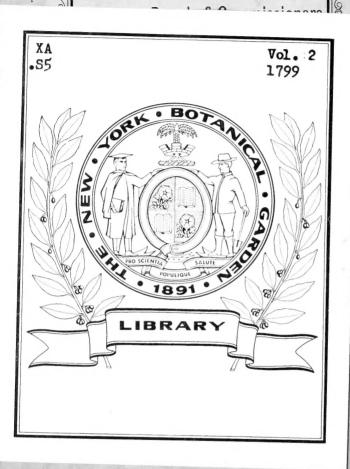


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ASIATIC RESEARCHES,

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OF

THE SOCIETY INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,

FOR INQUIRING INTO

THE HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES,
THE ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE

OF

ASIA.

VOLUME THE SECOND.

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^{***} There was not room in this volume for the Dissertations on the Music of the Hindus and the Laws of Siam; but they will appear in the Third volume, for which ample materials have been collected.

ADVERTISEMENT.

of useful knowledge, if the learned Societies established in Europe, will transmit to the Secretary of the Society in Bengal a Collection of short and precise Queries on every branch of Asiatic History, Natural and Civil, on the Philosophy, Mathematics, Antiquities, and Polite Literature of Asia, and on Eastern Arts, both liberal and mechanic; since it is hoped that accurate Answers may in due time be procured to any Questions that can be proposed on those subjects; which must in all events be curious and interesting, and may prove, in the highest degree, beneficial to mankind.

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THE FOURTH

ANNIVERSARY DISCOURSE,

DELIVERED 15 FEBRUARY, 1787,

BY THE PRESIDENT.

Gentlemen,

I HAD the honour last year of opening to you my intention to discourse at our annual meetings on the five principal nations who have peopled the continent and islands of Asia, so as to trace, by an historical and philological analysis, the number of ancient stems from which those five branches have severally sprung, and the central region from which they appear to have proceeded; you may, therefore, expect that, having submitted to your consideration a few general remarks on the old inhabitants of India, I should now offer my sentiments on some other nation, who, from a similarity of language, religion, arts, and manners, may be supposed to have had an early connection with the Hindus; but, since we find some Asiatic nations totally dissimilar to them in all or most of those particulars, and since the difference will strike you more forcibly by an immediate and close comparison, I design at present to give a short account of a wonderful people, who seem in every respect so strongly contrasted to the original natives of this country, that they must have been for ages a distinct and separate race

For the purpose of these discourses I discovered India on its largest scale, describing it as lying between Persia and China, Tartary and Java; and, for the same purpose, I now apply the name of Arabia, as the Arabian geographers often apply it, to that extensive peninsula which the Red Sea divides from Africa, the great Assyrian river from Iran, and of which the Erythrean Sea washes the base; without excluding any part of its western side, which would be completely maritime, if no isthmus intervened between the Mediterranean and the Sea of Kolzom: that country in short I call Arabia, in which the Arabic language and letters, or such as have a near affinity to them, have been immemorially current.

Arabia, thus divided from India by a vast ocean, or at least by a broad bay, could hardly have been connected in any degree with this country, until navigation and commerce had been considerably improved; yet, as the Hindus and the people of Yemen were both commercial nations in a very early age, they were probably the first instruments of conveying to the western world the gold, ivory, and perfumes of India, as well as the fragrant wood, called Alluwwa in Arabic, and Aguru in Sanscrit, which grows in the greatest perfection in Anam, or Cochinchina. It is possible too that a part of the Arabian idolatry might have been derived from the same source with that of the Hindus; but such an intercourse may be considered as partial and accidental only; nor am I more convinced than I was fifteen years ago, when I took the liberty to animadvert on a passage in the History of Prince Kantemir, that the Turks have any just reason for holding the coast of Yemen to be a part of India, and calling its inhabitants Yellow Indians.

The Arabs have never been entirely subdued, nor has any impression been made on them, except on

their borders; where, indeed, the Phenicians, Persians, Ethiopians, Egyptians, and, in modern times, Tartars, have severally acquired the Othman settlements; but, with these exceptions, the natives of Hejaz and Yemen have preserved for ages the sole dominion of their deserts and pastures, their mountains and fertile valleys: thus apart from the rest of mankind, this extraordinary people have retained their primitive manners and language, features and character, as long and as remarkably as the Hindus themselves. All the genuine Arabs of Syria whom I knew in Europe, those of Yemen whom I saw in the isle of Hinzuan, whither many had come from Maskat for the purpose of trade, and those of Hejaz, whom I have met in Bengal, form a striking contrast to the Hindu inhabitants of those provinces: their eyes are full of vivacity, their speech voluble and articulate, their deportment manly and dignified, their apprehension quick, their minds always present and attentive, with a spirit of independence appearing in the countenances even of the lowest among them. Men will always differ in their ideas of civilization, each measuring it by the habits and prejudices of his own country; but, if courtesy and urbanity, a love of poetry and eloquence, and the practice of exalted virtues be a juster measure of perfect society, we have certain proof that the people of Arabia, both on plains and in cities, in republican and monarchical states, were eminently civilized for many ages before their conquest of Persia.

It is deplorable, that the ancient history of this majestic race should be as little known in detail before the time of *Dhu Yezen*, as that of the *Hindus* before *Vicramaditya*; for, although the vast historical work of *Alnuwairi*, and the *Murujuldhahab* or *Golden Meadows* of *Almasuudi*, contain chapters on the kings of *Himyar*, *Ghasan*, and *Hirah*, with lists of them and sketches of their several reigns; and although genea-

logical tables, from which chronology might be better ascertained, are prefixed to many compositions of the old Arabian Poets, yet most manuscripts are so incorrect, and so many contradictions are found in the best of them, that we can scarce lean upon tradition with security, and must have recourse to the same media for investigating the history of the Arabs that I before adopted in regard to that of the Indians; namely, their language, letters, and religion, their ancient monuments, and the certain remains of their arts: on each of which heads I shall touch very concisely, having premised that my observations will in general be confined to the state of Arabia before that singular revolution at the beginning of the seventh century, the effects of which we feel at this day from the Pyrenean mountains and the Danube, to the farthest parts of the Indian Empire, and even to the Eastern Islands.

I. For the knowledge which any European who pleases may attain of the Arabian language, we are principally indebted to the university of Leyden; for, though several Italians have assiduously laboured in the same wide field, yet the fruit of their labours has been rendered almost useless by more commodious and more accurate works printed in Holland; and, though Pocock certainly accomplished much, and was able to accomplish any thing, yet the academical ease which he enjoyed, and his theological pursuits, induced him to leave unfinished the valuable work of Maidani which he had prepared for publication; nor, even if that mine of Arabian philology had seen the light, would it have borne any comparison with the fifty dissertations of Hariri, which the first Albert Schultens translated and explained, though he sent abroad but few of them, and has left his worthy grandson, from whom perhaps Maidani also may be expected, the honour of publishing the rest: but the palm of glory in this branch of litera-

ture is due to Golius, whose works are equally profound and elegant; so perspicuous in method, that they may always be consulted without fatigue, and read without languor, yet so abundant in matter, that any man who shall begin with his noble edition of the Grammar compiled by his master Erpenius, and proceed with the help of his incomparable dictionary. to study his History of Taimur by Ibni Arabshah, and shall make himself complete master of that sublime work, will understand the learned Arabic better than the deepest scholar at Constantinople or at Mecca. The Arabic language, therefore, is almost wholly in our power; and, as it is unquestionably one of the most ancient in the world, so it yields to none ever spoken by mortals in the number of its words and the precision of its phrases; but it is equally true and wonderful, that it bears not the least resemblance, either in words or the structure of them, to the Sanscrit, or great parent of the Indian dialects; of which dissimilarity I shall mention two remarkable instances: the Sanscrit, like the Greek, Persian, and German, delights in compounds, but in a much higher degree, and indeed to such an excess, that I could produce words of more than twenty syllables, not formed ludicrously, like that by which the buffoon in Aristophanes describes a feast, but with perfect seriousness, on the most solemn occasions, and in the most elegant works; while the Arabic, on the other hand. and all its sister dialects, abhor the composition of words, and invariably express very complex ideas by circumlocution; so that if a compound word be found in any genuine language of the Arabian peninsula (zenmerdah for instance, which occurs in the Hamasah) it may at once be pronounced an exotic. Again: It is the genius of the Sanscrit, and other languages of the same stock, that the roots of verbs be almost universally biliteral, so that five-andtwenty hundred such roots might be formed by the

