the Hejira occurred (fuerunt ergo inter diluvium et primum diem anni in quo fuit Alhegira) 3837 years and 268 days; which will be, according to the years of the Persians, 3725 years and 348 days. And between the deluge and the day of Jesdagir (Yezdajbrd) king of the Persians, from the beginning of whose reign the Persians took their era, .... 3735 years, 10 months, and 22 days.' The author proceeds with the comparison of the eras of the Persians and Arabians, and those of Alexander and Philip; and then concludes the treatise: completi sunt quatuor tractatus, Deo adjuvante.

Bailly's reference to this passage is in the following words. 'Albumasar $\dagger$ rapporte que selon les Indiens, il s'est écoulé 720634442715 jours entre le déluge et l'époque de l'hégire. Il en conclut, on ne sait trop comment, qu'il s'est écoulé 3725 ans dans cet intervalle : ce qui placeroit

[^304]+ De Magn. Conj. Traité v, au commencement.
le déluge 3103 ans avant J. C. précisément à l'époque chronologique et astronomique des Indiens. Mais Albumasar ne dit point comment il est parvenu à egaler ces deux nombres de 3725 ans et de 720634442715 jours.' Ast. anc. ecl. liv. i. § xvii.

Now on this it is to be observed, that Bailly makes the ante-diluvian period between the Sunday on which the world began and the Friday on which the deluge took place, comprising 720634442715 days, to be the same with the post-diluvian period, from the deluge to the Hejira; and that he quotes the author, as unaccountably rendering that number equivalent to 3725 years, though the text expressly states more than 1900000000 years. The blunder is the more inexcusable, as Bailly himself remarked the inconsistency, and should therefore have re-examined the text which he cited, to verify his quotation.

Major Wilford,* relying on the correctness of BailLy's quotation, concluded that the error originated with either the transcriber or translator. But in fact the mistake rested solely with the citer : as he would have found if his attention had been drawn to the more correct quotation in Anquetil du Perbon's letter prefixed to his Rech. Hist. et Géog. sur l'Inde, inserted in Bernoulli's $2 d$ vol. of Desc. de l'Inde ( $\mathrm{p} . \mathrm{xx}$ ). But, though Anquetil is more accurate than Bailly in quotation, he is not more successful in his inferences, guesses, and surmises. For he strangely concludes from a passage which distinctly proves the use of the great cycle of the calpa by the Indian astronomers to whom Abu Mashar refers, that they were on the contrary unacquainted in those days with a less cycle, which is comprehended in it. So little did he understand the Indian periods, that he infers from a specified

[^305]number of elapsed days and correspondent years, reckoned from the beginning of the great cycle which dates from the supposed moment of the commencement of the world, that they knew nothing of a subordinate period, which is one of the elements of that cycle. Nor is he nearer the truth, but errs as much the other way, in his conjecture, that the number of solar years stated by Abu Mashar relates to the duration of a life of Brahmá, comprising a hundred of that deity's years.

In short, Anquetil's conclusions are as erroneous as Bailly's premises. The discernment of Mr. Davis, to whom the passage was indicated by Major Wilford, anticipated the correction of this blunder of Bailly, by restoring the text with a conjectural emendation worthy of his sagacity.*

The name of the Indian author from whom Abu Masiar derived the particulars which he has furnished, is written by Bailly, Kunkaraf; taken, as he says, from an ancient Arabic writer, whose work is subjoined to that of Messala, published at Nuremberg by Joachim Heller in $1648 . \dagger$ The latin translation of Messahala (MÁ-sháa-Allaf) was edited by Joachim Heller at Nuremberg in 1549; but it is not followed, in the only copy accessible to me, by the work of any other Arabic author ; and the quotation consequently has not been verified. D'Herbelot writes the same variously; Kankah or Cancah, Kenker or Kankar, and Kengheh or Kanghah; $\ddagger$ to which Reisee and Schultens, from further research, add another varia-

[^306]tion, Kengch;* which is not of Arabic but Persian orthography. Casiri, by a difference of the diacritical point, reads from the T'áríkhu'l hucamá, and transcribes, Katka. $\dagger$ That the same individual is all along meant, clearly appears from the correspondence of the works ascribed to him : especially his treatise on the greater and less conjunctions of the planets, which was imitated by Abu Mashar.

Amidst so much diversity in the orthography of the word it is difficult to retrieve the original name, without too much indulgence in conjecture. Canca, which comes nearest to the Arabic corruption, is in Sanscrǐt a proper name among other significations; but it does not occur as the appellation of any noted astrologer among the Hindus. Garga does; and, as the Arabs have not the soft guttural consonant, they must widely corrupt that sound ; yet Canghar and Cancah seem too remote from it to allow it to be proposed as a conjectural restoration of the Indian name.

To return to the more immediate subject of this note. The work of Alfazárí, taken from the Hindu astronomy, continued to be in general use among the Muhammedans, until the time of АумдmGn; for whom it was epitomized by Muhammed ben Musa al Khuwárezmí; and his abridgment was thenceforward known by the title of the less Sind-hind. It appears to have been executed for the satisfaction of AlmAmGN before this prince's accession to the khelafet, which took place early in the third century of the Hejira and ninth of Christ. The same author compiled similar astronomical tables of his own; wherein he professed to amend the Indian tables which furnished the

[^307]mean motions; and he is said to have taken, for that purpose, equations from the Persian astronomy, some other matters from Ptolemy, and to have added something of his own on certain points. His work is reported to have been well received by both Hindus and Muhammedans: and the greater tables, of which the compilation was commenced in the following age, by Ben al adamí and completed by Al Casem, were raised upon the like foundation of Indian astronomy : and were long in general use among the Arabs, and by them deemed excellent. Another and earlier set of astronomical tables, founded on the Indian system called Sind-hind, was compiled by Habash, an astronomer of Baghdad; who flourished in the time of the khalif Almácen.* Several others, similarly founded on the mean motions, furnished by the same Indian system, were published in the third century of Hejira, or earlier: particularly those of Fazl ben Hatim Nariza; and Al Hasan ben Misbah. $\dagger$

It was no doubt at the same period, while the Arabs were gaining a knowledge of one of the Indian systems of astronomy, that they became apprized of the existence of two others. No intimation at least occurs of any different specific time or more probable period, when the information was likely to be obtained by them, than that in which they were busy with the Indian astronomy, according to one of the three systems that prevailed among the Hindus; as the author of the Tárikhu'l hucamá, quoted by Casiri, affirms. The writer, whose compilation is of the twelfth century, $\ddagger$ observes, that ' owing to the distance

[^308]of countries and impediments to intercourse, scarcely any of the writings of the Hindus had reached the Arabians. There are reckoned,' he adds, 'three celebrated systems (mazhab) of astronomy among them; namely Sind and hind; Árjabahar, and Árchánd:* one only of which has been brought to us, namely, the Sind-hind: which most of the learned Muhammedans have followed.' After naming the authors of astronomical tables founded on that basis, and assigning the interpretation of the Indian title, and quoting the authority of Ben al Adamí, the compiler of the latest of those tables mentioned by him, he goes on to say, that ' of the Indian sciences no other communications have been received by us (Arabs), but a treatise on music, of which the title in Hindí is Biyáphar, and the signification of that title " fruit of knowledge;" $\dagger$ the work entitled Caǩlah and Damanah, upon ethics; and a book of numerical computation, which Abu Jífar Muhammed ben Musa al Khuwárezmí amplified (basat), and which is a most expeditious and concise method, and testifies the ingenuity and acuteness of the Hindus.'

The book, here noticed as a treatise on ethics, is the well known collection of fables of Pilpai or Bidpai (Sans. Vaidyapriya); and was translated from the Pehleví version into Arabic, by command of the same Abbaside khalif Almanser, $\ddagger$ who caused an Indian astronomical treatise to be translated into the Arabian tongue. The Arabs, however, had other communications of portions of Indian science, which the author of the Táríkhu'l hucamá has in this place overlooked; especially upon medicine, on which

[^309]many treatises, general and particular, were translated from the Indian tongue. For instance, a tract upon poisons by Shanac, (Sansc. Characa?) of which an Arabic version was made for the khalif Almámú, by his preceptor Abbas ben Sáíd J6harí. Also a treatise on medicine and on materia medica in particular, which bears the name of Shashurd (Sansc. Súsruta): and numerous others.*

The Khuwarezmite Muhammed ben Musa, who is named as having made known to the Arabians the Indian method of computation, is the same who is recognized by Arabian authors with almost a common consent (Zacaria of Casbin, \&c.) as the first who wrote upon algebra. His competitor for the honour of priority is Abu Kímil Shujáa ben Aslam, surnamed the Egyptian arithmetician, (Húsib al Miśrı̂); whose treatise on algebra was commented by Ali ben Ahmed al Amrání of Musélla, $\dagger$ and who is said by D'Herbelot to have been the first among learned Muslemans, that wrote upon this branch of mathematics. $\ddagger$ The commentator is a writer of the tenth century ; the date of his decease being recorded as of $344 \mathrm{H} . \S$ (A.D. 955). The age in which his author flourished, or the date of his text, is not furnished by any authority which has been consulted; and unless some evidence be found, showing that he was anterior to the Khuwárezmí, we may abide by the historical authority of Zacaria of Casbín; and consider the Khuvárezmí as the

[^310]earliest writer on algebra in Arabic. Next was the celebrated Alchindus (Abu Yusef Alikendi), contemporary with the astrologer Abu Mashar, in the third century of the Hejira and ninth of the Christian era,* an illustrious philosopher, versed in the sciences of Greece, of India, and of Persia, and author of several treatises upon numbers. In the prodigious multitude of his writings, upon every branch of science, one is specified as a tract on Indian computation (Hisábu'l hindí): others occur with titles which are understood by Casiri to relate to algebra, and to the 'finding of hidden numbers;' but which seem rather to appertain to other topics. $\dagger$ It is, however, presumable, that one of the works composed by him did treat of algebra as a branch of the science of computation. His pupil, Ahmed ben Muhammed of Sarkhas in Persia (who flourished in the middle of the third century of the Hejira, for he died in 286 H .), was author of a complete treatise of computation embracing algebra with arithmetic. About the same time a treatise of algebra was composed by Abu Hanifar Daináwarí, who lived till 290 H. (A. D. 903.)

At a later period Abu'lwafá Buzjání, a distinguished mathematician, who flourished in the fourth century of the Hejira, between the years 348 , when he commenced his studies, and 388 , the date of his demise, composed numerous tracts on computation, among which are specified several commentaries on algebra: one of them on the treatise of the Khuwarezmite upon that subject: another on a less noticed treatise by Abu Yahya, whose lectures he had attended : an interpretation (whether commentary or paraphrase may perhaps be doubted) of the work of DioPhantus: demonstrations of the propositions contained

- Abulfaraj; Pococke, p. 179.
† Táríkhu'l hucamá; Casıri, vol. i. pp.353-360.
vol. II. 2 ц.
in that work: a treatise on numerical computation in general: and several tracts on particular branches of this subject.*

A question has been raised, as just now hinted, whether this writer's interpretation of Diophantus is to be deemed a translation or a commentary. The term which is here employed in the Táríkhu'l hucamá (tafsír, paraphrase,) and that which Abulparajuses upon the same occasion (fast, interpreted, are ambiguous. Applied to the relation between works in the same language, the term, no doubt, implies a gloss or comment; and is so understoodifin the very same passage where an intepretation of the Khuwarezmite's treatise, and another of Abu Yahya's, were spoken of. But, where a difference of language subsists, it seems rather to intend a version, or at least a paraphrase, than mere scholia; and is employed by the same author in a passage before cited, $\dagger$ where he gives the Arabic signification of a Hindí term. That Buzjání's performance is to be deemed a translation, appears to be fairly inferrible from the separate mention of the demonstration of the propositions in Diophantus, as a distinct work: for the latter seems to be of the nature of a commentary; and the other, consequently, is the more likely to have been a version, whether literal or partaking of paraphrase. Besides, there is no mention, by an Arabian writer, of an earlier Arabic translation of Diophantus; and the Buzjání was not likely to be the commentator in Arabic of an untranslated book. D'Herbelot then may be deemed correct in naming him as the translator of the arithmetics of Diophantus; and Cossall, examining a like question, arrives at nearly the same conclusion; namely, that the Buzjání

[^311]was the translator, and the earliest, as well as the expositor, of Diophantus.-(Orig. dell Alg., vol. i. p. 175.) The version was probably made soon after the date which Abulfaraj assigns to it, 348 H . (A. D. 969), which more properly is the date of the commencement of the translator's mathematical studies.

From all these facts, joined with other circumstances to be noticed in progress of this note, it is inferred, 1st, That the acquaintance of the Arabs with the Hindu astronomy is traced to the middle of the second century of the Hejira, in the reign of Almans'fr, upon authority of Arabian historians citing that of the preface of ancient astronomical tables; while their knowledge of the Greek astronomy does not appear to have commenced until the subsequent reign of Hárgn Alrashid, when a translation of the Almagest is said to have been executed under the auspices of the Barmacide Yahya ben Kháled, by Abu Híán and Salama, employed for the purpose.* 2dly, That they were become conversant in the Indian method of numerical computation within the second century; that is, before the beginning of the reign of Almimon, whose accession to the Khelafet took place in 205 H . 3dly, That the first treatise on algebra in Arabic was published in his reign; but their acquaintance with the work of Diophantus is not traced by any historical facts collected from their writings to a period anterior to the middle of the fourth century of the Hejira, when Abu'lwafa Buzjáni flourished. 4thly, That Muhammed ben Musa Khuwárezmí, the same Arabic author who, in the time of Almámon, and before his accession, abridged an earlier astronomical work taken from the Hindus, and who published a treatise on the Indian method of numerical computation, is the first

[^312]also who furnished the Arabs with a knowledge of algebra, upon which he expressly wrote, and in that khalif's reign, as will be more particularly shown as we proceed.

A treatise of algebra bearing his name, it may be here remarked, was in the hands of the Italian algebraists, translated into the Italian language, not very long after the introduction of the science into that country by Lbonardo of Pisa. It appears to have been seen at a later period both by Cardan and by Bombelli. No manuscript of that version is, however, now extant ; or at least known to be so.

Fortunately, a copy of the Arabic original is preserved in the Bodleian collection. It is the manuscript marked CMXVIII. Hunt. 214 folio, and bearing the date of the transcription 743 H. (A.D. 1342). The rules of the library, though access be readily allowed, preclude the study of any book which it contains, by a person not enured to the temperature of apartments unvisited by artificial warmth. This impediment to the examination of the manuscript in question has been remedied by the assistance of the under librarian, Mr. Alexander Nicoll, who has furnished ample extracts purposely transcribed by him from the manuscript. This has made it practicable to ascertain the contents of the book, and to identify the work as that in which the Khuwárezmí taught the principles of algebra; and consequently to compare the state of the science, as it was by him taught, with its utmost progress in the hands of the Muhammedans, as exbibited in an elementary work of not very ancient date, which is to this time studied among Asiatic Muslemans.

I allude to the Khulásetu'l hisáb of Berau'ldin, an author who lived between the years 953 and 1031 H . The Arabic text, with a Persian commentary, has been printed in Calcutta; and a summary of its contents had been pre-
viously given by Mr. Strachey in his "Early History of Algebra," in which, as in his other exertions for the investigation of Hindu and Arabian algebra, his zeal surmounted great difficulties, while his labours have thrown much light upon the subject.*

The title page of the manuscript above described, as well as a marginal note on it, and the author's preface, all concur in declaring it the work of Muhammed ben Musa Khuwárezmí: and the mention of the khalif Alma$\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{N}}$ in that preface, establishes the identity of the author, whose various works, as is learned from Arabian historians, were composed by command, or with encouragement, of that khalif, partly before his accession, and partly during his reign.

The preface, a transcript of which was supplied by the care of Mr. Nicoll, has been examined at my request by Colonel John Baillie. After perusing it with him, I am enabled to affirm, that it intimates " encouragement from the Inám Almámún, Commander of the Faithful, to compile a compendious treatise of calculation by algebra;" terms which amount not only to a disclaimer of any pretentions to the invention of the algebraic art, but which would, to my apprehension, as to that of the distinguished Arabic scholar consulted, strongly convey the idea of the pre-existence of ampler treatises upon algebra in the same language (Arabic), did not the marginal note above cited distinctly assert this to be " the first treatise composed upon algebra among the faithful;" an assertion corroborated by the similar affirmation of Zacaria of Casbin, and other writers of Arabian history. Adverting, however, to that express affirmation, the author must be here under-

[^313]stood as declaring that he compiled (alaf is the verb used by him) the treatise upon algebra from books in some other language : dbubtless, then, in the Indian tongue, as it has been already shown that he was conversant with Hindu astronomy, and Hindu computation and account.

It may be right to notice, that the title of the manuscript denominates the author, Abu abdullah Muhammed ben Musa al Khuwárezmí, differing in the first part of the name from the designation which occurs in one passage of the Tarikhu'l hucamá, quoted by Casiri, where the Khuwárezmí Muhammed ben Musa is called Abu Jafar.* But that is not a sufficient ground for questioning the sameness of persons and genvineness of the work, as the Khuwárezmı́ is not usually designated by either of those additions, or by any other of that nature taken from the name of offspring: and error may be presumed, most probably on the part of the Egyptian author of the Taríkhu'l hucamá, since the addition which he introduces, that of Abu Jafar, belongs to Muhammed ben Musa ben Shaker, $^{\text {a very different person; as appears from another }}$ passage of the same Egyptian's compilation. $\dagger$

The following is a translation of the Khurárezmi's directions for the solation of equations, simple and compound, a topic which he enters upon at no great distance from the commencement of the volume, having first treated of unity and number in general.
' I found that the numbers, of which there is need in computation by restoration and comparison, $\ddagger$ are of three kinds; namely, roots, and squares, and simple number relative to neither root nor square. A root is the whole of thing multiplied by [root] itself, consisting of unity, or

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - Casiki, vol. i. p. } 428 . \quad \text { C Casiri, vol. i. p. } 118 . \\
& \ddagger \text { Hisalı"l jebr uen al mukábulah. }
\end{aligned}
$$

numbers ascending, or fractions descending. A square is the whole amount of root multiplied into itself; and simple number is the whole that is denominated by the number, without reference to root or square.
' Of these three kinds, which are equal, some to some, the cases are these: for instance, you say "squares are equal to roots;" and " squares are equal to numbers;" and " roots are equal to numbers."
'As to the case in which squares are equal to roots; for example, " a square is equal to five roots of the same:" the root of the square is five; and the square is twenty-five: and that is equivalent to five times its root.
' So you say " a third of the square is equal to four roots:" the whole square then is equal to twelve roots; and that is a hundred and forty-four ; its root is twelve.
'Another example: you say" five squares are equal to ten roots." Then one square is equal to two roots: and the root of the square is two ; and the square is four.
' In like manner, whether the squares be many or few, they are reduced to a single square: and as much is done to the equivalent in roots; reducing it to the like of that to which the square has been brought.
' Case in which squares are equal to numbers: for instance, you say, " the square is equal to nine." Then that is the square, and the root is three. And you say, " five squares are equal to eighty :" then one square is a fifth of eighty; and that is sixteen. And, if you say, "the half of the square is equal to eighteen:" then the square is equal to thirty-six ; and its root is six.
' In like manner, with all squares affirmative and negative, you reduce them to a single square. If there be less than a single square, you add thereto, until the square be quite complete. Do as much with the equivalent in numbers.
' Case in which roots are equal to number : for instance, you say " the root equals three in number." Then the root is three; and the square, which is raised therefrom, is nine. And, if you say " four roots are equal to twenty;" then a single root is equal to five; and the square, that is raised therefrom, is twenty-five. And, if you say " the half of the root is equal to ten:" then the [whole] root is equal to twenty; and the square, which is raised therefrom, is four hundred.
' I found that, with these three kinds, namely, roots, squares, and number compound, there will be three compound sorts [of equation]; that is, square and roots equal to number; squares and number equal to roots; and roots and number equal to squares.
' As for squares and roots, which are equal to number: for example, you say " square, and ten roots of the same, amount to the sum of thirty-nine." Then the solution of it is : you halve the roots; and that in the present instance yields five. Then you multiply this by its like, and the product is twenty-five. Add this to thirty-nine: the sum is sixty-four. Then take the root of this, which is eight, and subtract from it half the roots, namely, five; the remainder is three. It is the root of the square which you required; and the square is nine.
' In like manner, if two squares be specified, or three, or less, or more, reduce them to a single square; and reduce the roots and number therewith to the like of that to which you reduced the square.
' For example, you say " two squares and ten roots are equal to forty-eight dirhems;" and the meaning is, any two [sucb] squares, when they are summed, and unto them is added the equivalent of ten times the root of one of them, amount to the total of forty-eight dirhems. Then you must reduce the two squares to a single square : and
assuredly you know, that one of two squares is a moiety of both. Then reduce the whole thing in the instance to its half: and it is as much as to say, a square and five roots are equal to twenty-four dirhems; and the meaning is, any [such] square, when five of its roots are added to it, amounts to twenty-four. Then halve the roots, and the moiety is two and a-half. Multiply that by its like, and the product is six and a-quarter. Add this to twentyfour, the sum is thirty dirhems and a-quarter. Extract the root, it is five and a-half. Subtract from this the moiety of the roots; that is, two and a-half: the remainder is three. It is the root of the square : and the square is nine.
' In like manner, if it be said " half of the square and five roots are equal to twenty-eight dirhems;" it signifies, that, when you add to the moiety of any [such] square the equivalent of five of its roots, the amount is twenty-eight dirhems. Then you desire to complete your square so as it shall amount to one whole square; that is, to double it. Therefore double it, and double what you have with it ; as well as what is equal thereunto. Then a square and ten roots are equal to fifty-six dirlems. Add half the roots multiplied by itself, twenty-five, to fifty-six ; and the sum is eighty-one. Extract the root of this, it is nine. Subtract from this the moiety of the roots; that is, five: the remainder is four. It is the root of the square which you required : and the square is sixteen; and its moiety is eight.
' Proceed in like manner with all that comes of squares and roots; and what number equals them.
' As for squares and number, which are equal to roots; for example, you say, " a square and twenty-one are equal to ten of its roots :" the meaning of which is, any [such] square, when twenty-one dirhems are added to it, amounts
to what is the equivalent of ten roots of that square: then the solution is, halve the roots; and the moiety is five. Multiply this by itself; the product is twenty-five. Then subtract from it twenty-one, the number specified with the square : the remainder is four. Extract its root ; which is two. Subtract this from the moiety of the roots; that is, from five : the remainder is three. It is the root of the square which you required: and the square is nine. Or, if you please, you may add the root to the moiety of the roots : the sum is seven. It is the root of the square which you required ; and the square is forty-nine.
' When a case occurs to you which you bring under this head, try its answer by the sum : and, if that do not serve, it certainly will by the difference. This head is wrought both by the sum and by the difference. Not so either of the others of three cases requiring for their solution that the root be halved. And know, that, under this head, when the roots have been halved, and the moiety has been multiplied by its like, if the amount of the product be less than the dirhems which are with the square, then the instance is impossible : and, if it be equal to the dirhems between them, the root of the square is like the moiety of the roots, without either addition or subtraction.
' In every instance where you have two squares, or more or less, reduce to a single square, as I explained under the first head.
'As for roots and number, which are equal to squares : for example, you say, " three roots and four in number are equal to a square:" the solution of it is, halve the roots : and the moiety will be one and a-half. Multiply this by its like, [the product is two and a-quarter. Add it to four, the sum is six and a-quarter. Extract the root, which is two and a-half. To this add the moiety of the
roots: the sum is four. It is the root of the square which you required : and the square is sixteen.]'

The author returns to the subject in a distinct chapter, which is entitled "On the six cases of Algebra." A short extract from it may suffice.
'The first of the six cases. For example, you say, " you divide ten into two parts, and multiply one of the two parts by the other : then you multiply one of them by itself, and the product of this multiplication into itself is equal to four times that of one of the parts by the other."
'Solution. Make one of the two parts thing, and the other ten less thing : then multiply thing by ten less thing, and the product will be ten things less a square. Multiply by four; for you said " four times:" it will be four times the product of one part by the other ; that is, forly things less four squares. Now multiply thing by thing, which is one of the parts by itself: the result is, square equal to forty things less four squares. Then restore it in the four squares, and add it to the one square. There will be forty things equal to five squares; and a single square is equal to eight roots. It is sixty-four; and its root is eight : and that is one of the two parts, which was multiplied into itself: and the remainder of ten is two; and that is the other part. Thus has this instance been solved under one of the six heads : and that is the case of squares equal to roots.
' The second case. " You divide ten into two parts, and multiply the amount of a part into itself. Then multiply ten into itself; and the product of this multiplication of ten into itself, is equivalent to twice the product of the part taken into itself, and seven-ninths : or it is equivalent to six times and a-quarter the product of the other part taken into itself."
'Solution. Make one of the parts thing, and the other
ten less thing. Then you multiply thing into itself: it is a square. Next by two and seven-ninths : the product will be two squares, and seven-ninths of a square. Then multiply ten into itself, and the product is a hundred. Reduce it to a single square, the result is nine twenty-fifths; that is, a fifth and four-fifths of a fifth. Take a fifth of a hundred and four-fifths of a fifth; the quotient is thirty-six, which is equal to one square. Then extract the root, which is six. It is one of the two parts; and the other is undoubtedly four. Thus you solve this instance under one of the six heads : and that is "squares equal to number."'

These extracts may serve to convey an adequate notion of the manner in which Khuwárezmí conducts the resolution of equations simple and compound, and the investigation of problems by their means. If a comparison be made with the Khulásetu'l hisáb, of which a summary by Mr. Strachey will be found in the Researches of the Asiatic Society,* it may be seen that the algebraic art has been nearly stationary in the hands of the Muhammedans, from the days of Muhammed of Khuwárezm $\dagger$ to those of Beháu'ldin of Aamul, $\ddagger$ notwithstanding the intermediate study of the arithmetics of Diophantus, translated and expounded by Muhammed of Buzján. Neither that comparison, nor the exclusive consideration of the Khuwárezmí's performance, leads to any other conclusion, than, as before intimated, that, being conversant with the sciences of the Hindus, especially with their astronomy and their method of numerical calculation, and being the author of the earliest Arabic treatise on algebra, he must be deemed to have learnt from the Hindus the resolution of simple and quadratic equations, or, in short, algebra, a branch of their art of computation.

[^314]The conclusion, at which we have arrived, may be strengthened by the coincident opinion of Cossali, who, after diligent research and ample disquisition, comes to the following result.*
'Concerning the origin of algebra among the Arabs, what is certain is, that Muhammed ben Musa, the Khuwórezmite, first taught it to them. The Casbinian, a writer of authority, affirms it ; no historical fact, no opinion, no reasoning, opposes it.
'There is nothing in history respecting Muhammed ben Musa individually, which favours the opinion, that he took from the Greeks the algebra which he taught to the Muhammedans.
' History presents in him no other than a mathematician. of a country most distant from Greece and contiguous to India, skilled in the Indian tongue, fond of Indian matters, which he translated, amended, epitomized, adorned : and he it was, who was the first instructor of the Muhammedans in the algebraic art. $\dagger$
' Not having taken algebra from the Greeks, he must have either invented it himself, or taken it from the Indians. Of the two, the second appears to me the most probable.' $\ddagger$

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Communication of the Hindus with Western Nations on Astrology and Astronomy.

The position, that Astrology is partly of foreign growth in India; that is, that the Hindus have borrowed, and largely too, from the astrology of a more western region,

[^315]$\ddagger$ See his reasons at large.
is grounded, as the similar inference concerning a different branch of diviration,* on the resemblance of certain terms employed in both. The mode of divination, called Tajaca, implies by its very name its Arabian origin. Astrological prediction by configuration of planets, in like manner, indicates even by its Indian name a Grecian source. It is denominated H6rá, the second of three branches which compose a complete course of astronomy and astrology : $\dagger$ and the word occurs in this sense in the writings of early Hindu astrologers. Varáhamihira, whose name stands high in this class of writers, has attempted to supply a Sanscritt etymology; and in his treatise on casting nativities derives the word from Ahbrátra, day and night, a nycthemeron. This formation of a word by dropping both the first and last syllables, is not conformable to the analogies of Sanscritt etymology. It is more natural, then, to look for the origin of the term in a foreign tongue : and that is presented by the Greek wisa and its derivative dioooroízos, an astrologer, and especially one who considers the natal kour, and hence predicts events. $\ddagger$ The same term hobrá occurs again in the writings of the Hindu astrologers, with an acceptation (that of hour§) which more exactly conforms to the Grecian etymon.

The resemblance of a single term would not suffice to ground an inference of common origin, since it might be purely accidental. But other words are also remarked in Hindu astrology, which are evidently not Indian. An instance of it is dréshcáńa, \| used in the same astrological sense with the Greek dexaròs and Latin decanus: words, which, notwithstanding their classic sound, are to be considered as of foreign origin (Chaldean or Egyptian) in the

[^316]classic languages, at least with this acceptation. The term is assuredly not genuine Sanscritt: and hence it was before* inferred, that the particular astrological doctrine, to which it belongs, is exotic in India. It appears, however, that this division of the twelve zodiacal signs into three portions each, with planets governing them, and pourtrayed figures representing them, is not implicitly the same among the Hindu astrologers, which it was among the Chaldeans, with whom the Egyptians and Persians coincided. Variations have been noticed. $\dagger$ Other points of difference are specified by the astrologer of Balkh; $\ddagger$ and they concern the allotment of planets to govern the decani and dréshcánáas, and the figures by which they are represented. Abu Mashar is a writer of the ninth century ; § and his notice of this astrological division of the zodiac as received by Hindus, Chaldeans, and Egyptians, confirms the fact of an earlier communication between the Indians and the Chaldeans, perhaps the Egyptians, on the subject of it.

With the sexagesimal fractions, the introduction of which is by Wallis ascribed to Ptolemy among the Greeks, $\|$ the Hindus have adopted for the minute of a degree, besides a term of their own language, calá, one taken from the Greek $\lambda \varepsilon \pi \overbrace{\text { à }}$ scarcely altered in the Sanscrǔt liptá. The term must be deemed originally Greek, rather than Indian, in that acceptation, as it there corresponds to an adjective $\lambda_{\varepsilon \pi} \pi{ }_{0} \rho$, slender, minute: an import which precisely agrees with the Sanscrǐt caláa and Arabic dakík, fine,

[^317]minute; whence, in these languages respectively, calá and dakík for a minute of a degree. But the meanings of lipta in Sanscrit** are, 1st, smeared; 2d, infected with poison; 3d, eaten : and its derivative liptaca signifies a poisoned arrow ; being derived from lip, to smear: and the dictionaries give no interpretation of the word that has any affinity with its special acceptation as a technical term in astronomy and mathematics. Yet it occurs so employed in the work of Brahmegupta. $\dagger$

By a different analogy of the sense and not the sound, the Greek $\mu$ oija, a part, and specially a degree of a circle, is in Sanscrít anśa, bhága, and other synonyma of part, applied emphatically in technical language to the 360th part of the periphery of a circle. The resemblance of the radical sense, in the one instance, tends to corroborate the inference from the similarity of sound in the other.

Céndra is used by Brahmegupta and the Súrya siddhánta, as well as other astronomical writers (Bhíscara, \&c.), and by the astrologers Varahamihira and the rest, to signify the equation of the centre. $\ddagger$ The same term is employed in the Indian mensuration for the centre of a circle ;§ also denoted by madhya, middle. It comes so near in sound, as in signification, to the Greek xírrpor, that the inference of a common origin for these words is not to be avoided. But in Sanscrit it is exclusively technical ; it is unnoticed by the vocabularies of the language; and it is not easily traced to a Sanscritt root. In Greek, on the contrary, the correspondent term was borrowed in mathematics from a familiar word signifying a goad, spur, thorn, or point ; and derived from a Greek theme xenticu.

[^318]The other term, which has been mentioned as commonly used for the centre of a circle, namely, medhya, middle, is one of the numerous instances of radical and primary analogy between the Sanscrit and the Latin and Greek languages. It is a common word of the ancient Indian tongue; and is clearly the same with the Latin medius; and serves to shew that the Latin is nearer to the ancient pronunciation of Greek, than $\mu$ éros; from which Sipontin us* derives it, but which must be deemed a corrupted or softened utterance of an ancient term coming nearer to the Sanscrit medhyas and Latin medius.

On a hasty glance over the játacas, or Indian treatises upon horoscopes, several other terms of the art have been noticed, which are not Sanscrit, but apparently barbarian. For instance, anapha, sunapha, durudhara, and cémadruma, designating certain configurations of the planets. They occur in both the treatises of Varahamihira; and a passage, relative to this subject, is among those quoted from the abridgment by the scholiast of the greater treatise, and verified in the text of the less. $\dagger$ The affinity of those terms to words of other languages used in a similar astrological sense, has not been traced; for want, perhaps, of competent acquaintance with the terminology of that silly art. But it must not be passed unremarked, that Varabamihira, who has in another place praised the Yavanas for their proficiency in astrology (or astronomy, for the term is ambiguous,) frequently quotes them in his great treatise on horoscopes; and his scholiast marks a distinction between the ancient Yavanas, whom he cha-

[^319]racterizes as "a race of barbarians conversant with (hórá) horoscopes," and a known Sanscrǐt author bearing the title of Yavanésínara, whose work he had seen and repeatedly cites; but the writings and doctrine of the ancient Yavanas, he acknowledges, had not been seen by him, and were known to him only by this writer's and his own author's references.

No argument, bearing upon the point under consideration, is built on Bháscara's use of the word dramma for the value of sixty-four cowry-shells ( $L$ źl. § 2) in place of the proper Sanscrít term pramáńa, which Śridhara and other Hindu authors employ ; nor on the use of dinára, for a denomination of money, by the scholiast of Brahmegupta (12.§ 12) who also, like Bháscara, employs the first mentioned word (12.§ 14): though the one is clearly analogous to the Greek drachma, a word of undoubted Grecian etymology, being derived from dgálrouat; and the other apparently is so, to the Roman denarius, which has a Latin derivation. The first has not even the Sanscrit air; and is evidently an exotic, or, in short, a barbarous term. It was probably received mediately through the Muhammedans, who have their dirhem in the like sense. The other is a genuine Sanscritt word, of which the etymology, presenting the sense of 'splendid,' is consistent with the several acceptations of a specific weight of gold; a golden ornament or breast-piece; and gold money: all which senses it bears, according to the ancient vocabularies of the language.*

The similarity seems then to be accidental in this instance ; and the Muhammedans, who have also a like term, may have borrowed it on either hand; not improbably from the Hindus, as the dinár of the Arabs and Persians is

[^320]a gold coin like the Indian; while the Roman denarius is properly a silver one. D'Herbelot assigns as a reason for deriving the Arabic dinár from the Roman denarius, that this was of gold. The nummus aureus sometimes had that designation; and we read in Roman authors of golden as well as silver denarii.* But it is needless to multiply references and quotations to prove, that the Roman coin of that name was primarily silver, and so denominated because it was equal in value to ten copper as; that it was all along the name of a silver coin $; \ddagger$ and was still so under the Greek empire, when the dinápiov was the hundredth part of a large silver coin termed áprupoüs.§

[^321]Digitized by GOOgle

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## ERRATA in VOL. I.

| Page | Line |
| :---: | :---: |
| 15, | 11, for Aswalíyana read áswalípana. |
| 17, | 7, from bottom, for Caut'humi read Caut'humi. |
| 42, | 12, for Sáchíguña read Sáchiguina. |
| 54, | 9, for Swetadetu read Swetadetu. |
| 64, | 3, for Cánwa read Cánvoa. |
| 76, | 22, for Yaruifa read Varuka. |
| 83, | 14, for prapátacas read prapaitacas. |
| 96, | 16, for Cat'havalli read Cat'havalh. |
| 107, | 23, for "calender" read "calendar." |
| 185, | 22, for Åswini read Aswini. |
| 190, | 11, for " does" read " doest." |
| 190, | 12, from bottom, for Bráhma̋ách'handast read Brâhmata ch'handasí. |
| 200, | 15, for "the white Yajush" read " the black Yajush." |
| 307, | 1, for Caut'huma read Caut'huma. |

## In VOL. II.

55, last line, for Maitreya, Racshita read Maitreya racshita.