B 3

composition of the fifty Indian letters; but the Arabic roots are as universally triliteral, so that the composition of the twenty-eight Arabian letters would give near two-and-twenty thousand elements of the language: and this will demonstrate the surprising extent of it; for, although great numbers of its roots are confessedly lost, and some, perhaps, were never in use; yet, if we suppose ten thousand of them (without reckoning quadriliterals) to exist, and each of them to admit only five variations, one with another, in forming derivative nouns, even then a perfect Arabic dictionary ought to contain fifty thousand words, each of which may receive a multitude of changes by the rules of grammar. The derivatives in Sanscrit are considerably more numerous: but a farther comparison between the two languages is here unnecessary, since, in whatever light we view them, they seem totally distinct, and must have been invented by two different races of men; nor do I recollect a single word in common between them, except Suruj, the plural of Siraj, meaning both a lamp and the sun; the Sanscrit name of which is, in Bengal, pronounced Surja; and even this resemblance may be purely accidental. We may easily believe with the Hindus, that not even Indra himself, and his heavenly bands, much less any mortal, ever comprehended in his mind such an ocean of words as their sacred language contains; and with the Arabs, that no man uninspired was ever a complete master of Arabic: in fact, no person, I believe, now living in Europe or Asia, can read without study an hundred couplets together, in any collection of ancient Arabian poems; and we are told, that the great author of the Kamus learned by accident from the mouth of a child, in a village of Arabia, the meaning of three words, which he had long sought in vain from grammarians, and from books, of the highest reputation. It is by approximation alone that a knowledge of these two venerable languages can be acquired; and, with moderate attention, enough of them may be known to delight and instruct us in an infinite degree. I conclude this head with remarking, that the nature of the Ethiopic dialect seems to prove an early establishment of the Arabs in part of Ethiopia, from which they were afterwards expelled, and attacked even in their own country by the Abyssinians, who had been invited over as auxiliaries against the tyrant of Yemen about a century before the birth of Muhammed.

Of the characters in which the old compositions of. Arabia were written, we know but little, except that the Koran originally appeared in those of Cufah, from which the modern Arabian letters, with all their elegant variations, were derived, and which unquestionably had a common origin with the Hebrew or Chaldaic; but, as to the Himyaric letters, or those which we see mentioned by the name of Almusnad, we are still in total darkness; the traveller Niebuhr having been unfortunately prevented from visiting some ancient monuments in Yemen, which are said to have inscriptions on them. If those letters bear a strong resemblance to the Nagari, and if a story current in India be true, that some Hindu merchants heard the Sanscrit language spoken in Arabia the Happy, we might be confirmed in our opinion that an intercourse formerly subsisted between the two nations of opposite coasts,-but should have no reason to believe that they sprang from the same immediate stock. The first syllable of Hamyar, as many Europeans write it, might perhaps induce an etymologist to derive the Arabs of Yemen from the great ancestor of the Indians; but we must observe, that Himyar is the proper appellation of those Arabs; and many reasons concur to prove that the word is purely Arabic. The similarity of some proper names on the borders of India to those of Arabia, as the river Arabius, a place called Araba, a people named Aribes or Ara-

B 4 ...

bies, and another called Sabai, is indeed remarkable, and may hereafter furnish me with observations of some importance, but not at all inconsistent with my present ideas.

II. It is generally asserted that the old religion of the Arabs was entirely Sabian; but I can offer so little. accurate information concerning the Sabian faith, or even the meaning of the word, that I dare not yet speak on the subject with confidence. This at least is certain, that the people of Yemen very soon fell into the common, but fatal, error of adoring the sun and the firmament; for even the third in descent from Yoktan, who was consequently as old as Nahor, took the surname of Abdushams, or Servant of the Sun; and his family, we are assured, paid particular honours to that luminary: other tribes worshipped the planets and fixed stars; but the religion of the poets at least, seems to have been pure Theism; and this we know with certainty, because we have Arabian verses of unsuspected antiquity, which contain pious and elevated sentiments on the goodness and justice, the power and omnipresence, of Allah, or the God. If an inscription, said to have been found on marble in Yemen, be authentic, the ancient inhabitants of that country preserved the religion of Eber, and professed a belief in miracles and a future state.

We are also told, that a strong resemblance may be found between the religions of the pagan Arabs and the Hindus; but, though this may be true, yet an agreement in worshipping the sun and stars will not prove an affinity between the two nations: the powers of God, represented as female deities, the adoration of stones, and the name of the idol Wudd, may lead us indeed to suspect that some of the Hindu superstitions had found their way into Arabia; and, though we have no traces in Arabian

history of such a conqueror or legislator as the great Sesac, who is said to have raised pillars in Yemen as well as at the mouth of the Ganges, yet, since we know that Sacya is a title of Buddha, whom some suppose to be Woden, since Buddha was not a native of India, and since the age of Sesac perfectly agrees with that of Sacya, we may form a plausible conjecture that they were in fact the same person who travelled eastward from Ethiopia, either as a warrior or as a lawgiver, about a thousand years before Christ, and whose rites we now see extended as far as the country of Nison, or, as the Chinese call it, Japuen, both words signifying the Rising Sun. Sacya may be derived from a word meaning power, or from another denoting vegetable food; so that this epithet will not determine whether he was a hero or a philosopher; but the title Buddha or wise, may induce us to believe that he was rather a benefactor than a destroyer of his species: if his religion, however, was really introduced into any part of Arabia, it could not have been general in that country; and we may safely pronounce, that before the Mohammedan revolution, the noble and learned Arabs were Theists, but that a stupid idolatry prevailed among the lower orders of the people.

I find no trace among them, till their emigration, of any philosophy but ethics; and even their system of morals, generous and enlarged as it seems to have been in the minds of a few illustrious-chieftains, was on the whole miserably depraved for a century at least before Muhammed. The distinguishing virtues which they boasted of inculcating and practising, were a contempt of riches and even of death; but, in the age of the Seven Poets, their liberality had deviated into mad profusion, their courage into ferocity, and their patience into an obstinate spirit of encountering fruitless dangers; but I forbear to expatiate on the manners of the Arabs in that age, because the poems, en-

titled Almoallakat, which have appeared in our own language, exhibit an exact picture of their virtues and their vices, their wisdom and their folly; and show what may be constantly expected from men of open hearts and boiling passions, with no law to control, and little religion to restrain them.

III. Few monuments of antiquity are preserved in Arabia, and of those few the best accounts are very uncertain; but we are assured that inscriptions on rocks and mountains are still seen in various parts of the peninsula; which, if they are in any known language, and if correct copies of them can be procured, may be decyphered by easy and infallible rules.

The first Albert Schultens has preserved in his Ancient Memorials of Arabia, the most pleasing of all his works, two little poems in an elegiac strain, which are said to have been found, about the middle of the seventh century, on some fragments of ruined edifices in Hadramut, near Aden, and are supposed to be of an indefinite, but very remote age. It may naturally be asked,—In what characters were they written? Who decyphered them? Why were not the original letters preserved in the book where the verses are cited? What became of the marbles which Abdurrahman, then governor of Yemen, most probably sent to the Khalifah at Bagdad? If they be genuine, they prove the people of Yemen to have been 'herdsmen and warriors, inhabiting a fertile and well-watered country full of game, and near a fine sea abounding with fish, under a monarchical government, and dressed in green silk, or vests of needlework,' either of their own manufacture or imported from India. The measure of these verses is perfectly regular, and the dialect undistinguishable, at least by me, from that of Kuraish; so that, if the Arabian writers were much addicted to literary impostures, I should strongly suspect them to be modern compositions on the instability of human greatness, and the consequences of irreligion, illustrated by the example of the *Hymyaric* princes; and the same may be suspected of the first poem quoted by *Schultens*, which he ascribes to an *Arab* in the age of *Solomon*.

The supposed houses of the people called *Thamud*, are also still to be seen in excavations of rocks; and, in the time of *Tabrizi* the Grammarian, a castle was extant in *Yemen* which bore the name of *Aladbat*, an old bard and warrior, who first, we are told, formed his army, thence called *alkhamis*, in *five* parts, by which arrangement he defeated the troops of *Himyar* in an expedition against *Sanaa*.

Of pillars erected by Sesac, after his invasion of Yemen, we find no mention in Arabian histories; and, perhaps, the story has no more foundation than another told by the Greeks and adopted by Newton, that the Arabs worshipped Urania, and even Bacchus by name, which, they say, means great in Arabic; but where they found such a word, we cannot discover: it is true, that Beccah signifies a great and tumultuous crowd, and, in this sense, is one name of the sacred city commonly called Meccah.

The Cabah, or quadrangular edifice at Meccah, is indisputably so ancient, that its original use and the name of its builder are lost in a cloud of idle traditions. An Arab told me gravely, that it was raised by Abraham, who, as I assured him, was never there: others ascribe it, with more probability, to Ismail, or one of his immediate descendants; but whether it was built as a place of divine worship, as a fortress, as a sepulchre, or as a monument of the treaty between the old possessors of Arabia and the sons of Kidar, antiquaries may dispute, but no mortal can determine.

It is thought by Reland to have been the mansion of some ancient patriarch, and revered on that account by his posterity; but the room in which we now are assembled, would contain the whole Arabian edifice; and, if it were large enough for the dwelling-house of a patriarchal family, it would seem ill adapted to the pastoral manners of the Kedarites. A Persian author insists, that the true name of Meccah is Mahcadah, or the Temple of the Moon; but, although we may smile at his etymology, we cannot but think it probable that the Cabah was originally designed for religious purposes. Three couplets are cited in an Arabic history of this building, which, from their extreme simplicity, have less appearance of imposture than other verses of the same kind: they are ascribed to Asad, a Tobba, or king by succession, who is generally allowed to have reigned in Yemen anhundred and twenty-eight years before Christ's birth, and they commemorate, without any poetical imagery, the magnificence of the prince in covering the holy temple with stripped cloth and fine linen, and in making keys for its gate. This temple, however, the sanctity of which was restored by Muhammed, had been strangely profaned at the time of his birth, when it was usual to decorate its walls with poems on all subjects, and often on the triumphs of Arabian gallantry and the praises of Grecian wine, which the merchants of Syria brought for sale into the

From the want of materials on the subject of Arabian antiquity, we find it very difficult to fix the chronology of the Ismailites with accuracy beyond the time of Adnan, from whom the imposture was descended in the twenty-first degree; and, although we have genealogies of Alkamah and other Himyaric bards as high as the thirtieth degree, or for a period of nine hundred years at least, yet we can hardly depend on them so far, as to establish a complete chronological system.

By reasoning downwards, however, we may ascertain some points of considerable importance. The universal tradition of Yemen is, that Yoktan, the son of Eber, first settled his family in that country; which settlement, by the computation admitted in Europe, must have been above three thousand six hundred years ago, and nearly at the time when the Hindus, under the conduct of Rama, were subduing the first inhabitants of these regions, and extending the Indian empire from Ayodhya, or Audh, as far as the isle of Sinhal, or Silan. According to this calculation, Nuuman, king of Yemen, in the ninth generation from Eber, was contemporary with Joseph; and, if a verse composed by that prince, and quoted by Abulfeda, was really preserved, as it might easily have been, by oral tradition, it proves the great antiquity of the Arabian language and metre. This is a literal version of the couplet: When thou, who art in power, conductest affairs with courtesy, thou attainest the high honours of those who are most exalted, and whose mandates are obeyed.' We are told that, from an elegant verb in this distich, the royal poet acquired the surname of Almuaaser, or the Courteous. Now the reasons for believing this verse genuine are its brevity, which made it easy to be remembered, and the good sense comprized in it, which made it become proverbial; to which we may add, that the dialect is apparently old, and differs in three words from the idiom of Hejaz. The reasons for doubting are, that sentences and verses of indefinite antiquity are sometimes ascribed by the Arabs to particular persons of eminence; and they even go so far as to cite a pathetic elegy of Adam himself on the death of Abel, but in very good Arabic and correct measure. Such are the doubts which necessarily must arise on such a subject; yet we have no need of ancient monuments or traditions to prove all that our analysis requires, namely that the Arabs of Hejaz and Yemen sprang from a stock entirely different from that of the *Hindus*, and that their first establishments in the respective countries where we now find them, were nearly coeval.

I cannot finish this article without observing, that, when the King of Denmark's ministers instructed the Danish travellers to collect historical books in Arabic, but not to busy themselves with procuring Arabian poems, they certainly were ignorant that the only monuments of old Arabian history are collections of poetical pieces and the commentaries on them; that all memorable transactions in Arabia were recorded in verse; and that more certain facts may be known by reading the Hamasah, the Diwan of Hudhail, and the valuable work of Obaidullah, than by turning over a hundred volumes in prose, unless indeed those poems are cited by the historians as their authorities.

IV. The manners of the Hejazi Arabs, which have continued, we know, from the time of Solomon to the present age, were by no means favourable to the cultivation of arts; and, as to sciences, we have no reason to believe that they were acquainted with any; for the mere amusement of giving names to stars, which were useful to them in their pastoral or predatory rambles through the deserts, and in their observations on the weather, can hardly be considered as a material part of astronomy. The only arts in which they pretended to excellence (I except horsemanship and military accomplishments) were poetry and rhetoric. That we have none of their compositions in prose before the Koran, may be ascribed, perhaps, to the little skill which they seem to have had in writing, to their predilection in favour of poetical measure, and to the facility with which verses are committed to memory; but all their stories prove, that they were eloquent in a high degree, and possessed wonderful powers of speaking, without preparation in flowing

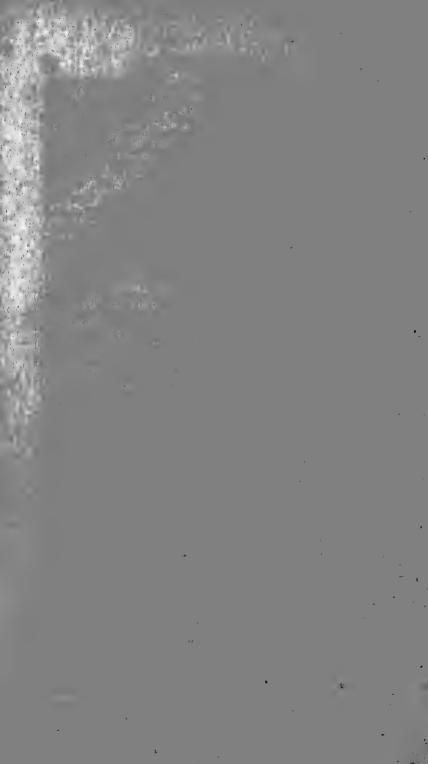
and forcible periods. I have never been able to discover what was meant by their books called Rawasim; but suppose that they were collections of their common or customary law. Writing was so little practised among them, that their old poems, which are now accessible to us, may almost be considered as originally unwritten; and I am inclined to think that Samuel Johnson's reasoning on the extreme imperfection of unwritten languages, was too general; since a language that is only spoken, may nevertheless be highly polished by a people who, like the ancient Arabs, make the improvement of their idiom a national concern, appoint solemn assemblies for the purpose of displaying their poetical talents, and hold it a duty to exercise their children in getting by heart their most approved compositions.

The people of Yemen had possibly more mechanical arts, and, perhaps, more science; but, although their ports must have been the emporia of considerable commerce between Egypt and India, or part of Persia, yet we have no certain proofs of their proficiency in navigation or even in manufactures. That the Arabs of the Desert had musical instruments, and names for the different notes; and that they were greatly delighted with melody, we know from themselves; but their lutes and pipes were probably very simple, and their music, I suspect, was little more than a natural and tuneful recitation of their elegiac verses and lovesongs. The singular property of their language, in shunning compound words, may be urged, according to Bacon's idea, as a proof that they had made no progress in arts, 'which require,' says he, 'a variety of combinations to express the complex notions aris-' ing from them;' but the singularity may perhaps be imputed wholly to the genius of the language, and the taste of those who spoke it, since the old Germans who knew no art, appear to have delighted in compound words, which poetry and oratory, one would conceive, might require as much as any meaner art whatsoever.

So great, on the whole, was the strength of parts or capacity, either natural or acquired from habit, for which the Arabs were ever distinguished, that we cannot be surprised when we see that blaze of genius which they displayed, as far as their arms extended, when they burst, like their own dyke of Arim, through their ancient limits, and spread, like an inundation, over the great empire of Iran. That a race of Tazis, or Coursers, as the Persians call them, 'who drank the milk of camels and fed on lizards, should entertain a thought of subduing the kingdom of Feridun, was considered by the General of Yezdegird's army as the strongest instance of fortune's levity and mutability; but Firdausi, a complete master of Asiatic manners, and singularly impartial, represents the Arabs, even in the age of Feridun, as 'disclaiming any kind of dependence on that monarch, exulting in their · liberty, delighting in eloquence, acts of liberality, and martial achievements, and thus making the whole earth,' says the poet, 'red as wine with the blood of their foes, and the air like a forest of canes with their tall spears.' With such a character they were likely to conquer any country that they could invade; and, if Alexander had invaded their dominions, they would unquestionably have made an obstinate, and probably a successful resistance.

But I have detained you too long, gentlemen, with a nation who have ever been my favourites, and hope at our next anniversary meeting to travel with you over a part of Asia which exhibits a race of men distinct both from the Hindas and from the Arabs. In the mean time, it shall be my care to superintend the publication of your transactions; in which if the learned

in Europe have not raised their expectations too high, they will not, I believe, be disappointed: my own imperfect essays I always except; but, though my other engagements have prevented my attendance on your society for the greatest part of last year, and I have set an example of that freedom from restraint, without which no society can flourish; yet, as my few hours of leisure will now be devoted to Sanscrit literature, I cannot but hope, though my chief object be a knowledge of Hindu law, to make some discovery in other sciences, which I shall impart with humility, and which you will, I doubt not, receive with indulgence.