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[^0]:    - Sanscrtta is the passive participle of a compound verb, formed by prefixing the preposition sam to the crude verb crt, and by interposing the letter $s$ when this compound is used in the sense of embellishment. Ite literal meaning then is " adorned;" and when applied to a language it signifies "polished." Pracrita is a similar derivative from the same crude verb, with pra prefixed: the most common acceptation of this word is "outcast, or man of the lowest class;" as applied to a language it signifies " vulgar." Apabhranśa is derived from bhraś, " to fall down :" it signifies a word, or dialect, which falls off from correct etymology. Grammarians use Sanscrita as signifying "duly formed or regularly inflected;" and Apabhransía for false grammar.

[^1]:    - Every Puránía treats of five subjects: the creation of the universe, its progress, and the renovation of worlds; the genealogy of

[^2]:    gods and heroes ; chronology, according to a fabulous system ; and heroic history, containing the achievements of dem!-rods and herocs. Since each Puráía contains a cosmogony, with mythological and heroic history, the works which bear that title may not inaptly be compared to the Grecian theogonies.

    - Not fewer than 3,996.
    + Sícalya, Gírgia, Ciśyapa, Gálava, Sícatíyana, and uthers.
    $\ddagger$ In a few instances he quotes former grammars to refute them.

[^3]:    - Definitions of some techvical terms, together with grammatical axioms, are also cited from those ancient works in the commentaries on Pásini. They are inserted in a compilation entitled Paribháshá, which will be subsequently noticed. The various original authorities of Sanscrit grammar, as enumerated in a memorial verse, are eight in number, viz. Indra, Chandra, Cíśacrĭtsna, Ápíśai, Sícafíqana, Pífini, Amera, and Jinendra.
    + This name likewise is a patronymic.
    $\pm$ A beautiful poem has been composed in his name, containing moral reflections, which the poet supposes him to make on the discovery of his wife's infidelity. It consists of either three or four Śatacas, or centuries of couplets.

[^4]:    - The number of verbal roots amounts to 1,750 nearly; exclusive of many obsolete words omitted in the Dhátupáta, but noticed in the Sutras as the roots of certain derivatives. The crude verbs, however,

[^5]:    are more numerous, because many roots, containing the same radical letters, are variously conjugated in different senses. The whole number of crude verbs separately noticed in the catalogue exceeds three thousand. From each of these are deduced many compound verbs, by prefixing one or more prepositions to the verbal root. Such compounds often deviate very widely in their signification, and some even in their inflections, from the radical verb. The derivative verbs, again, are numerous; such as causals, frequentatives, \&c. Hence it may be readily perceived how copious this branch of grammar must be.

    - I have not yet had an opportunity of inspecting either this or its gloss. It has been described to me as a commentary on the Cásicáa vritti.

[^6]:    - Even the expanging of a letter is considered as the substitution of a blank.

[^7]:    - Descendants of Bhaffosif in the fifth or sixth degree are, I am told, now living at Benares. He must have flourished, then, between one and two centuries ago.
    + Many separate treatises on different branches of general grammar are very properly considered as appertaining to the science of logic.

[^8]:    - A town on the (anges, marked Singhove, in Rennelis maps. It is situated above Iláhábád.

[^9]:    - Finished by him, as appears from a postscript to the book, in the year 1687 of the Samvat era. Though he studied at Benares, be appears to have been born on the banks of the Tapati, a river marked Taplee in Rennei,'s map.

[^10]:    - Amera sinha was an eminent poet and one of the nine gems (for so these poets were called), who were the ornament of Vicramíditya's court. Unfortunately he held the tenets of a heterodox sect, and his poems are said to have perished in the persecutions fomented by intolerant philosophers against the persons and writings of both Jainas and Bauddhas. The persecution, instigated by Sancara and Udayana áchárya, was enforced, perhaps from political motives, by princes of the Vaishnava and Saiva sects, who compelled the Bauddha monarchs to retire from Hindustén, and to content themselves with their domidions of Lásaťa and Bhóta. It would be curious to investigate the date of this important revolution. The present conjecture, (for it is little more than mere conjecture) is partly founded upon some acknowledgments made by Pafilits, who confess that Sancara and Udayana persecuted the beterodox sects and

[^11]:    - The Niructi, as explained in Sir Wiliiam Jones's treatise on the literature of the Hindus, belongs to the same class with the Nighanti of

[^12]:    the Feda: and a small vocabulary under both these titles is commonly annexed to the Rygveda to complete the set of Cpavedas. There is, however, a much larger work entitled Niructi; and the commentators of it are often cited upon topics of general grammar. See vol. i. p. 26.

    - The term will bear a different interpretation, but this seems to be the most probable explanation of it. The other (youthful speech of Saraswati) is generally received.

[^13]:    - Among the most admired specimens of Hindí poetry, the seven hundred couplets of Bihírí líli, and the amatory verses of Súnder and of Matirím, are conspicuous. But their dialect is not pure Hindevi, since they sometimes borrow from the Persian language. Sonder wrote his poems in the reign of Shíhjefín, and seems to have been patronized by that prince, whom he praises in his preface. Bihírif líl flourished at the court of Ambher, towards the beginning of the sixteenth century of the Cbristian era. His poems were arranged in their present order for the use of the unfortunate prince Ãzem Shíf, and the modern edition is therefore called Ázemsháhí. The old edition bas been elegantly translated into Sanscritt verse by Hariprasída Pakbita, under the patronage of Chet Sinh, when Rájá of Benares.

[^14]:    - See Sir W. Junes' third anniversary discourse.

[^15]:    - It is necessary to remark, that although Gaura be the name of Bengal, yet the Bráhmanas, who bear that appellation, are not inha. bitants of Bengal but of Hindustán proper. They reside chiefly in the Subá of Delhi, while the Brahmañas of Bengal are avowed coloniste from Canój. It is difficult to account for this contradiction. The Gaura Brahmakas allege a tradition, that their ancestors migrated in the days of the Pándavas, at the commencement of the present Culi yuga. Though no plausible conjecture can be founded on this tradition, yet I am induced to retract a conjecture formerly hazarded by me, that the Gar of our maps was the original country of the Gaura priests.

[^16]:    - Pracrit and Hind books are commonly written in the Devanagari; but a corrupt writing, called Nagari, is used by Hindus in all common transactions where Hindi is employed by them; and a still more corrupted one, wherein vowels are for the most part omitted, is employed by bankers and others in mercantile transactions. I must bere confess that I can give no satisfactory explanation of the term. The common etymology of Nágarí is unsatisfactory; unless Nagara be taken as the name of some particular place emphatically called the city.

[^17]:    * A learned Bráhmen of Drávira positirely assures me, that the dialect of Malabar, though confounded by Europeans with the Tamel, is different from it, and is not the langnage to which Europeans have allotted that appellation.
    $\dagger$ The Romish and Protestant missionaries who have published dictionaries and grammars of this dialect, refer to another language, which they denominate Grandam and Orandonicum. It appears that Sanscryt is meant, and the term thus corrupted by them is Grant'hn, a volunae or book.
    $\ddagger$ Mentioned in the royal grant preserved at a famous temple in Carríááa. See As. Res. vol. iii. p. 48. However, the Mahrátzas themselves affirm, that the Muru character was introduced amongst them from the island of Silan.

[^18]:    - The limits of Círjara, as here indicated, are too narrow. It seems to bave been co-extensive with the ancient, rather than the modern Guzrát, and to have included the whole, or the greatest part of Candesh and Malwa.

[^19]:    - The author of the Tazcareh Shudra Hind explains Rékhtah as signifying a poetry composed in the language of the royal court of Hindustan, but in the style and metre of Persian poetry.

[^20]:    - Letters, added by Sanscrit grammarians, as marks, but which are not sounded, nor retained in the inflections, are called by them Anubandha or It; which, in this grammar, has been translated mute: bat the circumstance of such vowels being accented, leads to the inconsistency of speaking of accented mute vowels. They would be better designated by the word indicatory.

    A class of derivative verbs, which in a former treatise I denominated Frequentatives, has been here named Intensives. On consideration, I revert to the first-mentioned term.

    Under the head of tenses, I have used the word Aorist to signify indefinite in respect to a species of time, instead of indefinite as to time in general : the name of Remote past is not sufficiently descriptive of the import of the tense to which it has been assigned; and several others are open to a similar remark: 1 wish therefore to change the names of the tenses, according to the following scheme.

    1. Present.
    2. Preterite unperceived (Remote past.)
    3. Crastine fubure (Absolute future.)
    4. Indefinite future (Aorist future.)
    5. Aorist 1st. (Imperative, \&c.)
    6. Pridian past (Absolute past.)
    7. Aorist 2d. (Imperative, \&c.)
    8. Indefinite past (Aorist past.)
    9. Conditional (Conditional future.)
[^21]:    - I state this with some distrust, not having yet seen the book. The Nyása is universally cited; and the Bódhinyasa is frequently so. Vópaneva's Cávya cámadhénu quotes the Nyása of Jinendra and that of Jinendiabuddhi.

[^22]:    * i. e. the Three Books. But that name properly appertains to a more ancient vocabulary, which is mentioned by the commentaries on the Amera cósha, among the works from which this is supposed to have been compiled.

[^23]:    - In the Bhója prabandha. + See a preceding note:

[^24]:    - The following names may be selected from Muoufi's quotations, to complete the number of sixteen: Madhavi, Madhu mádhavi, Sarvánomda, Abhinanda, Ríjadeva, G6verdbana, Dríviba, Bhójaríja. But some of these appear to be separate works, rather than commentaries on the Amera cósha. Muoufa occasionally cites the most celebrated grammarians, as Pífini, Jayíditya, Jinfndra, Maitreya, Racshita, Purush6ttama, Mideava, \&ec.

[^25]:    - His work contains the date 1588 Sáca, or 1666 .

[^26]:    - Caumudi by Nayanánanda; Tricánáa chintámańi by Rageunít'ha chacravarti; both according to Pásini's system of etymology. Vaishamya caumudi by Rímapresída taroídincíra; Pada manjari by Locanít'нa; both following the grammatical system of the Calápa. Pradipa manjari by Rímíframa, a jejune interpretation of the text. Vrthat hárával by Ríméswara. Also commentaries by Crǐshíadísa, Trilóchanadísa, Sundaránanda, Vanadivabhaffa, Viswanát'ha, Gópíla ghacratartí, Góvindínanda, Rímínanda, Bholínítiba, \&c.

[^27]:    - Amera málá, A mera datta, Sabdáríava, Śásbata, Varía désana, Drvirúpa, Unádi cósha, Ratna cbsha, Ratna málá, Rantidêva, Rudra, Vyábi, Rabhaga, Vópílita, Bhíquri, Ajaya, Víchespati, Tárapíla, Arufadatta.

[^28]:    - Dis. Roxburgh, F. Buchanan, and W. Huntrr: and Mr. William Carey.

[^29]:    - As. Res., vol. i. p. 279 ; vol. ii. p. 389.

[^30]:    * Or Sánc'kya system of philosophy, distinguished from that of Capila. [See vol. i. p. 235, \&c.]
    $\dagger$ In the subscription to the only copy of this commentary which 1 have seen, it is ascribed to Seshaníga; but, in the body of the work, the commentator calls himself Sómícara.

[^31]:    - I possess three copies of it, two of which are apparently ancient; but they have no dates.
    + It is stated by the authors who quote it (Níríxafía bhaffa and others), to be an extract from the Agni purána; but I have not been able to verify its place in that Purána.
    $\ddagger$ Such are the Váni bhishaka, Vrłttin derpaha, Vrłtta caumudi, and Vrìta retnacara, with the Ch'handóo manjari, Ch'handö martańda, Ch'hand 6 málá, Ch'handó niviti, Ch'handó góvinda, and several tracts under the title of Vritta-muctavalh, besides treatises included in works on other subjects. For example, Varíhamifira's syatem of astrology, which contains a chapter on prosody.

[^32]:    - "Pracritih sanscritam; tatrabhavam tata agatam vá prácritam."
    + Cullgan beaffa (on Menu 2. 19.) says, that Surasína is the country of Mat'hurá.
    $\ddagger$ Clcata or Bỉár. But it does not appear, that either this, or the preceding dialect, is now spoken in the country from which it takes its name. Specimens of both are frequent in the Indian dramas.
    f Vararuobi, and his commentator Bhímaha.
    || Hemachandra, who, after stating the special permatations of these dialects as derived from Sanscrit, observes in both places, that the rest of the permutations are the same with those of Praertt.

[^33]:    - Or language of the Pisáchas. "Pisáchánám bhashá Paišachí." Bhímara on Vabaruchi.
    $\dagger$ Vararuebi and Hemagandra. Tbe last mentioned author notices a variation of this dialect under the name of Chulicápaisáchi, which differs very little from the proper Paisachi.
    $\ddagger$ It is taught under this name by Hemachandra, among other dialects of Pracrit. But the name usually signifies ungrammatical language.
    § Hemachandra ad finem. |l Ch. 6. [p. 180, ed. Calc.]
    IT Same with Vaidarbhi, according to the commentator of the Sáhitya derpaka. The country of Viderbha is said to be the modern Berar proper.
    - Avanti is another name of Ujjayani.

[^34]:    - Bahlica or Bahlica (for the word is spelt variously) is a country famous for the breed of horees. Amera, 2. 8. 45. It appears to be situated north of India, being mentioned in enumerations of countries, with Turushca, C'hasa, Casmía, \&c. (Hemachandra, 1.4.25. Tricátda sésha, 2. 1. 9.)
    $\dagger$ The commentator on the Sahitya derpatia (Ríma charafi), interprets Práchyá, by Gauđíyá; meaning, no doubt, the language of Bengal. He was himself a native of this province; and his work is modern, being dated Śaca 1622 (A.D. 1700).
    $\ddagger$ As. Res., vii. p. 219. [Page 21, \&sc. of the present volume.]
    6 Níríyafa bhaffa in a commentary on the Vrttta retnácira, written in Sameat 1602 (A.D. 1546).

[^35]:    - Contemporary with Jehínaír and 今híh Jehán.
    $\dagger$ The remaining Sareswata Brahmatars inhabit chiefly the Penjab.
    I Those of Dráviáa, Carriátaca, Télinga, and Oara or Uásya. I omit Grura. The Brahmanas bearing this national designation are settled in the districts around Delhi : but, unless theirs be the language of Mat'hura, it is not easy to assign to them a particular national tongue.
    $\$$ Being the initial of guru, long.

[^36]:    - Or by the nasal termed Anuswara, or the aspirate Visarga. By poetical license, a vowel may be short before certain conjuncts (viz. प्र and $\overline{\mathcal{R}}$; as also $\overline{\text { ® }}$ and $\overline{\text { (1). This license has been borrowed }}$ from Prácrít prosody, by the rules of which a vowel is allowed to

[^37]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 390.
    + Vritta muctávali.
    $\ddagger$ It may be varied by alternating a long and a short verse, or a short and a long one, or by making both verses long.

[^38]:    - Consisting of seven handred (or with the introduction 755) stanzas of miscellaneous poetry; and entitled, from the number of stanzas, Sapta śati.
    + Author of the Cáricá or metrical maxims of this philosophy. Sütras, or aphorisms in prose, which are ascribed to Capila himself, are extant: but the work of Ífwara Crisbifa is studied as the text of the Sánc'hya, (As. Res., vol. viii. p. 466.)
    $\ddagger$ Entitled Brahmesp'huta siddhánta: other treatises, bearing the same or a similar title, are works of different authors.
    § Chiefly Áryá, with a few anapæstic stanzas (Tôtacn), and a still smaller number of iambics and trochaics (Pramání and Samáne.)
    || Translated by Mr. Kindersley of Madras, from a tale in the provincial language.

[^39]:    - Rímaríja, by whose command the poem was composed. So the commentators remark: but it remains uncertain who he was, or where be reigned.

[^40]:    - This variety of the metre is named Ápatálicá.
    $\dagger$ Thus augmented, the measure is called Aupach'handasica. The whole of the last canto of MíGHA's epic poem bereafter mentioned is in this metre, and so is the first half of the 13th canto in Bhíravi's Ciratárjuníya.
    $\ddagger$ In the even verses of the strophe, if the fourth and fifth moments be combined in one long syllable, contrary to the general rule abovementioned, the metre is named Prachya vritti: or, in the odd verses, if the second and third moments be so combined, the metre is denominated $U d i c h y a$ errtti : or the rule may be violated in both instances at the same time, and the measure then takes the name of Pravrittaca.

[^41]:    - A tetrastich, consisting of four short verses of the sort called Praurttaca, is named Charuhasinf: and one comprising four long verses of that description is termed Aparántica.

[^42]:    - Arjuna and the mountaineer. Cifata is the name of a tribe of mountaipeers considered as barbarians.