THE FIFTH:

ANNIVERSARY DISCOURSE,

DELIVERED 21 FEBRUARY, 1788,

BY THE PRESIDENT.

AT the close of my last address to you, Gentlemen, I declared my design of introducing to your notice a people of Asia, who seemed as different in most respects from the Hindus and Arabs as those two nations had been shown to differ from each other; I mean the people whom we call Tartars: but I enter with extreme diffidence on my present subject, because I have little knowledge of the Tartarean dialects; and the gross errors of European writers on Asiatic literature, have long convinced me that no satisfactory account can be given of any nation with whose language we are not perfectly acquainted. Such evidence, however, as I have procured by attentive reading and scrupulous enquiries, I will now lay before you; interspersing such remarks as I could not but make on that evidence, and submitting the whole to your impartial decision.

Conformably to the method before adopted in describing Arabia and India, I consider Tartary also, for the purpose of this discourse, on its most extensive scale; and request your attention whilst I trace the largest boundaries that are assignable to it. Conceive a line drawn from the mouth of the Oby to that of the

Dneiper, and, bringing it back eastward across the Euxine, so as to include the peninsula of Krim, extend it along the foot of Caucasus, by the rivers Cur and Aras, to the Caspian Lake, from the opposite shore of which follow the course of the Jaihun, and the chain of Caucasean hills, as far as those of Imaus; whence continue the line beyond the Chinese wall to the White Mountain and the country of Yetso; skirting the borders of Persia, India, China, Corea, but including part of Russia, with all the districts which lie between the Glacial Sea and that of Japan. M. de Guignes, whose great work on the Huns abounds more in solid learning than in rhetorical ornaments, presents us, however, with a magnificent image of this wide region; describing it as a stupendous edifice, the beams and pillars of which are many ranges of lofty hills, and the dome one prodigious mountain, to which the Chinese give the epithet of Celestial, with a considerable number of broad rivers flowing down its sides. If the mansion be so amazingly sublime, the land around it is proportionably extended, but more wonderfully diversified; for some parts of it are encrusted with ice, others parched with inflamed air and covered with a kind of lava: here we meet with immense tracts of sandy deserts, and forests almost impenetrable; there, with gardens, groves, and meadows, perfumed with musk, watered by numberless rivulets, and abounding in fruits and flowers; and, from east to west, lie many considerable provinces, which appear as valleys in comparison of the hills towering above them, but in truth are the flat summits of the highest mountains in the world, or at least the highest in Asia. Near one fourth in latitude of this extraordinary region is in the same charming climate with Greece, Italy, and Provence; and another fourth in that of England, Germany, and the northern parts of France; but the Hyperborean countries can have few beauties to recommend them, at least in the present state of the

earth's temperature. To the south, on the frontiers of Ivan are the beautiful vales of Soghd, with the celebrated cities of Samarkand and Bokhara; on those of Tibet are the territories of Cashghar, Khoten, Chegil, and Khata, all famed for perfumes, and for the beauty of their inhabitants; and on those of China lies the country of Chin, anciently a powerful kingdom; which name, like that of Khata, has in modern times been given to the whole Chinese empire, where such an appellation would be thought an insult. We must not omit the fine territory of Tancet, which was known to the Greeks by the name of Serica, and considered by them as the farthest eastern extremity of the habitable globe.

Scythia seems to be the general name which the ancient Europeans gave to as much as they knew of the country thus bounded and described; but whether that word be derived, as Pliny seems to intimate, from Sacai, a people known by a similar name to the Greeks. and Persians, or, as Bryant imagines, from Cuthia, or, as Colonel Vallancey believes, from words denoting navigation, or, as it might have been supposed, from a Greek root implying wrath and ferocity, this at least is certain, that, as India, China, Persia, Japan, are not appellations of those countries in the languages of the nations who inhabit them, so neither Scythia nor Tartary are names by which the inhabitants of the country now under our consideration, have ever distinguished themselves. Tataristan is, indeed, a word used by the Persians for the south-western part of Scythia, where the musk-deer is said to be common; and the name Tatar is by some considered as that of a particular tribe; by others, as that of a small river only; while Turan, as opposed to Iran, seems to mean the ancient dominion of Afrasiab to the north and east of the Oxus. There is nothing more idle than a debate concerning names, which, after all, are

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of little consequence when our ideas are distinct without them. Having given, therefore, a correct notion of the country which I proposed to examine, I shall not scruple to call it by the general name of *Tartary*; though I am conscious of using a term equally improper in the pronunciation and the application of it.

Tartary, then, which contained, according to Pliny, an innumerable multitude of nations, by whom the rest of Asia and all Europe has in different ages been overrun, is denominated, as various images have presented themselves to various fancies, the great hive of the northern swarms, the nursery of irresistible legions, and, by stronger metaphor, the foundery of the human race; but M. Bailly, a wonderfully ingenious man and a. very lively writer, seems first to have considered it as the cradle of our species, and to have supported an opinion that the whole ancient world was enlightened by sciences brought from the most northern parts of Scythia, particularly from the banks of the Jenisea, or from the Hyperborean regions. All the fables of old. Greece, Italy, Persia, India, he derives from the north; and it must be owned, that he maintains his paradox with acuteness and learning. Great learning and great acuteness, together with the charms of a most engaging style, were indeed necessary to render even tolerable a system which places an earthly paradise, the gardens of Hesperus, the islands of the Macares, the groves of Elysium, if not of Eden, the heaven of Indra, the Peristan, or fairy-land of the Persian poets, with its city of diamonds and its country of Shadcam, so named from Pleasure and Love, not in any one climate which the common sense of mankind considers as the seat of delights, but beyond the mouth of the Ohy, in the Frozen Sea, in a region equalled only by that where the wild imagination of Dante led him to fix the worst of criminals in a state of punishment after

death, and of which he could not, he says, even think without shivering. A very curious passage in a tract of Plutarch on the figure in the moon's orb, naturally induced M. Bailly to place Ogygia in the north; and he concludes that island, as others have concluded rather fallaciously, to be the Atlantis of Plato; but is at a loss to determine whether it was Iceland or Greenland, Spitzbergen or New Zembla. Among so many charms it was difficult, indeed, to give a preference; but our philosopher, though as much perplexed by an option of beauties as the shepherd of Ida, seems on the whole to think Zembla the most worthy of the golden fruit; because it is indisputably an island, and lies opposite to a gulph near a continent, from which a great number of rivers descend into the ocean. He appears equally distressed among five nations, real and imaginary, to fix upon that which the Greeks named Atlantes; and his conclusion in both cases must remind us of the showman at Eton, who, having pointed out in his box all the crowned heads of the world, and being asked by the schoolboys who looked through the glass, which was the Emperor, which was the Pope, which the Sultan, and which the Great Mogul, answered eagerly, 'which you please, young gentlemen, which you please.' His letters, however, to Voltaire, in which he unfolds his new system to his friend, whom he had not been able to convince, are by no means to be derided; and his general proposition, that arts and sciences had their source in Tartary, deserves a longer examination than can be given to it in this discourse. I shall, nevertheless, with your permission, shortly discuss the question under the several heads, that will present themselves in order.

Although we may naturally suppose that the numberless communities of *Tartars*, some of whom are established in great cities, and some encamped

on plains in ambulatory mansions, which they remove from pasture to pasture, must be as different in their features as in their dialects; yet, among those who have not emigrated into another country, and mixed with another nation, we may discern a family-likeness, especially in their eyes and countenance, and in that configuration of lineaments which we generally call a Tartar face; but, without making anxious enquiries, whether all the inhabitants of the vast region before described have similar features, we may conclude from those whom we have seen, and from the original portraits of Taimur and his descendants, that the Tartars in general differ wholly in complexion and countenance from the Hindus and from the Arabs: an observation which tends, in some degree, to confirm the account given by modern Tartars themselves of their descent from a common ancestor. Unhappily, their lineage cannot be proved by authentic pedigrees, or historical monuments; for all their writings extant, even those in the Mogul dialect, are long subsequent to the time of Muhammed; nor is it possible to distinguish their genuine traditions from those of the Arabs, whose religious opinions they have in general adopted. At the beginning of the fourteenth century, Khwajah Rashid, surnamed Fadlullah, a native of Kazvin, compiled his account of the Tartars and Mongals from the papers of one Pulad, whom the great grandson of Holacu had sent into Tutaristan for the sole purpose of collecting historical information; and the commission itself shows how little the Tartarian princes really knew of their own origin. From this work of Rashid, and from other materials, Abulghazi, king of Khwarezm, composed in the Mogul language his Genealogical History, which, having been purchased from a merchant of Bokhara by some Swedish officers, prisoners of war in Siberia, has found its way into several European tongues: it contains much valuable matter, but, like

all Muhammedan histories, exhibits tribes or nations as individual sovereigns; and, if Baron De Tott had not strangely neglected to procure a copy of the Tartarian history, for the original of which he unnecessarily offered a large sum, we should probably have found that it begins with an account of the deluge, taken from the Koran, and proceeds to rank Turc, Chin, Tatar, and Mongal, among the sons of Yafet. The genuine traditional history of the Tartars, in all the books that I have inspected, seems to begin with Oghuz, as that of the Hindus does with Rama: they place their miraculous hero and patriarch four thousand years before Chengia Khan, who was born in the year 1164, and with whose reign their historical period commences. It is rather surprising that Mr. Bailly, who makes frequent appeals to etymological arguments, has not derived Ogyges from Oghuz, and Atlas from Altai, or the Golden Mountain of Tartary: the Greek terminations might have been rejected from both words; and a mere transposition of letters is no difficulty with an etymologist.