[^43]:    - The first and fourth stanzas, in this quotation, are in the Drutavilambita metre, and the fifth in the Pramitácshará; which will be both noticed under a subsequent head. The third is in an uncommon measure named Chandricá or Cshama.
    $\dagger$ The names of these four varieties are lst, Vana vásicá, which exhibits the ninth and twelfth moments by short syllables, and the fifteenth and sixteenth by a long one: the rest being optional. 2dly, Chitrá, exhibiting the fifth, eighth, and ninth, by ehort syllables, the fifteenth and sixteenth by a long one. 3dly, Upachitrú, the fifth and eighth short; the ninth and tenth long; also the fifteenth and sixteenth long. 4thly, Visboca; fifth, eighth, and twelfth short; fifteenth and sixteenth long; and the rest indeterminate.

[^44]:    - Page 35.
    + The mixed metre, in which one couplet of the stanza contains short syllables and the other long, is ternued Sic'ha or Chúdá. If the first couplet contain the short syllables, it is denominated Jyotish; but is called Saumyí or Anangancrida, when the first couplet consists of long syllables.

[^45]:    - This metre, concerning which authorities disagree, is called Chudica or Chülicá; or, according to the Vritta retndacara, Atiruchira.
    + Corruptly Döhra.

[^46]:    - From their number, entitled Sat sai.

[^47]:    - The peninsula, between the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch. The name remains, but the boundaries of the province are more restricted than in ancient times. It still, however, includes the remains of Crishifa's city of Dwarch; the celebrated temple of Somanat'ha so frequently plundered by the Muhammedans; and the mountain of Giranara, held sacred by the Jainas no less than by the followers of the Jeda.

[^48]:    * As. Ref. vol. ix., p. $192 . \quad$ + As. Res. vol. vii., p. 511.

[^49]:    - The Ghatta and Ghattánanda, consisting of two verses of thirtyone mátrás each. In the first species the pauses are after the tenth and eighteenth matrás; in the other after the eleventh and eightoenth: There is also a slight difference in the distribution of the feet (7 times $4+3$ short; and $6+3$ times $3+5+6+3+3$ short.) The Dwipadicá has in each verse twenty-eight matrás ( $6+$ five times $4+1$ long). The Sic'há containing the like number, the C'hanja with forty-one matrás to the verse, and the Malá with forty-five, are couplets; but the feet are strictly regulated.

[^50]:    - Viz. 64 uniform and 4,032 half equal.
    + Viz. 64 uniform, 4,032 half equal, and $16,773,120$ unequal or dissimilar.

    1 A mode of calculating the possible varieties of metre is also taught in the Cláavali, a treatise of arithmetic and geometry, by Bhíscara. This truly learned astronomer was also a poet, and his mathematical works are composed in highly polished metre. If the reader figure to himself Euolid in Alcaic measure, Diophantus in anapests, or the Almagest versified with all the variety of Horatian metre, he will form an adequate notion of this incongruity.

[^51]:    vol. II.

[^52]:    - Writers on rhetoric (as the author of the Sáhitya darpaina and others) lay it down as a maxim, that the metre and style should in general be uniform in each canto: but they admit occasional deviations in regard to the metre.
    $\dagger$ So the author has called himself.

[^53]:    - Aja was father, and Indumati mother of Dasarat'ha.

[^54]:    - Vichitravirya was husband of Páńbu's mother.
    + They have distinct names, which are enumerated in the Ch'handomártanda, cited by the commentator on the Vrłtta Retnacara: as Maniprabha Cántimatí, \&c.

[^55]:    - In a passage of the Sundnra cánía.
    $\dagger$ Book 10th.
    $\$$ Among the persons of this drama are the passions and vices (pride, anger, avarice, \&c.) with the virtues (as pity and patience), and other abstract notions, some of which constitute very strange personifications. The author was Crĭshifa Pangita.

[^56]:    - From the 53d to the 79th chapters of the Vana parva.
    $\dagger$ A composition, in which prose and verse are intermixed, is called Champú.

[^57]:    " I do not comprehend this thy prudence; for opinions are indeed various: but anguish forces itself on my mind when considering thy extreme distress. Thou, who didst formerly repose on a costly couch, and wert wakened with auspicious praise and song, now sleepest on the ground strewed with pungent grass, and art roused from thy

[^58]:    - Rucmavał́ or Champacamála, composed of alternate dactyls and spondees; Mattd, measured by three spondees with four short syllables before the last; Panava, containing a spondee and dactyl, and an anapæst and spondee; Bhramaravilasitá, measured by two spondees, four short syllables and an anapæst; Jalóddhatugatá, composed of alternate amphibrachys and anapasts; and several other species, as Cısuma vichitra, Mahiguńa nicara, Cudmala dantí, Lalaná, \&c.
    $\dagger$ Dódhaca, composed of three dactyls and a spondee; Tbtaca, containing four anapæsts; Pramitácshará, measured by three anapæsts with an amphibrachys for the second foot; Malá, a species of Chandravartá, and some others.
    $\ddagger$ Thus Mattácriáa combines two simple kinds, the Vidyunmálá and Chandravarta. So Craunchapada is composed of two species beforementioned, the Champacamálá and Ma太iguńa.

[^59]:    - Vol. i. p. 279.

[^60]:    - Called Rámagiri.

[^61]:    - Short vowels, when final, are so faintly sounded, that they are usually omitted in writing the provincial languages of India in Roman character. But they have been here preserved at the close of words; being necessary, as in Sanscritt, for correctly exhibiting the metre.
    $\dagger$ The first termed Pramáni, the other Samáni. Considered as a species of uniform metre, the first is also named Nagaswarípini or

[^62]:    Matallica, and the second is denominated Mallica. There is also a regular measure which alternates trochees and iambics, and is denominated Mánavacácridá: and another, named Chitrapadá, consisting of two dactyls and a spondee.

    - Vitana.
    $\dagger$ The metre is named Pat'hyá when an amphibrachys is introduced in the second and fourth verses; some say in the first and third.

[^63]:    - The royal and military tribe is prohibited from killing elephants unless in battle.

[^64]:    - 75 and 76.
    vol. II.
    +77 and 79, most properly the last.
    K

[^65]:    - Suagatáa 78.
    + Vasanta tilaca 81-87 and Upéndvavajra 88. Ruchizâ 89.
    $\ddagger$ Manjübháshiñi 74 (P. T. D. 3 I.) and Mattamayúra 80 (2S + T. I. D.S.)
    § For example, Arria which comprises ten feet; Arhava eleven; Vyála twelve; Jimuta nineteen, \&c.

[^66]:    - Or the third verse may consist of a trochee and dactyl, with two anapesta; or of two trochees, with two anapæsts: and the metre is denominated, in the first instance, Saurabhaca; in the second, Lalitá.

[^67]:    * Helíyudha and Níríyańa tárá.
    $\dagger$ Divícara on the Vrytta retnécara.
    $\ddagger$ It is cited by Divícara baaffa as an instance of a stanza of six. Yet the scholiasts of the poem omit the two first verses and read the stanza as a tetrastich. One commentator, however, dnes remark, that copies of the poem exhibit the additional verses; and another commentator has joined them with two more verses in a separate stanza.

[^68]:    - Same with Pátali pura or Páali putra; the ancient Palibothra, now Patna. As. Res., vol. iv., p. 11.

[^69]:    - Málati mádhava. Act 2d.

[^70]:    - As the Nrtsinha champá, Ganga champú, Vrìndavana champú, sc. t Walekr's Memoir on Italian tragedy.

[^71]:    - The Pracritt original of this passage, though prose, is too beautiful to be omitted.
    'Há táda niccarun'a! es6 dán'i n'arénda-chittáráh6baàran'an jan6 bibajjai. Há amba sinéhamaä-hiraé ! tum api hadási débba dubbilasidéna. Hé Máladímał-jívidé, mama callén'a-\&áhanécca-suha-saàlabbábáré, bhaảvadi! chirassa jánábidási ducc'ham sinéhén’a. Hé pia sahi Lavangié! sivina-ávasara-métta dansan'á aham dé sambutté.'
    $\dagger$ Sardula vicriaita.
    सावष्षम्भनिशुम्भनिर्भरनम दूगोलनिष्पीउनन्यंचत्कर्परकूर्मकंपविगलड्बलाण्डखण्डस्थिति। पातालम्पतिमल्नगल्लविवरप्रक्षिप्नसप्नार्णवं वंदेनन्दितनीलकण्ठपरिषद्झत्तर्घिव:क्रीडितंत

[^72]:    - The original stanza is in Dandaca metre, of the species denominated Prachita and Sinhavicránta. The verse contains eighteen feet ( 2 Tr . 16 C .) or fifty-four syllables, and the stanza comprises 216 syllables.
    प्रचलितकरिकृतिपर्यन्तचंचन्नखाघातभिन्नेन्दु -निम्यन्दमानामृतक्योतजीवत्कपालावल्लीमुत्तचण्डाट्हहासत्रसद्रूरिभूतप्रवृत्त्तुति ? ख्वसदसितभुजंगभोगांगद्यन्थिनिष्पीउनस्फारफुल्सत्फ -णापीठनिर्यद्विषज्योतिकर्डृम्भणोड्डुामरबस्तविस्तारिदो:खण्डपर्यासितक्ष्माधरं ज ज्वलद-नलपिशड्ग़नेन्र्छटाछन्नभीमोतमांगभ्रमिप्रस्तुतालातचक्रक्रियास्यूतदिग्भागमुनुड़खट्यांगकोटि शृड़ुध्वजोद्रूतविक्षिप्नतारागणं। प्रमुदितक-टपूतनोतालवेतालरोलस्फुटत्कर्णसंक्रान्तगोरीच-नाम्लेषदृथन्मनस्त्यम्बकानन्दिवस्ताण्डवंदेविभूयादभीष्टचेचतुष्ट्येचनः ท

[^73]:    - Vasanta tilaca.

    धेर्यनिधेढिद्द्ययेहतएषपापः
    किंवाकदाचिदपिकेनचिदन्वभावि ?
    सारंगसंगरविधाविभकुम्भक्ट -
    कह्हाकपाणिकुल्शिस्यह्रे:पमाद: ती

[^74]:    - If there be room to doubt whether the metre be reduced from the next above, or raised from the next below, the first verse determines the question; for it is referred to the class to which the first verse or páda belongs. If this do not suffice, the metre is referred to that class, which is sacred to the deity, to whom the prayer is addressed. Should this also be insufficient, other rules of selection have been provided. Sometimes the metre is eked out by substituting iya or uva for correspondent vowels. This in particular, appears to be practised in the Sámavéda.

[^75]:    - Hubain Wáez and Abu'lfazl explain Bidpái, as equivalent to the Persian term Hacim mehrban; and, according to the ingenious conjecture of Sir William Jones, that appellation is corrapted from the Sanscritt Vaidya priya. The name of Díbishlim, interpreted Pádsháh lutzurg, or great King, has not so striking a resemblance to any Sanscrizt term of the same signification. Pilpai appears to be Persian; and in some copies of the Anwári Suhaill (for the passage is wanting in others), it is mentioned to have been translated from the Hindi Hastipat; which, in Sanscrtt, bears the same meaning, viz. elephant's foot.
    + The Persian name, Shanzebah (for so the word should be read, and not, as written in many copies, Shuterbah), is evidently formed on the Sanscrit name for this ox, Sanjivaca.

[^76]:    - See Bibliotheca Græca of Fabricius, vol. vi. p. 460, and vol. x. p. 324; Bibliotheqque Orientale of d'Herbelot, pp. 118, 206, 245, 399, and 456; Works of Sir W. Jones, vol. vi. p. 4; and As. Res. vol. i. p. 429; also Wilkins's Heetopades, preface, p. xiii.

[^77]:    - The texts are cited in the Vivadárhava setu, from the Vrihaid dharma puráka. This name I therefore retain; although I cannot learn that such a puritia exists, or to what treatise the quotation refers under that name. [See vol. i. p. 103 of the present work.]
    + [See vol. i. p. 199 of the present work.]
    vol. 11.
    N

[^78]:    - These several countries are, Sareswata, probably the region watered by the river Sersutty, as it is marked in maps; unless it be a part of Bengal, named from the branch of the Bhagirat'ks, which is distinguished by this appellation; Cányacubja or Canoj; Gauda, probably the western Gar, and not the Gaur of Bengal; ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) Mit'hila, or Tirabhucti, corrupted into Tirhut; Ctcala, said to be situated near the celebrated temple of Jagannath ha; Drávida, pronounced Dravira; possibly the country described by that name, as a maritime region south of Carhata, (As. Res. vol. ii. p.117); Maharáshtra, or Marhatta; Telinga, or Telingana; Gujjara, or Guzrat; Casmira, or Cáshmir.
    $\uparrow$ Anga includes Bhagalpur. Benga, or Bengal Proper, is a part only of the Suba. Varendra, the tract of inundation north of the Ganges, is a part of the present Zila of Rajeshahi. Calinga is watered by the Godaveri, (As. Res. vol. iii. p. 48.) Cámařipa, an ancient empire, is become a province of Asam. Oara I understand to be Orisa Proper. Ráda (if that be the true reading) is well known as the country west of the Bhagiratha. Mágadha, or Magadha, is Bahár Proper. Chola is part of Birbhim. Another region of this name is mentioned in the Asiatic Rasearches, vol. iii. p. 48. Swerhagráma,

[^79]:    - [See the note at page 97 of the present volume.]

[^80]:    vulgularly Sunargau, is situated east of Dacca. China is a portion of the present Chinese empire. On the rest I can offer no conjecture. Saca and Berbera, here mentioned, must differ from the Droipa, and the region situated between the Cusisa and Sanc'ha dwoipas.

    - Vulgarly, Cúmár. + Vulgarly, Tantí $\ddagger$ Vulgarly, Baidya.
    § Vulgarly, Casérá. || Vulgarly Sac'héra.

[^81]:    - Vulgarly, Baraiya. $\dagger$ Vulgarly, Náya or Nái.
    $\ddagger$ Vulgarly, Caran.

[^82]:    - Vulgarly, Cáit.
    $\dagger$ Literally, Staying at home, (cáyé sanst'hitah,) whence the etymology of Cáyasìha. $\ddagger$ Máh.

[^83]:    - G6p.
    + Gơaria-Góp.

[^84]:    - Thus enumerated, "Cali tantra, Míndmálá, Tára, Nirváta tantra, Serva saran, Bíra tantra, Singarchana, Bhuta tantra, Uddésan and Cálicá calpa, Bhairaví tantra, and Bhairaví calpa, Todala, Mátrìbhédanaca, Máyí tantra, Bíréśwara, Viśsoasára, Samayá-tantra, Brah-ma-yámala-tantra, Rudra-yámala-tantra, Śancu-yámala-tantra, Gáya-

[^85]:    tri-tantra, Calicacula servaswa, Culashava, Yogini-tantra, and the Tantra Mehishamardini. These are here universally known, Oh Beairaff, greatest of souls! And many are the tantras uttered by Sambiu."

[^86]:    - Vrǐhad áranyaca upanishad.

[^87]:    VOL. II.

[^88]:    - Jaina priests usually bear a broom adapted to sweep insects out of their way; lest they sbould tread on the minutest being.

[^89]:    - I understand that their Vareya class includes eighty-four tribes: of whom the moet common are those denominated Oswal, Agnrwal, Pariwár, and C"handéivál.

[^90]:    - See As. Res. vol. vii. p. 415.
    $\dagger$ Seven tribes are enumerated : but it is not difficult to reconcile the distributions which are stated by Arbian and Strabo, with the present distribution into four classes.

[^91]:    - As. Res. vol. viii. p. 474. [vol. i. pp. 110, 111, of the present work.]
    $\dagger$ In explanation of a remark contained in a former essay [vol. i. p.110, \&c. of the present work] I take this occasion of adding, that the mere mention of Ríma or of Crǐshifa, in a passage of the Védas, without any indication of peculiar reverence, would not authorize a presumption against the genuineness of that passage, on my hypothesis; nor, admitting its authenticity, furnish an argument against that system. I suppose both heroes to have been known characters in ancient fabulous history; but conjecture, that, on the same basis, new fables have been constructed, elevating those personages to the rank of gods. On this supposition, the simple mention of them in genuine portions of the Vidas, particularly in that part of it which is entitled Bráhmańa, would not appear surprising. Accordingly, Caǐshfa, son of Devaci, is actually named in the Ch'hándugya upanishad (towards the close of the 3d Chapter,) as having received theological information from Ghóra, a descendant of Anoiras. This passage, which had escaped my notice, was indicated to me by Mr. Speke, from the Persian translation of the Upanishad.

[^92]:    - Vol. ii. p. 178.
    $\dagger$ The eopy which I possess, belonged to a Bráhmańa, who died some months ago (1805) in Crlcutta. I obtained it from his heirs.
    $\ddagger$ As. Res. vol. vi. p. 165.

[^93]:    - Tachard, Voyage de Siam. Laloubiere, Royaume de Siam.

[^94]:     vi. 16.
     oi इọisaí uiбg, x. t. $\lambda$. Arrian. Indic. c.ll.
    
    

[^95]:    
     pag. 712.
    
    

[^96]:     $\dagger$ Plin., lib. vii. c. 2. Solin. i. 52.
    
    
    $\S$ Porph. de Abstinentia, lib. iv.

[^97]:    - Kaí लes סerojoct, \&e. Strom. lib, i. c. 15. p. 130. ed. Sylb.
    $\dagger$ Strom. lib, iii. c. 7. p. 194. ed Sylb.
    $\ddagger$ Same with the Hylobii of Strabo.
    
    
    
    
    
     Strom. lib. i, c. 15. p. 131. ed. Sylb.

[^98]:    - The passage has been interpreted differently; as if Clemens said, that the Allobii were those who worshipped Burta. (See Moreri, Art. Samanéens.) The text is ambiguous.

[^99]:    - Two of these names occur in Captain Mahony's and Mr. Joinviles's lists of fire Buddhas. As. Res. vol. vii. p. 32 and 414.

[^100]:    - I understand that the Jainas have a mythological poem entitled Harivanśa purâna, different from the Harivanśa of the orthodox. Their Iosiwícu, likewise, is a different person; and the name is said to be a title of their first Jina, Rǐshabha deva.
    + [In the Asiatic Researches, vol. ix. p. 244, \&c.]

[^101]:    - The divisions of time have been noticed by Major Maceenzir, As. Res. vol. ix. p. 257, and will be further explained.

[^102]:    - The life of this Jina is the subject of a separate work entitled Śánti purána.

[^103]:    - I understand this to be a mountain situated in the west of India; and much visited by pilgrims.
    $\dagger$ Bhélipurá, in the suburbs of Benares, is esteemed holy, as the place of his nativity.
    $\ddagger$ Samét śic’hara, called in Major Rennel's map Parsonaut, is

[^104]:    - The Jainas admit numerous Indras; but some of the attributes, stated in this place by the Calpa sútra, belong to the Indrí of the Indian mythology.

[^105]:    - So the commentator expounds both terms.
    $\dagger$ Near Rájagrťha, in Bihár. It is accordingly a place of sanctity. Other holy places, which have been mentioned to me, are Champápuri, near Bhágalpár, Chnndrávatı distant ten miles from Benares, and the ancient city Hastinápura in Hindustán: also Satrunjaya, said to be situated in the west of India.
    $\ddagger$ Samanassa bhagaväu Mahíbírassa jáva duhc'ha hínassa navabása sayáin bicwantáin dasamassaya bása sayassa ayam así imé sambach'hare cálé gach'hai. "Nine hundred years have passed since the adorable Maríbira became exempt from pain; and of the tenth century of years, eighty are the time which is now elapsed."
    § The most ancient copy in my possession, and the oldest one which I have seen, is dated in 1614 samvat ; it is nearly 250 years old.

[^106]:    - $1,000,000,000,000,000$ palyas=one ságara, or ságarópama.

[^107]:    - A commentary on these bymns is dated in Śácn 1214 (A.D. 1292); hut how much earlier Hemachandra lived, is not yet ascertained.

[^108]:    - Góládhyáya, § 3. v. 8 \& 10.
    $\dagger$ Ursa minor.
    $\ddagger$ Lacshmidísa, Muníswara, and the Vásanabháshya.
    §The Sangrahaníi ratna and Lócanáb sútra, both in Prácritt, are the authorities here used.

[^109]:    - This is explained to be a measure of space, through which the gods are able to travel in six months, at the rate of $2,0 \tilde{7}, 152$ yojanas, (of 2,000 crós $a$ each,) in the twinkling of an eye.

[^110]:    - Each great yójana contains 2,000 cós.

[^111]:    - See the Dabistan of Mulla Morsen Fínf; and D'Herbrlot's Bibliotheqque Orientale. If the industrious Bohrahs and the remorseless "assassins" had really arisen out of the same sect, it would be a new fact in the history of the human mind.

[^112]:    - See the Dabistán, from which this account is abstracted.

[^113]:    - The Sunnis, or orthodox sect.
    $\dagger$ The orthodox.

[^114]:    - Meaning Hindí the mother of Moaviyybi.
    $\dagger$ The author proceeds in a strain of invective against the Sunnis; especially against Mullé Abdulidah of Lahorr, who bore the title of the Maxhd'mu'l-mulc. This, being superfluous, is here omitted.

[^115]:    - The word is here used as a term of reproach; for its origin, as the appellation of a sect, see D'Herbslot's Bibliothèque Oriontale.

[^116]:    - Colonel Polier's transcript exhibited Amilla; the present copy may be read either Avélia or Vella.
    + The Vindhya hills form the range which passes through the provinces of Bahár, Benáres, \&cc. Himádri, the mountain of snow, (called Himavat in the next verse,) is the Imaus and Emodus of ancient geographers. Áryaverta signifies the land of virtue, or "inhabited by respectable men." See Menv, Ch. ii. v. 22.
    $\ddagger$ Sácambhař is the modern Sámbhar, famous for its salt lakes. It is situated at the distance of about thirty miles west of Jeypur.
    § Whether Vigraba Rája and Visala Déva be names of the same person, or of different princes, it is impossible to determine from the tenor of the inscription, without other information.

[^117]:    - The transcript of the inscription exhibits vahhamáac tilacah, as it was also read in the former fac simile: Serv6ru Trivedi advises me to read it báhujáta tilacah, and I accede to his emendation. [See the note in the following page.]
    + This alludes to the Indian custom of biting a blade of grass as a token of submission, and of asking quarter.
    $\ddagger$ Skrv6ru explains this very obscure passage otherwise: "there is (i.e. there should be) no doubt or hesitation in the mind of thee, who art the highest of embodied souls (Purushottama)."
    § Purusiotrama is a title of Vishfu. With reference to this term, the anthor of the inscription aaks, "Art thou not Visiriu himself? Art thou not he who slept in the arms of Lacsimip" The legend of the churning of the ocean is well known.
    II In the present copy the date is very distinct; and proves to be 1220; not 123 as was suspected by Sir Wilhiam Jones.

[^118]:    - 'This part of the inscription is not legible.
    $\dagger$ As. Res., vol. ix. p. 189.

[^119]:    - हतो नृपतिपाषाणयक्षयूपप्रशक्तेः त

[^120]:    - Servóru Trivédi; the same who assisted me in decyphering the copy of an inscription on Firbz Shír's pillar at Delhi. As. Res. vol. vii. p. 180. [page 232 of the present volume.]

[^121]:    - Merphy's Travels in Portugal, p. 277.

[^122]:    - There is reason to suppose the writing, as well as the language of Bengal, to be originally the same with the Tirhatiya: altered, in course of time, since the separation which has been the consequence of a colony of Cányacubja Brahmens settling in Bengal.

[^123]:    - This use of the pronoun indicates the conspicuousness of the object; as if sufficiently known without further designation.
    $\dagger$ Here, as well as with the subsequent names, the particle cioa is subjoined without changing the preceding vowel. This is contrary to the rules of the language, and emendations hare been accordingly proposed : but I shall not disturb the text.
    $\ddagger$ The moon is named Sasion, from a fancied resemblance of its spots to a leveret. Pardits, to whom I showed maps of the moon, copied from Hevelius and Riooiolus, fixed upon the Loca Paludosa and Mons Porphyrites, or Keplerus and Aristarionus, for the spots, which, they think, exhibit the-similitude of a hare.

[^124]:    - The term is Astoamibandhica, which the Pahaits are disposed to explain as signifying " a general commanding cavalry." Other interpretations may be suggested: the word is an unusual one.
    $\dagger$ This, as indeed the whole of the verse, is obscure, and admits of various interpretations. In this place, more than one reading has been proposed.
    $\ddagger$ Here again the sense is obscure; and more than one reading may be proposed. The praise is evidently grounded on the union of practical virtues, with religious contemplation.
    \& Aswanibandhica.
    II Indea.
    IT A measure of land, still used in the eastern parts of Bengal, originally as much as might be sown with one drö́na of seed: for a dróha is a measure of capacity. (As. Res., rol. v. p. 96.) The drońa, vulgarly called dun, varies in different districts. It may, however, be reckoned nearly equivalent to eight bighas, or two acres and two-thirds.

[^125]:    - Sce Plate iii.

[^126]:    - Siva, manifested in eight material forms: viz. Earth, Water, Fire, Air, Ether, the Sun, the Moon, and the person who performs a sacrifice.
    $\dagger$ Brabmí the creator, himself not created, and therefore termed unborn.
    $\ddagger$ Vishifu, who reposes on the serpent Ananta or Sésia; and who has been incarnate in various shapes, to relieve the world from oppressors.
    § Bhavíni or Duraí slew Mahishásura. The legend is well known.
    || Bamboos (Bambusa arundinacea and other species).

[^127]:    - The place here described may be Vijey-pur, on the northern declivity of the Vindhya hills, a few miles from the temple of Vindhyá-vásini near Mirzápur on the Ganges. It is the ancient residence of a family, which claims descent from the former sovereigns of Benares; and is still the abode of the head of that family. But the terms of the text, L'ttaragiri cat̂acé, rather seem to signify ' declivity of the northern mountain,' than 'northern declivity of the monntain;' and that interpretation points to the range of snowy mourtains, instead of $V$ indhya which is reckoned a tropical range.
    + The name of Jayídirya, is known as the patron of certain authors, who flourished at Cási; and who are considered as ancient writers. He is mentioned in the title of the Vámana cásicá, and even termed the author of that grammatical work. I shall not undertake to determine whether this be the same person.
    $\ddagger$ The names, being uncommon, are, in this instance, doubtful. Stimadáli is clearly given as the name of the minister: and either the whole of it may be his name; or it may be resolved into Srimat áli, or into Sri Madali. The latter is most agreeable to the prevailing practice of prefixing Sri to a proper name. In this inscription, the auspicious syllable is prefixed to the names of the two kings first mentioned; but is not added to the names of the writers of it, who are noticed towards the close. (v. 20 \& 22.)

[^128]:    - From this comparison to Sugata or Buddha, as well as a previous comparison to a Bodhisatron, it may be inferred that the author, if not himself a follower of the sect of Buddra, was at least more amicably disposed towards that sect than modern orthodox Hindus appear to be.

    It is hardly necessary to inform the reader, that the last Buddha was conspicuous for his tender, compassionate disposition. The mythology of the sect of Buddia peoples heaven with Bódhisatwas; and, from this class of beings, the Buddhas are selected. Gautama Buddea was a Bódhisation under the name of Swetaoetu, before he was incarnate as Siddiírt'Ha son of Suddhodana.
    $\dagger$ The text exhibits Surfa critaśóbha; which must be amended by reading either Sroarha or Suvarina. The last is preferable as giving the most correct metre: either way the meaning is rendered 'elegant, as gold,' or by ' well selected words :' for suvarin or swarha signifies gold; and may be resolved into two words; su well, and varía or arka a letter or syllable.

[^129]:    - The last line is very obscuré. If it have been rightly decyphered and explained, it may allude to some other grant held by the Rája's minister, for his own subsistence.

[^130]:    - Siva, or Mabídéva, is figured with the moon as a crest. According to mythology, he upholds the creator.

    This, and the two following stanzas, seem to be the same which are found, but in a different order, at the beginning of the inscription on the plates preserved at the temple of Conjeveram: (As. Res., vol. iii. p. 39.) with some difference, however, in the reading and interpretation.
    † Gafesa, figured with an elephant's head, reckoned son of Hara or Marídéva and of his wife Párvati.
    $\ddagger$ The original is here inaccurate: it exhibits Taras tivra timira gihiró; which means nothing, and in which a syllable is deficient for the metre. In the fac simile of another grant, the same passage is correctly written Varadas tivra timira mihiró.

    6 The incarnation of Vishifu, as a boar, who upheld the earth submerged by the ocean, is well known to all who are conversant with Indian mythology.

    II The story of the churning of the ocean is familiar to every one.
    IT Yadu, the celebrated ancestor of Crishfa, was of the lunar race.

[^131]:    - The pretensions of Sangama to be descended from the lunar line of Cshatriyas or Chandravansis are here asserted.
    $\dagger$ The names of three of these princes, as well as of their father, occur in the writings of Mídeava íonírya, and of his brother Sayafa íchírya, who were priests and counsellors of those monarchs.

    Harifara Rája, and Buccana Ríja or Bucca ríya, are named in Mídeava's commentary on the Védas, and Campa is mentioned in his grammatical works.

[^132]:    more generally known. Ramá is probably intended for Rídií as a representative of Lacshmf.

    In the original, Sarabwati is called Vífif; but the fac simile of the other inscription exhibits Savitrf. Sacri is, in the original, erroneously written $\mathrm{SACHI}^{\text {; and jama occurs at the beginning of the }}$ verse for náma.

    - Tilottamá is the name of a nymph celebrated for her beauty.
    + AnasGyí is wife of Atri, and distinguished for conjugal affection. The name signifies unenvious.
    $\ddagger$ The princess is here termed Gauri, which is a title of Pirvati; and which conveys an allusion to her own name Gaurímbioá.

    5 Solemn donations are ratified by pouring water into the hand of the donee.

    I| Sixteen meritorious gifts are enumerated in treatises on donation.

    IT Corresponding to A.D. 1395.
    ** A title of Siva.
    tt The difference of idiom makes it necessary to transpose, in the translation, some of the verses of the original.

[^133]:    - Some parts of this long passage are obscure and doubtful. The last stanza, with two preceding, omitting one, (that is the 29th, 30 th, and 32 d ) appears to be the same with three which occur in the grant preserved at Conjeveram, viz. 43d, 44th, and 45th. (As. Res., vol. iii, p. 5l.) But there are some variations between the reading of them in this inscription, and in the copy of the Conjeveram plates, from which Sir W. Jonrs made his version of that grant: and, in a few instances, the interpretation which I have adopted differs from his.

[^134]:    - This passage may indicate the artist's name, Víáideva.
    $\dagger$ The terms may signify " fully granted away, or properly bestowed."
    $\ddagger$ In mythology, as well as in figurative language, the earth is wife of the sovereign. With an allusion to this idea, land, which has been granted away, is here called the king's sister : and his seizure of such land is pronounced incestuous.
    The expression which has been translated espoused (caragrahya, literally, ' to be taken by the hand '), will also signify ' subjected to taxation:' for cara signifies tax as well as hand.
    § This appears to be a quotation from some poem (a Puráfia or the Rámáyafa). The whole of the concluding part of the inscription

[^135]:    (comprised in five stanzas) seems to be the same with the close of the grant on plates of copper preserved at Conjeveram. See As. Res., vol. iii. p. 53.

    - This signature is in Cánara letters.

[^136]:    - This is the same stanza, which begins the two inscriptions found at Chitradurg, and which likewise occurs in a grant in the possession of a Bráhmen at Nandigul; and in that preserved at Conjeveram.
    + Rívafa.

[^137]:    - Cuntala désa, the ancient name of the province in which Curugode is situated; part of the Ballario or Adoni District. (Note by Major Macerizie.)

[^138]:    - The poet indulges his fancy in describing this favoured durg; hut, in fact, it is only about 250 feet high, and no ways remarkable for strength. (Note hy Major Maokenzie.)
    † Chôla déśa, .................. The modern Tanjore country.
    Gurjara, ................. Guzarat.
    Madru, ................. Madura and Trichinopoly.
    Pándya, .................. Marawar and Tinevelly. M.
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[^139]:    - Bos gìunniens.

[^140]:    - Answering to A.D. 1173.
    $\dagger$ Corresponding toA.D. 1181.
    $\ddagger$ Published in L'art de vérifier les dates; and inserted in Playfair's System of Chronology.

[^141]:    - Its height is four feet nine inches, but it is only nine inches wide.
    $\dagger$ Corresponding to A.D. 1037.

[^142]:    - One seems to be Náráyafa; perhaps Náríyafapála.
    $\dagger$ The original seems to exhibit Samat: but this must be intended for Sambar or Samvat.
    $\ddagger$ As. Res., vol. i. p. $123 . \quad \oint$ Ibid. p. 130.

[^143]:    - As. Res., vol. i. p. 142.
    $\dagger$ Plates i. and ii. in the lst. vol. of As. Res.

[^144]:    - Vol. ii. p. $26 . \quad \dagger$ As. Res., vol. v. p. 133.

[^145]:    - Such is the deduction from the text, which states a half eclipse of the sun in Chaitra, on the sun's entrance into the Uttarayatia, or northern path, at the moment of Vyatipata (which imports new moon on a Sunday in any one of the undermentioned Nacshatras, viz. Asvoiní, Sravañá, Dhanisht'ha, Árdrá, Aślésha, and Mṛ̛gaśiras: the first of which is the only one compatible with the month). The words of the text are Chaitramásé crisȟ̌a [should be cri̛shína] pacshé só . . . . . . . . . . carana uttaráyaña san . . . . . . . . . . vyatipata nimitté súrya parvani ardha grasa grthita [should be grithita] samaé [should be samaye ]

    In the places marked with dots, the letters are wanting in the original.
    t See pages 261 and 266 of this volume.
    $\ddagger$ As. Res., vol. iii. p. 52 . The verses are those numbered 50 and 54.

[^146]:    - Corresponding to A.D. 1164.

[^147]:    - Gladwin's Translation, vol. ii. p. 119.
    $\dagger$ As. Res., vol. iii. p. 50. Digest of Hindu law, vol. ii. p. 278.

[^148]:    - Read at a public meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society, December 4,1824 .
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[^149]:    - It figures Marisrísura, vulg. Bhainsásut, slain by Bhavíní.

[^150]:    - [See page 286 of the present volume.]
    $\dagger$ It appears from an inscription (a grant on plates of copper) published, with a translation, in the fifteenth volume of Asiatic Researches (p. 447), that Jayachandra was son of Vijayachandra; and that there has been a mistake in considering Vijayacmandra and Jayadiand to be equivalent Sanscrit and Hinds appellations of the same individual. The error originated with the pandit Servóru Trivedi, who communicated a copy of the inscription noticed in the ninth volume of the Asiatic Researches [see pages 240 and 286 of the present volume], as relative to Jayachand, whom he identified (erroneously, as now appears) with Vijayachandra.

    The series of princes who reigned at Gádhipura or Cányacubja, ancestors of Jayaohandra, is now completely and accurately determined; and the reading of the inscription in question ceases to be a matter of any interest.