My remarks in this address, Gentlemen, will be confined to the period preceding Chengiz; and, although the learned labours of M. de Guignes, and the Fathers Visdelou, Demailla, and Gaubil, who have made an incomparable use of their Chinese literature, exhibit probable accounts of the Tartars from a very early age; yet the old historians of China were not only foreign, but generally hostile to them. and for both those reasons, either through ignorance or malignity, may be suspected of misrepresenting their transactions: if they speak truth, the ancient history of the Tartars presents us, like most other histories, with a series of assassinations, plots, treasons, massacres, and all the natural fruits of selfish ambition. I should have no inclination to give you a sketch of such horrors, even if the occasion called for it; and will barely observe, that the first king of the Hyummus, or Huns, began his reign, according to Visdelou, about three thousand five hundred and sixty years ago, not long after the time fixed in my former discourses for the first regular establishments of the Hindus and Arabs in their several countries.

I. Our first enquiry concerning the languages and letters of the Tartars, presents us with a deplorable void, or with a prospect as barren and dreary as that of their deserts. The Tartars, in general, had no literature (in this point all authorities appear to concur); the Tures had no letters; the Huns, according to Procopius, had not even heard of them; the magnificent Chengia, whose empire included an area of near eighty square degrees, could find none of his own Mongals, as the best authors inform us, able to write his dispatches; and Taimur, a savage of strong natural parts, and passionately fond of hearing histories read to him, could himself neither write nor read. It is true that Ibnu Arabshah mentions a set of characters called *Dilberjin*, which were used in *Khata*: 'he had seen them,' he says, 'and found them to consist of forty-one letters, a distinct symbol being appropriated to each long and short vowel, and to each consonant hard or soft, or otherwise varied 'in pronunciation;' but Khata was in Southern Tartary, on the confines of India; and, from his description of the characters there in use, we cannot but suspect them to have been those of Tibet, which are manifestly Indian, bearing a greater resemblance to those of Bengal than to Devanagari. The learned and eloquent Arab adds, 'that the Tartars of Khata write, in the Dilberjin letters, all their tales and histories, their journals, poems, and miscellanies, their diplomas, records of state and justice, the laws of Chengiz, their public registers, and their composi'tions of every species.' If this be true, the people of Khata must have been a polished, and even a lettered nation; and it may be true, without affecting the general position, that the Tartars were illiterate; but Ibnu Arabshah was a professed rhetorician, and it is impossible to read the original passage without full conviction that his object in writing it was to display his power of words in a flowing and modulated period. He says further, that in Jaghatai the people of Oighur, as he calls them, ' have a system of fourteen eletters only, denominated, from themselves, Oighuri: and those are the characters which the Mongals are supposed, by most authors, to have borrowed. Abulghazi tells us only, that Chengiz employed the natives of Eighur as excellent penmen; but the Chinese assert, that he was forced to employ them, because he had no writers at all among his natural-born subjects; and we are assured by many, that Kublaikhan ordered letters to be invented for his nation by a Tibetian, whom he rewarded with the dignity of chief Lama. The small number of Eighuri letters might induce us to believe that they were Zend or Pahlavi, which must have been current in that country when it was governed by the sons of Feridun; and, if the alphabet ascribed to the Eighurians by M. Des Hautesrayes be correct, we may safely decide, that in many of its letters it resembles both the Zend and the Syriac, with a remarkable difference in the mode of connecting them; but, as we can scarce hope to see a genuine specimen of them, our doubt must remain in regard to their form and origin. The page exhibited by Hyde as Khatayan writing, is evidently a sort of broken Cufick; and the fine manuscript at Oxford, from which it was taken, is more probably a Mendean work on some religious subject, than, as he imagined, a code of Tartarian laws. That very learned man appears to have made a worse mistake, in giving us for Mongal characters a page of writing which has the appearance of Japanese, or mutilated Chinese letters.

If the Tartars in general, as we have every reason to believe, had no written memorials, it cannot be thought wonderful that their languages, like those of America, should have been in perpetual fluctuation. and that more than fifty dialects, as Hyde had been credibly informed, should be spoken between Moscow and China, by the many kindred tribes or their several branches, which are enumerated by Abulghazi. What those dialects are, and whether they really sprang from a common stock, we shall probably learn from Mr. Pallas, and other indefatigable men employed by the Russian court; and it is from the Russians that we must expect the most accurate information concerning their Asiatic subjects: I persuade myself that, if their enquiries be judiciously made, and faithfully reported, the result of them will prove that all the languages properly Tartarian, arose from one common source; excepting always the jargons of such wanderers or mountaineers as, having long been divided from the main body of the nation, must, in a course of ages, have framed separate idioms for themselves. The only Tartarian language of which I have any knowledge, is the Turkish of Constantinople, which is however so copious, that whoever shall know it perfectly, will easily understand, as we are assured by intelligent authors, the dialects of Tataristan; and we may collect from Abulghazi, that he would find little difficulty in the Calmac and the Mogul. I will not offend your ears by a dry catalogue of similar words in those different languages; but a careful investigation has convinced me that, as the Indian and Arabian tongues are severally descended from a common parent, so those of Tartary might be traced to one ancient stem essentially differing from the two others. It appears, indeed, from a story told by Abulghazi, that the Virats and the Mongals could not understand each other; but no more can the Danes and the English, yet their dialects, beyond a doubt, are branches of

the same Gothic tree. The dialect of the Moguls, in which some histories of Taimur and his descendants were originally composed, is called in *India*, where a learned native set me right when I used another word. Turci; not that it is precisely the same with the Turkish of the Othmanlus, but the two idioms differ, perhaps, less than Swedish and German, or Spanish and Portuguese, and certainly less than Welsh and Irish. In hope of ascertaining this point, I have long searched in vain for the original works ascribed to Taimur and Baber; but all the Moguls with whom I have conversed in this country, resemble the crow in one of their popular fables, who, having long affected to walk like a pheasant, was unable, after all, to acquire the gracefulness of that elegant bird, and in the mean time forgot his own natural gait. They have not learned the dialect of Persia, bu thave wholly forgotten that of their ancestors. A very considerable part of the old Tartarian language, which in Asia would probably have been lost, is happily preserved in Europe; and, if the groundwork of the western Turkish, when separated from the Persian and Arabic, with which it is embellished, be a branch of the lost Oghuzian tongue, I can assert with confidence that it has not the least resemblance either to Arabic or Sanscrit. and must have been invented by a race of men wholly distinct from the Arabs or Hindus. This fact alone oversets the system of M. Bailly, who considers the Sanscrit, of which he gives in several places a most erroneous account, as 'A fine monument of his primee val Scythians, the preceptors of mankind, and plant-'ers of a sublime philosophy even in India;' for he holds it an incontestable truth, that a language which is dead, supposes a nation which is destroyed; and he seems to think such reasoning perfectly decisive of the question, without having recourse to astronomical arguments, or the spirit of ancient institutions. For my part, I desire no better proof than that which the

language of the Brahmans affords, of an immemorial and total difference between the Savages of the Mountains, as the old Chinese justly called the Tartars, and the studious, placid, contemplative inhabitants of these Indian plains.