[^151]:    - Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. i. p. 147.
    + In two stanzas of Vasnnta tilaca metre.
    $\ddagger$ Calahahai; written Calahakat, with a long vowel, in the prose paraphrase.
    § The text exhibits, in two places, cutámbra: which, I conjecture, should be cu-támra, from cu, ill, and tamra, copper; alluding to a grant inscribed, as usual, upon copper. There may be an allusion to Cutámba, the name of a district in that vicinity.

    II Gádhinagara, the same with Gádhipura, is identified with Cánya-cubja.-See As. Res., vol. ix. p. 441, [p. 286 of the present volume.]

    IT Suvalluhala; written Swalluhaniya in the prose paraphrase; it appears to be the designation of the Brahmatias, who had obtained the grant of land in question.

[^152]:    - Read at a public meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society, December 4, 1824 .

[^153]:    - Digest of Hindu Law, vol. ii. p. 278. As. Res., vol. ii. p. 50.

[^154]:    ${ }^{1}$ Both this and the following inscription begin alike, and contain several other parallel passages. There are gross errors in both; but one has helped to correct the other.
    ${ }^{2}$ Vybmacesa, a title of Siva, whose hair is the atmosphere.
    ${ }^{3}$ The crescent, which is Siva's crest.
    ${ }^{4}$ Smaríríti, a title of Siva. He is represented with his hair clotted and matted in a long braid rolled round his head, in the manner in which ascetics wear their's. Hair in that state has a tawny hue.
    ${ }^{5}$ Nightless, endless : eternal.
    ${ }^{6}$ Mahácumára : a royal youth, a young prince.

[^155]:    ${ }^{7}$ I am not entirely confident of the meaning of this passage.
    ${ }^{\text {B }}$ Pádánudhyátr, an ordinary periphrasis for son and successor: literally, " whose feet are meditated, i.e. revered, by ......""
    ${ }^{\boldsymbol{9}} \mathbf{T}$ The additions are those usually borne by sovereign princes among the Hindus. Bhattáracn answers to the title of majesty. Adhirája is a sovereign or superior prince. Sri, signifying fortunate or auspicious, is prefixed to every name.

    Varman is the customary designation of a Rajaputra; as Sarman is of a Bráhmatia. The term enters into composition in the names of many of this family.
    ${ }^{10}$ Pattacila is probably the Pattail of the moderns. The term occurs again lower down; and also in the next grant (No.2).
    ${ }^{11}$ Pronounce Bardudd-grám. Surásaní appears to be the district, or province, in which it is situated.
    ${ }^{12}$ Perhaps Ughavan rather than Ut'havan.
    ${ }^{13}$ This seems to be the name of a district.
    ${ }^{14}$ An apanage, comprising twelve great districts. Mahá-dwádásacamakala seems to have been held by this prince, under a royal grant from his father. He did not become his successor: for Jaya varmais, in another inscription, named immediately after Ya 56 varma; and was reigning sovereign.
    ${ }^{13}$ Dhará was the capital of this dynasty.
    ${ }^{16}$ Anniversary of the death. It appears, therefore, that Nara varma died in 1190 Samvat.

[^156]:    ${ }^{17}$ The allusion is to the five great sacraments, which a Hindu is bound to perform.-See Menu, iii, 67.
    ${ }^{18}$ Bhafínfpati is a title of Siva, husband of Bhawinf. In the following inscription, the name again occurs in a similar manner, with the further designation of Varívara auru.
    ${ }^{19}$ The áhuti, or burnt offering; consisting of boiled rice, with tila (Sesamum orientale), cúsa (Poa cynosuroides), and samf (Adenanthera or Prosopis aculeata).
    ${ }^{20}$ An arghya is a libation or oblation, in a conch, or vessel of a particular form, approaching to that of a boat.-As. Res., vol. vii. p. 291.
    ${ }^{21}$ Capilá probably is fire, personified as a female goddess.
    ${ }^{23}$ Abhra is a cloud; and váta, wind: whence vatábhra, a windy cloud. Or abhra may signify the etherial fluid (acáa). The stanza is repeated in the next inscription.
    ${ }^{23}$ A requisite formality in a donation of land.-See Digest of Hindu Law, vol. ii. p. 276. Treatises on Law of Inheritance, p. 258:

[^157]:    ${ }^{24}$ Erroneously written Ávast'hica in the text. Its derivation is from avasat'ha, a house : and it bears reference to the householder's consecrated fire (gárhapatyn). Helíyudha, author of the Bráhmańa sarvaswa, has, in the epigraph of his work, the title of Ávasat'hica mahá dharmádhyacsha.
    ${ }^{940}$ On a reperusal of the grant No. 1, it appears probable that the grantee's name was Dhanapíla instead of Vanapíla. Throughout the inscription, the letter $\zeta$ has for the most part the appearance of $\bar{\square}$ the detached stroke ${ }^{6}$ being defaced: and Dhanapíla is doubtless the more ordinary name.
    ${ }^{25}$ This probably should be Mihira, which is a name of the sun.
    ${ }^{5}$ Dwivid is one who studies two védas: as Trivid, one who studies three.
    ${ }^{27}$ The text exhibits Ásláyana; doubtless for Áśswaláyana, by which name one of the sáac'hás of the véda is distinguished. Áswalíyana is author of a collection of aphorisms on religious rites (Calpa sutra).
    ${ }^{20}$ Gotra, descent from an ancient sage ( $R \nmid s h i$ ), whence the family name is derived. There are four such great families of Bráhmahas; comprehending numerous divisions.
    ${ }^{0}$ Pravara, lineage traced to more of the ancient sages. The distinction between gótra and pravara is not very clear. Mídiava on the Mimánsá, 2, 1, 9, names these very three families as constituting a gótra: and gives it as an example of pravara.
    ${ }^{30}$ This, which seems to be the name of a country, is differently written in the next inscription. Perhaps it may be a branch of the gotra, or family, from which the donatory derived his descent.
    ${ }^{31}$ Mala, signifies field; and cula, abode. The passage may admit a different interpretation.

[^158]:    Mala implies, (as I learn from Major Tod), according to the acceptation of the country, land not artificially irrigated, but watered only by rain and dew.
    ${ }^{2}$ An eclipse of the moon appears, from calculation, to have taken place at the time here assigned to it: viz. 16th July 1144; as in the preceding year, 28th July 1143.-Art de vérifier les Dates, vol. i. p. 73.
    s3 Hirafyn, gold: rent in money.
    Bhaga bhoga; in another place, Uhágăbhoga; share of produce, rent in kind.
    ${ }^{34}$ This stanza, a little varied, recurs in the third grant (No. 3).
    ${ }^{35}$ This adso recurs in the same (No. 3); and is likewise found in a grant translated by Sir Wiliiam. Jones.-As. Res., vol. i. p. 365, st. 1 .
    ${ }^{36}$ A quotation.-See ' Digest of Hindu Law,' vol. ii. p.281, and As. Res., vol. ii. p. 53. Also, vol. i. p. 366; and vol. viii. p. 419.

[^159]:    37 The remainder of the stanza (which may be easily supplied from the other inscriptions: see the next grant; and As. Res., vol. i. p. 365, st. 3, and vol. iii. p. 53, and vol. viii. p. 419) was probably followed in the second plate, by further quotations, deprecating the resumption of the gift by future sovereigns: and to which was subjoined the sign manual, with the names of attesting officers; as in the accompanying grant by Yast varma (No. 3).

    The bridge of virtue, which signifies "the maxim of duty," bears an allusion to Ríma's bridge, to cross the sea to Lancá.

    - See Plate v.

[^160]:    " $\mathrm{Om}_{\mathrm{m}}$ ! Well be it! Auspicious victory and elevation!
    " Virtuous is he, whose hair is the etherial expanse; who, for creation, supports with his head that lunar line

[^161]:    1 These two stanzas occur also in the preceding inscription.
    ${ }^{2}$ Vata-c'hédaca-shat́-trinśati; thirty-six villages of Vata: for it should probably be read c'hćtaca (which signifies a village) instead of c'hédaca.
    s Valgágra-dhárá-dhárá: an allusion is probably intended to Dhárá the seat of government of this dynasty. Valga signifies a leap; and dhára, a horse's pace.

[^162]:    4 The grantee was either the same person, or one of the same family, as in the preceding grant; for the designations are identical, so far as this reaches.

    - See plate vi.

[^163]:    ${ }^{1}$ For want of the first plate of this patent, the beginning of the second is very obscure; and, perhaps, not rightly intelligible, without divining what has gone before. I have endeavoured to make sense of it, but am far from confident of having succeeded.
    ${ }^{2}$ Mómala devi was not improbably the name of Yasb varma's mother; and the anniversary is that of her obsequies: as in the preceding patent for a grant on the anniversary of the obsequies of Yast varma's father. Else it may be the annual festival of an idol of that name.
    ${ }^{3}$ Nivartana is a land-measure containing 400 square poles of ten cubits each, according to the Lálávatí. See Algebra of the Hindus.
    4 The name is written Vicaricá gráma in one place; and Viccarica gráma in another.

    Major Tod observes that the ancient name of Burhánpura is Carigráma.

[^164]:    ${ }^{5}$ I have here hazarded a conjectural emendation; being unable to make sense of the text, as it stands. Perbaps the transcriber had erroneously written tundalá for tundiláa; and the engraver, by mistake, transformed it into the unmeaning vandala, which the text exhibits. Lacsimf is here characterized as a thunder-cloud pregnant with fertilizing rain.

    6 Chanudhá, in the text, is an evident mistake; it should undoubtedly be bahudha. Several other gross errors in this inscription have been corrected; too obviously necessary to require special notice: as a short vowel for a long one, and vice versa.

[^165]:    - Read at a Public Meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society, November 18th, 1826.
    $\dagger$ By Major Jambs Delamaine. Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. i. p. 413-438.

[^166]:    - Page 216 of the present volume.

[^167]:    - Burnouf et Lassen, Essai sur lc Páli, p. 154.

[^168]:    - Preface to two Treatises on the Hindu Law of Inheritance, p. x. $\dagger$ See Plate vii.

[^169]:    - The largest of those inscriptions names likewise the reigning Emperor, 8híh Jehín.

[^170]:    - Copies of those at Páváparí were not taken in fac-simile, bat are merely transcripts.

[^171]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 294.
    y 2

[^172]:    - Another Brahme siddhanta is entitled the Sacalya sonhita. The author of the Marichi, therefore, distinguishes the one to which he refers.
    + Sp'hutavicshépa and Sp'hutadhruvaca; which will be explained further on.
    $\ddagger$ Ranganít'ha and BhGdhara.
    § In the Vásaná bháshya and in the Marichi.

[^173]:    - Father Pétal, and, after him, Bailly, for reasons stated by them (Uranol. Dissert. 2. 2. Ast. Anc. p. 428.), are of opinion, that the ancient astronomers referred stars to the equator; and that Eudoxus and Hipparchus must be so understood, when speaking of the longitudes of stars. Perhaps the Greek astronomers, like the Hindus, reckoned longitudes upon the ecliptic intersected by circles of declination, in the manner which has been here explained.
    $\dagger$ Bhómara is the most explicit on this point.

[^174]:    - Brahmbgupta wrote soon after that period; and the Surya siddhanta is probably a work of nearly the same age. Mr. Bentley considers it as more modern (As. Res., vol. vi.) : it certainly cannot be more ancient; for the equinox must have past the beginning of Mesha, or have been near it, when that work was composed.
    + Astronomie Ancienne, p. 511.

[^175]:    - Hipparchus, Comment. on Aratus, lib. i. p. 179.

[^176]:    - Hyde's Ulugh beg, p. 58.
    $\dagger$ Hyde's Com. on Uluar beg's tables, p. 97.
    $\ddagger$ As. Res., vol. ii. p. 226.
    $\oint$ Mém. Acad. Scien., 1772, P. ii., p. 209.

[^177]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. $298 . \quad+$ Hyde, p. 61.
    $\ddagger$ See Hyde’s Commentary, p. 97. § As. Res., vol. ii. p. 298.

[^178]:    - Costard's Hist. of Astr., p. 51. Bailly's Astr. Ind., p. 134.
    $\dagger$ Astr. Ind., p. 129.

[^179]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 298.

[^180]:    - Com. on Ulver beg, p. $44 . \quad$ As. Kes., vol. ii. p. 299.
    $\ddagger$ Hydr's Com., p. 45.

[^181]:    - Hyde's Uluah beg, p. 76, and Com., p. 47.
    $\dagger$ Hyde's Uluah beg, p. 78, and Com., p. 47.
    $\ddagger$ Hydx, p. 102.

[^182]:    - Hyde's Uluah beg, p. 80.
    + Com., p. 82.
    $\ddagger$ Bailiy Astr. Ind., p. 227.
    $\oint$ Astr. Ind., p. 227.
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[^183]:    - Hyde, Com., p. 51.
    $\ddagger$ As. Res., ii. p. 299.
    $\dagger$ Hyde, p. 87.
    $\oint$ Hist. Astr., p. 51.

[^184]:    - Hyde, Com. on Uluah beg, p. 9.
    $\dagger$ Ulugh beg, p. 94, and Hyde's Com., p. 54.

[^185]:    - Costard, p. 81.
    † Hyde's Com., p. 55.

[^186]:    - Hyde, p. 99, and Com., p. $95 . \quad+$ Com., p. 10.
    $\ddagger$ Hyde's Ulugh beg, p. 53, and Com., p. 34.
    § Hyde, p. 53, and Com., p. 34 and 35.

[^187]:    * Hyde's Com., p. 10, 35, and 96.

[^188]:    - According to the longitude of the three brightest stars of Aries, as stated by Ptolemy, viz. $10^{\circ} 40^{\prime}, 7^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$, and $6^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$, (I quote from an Arabic epitome of the Almagest); the origin of the ecliptic, in the Greek book which is most likely to have become known in India, is $6^{\circ} 20^{\circ}$ from the star which the Hindus have selected to mark the commencement of the ecliptic.
    $\dagger$ By the celebrated Nasfiruddin Túsí; from the Arabic version of Is'hak ben Honain, which was revised by Thíbit.

[^189]:    - Hist. des Mathém., i. p. 301.
    + Lalande Astron., i. 13. (5 22;9).

[^190]:    - If Claudian's epigram on the subject of it was founded upon any authority, the instrument must have been a sort of orrery, enclosed in glass.

    Vide Cla ud. epigr. 18. Cic. Tusc. Quæst. i.25. De Nat. Deor. ii. 35.
    $\dagger$ Cio. De Nat. Deor. ii. 34.
    $\ddagger$ In the Hejira year 212, or A.D. 827, by Albazen ben Yusef with the aid of Sergius (Montucla, ii. p. 304); or rather by Is'hak ben Honain, whose death is placed about the Hejira year $\mathbf{6 6 0}$ (D'Herbelot, p. 456). According to the Cashf ul zunú, Is'hai's version was epitomised by Hajáj ben Yusef, by Thíbit ben Korrab, and by Nasíruddin TGsí. Other versions, however, are mentioned: particularly, one by Hajíd, said to hare been corrected first by Honain ben Is'hak, and afterwards by Thíbit; another by Thíbit himself; and a third by Muhí ben yabyí. A different account is likewise given of the earliest translation of the Almagest, which is ascribed to Abu Hisín and Salmín, who are said to have completed it, after the failure of other learned men, who had previously attempted the translation. Mention is also made of a version by Ibrahim ben Salat, revised by Honain. But none of these translations are anterior to the ninth century of the Christian era.

[^191]:    - He wrote his treatise on optics and other works about the year 1100.-Biogr. Dict.
    + Bhísoara flourished in the middle of the twelfth century; being born, as he himself informs us, in the Sáca year 1036, answering to A.D. 1114. But the Surya siddhanta is more ancient.

[^192]:    - Among others, that of the precession of the equinoxes ; respecting which different opinions are stated hy Bhíscara. It appears, from what is said by him, that the notion of a libration of the equinoxes has not universally prevailed among Hindu astronomers. The correcter opinion of a revolution of the equinoctial points was ad-

[^193]:    vanced by some authors, but has not obtained the general suffrage of Hindu writers on astronomy.

[^194]:    $\dagger$ Pancha siddhánta, a treatise by Varíhamihira.

[^195]:    - In duodecimal parts.

[^196]:    $\dagger$ Book xii. c. 2.

[^197]:    - 432,000 common years.
    $\ddagger$ Part 4. ch. xxiii. v. 32, \&c.

[^198]:    - Praśna 2. ch. ii.

[^199]:    - " Hipparohus tells us, that Eudoxus drew the colure of the solstices, through the middle of the Great Bear; and the middle of Cancer; and the neck of Hydrus; and the star between the poop and mast of Argo; and the tail of the South Fish; and through the middle of Capricorn, and of Sagitta; and through the neck and right wing of the 8 wan; and the left hand of Cephens; and that he drew the equinoctial colure through the left-band of Arctophylax; and along the middle of his body; and cross the middle of Chelæ; and through the right-hand and fore-knee of the Centaur; and through the flexure of Eridanus and head of Cetus; and the back of Aries across, and through the head and right-hand of Perseus." Sir I. Newton's Chronology, 5 29. Hipparce. ad Phenom. in Petavii Uranologia, p. 207, 208. Bailly, Astr. Anc.p. 506. Costard, p. 136.
    $\dagger$ Preface to the Sanscrťt edition of the Hitópadéśn, p. xi. [page 173 of the present volume.]

[^200]:    - As. Res., vol. ix. p. 117, \&c. † As. Res., vol. ii. p. 302.

[^201]:    - 1. Vishcumbha. 2. Priti. 3. Áyushmat. 4. Saubhágyn. 5. Šóbhana. 6. Atigałáa. 7. Sucarman. 8. Dhrtti. 9. Śala. 10. Gałała. 11. Vrǐddhi. 12. Dhruva. 13. Vyághata. 14. Hershaka. 15. Vajra. 16. Siddhi. 17. Vyatipata. 18. Variyas. 19. Parigha. 20. Siva. 21. Siddha. 22. Sádhya. 23. Subha. 24. Sucla. 25. Brahman. 26. Aindra. 2\%. Vaidhriti.
    † 1. Ánanda. 2. Cáladañáa. 3. Dhumra. 4. Prajápati. 5. Saumya. 6. Dhwáncsha. 7. Dhwaja. 8. Srivatsa. 9. Vajra. 10. Mudgara. 11. Ch'hatra. 12. Maitra. 13. Mánasa. 14. Padma. 15. Lambuica. 16. Utpáta. 17. Mrityu. 18. Caha. 19. Siddhi. 20. Subha. 21. Amrǐta. 22. Musula. 23. Gada. 24. Mátanga. 25. Rácshasa. 26. Chara. 27. St'hira. 28. Pravardha.

    The foregoing list is extracted from the Ratnamala of Sripati. He adds the rule by which the yogas are regulated. On a Sunday, the nacshatras answer to the yogas, in their natural order; viz. Aświni to Ánandn, Bharani to CalandaKda, \&c. But, on a Monday, the first yoga (Ánanda) corresponds to Mrłgaśiras, the second to Árdrá, and so forth. On a Tuesday, the nacshatra, which answers to the first yogn, is Aśléshá; on Wednesday, Hasta; on Thursday, Anurádha; on Friday, Uttaráshááha; and on Saturday, Satabhisha.

    Almanacs usually contain another set of astrological divisions of the lunar month, which it may be proper to explain. They are de-

[^202]:    - "Meshamadhyé dréshcánarapam yavanópadishtam." Bhaffótpala expounds this " declared by Yavaníchárya," "Yavaná cháryaih cat'hitam."
    + A monster with eight legs, who destroys elephants.

[^203]:    - An eagle: or else a gigantic crane. Perbaps a vulture.
    + Santalum album sive Sirium myrtifolium.
    $\ddagger$ Butea frondosa. § Bombax heptaphyllum.

[^204]:    - "Tadrúpam vadanti Yavanáh prat'hamam tulhyah." This might signify "Yatana declares;" for the plural is used in Sanscritt respectfully: and Bhaf́t́trala has before expounded Yavana as intending Yavaníohírya: but a different explanation occurs a little lower.

[^205]:    - "Yavanair udáhrittah," which Bhaffótpala expounds "declared by the ancient Yavanas," "purárayavanaih."
    + Michelia Champaca.

[^206]:    - Iu the following order, beginning from Aries: viz. Mars, the Sun, Venus, Mercury, the Moon, Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, the Sun, \&c. Ikhwánu'l Safá.
    + Firmioi Mathesis seu Astron., vide infra.
    $\ddagger$ Salmasir Pliniance Exercitationes, p. 460, \&c.
    § Lib. iv. 298-302.
     бıxít.

[^207]:    - Salmasir Plin. Exerc. p. 460.
    
    
    
    
    
    $\ddagger$ " Primum $\pi \rho^{\dot{\sigma} \sigma \omega \pi o v ~ e s t ~ i s ~ p l a n e t a ~ c u j u s ~ s i g n u m ~ e s t: ~ s e c u n d u m ~}$ $\pi \rho \dot{\rho} \sigma \omega \pi 0 r$ planeta sequens, et sic deinceps. Aries est Martis primum тৎ $\delta \sigma \omega \pi o y$, secundum Solis, tertium Veneris, juxta seriem errantium." This agrees precisely with the Arabian وحل.
    § Sic et Nekepso, Ægypti justissimus imperator, et astrologus valde bonus, per ipsos Decanos omnia vitia valetudinesque collegit, ostendens quam valetudinem quis Decanus efficeret, \&c.

[^208]:    - Erant Decani denis militibus propositi. Vegrt. 2. 8.
    
    $\ddagger$ Huetil animndversiones ud Manilium. Lib. iv. v. 298.

[^209]:    - Bhísoara expressly says, "By ancient astronomers, the purpose of the science is declared to be judicial astrology; and that, indeed, depends on the influence of configurations; and these, on the apparent places of the planets."—Góládhyaya, 1. v. 6.

[^210]:    - As. Res., vol. ix. p. 353. [p. 350 of the present volume.]
    +Gơládhyáya, c. 6. v. 17 and 18.

[^211]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. $267 . \quad+$ Ratio of $27^{\circ}$ to $90^{\circ}$.

[^212]:    - Bháscara's Vásaná bháshya on the astronomy and spherics of his Siddhanta sirbmani. This volume of annotations is commented, with the Siromani, by Nrisinha in the Vásana vartica, as proceeding from the same writer; and is expressly acknowledged to be a work of the author of the text (as it actually purports) by the scholiast Muniswara, in this very place, where he is endeavouring to support his own interpretation of the text, against the apparent and natural sense of a passage in the author's notes.
    $\dagger$ He alludes either to the Vásaná vártica, in which that emendation of the text is actually suggested by the annotator Nrysinha, or to some earlier commentary in which the same conjectural emendation may have been originally proposed.

[^213]:    - The Graha laghava, written in 1442 Sáca, deducts 444 from the expired years of the Śáca, and divides by sixty, reckoning the precession at a minute a year. This agrees nearly with the Carana cutíhala; for, if the same number (444) be deducted from the years expired ( 1105 śáca), the remainder gives but one minute above $11^{\circ}$, the quantity there assumed by Bhíscara.

    Rímachandra, who in the Cala nirnaya states the quantity of precession as amounting to $12^{\circ}$, and reckons the precession at a minute of a degree, a year, seems also to have followed the same authority. He may therefore have written about sixty years sabsequent to the date of the Carańa cutíhala; or Śaca, 1165. This ascertainment of the age of Rímachandra íchírya is a step towards investigating the age of writers in other branches of science who have quoted this author, or who are cited by him. They are numerous.
    † Faizf, in his translation of Bhíscara's Lílavatí.
    $\ddagger$ For it was finished when the author was thirty-six years of age; and be was born in 1036 Śáca: as he informs us.
    § Author of the Vasisht'ha siddhánta, a distinct work from the Laghu vasisht'ha cited by Dídíbнái, and (under the title of Vasisht'ha siddhánta) by Nrĭsinha.

[^214]:    - In the Vásana bhashya. † Ibid.

    ःतत्कथंत्रहगुप्नादिभिर्निपुणेरपिनोत्तद्इतिचेत् तदाम्वल्पत्वातेर्नोपलब्धः इदानीं बहुत्वात्सांप्रतेरूपलब्ध:अत एवास्य गतिरम्तीत्यवगतं ॥

[^215]:    - He observed the quantity of the obliquity of the ecliptic about the year 1070; and is named by Abraham ebn Ezra, who wrote in the twelfth centqry (A.D. 1144 or 1150), as anterior to him by seventy. one years. Riccioli, Almag. nov.
    $\dagger$ Ricoioli, Almagestum novum, 3, 28, 6.
    $\ddagger$ Moreri, Dict.
    § Erasmus Reinhold on Purbach; Ricc. Almag. nov. 3, $28,6$.
    Il Montucla, Hist. des Math., vol. i. p. 346.
    TI Augustinus Riccius, de motu octava sphera. Regiomontanus, lib. 7. Epitomes Almagesti. Ricc. Alm. nov. 3, 28, 6.

[^216]:    - Abraham Zacuthus, cited, like the preceding authorities, in Riccioli's Almagest. 3, 28, 6.
    $\dagger$ D'Herbelot, Bibl. Orient.
    $\ddagger$ He himself furnishes the date, being the year 1627 of the era of Nabonassar. Albatrge. c. 51, cited in Ricolom's Almagest. 6, 16, 2.
    $\oint$ Albateanius, c. 52. as cited by Riccioli. || Ibid, c. 51.

[^217]:    - This is the rate resulting from the quantity of the motion in trepidation stated in the Surya siddhanta: and the same results from the rules of calculation given in the Bhaswati caraka of Satínanda and in the Játacartiova improperly ascribed to Varíian mirira. They both direct the number 421 to be deducted from the expired years of Sáca; and the one deducts a tenth and reduces the remainder into degrees; the other adds half and divides by a handred. Another rule, producing the same result, is mentioned in Bailily's Astr. Ind. p. 76.
    † 'Ad regulas Send Hend.' (Siddhánt P) Abolyaraa. Hist. Dynast. p. 114 and 161. Costard's Astronomy, p. 157, and Montdola Hist. des Math., vol. i. p. 344.
    $\ddagger$ Bháscara, who quotes Munjila, completed the Sirormaki in 1072 Śáca, or A. D. 1150.
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[^218]:    - Author of the Daśagiticá and Áryáshtáa sata:
    $\dagger$ Named with censure by Brahmegupta.
    $\ddagger$ Author of the Rómaca siddhánta.
    § Mentioned as the author of the Vasisht'ha siddhánta.

[^219]:    - Dídíbiíl, in his commentary on the Sirya siddhánta, says so. पेतामहमपि के नचिन्निबड्धं तस्योपरि बलगये़न पेतामहीभाथं निबघं तदपि पोरूं ท

    $\dagger$ As. Res., vol. vi. p. 572.

[^220]:    ' Having bowed to the foot of the foe of Mura, the fortunate Sarínanda propounds, for the benefit of students, the Bháswati, in the Śáca year 1021.'

    The author Satínanda, as he himself informs us in the close of the book, was an inhabitant of Purushottama (the site of the temple of Jagannat'laa): and dates his work there in 4200 of the Cali yuga. In the body of the work he directs the difference of longitade to be reckoned from the meridian of Purushottama cshétra.

    + His commentary is dated in 1465 of Vicramíditya; more than 400 years ago.

[^221]:    - As. Res., vol. vi. p. 578, and vol. viii. p. 206.

[^222]:    - As. Res., vol. ix. p. 322. [p. 224, of the present volume.]
    $\dagger$ Like the attraction of the loadstone for iron. Marichi on Bríscara.
    $\ddagger$ Meaning the Jainas; as appears from the author's own annotation on this passage.
    §Sirómaki, Goládhyaya, c. i. v. 2, 4, 7 and 9.

[^223]:    - The Ganita tatwa chintámañi, dated in 1423 Sácr, or 1501 A.D.

[^224]:    - He is the anthor of a commentary on the Sarya siddhenta, and of the Vasama vartica on Bhíscara's text and notes. It is dated in 1543 Sáca, or 1621 A.D.
    + As. Res., vol. ii. p. 242.
    $\ddagger$ Author of the Matichi on Bhísoara's Siromaki, and of a distinct treatise of astronomy, the Siddlanta sarvabhauma. The earliest copy of the Marichi is dated 1560 Sáca (A.D. 1638), which is not much later than the date of the work itself; for the Emperor NGruddim Jehingír is mentioned at the close of the book, as he also is in the preface of a commentary on the Slarya siddhanta by the author's father Rangamít'ha.

[^225]:    - Dídíbhíi.

[^226]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 250.

[^227]:    - Rad: Sine of anomaly :: Diff. between circles described on greatest and least axis: Diff. between circles described on greatest axis and on the diameter of the epicycle for the proposed anomaly. Whence the gircle described on that diameter is determined; and is used for the epicycle in computations for that anomaly. Since circles are to each other as their radii, the proportion above stated answers to the following; semitransverse axis: diff. between transverse and conjugate semiaxis : : ordinate of the circle : a fourth proportional ; which is precisely the difference between that ordinate and an ordinate of the ellipse for the same absciss. Hindu astronomers take it for the difference between the radius of the circumscribed circle and the semidiameter of the ellipse at an angle with the axis equal to the proposed anomaly; and, in an ellipsis very little excentric, the error is small.

[^228]:    - For Rad : periphery of the epicycle :: carha: augmented epicycle. And circle : sine of anomaly : : augmented epicycle : sine of anomaly in augmented epicycle.

    Lastly, carín : sine of anomaly in augmented epicycle :: radius : sine of anomalistic equation.
    Whence periphery $\times \frac{\text { Rarna }}{\text { Radius }} \times \frac{\text { Radius }}{\text { Carma }} \times \frac{\text { Sine of Anomaly }}{\text { Circle }}=$ sine of anomalistic equation.
    And, abridging, periphery $\times \frac{\text { Sine of Anomaly }}{\text { Circle }}=$ sine of anomalistic equation.
    $\dagger$ In the Máríchi.

[^229]:    - Asp'huta sara is the true latitude of a star or planet; sp'huta sara is its declination $\pm$ declination of the point of intersection in the ecliptic.
    > + बसगुप्नादिभिःः्वल्पातरत्वान्न कृतःः्फुटः। स्थिट्यर्घपरिलेखादो गणितागत एव हि $\pi$ नक्षन्राणां स्फुटा एव स्थिरत्वात्पटिताः शराः । दृबर्मणायनेनेषां संस्कृताष्य तथा धुवाः $n$ sc.

[^230]:    Góládhyáyn, e. viii. v. 11, \&c.

[^231]:    * As. Res., vol. ix. [p. 324, \&c. of the present volume.]
    $\dagger$ Part 2, ch. vii. v. 10. $\ddagger$ Góládhyáya.

[^232]:    - Page 386.

[^233]:    - For the Yavanas are barbarians; but this science is well established among them; and they are revered like holy sages : much more shall a priest who is learned in it be venerated.'
    - As. Res., vol. ix. p. 376 [see p. 365, 367, and 368 of the present volume.]

[^234]:    - Montucia, p. $349 . \quad$ Bhísqara in Vásaná bháshya. $\ddagger$ Góládhyáya, ch. 9.

[^235]:    This author's computation of the calpa has not been found in any quotation; but be is cited as reckoning its commencement from midnight.

[^236]:    - Góládhyaya, or lecture on the sphere, c.11. §56. As. Res., vol. xii. p. 214 [p. 379 of the present volume.]
    $\dagger$ As. Res., ibid.

[^237]:    - Though the matter be introductory, the preliminary treatises on arithmetic and algebra may have been added subsequently, as is hinted by one of the commentators of the astronomical part (Vártic). The order there intimated places them after the computation of planets, but before the treatise on spherics; which contains the date. + Note A.

[^238]:    - For example, by SGryadísa, under Lílávatí, §74; and still more frequently by Ranganát'ha.

[^239]:    - Vija ganita, § $218 . \quad+$ Ibid. § $131 . \quad \ddagger$ Ibid. § 142.
    § Vija gah., ch. 5, note of SGryadísa. Also Vija gak.; § 174 ; and Lil., §246, ad finem.
    || For example, under Líl. ch. 11. If Note G.

[^240]:    - Note B.
    + Vásanábháshya by Chaturveda Prit'rgdaca swímí, son of Madhusgdana, on the Bráhma siddhanta; (or sometimes Brahma-sphnt's-siddhánta.)
    $\ddagger$ They often quote from the Brâhma siddhanta after premising a reference to Brabmegupta.
    § Note C.

[^241]:    - Note D. $\quad$ As. Res., vol. ii. p. $225 . \quad \ddagger$ As. Res., vol. ix. p. 242.
    § Note E. || As. Res;, vol. vi. p. 586.

[^242]:    - Supra. † As. Res., vol. ix. p. 329. [p. 327 of the present vol.]
    $\ddagger$ As. Res., vol. xii. p. 215. [p. 380. of the present vol.] $\oint$ Note F.

[^243]:    - Ganesa, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer.
    $\dagger$ Śrr. on Víjn gak. § $128 . \quad \ddagger$ Note $G$.
    § Nrǐsinha on Súr. Gafésa pref. to Grah. lágh.

[^244]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 235, 242, and 244 ; and Note H.
    $\dagger$ Brahmeaupta, ch. 11. The names are Audayaca from Cdaya rising; and Árdharátrica from Ardharátri, midnight. The third school is noticed by Bhaffótrala the scholiast of Varíhamitira, under the denomination of Mádhyandinas, as alleging the commencement of the astronomical period at noon: (from Madhyandina, midday.)
    $\ddagger$ The Sanscrit $t$, it is to be remembered, is the character of a peculiar sound often mistaken for $r$, and which the A rabs were likely so to write, rather than with a te or with a tau. The Hindi $t$ is generally written by the English in India with an $r$. Example: Ber (vata), the Indian fig, vulg. Banian tree.

[^245]:    - Note I.
    $\ddagger$ Note K.
    $\dagger$ See before and note $F$.
    $\oint$ See before and note $\mathbf{E}$.
    || Pococke's edition and translation, p. 89.

[^246]:    - Vija gañ.§ 4.
    $\dagger$ The sign of equality was first used by Robert Recorde, because, as he says, no two things can be more equal than a pair of parallels, or gemowe lines of one length. Hutron.
    $\ddagger$ The signs of relative magnitude were first introduced into European algebra by Harriot.
    § Víja gań.§ $21 . \quad \mid l$ Líl. § 33.
    ITV'ja gań. and Brahm. 18, passim.

[^247]:    - V'ja gan. § 55. $\quad$ † Vija gañ. § 17. Braнм. c. 18. § 2.
    $\ddagger$ Vija gah. ch. 6. § Vija gan. § $111 . \quad| |$ Vija gan. § 146.
    § Líl.§ 26.

[^248]:    - Vija gat. § 29.
    $\dagger$ Víja gañ. § 17.
    $\ddagger$ Stevinus in like manner included fractions in coefficients.
    6 Vibta did so likewise.
    || A word of nearly the same import with the Sanscrit dhana, used by Hindu algebraists for the same signification.

[^249]:    - Def. 9. $\dagger$ As. Res., vol. xii. p. 183.
    $\ddagger$ Or Padioli, Paciuolo,-li, \&ac. For the name is variously written by Italian authors.
    $\oint$ See note L.
    || Viaggi, 2d Edit., vol. ii. p. 62.
    vol. 11. 2 F

[^250]:    - Cossali, Origine dell'Algebra, i.
    $\dagger$ Robert Recordz's Whetstone of Witte.
    $\ddagger$ Secondo noi detta Pratica Speculativa. Summa 8. 1.
    § Censts, quicquid fortunarum quis habet. Stвph. Thes.