II. The geographical reasoning of M. Bailly may. perhaps, be thought equally shallow, if not inconsistent in some degree with itself. 'An adoration of the 'sun and of fire,' says he, 'must necessarily have arisen in a cold region; therefore it must have been foreign to India, Persia, Arabia; therefore it must have been derived from Tartary.' No man, I believe, who has travelled in winter through Bahar, or has even passed a cold season at Calcutta within the tropic, can doubt that the solar warmth is often desirable by all, and might have been considered as adorable by the ignorant in these climates; or that the return of spring deserves all the salutations which it receives from the Persian and Indian poets; not to rely on certain historical evidence, that Antarah, a celebrated warrior and bard, actually perished with cold on a mountain of Arabia. To meet, however, an objection which might naturally enough be made to the voluntary settlement and amazing population of his primitive race, in the icy regions of the north, he takes refuge in the hypothesis of M. Buffon, who imagines that our whole globe was at first of a white heat, and has been gradually cooling from the poles to the equator; so that the Hyperborean countries had once a delightful temperature; and Siberia itself was even hotter than the climate of our temperate zones; that is, was in too hot a climate, by his first proposition, for the primary worship of the sun. That the temperature of countries has not sustained a change in the lapse of ages, I will by no means insist; but we can hardly reason conclusively from a variation of temperature to the cultivation and diffusion of science. If as many iemale elephants and tigresses as we now find in

Bengal had formerly littered in the Siberian forests, and the young, as the earth cooled, had sought a genial warmth in the climate of the south, it would not follow that other savages, who migrated in the same direction, and on the same account, brought religion and philosophy, language and writing, art and science, into the southern latitudes.

We are told by Abulghazi that the primitive religion of human creatures, or the pure adoration of one Creator, prevailed in Tartary during the first generations of Yafet, but was extinct before the birth of Oghuz, who restored it in his dominions; that, some ages after him, the Mongals and the Turcs relapsed into gross idolatry; but that Chengia was a Theist, and, in a conversation with the Muhammedan doctors. admitted their arguments for the being and attributes of the Deity to be unanswerable, while he contested the evidence of their prophet's legation. From old Grecian authorities we learn that the Massagette worshipped the sun; and the narrative of an embassy from Justin to the Rhakan, or emperor, who then resided in a fine vale near the source of the Irtish, mentions the Tartarian ceremony of purifying the Roman ambassadors by conducting them between two fires. The Tartars of that age are represented as adorers of the four elements, and believers in an invisible spirit, to whom they sacrificed bulls and rams. Modern travellers relate, that, in the festivals of some Tartarian tribes, they pour a few drops of a consecrated liquor on the statues of their gods; after which an attendant sprinkles a little of what remains three times toward the south, in honour of fire; toward the west and east, in honour of water and air; and as often toward the north, in honour of the earth, which contained the reliques of their deceased ancestors. Now all this may be very true, without proving a national affinity between the Tartars

and Hindus; for the Arabs adored the planets and the beauties of Nature; the Arabs had carved images, and made libations on a black stone; the Arabs turned in prayer to different quarters of the heavens; yet we know with certainty, that the Arabs are a distinct race from the Tartars; and we might as well infer that they were the same people, because they had each their Nomades, or wanderers for pasture; and because the Turemans, described by Ibnuarabshah, and by him called Tatars, are, like most Arabian tribes, pastoral and warlike, hospitable and generous, wintering and summering on different plains, and rich in herds and flocks, horses and camels: but this agreement in manners proceeds from the similar nature of their several deserts, and their similar choice of a free rambling life, without evincing a community of origin, which they could scarce have had without preserving some remnant at least of a common language.

Many Lamas, we are assured, or priests of Buddha, have been found settled in Siberia; but it can hardly be doubted that the Lamas had travelled thither from Tibet; whence it is more than probable, that the religion of the Bauddhas was imported into Southern, or Chinese Tartary; since we know that rolls of Tibetian writing have been brought even from the borders of the Caspian. The complexion of Buddha himself, which, according to the Hindus, was between white and ruddy, would perhaps have convinced M. Bailly, had he known the Indian tradition, that the last great legislator and god of the east was a Tartar; but the Chinese consider him as a native of India; the Brahmans insist that he was born in a forest near Gaya; and many reasons may lead us to suspect, that his religion was carried from the west and the south, to those eastern and northern countries, in which it prevails. On the whole, we meet

with few or no traces in Scythia of Indian rites and superstitions, or of that poetical mythology with which the Sanscrit poems are decorated; and we may allow the Tartars to have adored the Sun with more reason than any southern people, without admitting them to have been the sole original inventors of that universal folly. We may even doubt the originality of their veneration for the four elements, which forms a principal part of the ritual introduced by Zeratusht, a native of Rai in Persia, born in the reign of Gushtasp, whose son Pashuten is believed by the Parsis to have resided long in Tartary, at a place called Cangidiz, where a magnificent palace is said to have been built by the father of Cyrus, and where the Persian prince, who was a zealot in the new faith, would naturally have disseminated its tenets among the neighbouring Tartars.

Of any philosphy, except natural ethics, which the rudest society requires and experience teaches, we find no more vestiges in Asiatic Scythia than in ancient Arabia; nor would the name of a philosopher and a Scythian have ever been connected, if Anacharsis had not visited Athens and Lydia for that instruction, which his birth-place could not have afforded him: but Anacharsis was the son of a Grecian woman, who had taught him her language; and he soon learned to despise his own. He was unquestionably a man of a sound understanding and fine parts; and, among the lively sayings which gained him the reputation of a wit even in Greece, it is related by Diogenes Laertius, that, when an Athenian reproached him with being a Scythian, he answered, 'My country is, indeed, a dis-' grace to me, but thou art a disgrace to thy country.' What his country was, in regard to manners and civil duties, we may learn from his fate in it; for when, on his return from Athens, he attempted to reform it by introducing the wise laws of his friend Solon, he was Vol. II.

killed on a hunting party with an arrow, shot by his own brother, a Scythian chieftain. Such was the philosophy of M. Bailly's Atlantes, the first and most enlightened of nations! We are assured, however, by the learned author of the Dabistan, that the Tartars under Chengiz, and his descendants, were lovers of truth, and would not even preserve their lives by a violation of it. De Guignes ascribes the same veracity, the parent of all virtues, to the Huns; and Strabo, who might only mean to lash the Greeks by praising Barbarians, as Horace extolled the wandering Scythians merely to satirize his luxurious countrymen, informs us that the nations of Scythia deserve the praise due to wisdom, heroic friendship, and justice; and this praise we may readily allow them on his authority, without supposing them to have been the preceptors of mankind.

As to the laws of Zamolxis, concerning whom we know as little as of the Scythian Deucalion, or of Abaris the Hyperborean, and to whose story even Herodotus gave no credit, I lament, for many reasons, that if ever they existed they have not been preserved. It is certain that a system of laws, called Yasac, has been celebrated in Tartary since the time of Chengiz, who is said to have republished them in his empire, as his institutions were afterwards adopted and enforced by Taimur; but they seem to have been a common or traditionary law, and were probably not reduced into writing till Chengiz had conquered a nation who were able to write.

III. Had the religious opinions and allegorical fables of the *Hindus* been actually borrowed from *Sythia*, travellers must have discovered in that country some ancient monuments of them; such as pieces of grotesque sculpture, images of the Gods and *Avatars*,

and inscriptions on pillars or in caverns, analogous to those which remain in every part of the western peninsula, or to those which many of us have seen in Bahar and at Banaras; but (except a few detached idols) the only great monuments of Tartarian antiquity are a line of ramparts on the west and east of the Caspian, ascribed indeed by ignorant Muselmans to Yajuj and Majuj, or Gog and Magog; that is, to the Scythians, but manifestly raised by a very different nation, in order to stop their predatory inroads through the passes of Caucasus. The Chinese wall was built, or finished, on a similar construction and for a similar purpose, by an emperor, who died only two hundred and ten years before the beginning of our æra; and the other mounds were very probably constructed by the old Persians, though, like many works of unknown origin, they are given to Secander, not the Macedonian, but a more ancient hero, supposed by some to have been Jemshid. It is related, that pyramids and tombs have been found in Tataristan, or Western Scythia, and some remnants of edifices in the lake Saison; that vestiges of a deserted city have been recently discovered by the Russians near the Caspian Sea, and the Mountain of Eagles; and that golden ornaments and utensils, figures of elks and other quadrupeds in metal, weapons of various kinds, and even implements for mining, but made of copper instead of iron, have been dug up in the country of the Tshudes; whence M. Bailly infers, with great reason, the high antiquity of that people: but the high antiquity of the Tartars, and their establishment in that country near four thousand years ago, no man disputes; we are inquiring into their ancient religion and philosophy; which neither ornaments of gold, nor tools of copper. will prove to have had an affinity with the religious rites and the sciences of India. The golden utensils might possibly have been fabricated by the Tartars D 2

themselves; but it is possible too, that they were carried from Rome or from China, whence occasional embassies were sent to the kings of Eighur. Towards the end of the tenth century the Chinese emperor dispatched an ambassador to a prince, named Erslan, which, in the Turkish of Constantinople, signifies a lion, who resided near the Golden Mountain; in the same station, perhaps, where the Romans had been received in the middle of the sixth century. The Chinese on his return home reported the Eighuris to be a grave people, with fair complexions, diligent workmen, and ingenious artificers not only in gold, silver, and iron, but in jasper and fine stones; and the Romans had before described their magnificent reception in a rich palace adorned with Chinese manufactures: but these times were comparatively modern; and, even if we should admit that the Eighuris, who are said to have been governed for a period of two thousand years by an Idecut, or sovereign, of their own race, were in some very early age a literary and polished nation, it would prove nothing in favour of the Huns, Turcs, Mongals, and other savages to the north of Pekin, who seem in all ages before Muhammed, to have been equally ferocious and illiterate. ring at hid an area of the string of the teach the

Without actual inspection of the manuscripts that have been found near the Caspian, it would be imposible to give a correct opinion concerning them; but one of them, described as written on blue silky paper in letters of gold and silver, not unlike Hebrew, was probably a Tibetian composition of the same kind with that which lay near the source of the Irtish, and of which Cassiano, I believe, made the first accurate version. Another, if we may judge from the description of it, was probably modern Turkish; and none of them could have been of great antiquity.

IV. From ancient monuments, therefore, we have

no proof that the Tartars were themselves well-instructed, much less that they instructed the world; nor have we any stronger reason to conclude from their general manners and character, that they had made an early proficiency in arts and sciences. Even of poetry, the most universal and most natural of the fine arts. we find no genuine specimens ascribed to them, except some horrible war-songs expressed in Persain by Ali of Yead, and possibly invented by him. After the conquest of Persia by the Mongals, their princes indeed encouraged learning, and even made astronomical observations at Samarkand; as the Turc became polished by mixing with the Persians and Arabs. though their very nature, as one of their own writers confesses, had before been like an incurable distemper, and their minds clouded with ignorance: thus also the Mancheu monarchs of China have been patrons of the learned and ingenious; and the Emperor Kien-Long is, if he be now living, a fine Chinese poet. In all these instances the Tartars have resembled the Romans, who, before they had subdued Greece, were little better than tigers in war, and fauns or sylvans in science and art.

Before I left Europe, I had insisted in conversation, that the Tuzuc, translated by Major Duvy, was never written by Taimur himself, at least not as Cusar wrote his commentaries, for one very plain reason, that no Tartarian king of his age could write at all; and, in support of my opinion, I had cited Ibnu Arabshah, who, though justly hostile to the savage, by whom his native city, Damascus, had been ruined, yet praises his talents and the real greatness of his mind; but adds, "He was wholly illiterate; he neither read nor wrote any thing; and he knew nothing of Arabic; though of Persian, Turkish, and the Mogul dialect, he knew as much as was sufficient for his purpose, and no more. He used with pleasure to hear histories

" read to him, and so frequently heard the same book, "that he was able by memory to correct an inaccurate " reader." This passage had no effect on the translator, whom great and learned men in India had assured, it seems, that the work was authentic, by which he meant composed by the conqueror himself: but the great in this country might have been unlearned, or the learned might not have been great enough to answer any leading question in a manner that opposed the declared inclination of a British inquirer; and, in either case, since no witnesses are named, so general a reference to them will hardly be thought conclusive evidence. On my part, I will name a Muselman, whom we all know, and who has enough both of greatness and of learning to decide the question both impartially and satisfactorily: The Nawwab Mozaffer Jang informed me of his own accord, that no man of sense in Hindustan believed the work to have been composed by Taimur, but that his favourite, surnamed Hindu Shah, was known to have written that book and others, ascribed to his patron, after many confidential discourses with the Emir, and, perhaps, nearly in the prince's words as well as in his person: a story which Ali of Yead, who attended the court of Taimur, and has given us a flowery panegyric instead of history, renders highly probable, by confirming the latter part of the Arabian account, and by total silence as to the literary productions of his master. It is true, that a very ingenious but indigent native, whom Davy supported, has given me a written memorial on the subject, in which he mentions Taimur as the author of two works in Turkish; but the credit of his information is overset by a strange apocryphal story of a king of Yemen, who invaded, he says, the Emir's dominions, and in whose library the manuscript was afterwards found, and translated by order of Alishir, first minister of Taimur's grandson; and Major Davy himself, before he departed from Bengal, told me, that he was greatly perplexed by finding in a very accurate and old copy of the Tuzuc, which he designed to republish with considerable additions, a particular account, written unqestionably by Taimur, of his own death. No evidence, therefore, has been adduced to shake my opinion, that the Moguls and Tartars, before their conquest of India and Persia, were wholly unlettered; although it may be possible, that, even without art or science, they had, like the Huns, both warriors and lawgivers in their own country some centuries before the birth of Christ.

If learning was ever anciently cultivated in the region to the north of India, the seats of it, I have reason to suspect must have been Eighur, Cashghar, Khata, Chin, Tancut, and other countries of Chinese Tartary, which lie between the thirty-fifth and fortyfifth degrees of northern latitude; but I shall, in another discourse, produce my reasons for supposing that those very countries were peopled by a race allied to the Hindus, or enlightened at least by their vicinity to India and China; yet in Tancut, which by some is annexed to Tibet, and even among its old inhabitants, the Seres, we have no certain accounts of uncommon talents or great improvements: they were famed, indeed, for the faithful discharge of moral duties, for a pacific disposition, and for that longevity which is often the reward of patient virtues and a calm temper; but they are said to have been wholly indifferent in former ages to the elegant arts, and even' to commerce; though Fadlu'llah had been informed. that near the close of the thirteenth century many branches of natural philosophy were cultivated in Cam-cheu, then the metropolis of Serica.

We may readily believe those, who affure us, that D 4

some tribes of wandering Tartars had real skill in applying herbs and minerals to the purposes of medicine, and pretended to skill in magic; but the general character of their nation seems to have been this: They were professed hunters or fishers, dwelling on that account in forests or near great rivers, under huts or rude tents, or in waggons drawn by their cattle from station to station; they were dexterous archers, excellent horsemen, bold combatants, appearing often to flee in disorder for the sake of renewing their attack with advantages; drinking the milk of mares, and eating the flesh of colts; and thus in many respects resembling the old Arabs, but in nothing more than in their love of intoxicating liquors, and in nothing less than in a taste for poetry and the improvement of their language.

Thus has it been proved, and, in my humble opinion, beyond controversy, that the far greater part of Asia has been peopled and immemorially possessed by three considerable nations, whom, for want of better names, we may call Hindus, Arabs, and Tartars: each of them divided and subdivided into an infinite number of branches, and all of them so different in form and features, language, manners, and religion, that, if they sprang originally from a common root, they must have been separated for ages. Whether more than three primitive stocks can be found, or, in other words, whether the Chinese, Japanese, and Persians, are entirely distinct from them, or formed by their intermixture, I shall hereafter, if your indulgence to me continue, diligently inquire. To what conclusions these inquiries will lead, I cannot yet clearly discern; but, if they lead to truth, we shall not regret our journey through this dark region of ancient history, in which, while we proceed step by step, and follow every glimmering of certain light that presents itself,

we must beware of those false rays and luminous vapours which mislead Asiatic travellers, by an appearance of water, but are found on a near approach to be deserts of sand.

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THE SIXTH

DISCOURSE:

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PERSIANS.

DELIVERED 19 FEBRUARY, 1-89.

Gentlemen,

T TURN with delight from the vast mountains and L barren deserts of Turan, over which we travelled last year with no perfect knowledge of our course, and request you now to accompany me on a literary journey through one of the most celebrated and most beautiful countries in the world: a country, the history and languages of which, both ancient and modern, I have long attentively studied, and on which I may without arrogance promise you more positive information than I could possibly procure on a nation so disunited and so unlettered as the Tartars; I mean that which Europeans improperly call Persia, the name of a single province being applied to the whole empire of Iran, as it is correctly denominated by the present natives of it, and by the learned Muselmans who reside in these British territories. To give you an account of its largest boundaries, agreeably to my former mode of describing India, Arabia, and

Tartary, between which it lies, let us begin with the source of the great Assyrian stream Euphrates (as the Greeks, according to their custom, were pleased to miscall the Forat) and thence descend to its mouth in the Green Sea, or Persian Gulf, including in our line some considerable districts and towns on both sides of the river; then, coasting Persia, properly so named, and other Iranian provinces, we come to the Delta of the Sindhu or Indus; whence ascending to the mountains of Cashghar, we discover its fountains and those of the Jaihun, down which we are conducted to the Caspian, which formerly perhaps it entered, though it loses itself now in the sands and lakes of Khwarezm. We next are led from the Sea of Khozar. by the banks of the Cur, or Cyrus, and along the Caucasean ridges to the shore of the Euxine, and thence by the several Grecian Seas to the point whence we took our departure, at no considerablé distance from the Mediterranean. We cannot but include the Lower Asia within this outline, because it was unquestionably a part of the Persian, if not of the old Assyrian empire; for we know that it was under the dominion of Caikhosrau; and Diodorus, we find, asserts, that the kingdom of Troas was dependent on Assyria, since Priam implored and obtained succours from his emperor Teutames, whose name approaches nearer to Tahmuras than to that of any other Assyrian monarch. Thus may we look on Iran as the noblest island (for so the Greeks and the Arabs would have called it) or at least as the noblest peninfula on this habitable globe; and if M. Bailly had fixed on it as the Atlantis of Plato, he might have supported his opinion with far stronger arguments than any that he has adduced in favour of New Zembla. If the account, indeed, of the Atlantes be not purely an Egyptian, or an Utopian fable, I should be more inclined to place them in Iran than in any region with which I am acquainted.