[^251]:    - Khulásatu'l hisab. c. 8. Calcutta, 1812. (8vo.)
    + Liber abb 9. 15.3. M.S. in M agliab. Libr. tef. 11. 2 F 2

[^252]:    －Brahm．18．§ 27－29．V＇íj－gań．§ 23－52．
    ＋Líl．§ 45．Vij．－gan．§ $15-16$ and § 135.
    $\ddagger$ Vfj．－gań．§ 129，and § 137－138．
    § Вван⿱亠䒑．18．§ 3－18．V＇ij．－gań．53－73．Lil．§ 248－265．
    ｜｜Вванм．18．§ 29－49．V＇ig．－gan．§ 75－99．
    TI Mem．of Acad．of Turin ：and of Berlin．
    －• Vij．－gań．§ 206－207．$\dagger \dagger$ Вrahm．18．passim．V＇ij．－gaí．

[^253]:    - Vij.-gan. § 117-127, § 146-152. † Vij.-gan. § 212-214.
    $\ddagger$ Brahm. 12. § 21 ; corrected however in Líl.§ $169-170$.
    § Lil. § 59-61, where it appears, however, that preceding writers had treated the question algebraically. See likewise § 139-146.
    || Def. 11.

[^254]:    - Note M.

[^255]:    - He designates the sides C.D. Base B. Segments $x$, J. Then

    $$
    \left.\begin{array}{l}
    \text { B : C : : C : } x \\
    \text { B :D : : D : } \delta
    \end{array}\right\} \text { and therefore }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
    C^{2}=\mathrm{B} x \\
    \mathrm{D}^{2}=\mathrm{B} \boldsymbol{\delta}
    \end{array}\right.
    $$

    Therefore $C^{e}+D^{e}=\left(B_{x}+B \partial=B\right.$ into $x+\delta=B^{2}$.
    The Indian demonstration, with the same symbols, is

    $$
    \left.\begin{array}{l}
    \text { B :C : : C : } x \\
    B: D:: D: \delta
    \end{array}\right\} \text { Therefore }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
    x=\frac{C^{2}}{\bar{B}} \\
    \delta=\frac{D^{2}}{\bar{B}}
    \end{array}\right.
    $$

    Therefore $B=x+\delta=\frac{C^{2}}{\bar{B}}+\frac{D^{2}}{\bar{B}}$ and $B^{2}=C^{2}+D^{2}$.

[^256]:    - Problèmes plaisans et délectables qui se font par les nombres. 2d Edit. (1624). Lagrange's additions to Euler's Algebra, ij. 382. (Edit. 1807.)

[^257]:    - Vij.-gań.§80_81. † W ALLis, Alg. c. 98. $\ddagger$ Ibid.

[^258]:    - Bháscara Vij. § 173, and § 207. See likewise Brahm. Alg. § 7.
    + Mém. de l'Acad. de Berlin, vol. xxiv.
    $\ddagger$ See French translation of Euler's Algebra, Additions, p. 286. And Legendre Théorie des Nombres l. 96. No. 36.
    § Wallis, Algebra, c. $2 . \quad \mid I$ Ibid. and Preface.
    91 1bid. and Nunez Algebra 114.
    ** Wallis, following Vieta's Version, Alg. c. J.

[^259]:    - Líl. 3. 1. § 47. Khulásatu'l Hisáb. c. 5.
    + Víj.-gan. § 110, 174, 215, 224.
    $\ddagger$ D'Alembert. §Suidas, in voce Hypatia.
    || Gregory Abulfaraj. Ex iis ptiam [nempe philosophis qui prope tempora Juliani floruerunt] Diophantus, cujus liber, quem

[^260]:    Algehram vocant, celebris est, in quem si immiserit se lector, oceanum hoc in genere reperiet.-Pococke.

    - Julian was emperor from 360 to 363 . See note M.
    + Note $\mathbf{N}$. $\ddagger$ See note I.

[^261]:    - See note N.

[^262]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. and xii.
    $\dagger$ See p. 321, \&c. of the present volume. $\ddagger$ See vol. i. p. 106.

[^263]:    - Brahmrgupta, Algebra.

[^264]:    - See page 410, \&c. of the present volume. $\quad \dagger$ Note 0. vol. II.

    2 g

[^265]:    - A town situated in Gujrat (Gurjara), twenty-eight miles north of the town of Broach.
    $\pm$ Lal. $\$ 264$.
    $\ddagger$ Cuttacádhyaya, the title of Brahmegupta's chapter on algebra, and of a chapter in Áryabhaf́t́'s work.

[^266]:    - Godavarí nnd Werdá.
    $\dagger$ The astronomical part is in the library of the East-India Company.
    $\ddagger$ Nandigrám retains its ancient name, and is situated west of Dauletábád, about sixty-five miles.

[^267]:    - Gólgám of the maps, in lat. $18^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. long. $78^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$.
    + A great commercial town in Berar.

[^268]:    - As. Res., vol. xii. p. 232. [p. 396 of the present volume.]

[^269]:    - Page 401, \&c. of the present volume.
    + Puge 497 of the present volume.
    $\ddagger$ Page 323, \&c. of the present volume.
    § Líl. ch. 11 .
    || Lil. § 190.

[^270]:    - Page 404, \&c. of the present volúme.
    $\dagger$ Arithm. of Brahm. §66. $\ddagger$ Arithm. of Brahm. $\$ 13$.
    § Arithm. of Brahm. § $39 . \quad| |$ Arithm. of Brahm. § 15 and 18.

[^271]:    - Alg. of Brahm. § 96. (Rule 55).

[^272]:    - The modern Dhar. Wilford, As. Res.

[^273]:    - Page 337 of the present volume.
    + Pages 343, \&c. and 406 of the present volume.
    $\ddagger$ Zach's Tables for 1800 dedaced from Mase elyne's Catalogue.

[^274]:    - Maskelyne's Catalogue : the mean precession of the equinoctial points being reckoned $50^{\prime \prime}, 3$.
    + Page 343 of the present volume.
    $\ddagger$ Zach's $^{\text {ables. }}$. § Zacr's Tables.

[^275]:    - Brahma siddhánta, ii. § 54.
    $\dagger$ This quotation is from Varíbamifira's sanhita, ch. $3, \S 1$ and 2. VOL. II. $\quad 2 \mathrm{H}$

[^276]:    - Prǐt'g ${ }^{\text {ddaca swími chaturveda on Brahm. }}$
    $\dagger$ Pages 324, \&c., and 407 of the present volume.
    $\ddagger$ Prít'ǵdaca swámí on Brahi., ch. 10. 935.

[^277]:    * As. Res, vol. v. p. 105.

[^278]:    - Vij.-gah. § 142.
    + Líl. § 147. Brahm. c. 12. § 21 and 40. Gaf. Sár. § 126.
    $\ddagger V_{i j}^{\prime}$-gan. before $\$ 44$, and after $\S 57$. also $\mathbf{C b} .1$, towards the end; and Ch. 5. $¢ 142$.
    § Unless Líl. $¢ 170$ and 190.
    || Tárikhu'l hucama, or Bibl. Arab. Phil. quoted by Casiri: Bibl. Arab. Hisp. vol. i. p. 426. See note M.
    TI Cossali's Argebakr is a misprint (Orig. \&c. dell' Alg. vol. i. p. 207). Casiri gives, as in the Arabic, Argebahr: which, in the orthography here followed, is Arjabahr.

[^279]:    - Page 378 of the present volume. + Vrihat sanhita, ch. 2.
    $\ddagger$ ' From the beginning of Mesha to the end of Canyá (Virgo), the half the ecliptic passes through the north. From the beginning of Tula to the end of (the fishes) Mina, the remaining half passes by the south.'
    § Prit'hgdaca on Brahm., c. i. § 10 and 30, and c. xi. § 4.
    || Six Menus, twenty-seven yugas and three-quarters.
    ๆ1 Prit'tudaca on Brahm., c. i. § 12.

[^280]:    - As. Res., vol. iii. p. 215.
    + Mun. on Bhás., c. i. § 33.
    $\ddagger$ Mun. on Bhís. c. i. §lím 18 . § V'árı, and Men. on Bhás.

[^281]:    - Vrihat sanhita.

[^282]:    - Brahm. Siddh., c. 11, §48-51.
    $\dagger$ Citation by Nrĭsinha on Sur. Siddh.

[^283]:    - Vrihat jatacn, c. 26, §5; where the author so describes himself. His scholiast also calls him Ávantica from his native city Ujjayani, and terms him a Magadha Bráhmen, and a compiler of astronomical science. Bhaffotpala on VrY.-jät. l. The same scholiast similarly describes him in the introduction of a commentary on a work of his son Pritthuyasas.

[^284]:    - Preface to the commentary on the Vrǔhat játaca. Conclusion of the gloss on ch. 18 of Vrîhat sanhitá. \&c. 'Stone (utpala) frames the raft of interpretation to cross the ocean composed by Varíbamifira.'
    $\dagger$ The words are 'the comment written by Bhaftotpala, who, it seems, was a son of the author.' As. Res., vol. ii. p. 390.

[^285]:    - Vrthat sanhita, c. 2.§7. † As. Res., vol. viii. p. 196.
    $\ddagger$ Brahma siddhánta, c. 14 . § lbid. c. 11 .
    || lbid.

[^286]:    - On Vrihat sanhitá, c. $2 .+$ See page 387 of the present vol. $\ddagger$ C.3.§l and 2. § On Vrǐhat sanh. c. 2. \|l Brahm. siddhánta, c. xi.§54. TI See vol. i. p. 108.

[^287]:    - Pref. to the Sanscritt edition of the Hitópadésa, printed at Serampur. [See page 173 of the present volume.]
    $\dagger$ As. Res., vol. vi. p. 572 . $\ddagger$ See page 389 of the present volume.

[^288]:    - Gań. tatwa chint. on Spherics of Sirómańi, ch. 4. Cons. of Sines.
    + See page 374 of the present volume. $\ddagger$ See note $\mathbf{N}$.

[^289]:    - As. Res., vol. ii. p. 235.

[^290]:    - Montucla, 2d Ed. Additions.
    † Origine, \&c. dell'Algebra. Parma 1797.

[^291]:    - Viaggi, vol. i. and vi. Edit. 1751-1754.
    $\dagger$ Cossali, Origine, \&c. c. 1. § 5.
    $\ddagger$ Viaggi, vol. ii. Edit. 1768.
    § Origine, \&c. dell’ Algebra, c. 2. § 1.

[^292]:    - Quare amplectens strictius ipsum modum Yndorum, et actentius studens in eo, ex proprio sensu quædam addens, et quædam ex subtilitatibus Euclidis geometriæ artis apponens, \&cc.
    $\dagger$ Plenam numerorum doctrinam edidi Yndorum, quem modum in ipsa scientia prestantiorem elegi.
    $\ddagger$ Archbishop in 992; Pope ir 999; died in 1003.

[^293]:    - Ep. prefixed to his Treatise De Numerorum Divisione. Gerb. Ep. 160. (Ed. 1611.)
    $\dagger$ De Gestis Anglorum, c. 2.
    $\ddagger$ See Mr. Strachey's examination of the Khulasatu'l hisab, As. Res., vol. xii. Early History of Algebra.

[^294]:    - Summa de Arithmetica, \&c.
    $\dagger$ See note N .
    $\ddagger$ Origine, \&c. dell' Alg.
    \|I Summa, 8, 5, 5.
    §Summa, 8, 5. 5.
    T Khulásatu'l hisáb.

[^295]:    - Khulásatu'l hisáb. † See note N; and As. Res., vol. xii.
    $\ddagger$ Summa, 8, 5, 6.

[^296]:    - See note N.
    $\ddagger$ Compare with Hindu algebra. Vij.-gan. § 130 and 142.

[^297]:    - Targioni Tozzetti's first volume bears date 1751. His sixth, (the last of his first edition) 1754. Montucua's first two volumes were published in 1758.
    $\dagger$ Encycl. Brit. Supp. art. Arithmetic.
    $\ddagger$ Diet. Hist. par Chaudon et Dalandine: art. Leonard de Pise. 7 Edit. (1789). Probably in earlier editions likewise.

[^298]:    vol. 11 .

[^299]:    - See note N.
    $\dagger$ Cossali, Orig. \&c. dell' Algebra, vol. i. p. 7.
    $\ddagger$ Ibid. vol. i. p. 9. Cardan, Ars Magna, 5.

[^300]:    - Cossain, vol. i. p. 9.

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[^301]:    - Tárikhu'l hucamá cited by Casirı, Bill. Arab. Hisp., vol. i. p. 346. The Arabian author uses the word asleh amended.

[^302]:    - Casiri, Bibl. Arab. Hisp. citing Bibl. Arab. Phil. (Tárı́khu'l hucamá) vol. i. p. 438. voce Alphazárí.
    $\ddagger$ Ibid. vol. i. p. 426. voce Katka. Sind and Hind likewise signify, in the Arabian writers, the hither and remoter India. D'Herbelot, Bill. Orient. p. 415.

[^303]:    - Tárikhu'l hucamá, cited by Casiri, Bibl. Arab. Hisp., vol. i. p. 426. voce Katkr.

[^304]:    - There is something wanting in the number of years: which is deficient at the third place. Both editions of the translation (Augsburg 1489, Venice 1515) give the same words.

[^305]:    - As. Res., vol. x. p. 117.

[^306]:    * As. Res., vol. ix. p. 242. Appendix to an Essay of Major WilFORD.
    $\dagger$ Astr. Anc. p. 303.
    $\ddagger$ Bibl. Or. Art. Cancah al Hendi, and Kenker al Hendi. Also Ketab Menazel al Camar and Ketab al Keranat.

[^307]:    - Bibl. Or. (1777-79), vol. iv. p. 725. Should be Kengeh : a like error occurs p. 727, where sharch is put for shareh.
    † Bibl. Arab. Hisp., vol. i. p. 426.

[^308]:    - Táríkhu'l hucamá, Casiri, vol. i. pp. 426 and 428. Abulfaraj, ed. Pocooke, 161.
    $\dagger$ Casiri, vol. i. pp. 413 and 421.
    $\ddagger$ He flourished in 595 H. (A. D. 1198), as appears from passages of his work. M. S. MDCCLXXIII. Lib. Esc. p. 74 and 316 Casiri, vol. ii. p. 332.

[^309]:    - Casiri, vol. i. pp. 426 and 428. The Cashfu'l zunun specifies three astronomical systems of the Hindus under the same names.
    t Sans. Vidyap'hala, fruit of science.
    $\ddagger$ Introd. Rem. to the Hitópadésa. [page 167 of the present volume.]

[^310]:    - D'Herbrlot, Bibl. Orient. Ketab al samoun, Ketab Sendhaschat, Ketab al sokkar, Ketab Schaschourd al Hendi, Ketab Rai al Hendi, Ketab Noufschal al Hendi, Ketab al akakir, \&c.
    + Táríkhu'l hucamá, Casiri, vol, i. p. 410.
    $\ddagger$ Bibl. Orient. 482. Also 226 and 494. No grounds are specified. Ebn Khalcín and Hásí Khalfah, whom he very commonly follows, have been searched in vain for authority on this point.
    $\oint$ Tár. Casiri, vol. i. p. 410.

[^311]:    - Tátikhu'l hucamá; Casiri, vol. i. p. 433.
    + Ibid. vol. i. p. 426. Art. Katya.

[^312]:    * Casiri, vol. i. p. 349.

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[^313]:    - See Bija Ganita, or Algebra of the Hindus; London, 1813. Hutron's Math. Dict. Ed. 1815, Art. Algebra: and As. Res., vol. xii. p. 159.

[^314]:    - Vol. xii.
    +On the Oxus.
    $\ddagger$ A district of Syria; not Ámal, a town in Khurásán. Com.

[^315]:    - Orig. dell' Alg., vol. i. p. 216. † Orig. dell' Alg., vol. i. p. 219.

[^316]:    - As. Res., vol. ix. p. 366. [p. 363 of the present volume.]
    + See note K. $\ddagger$ Hesych. and Suid. § As. Res., vol. v. p. 107.
    || As. Res., vol. ix. p 367. [p. 364 of the present volume.]

[^317]:    - As. Res., vol. ix. p. 367 \& 372 . [p. 364 of the present volume.] Vide Sarm. Exerc. Plin.
    $\dagger$ Ibid., vol. ix. p. 374. [p. 371 of the present volume.]
    $\ddagger$ Lib. intr. in Ast. Albumasis Abalachi, pp. 5, 12 and 13.
    $\oint$ Died in 272 H. 885 C.) aged a hundred.
    \|| $W_{\text {alidis, }}$ Alg. c. 7.

[^318]:    - Am. Cosh. $\dagger$ C. i, § 6, et passim.
    $\ddagger$ Brahm. siddh. c.2. Sur. siddh. c. 2. Vrthat and Laghu Jatacas.
    § Súr. on Lul. § 207.

[^319]:    - Pyrrhi Perotti, Episcopi Sipontini, Cornucopia sive Linguce Latina Commentarii, col. 1019. edit. Ald. 1527. fol.
    + See p. 483. Another passage so quoted and verified uses the term céndra in the sense above-mentioned.
    vol. 11.

[^320]:    - Amera cósha, \&c.

[^321]:    - Plin. 33. § 13, and 37. § 3. Petron. Satyr. 106. 160.
    $\dagger$ Plin. 33. §13., Vitr. 3. 1., Volus. Macianus, Didymus.
    $\ddagger$ Vitr. and Vol. Mec. § Epiphanius, cum multis aliis.