It may seem strange, that the ancient history of so distinguished an empire should be yet so imperfectly known; but very satisfactory reasons may be assigned for our ignorance of it: the principal of them are the superficial knowledge of the Greeks and Jews, and the loss of Persian archives, or historical compo-That the Grecian writers, before Xenophon, had no acquaintance with Persia, and that all their accounts of it are wholly fabulous, is a paradox too extravagant to be seriously maintained: but their connection with it in war or peace had, indeed, been generally confined to bordering kingdoms under feudatory princes; and the first Persian emperor, whose life and character they seem to have known with tolerable accuracy, was the great Cyrus, whom I call, without fear of contradiction, Caikhosrau; for I shall then only doubt that the Khosrau of Firdausi was the Cyrus of the first Greek historian, and the hero of the oldest political and moral romance, when I doubt that Louis Quatorze and Lewis the Fourteenth were one and the same French King. It is utterly incredible that two different princes of Persia should each have been born in a foreign and hostile territory; should each have been doomed to death in his infancy by his maternal grandfather in consequence of portentous dreams, real or invented; should each have been saved by the remorse of his destined murderer; and should each, after a similar education among herdsmen, as the son of a herdsman, have found means to revisit his paternal kingdom; and having delivered it, after a long and triumphant war, from the tyrant who had invaded it, should have restored it to the summit of power and magnificence! Whether so romantic a story, which is the subject of an epic poem, as majestic and entire as the Iliad, be historically true, we may feel perhaps an inclination to doubt; but it cannot with reason be denied, that the outline of it related to a single hero, whom the Asiatics, conversing with the father of European history, described according to their popular traditions by his true name. which the Greek alphabet could not express: nor will a difference of names affect the question, since the Greeks had little regard for truth, which they sacrificed willingly to the graces of their language, and the nicety of their ears; and, if they could render foreign words melodious, they were never solicitous to make them exact; hence they probably formed Cambyses from Cambakhsh, or granting desires, a title rather than a name; and Xerxes from Shiruyi, a prince and warrior in the Shahnamah, or from Shirshah, which might also have been a title; for the Asiatic princes have constantly assumed new titles or epithets at different periods of their lives, or on different occasions; custom which we have seen prevalent in our own times both in Iran and Hindustan, and which has been a source of great confusion even in the scriptural accounts of Babylonian occurrences. Both Greeks and Jews have in fact accommodated Persian names to their own articulation; and both seem to have disregarded the native literature of Iran, without which they could at most attain a general and imperfect knowledge of the country. As to the Persians themselves, who were contemporary with the Jews and Greeks, they must have been acquainted with the history of their own times, and with the traditional accounts of past ages; but for a reason, which will presently appear, they chose to consider Cayumers as the founder of their empire; and, in the numerous distractions which followed the overthrow of Dara, especially in the great revolution on the defeat of Yezdegird, their civil histories were lost, as those of India have unhappily been, from the solicitude of the priests, the only depositaries of their learning, to preserve their books of law and religion at the expence of all others. Hence it has happened, that nothing remains of genuine Persian history before the dynasty

of Sasan, except a few rustic traditions and fables. which furnished materials for the Shahnamah, and which are still supposed to exist in the Pahlavi language. All the annals of the Pishdadi, or Assyrian race, must be considered as dark and fabulous; and those of the Cavani family, or the Medes and Persians. as heroic and poetical; though the lunar eclipses, said to be mentioned by Ptolemy, fix the time of Gushtasp, the prince by whom Zeratush was protected, of the Parthian kings descended from Arshac or Arsaces, we know little more than the names: but the Sasanis had so long an intercourse with the emperors of Rome and Byzantium, that the period of their dominion may be called an historical age. In attempting to ascertain the beginning of the Assyrian empire, we are deluded, as in a thousand instances, by names arbitrarily imposed. It had been settled by chronologers, that the first monarchy established in Persia was the Assyrian; and Newton, finding some of opinion, that it rose in the first century after the Flood, but unable by his own calculations to extend it farther back than seven hundred and ninety years before Christ, rejected part of the old system. and adopted the rest of it; concluding, that the Assyrian monarchs began to reign about two hundred years after Solomon, and that, in all preceding ages, the government of Iran had been divided into several petty states and principalities. Of this opinion I confess myself to have been; when, disregarding the wild chronology of the Muselmans and Gabrs, I had allowed the utmost natural duration to the reigns of eleven Pishdadi kings, without being able to add more than a hundred years to Newton's computation. It seemed indeed unaccountably strange, that, although Abraham had found a regular monarchy in Egypt; although the kingdom of Yemen had just pretensions to very high antiquity; although the Chinese, in the twelfth century before our æra, had made approaches

at least to the present form of their extensive dominion; and although we can hardly suppose the first *Indian* monarchs to have reigned less than three thousand years ago, yet *Persia*, the most delightful, the most compact, the most desirable country of them all, should have remained for so many ages unsettled and disunited. A fortunate discovery, for which I was first indebted to *Mir Muhammed Husain*, one of the most intelligent *Muselmans* in *India*, has at once dissipated the cloud, and cast a gleam of light on the primeval history of *Iran* and of the human race, of which I had long despaired, and which could hardly have dawned from any other quarter.

The rare and interesting tract on twelve different religions, entitled the Dabistan, and composed by a Mohammedan traveller, a native of Cashmir, named Mohsan, but distinguished by the assumed surname of Fani, or Perishable, begins with a wonderfully curious chapter on the religion of Hushang, which was long anterior to that of Zeratusht, but had continued to be secretly professed by many learned Persians even to the author's time; and several of the most eminent of them, dissenting in many points from the Gabrs, and persecuted by the ruling powers of their country, had retired to India; where they compiled a number of books, now extremely scarce, which Mohsan had perused, and with the writers of which, or with many of them, he had contracted an intimate friendship. From them he learned, that a powerful monarchy had been established for ages in Iran before the accession of Cayumers; that it was called the Mahabadian dynasty, for a reason which, will soon be mentioned; and that many princes, of whom seven or eight are only named in the Dabistan, and among them Mahbul, or Maha Beli, had raised their empire to the zenith of human glory. If we

can rely on this evidence, which to me appears unexceptionable, the Iranian monarchy must have been the oldest in the world; but it will remain dubious to which of the three stocks Hindu, Arabian, or Tartar, the first Kings of Iran belonged, or whether they sprang from a fourth race distinct from any of the others; and these are questions which we shall be able, I imagine, to answer precisely, when we have carefully inquired into the languages and letters, religion and philosophy, and incidentally into the arts and sciences, of the ancient Persians.

I. In the new and important remarks which I am going to offer on the ancient languages and characters of Iran, I am sensible that you must give me credit for many assertions which, on this occasion, it is impossible to prove; for I should ill deserve your indulgent attention, if I were to abuse it by repeating a dry list of detached words, and presenting you with a vocabulary instead of a dissertation; but, since I have no system to maintain, and have not suffered imagination to delude my judgment; since I have habituated myself to form opinions of men and things from evidence, which is the only solid basis of civil, as experiment is of natural knowledge; and since I have maturely considered the questions which I mean to discuss, you will not, I am persuaded, suspect my testimony, or think that I go too far, when I assure you, that I will assert nothing positively which I am not able satisfactorily to demonstrate. When Muhammed was born, and Anushiravan, whom he calls the Just King, sat on the throne of Persia, two languages appear to have been generally prevalent in the great empire of Iran; that of the Court, thence named Deri, which was only a refined and elegant dialect of the Parsi, so called from the province, of which Shirax is now the capital, and that of the learned, in which most books were composed, and which had the Vol. II.

name of Pahlavi, either from the heroes, who spoke it in former times, or from Pahlu, a tract of land, which included, we are told, some considerable cities of Irak. The ruder dialects of both were, and, I believe, still are spoken by the rustics in several provinces; and in many of them, as Herat, Zabul, Sistan, and others, distinct idioms were vernacular, as it happens in every kingdom of great extent. Besides the Parsi and Pahlavi, a very ancient and abstruse tongue was known to the priests and philosophers, called the language of the Zenil, because a book on religious and moral duties, which they held sacred, and which bore that name, had been written in it; while the Pazand, or comment on that work, was composed in Pahlavi, as a more popular idiom; but a learned follower of Zeratusht, named Bahman, who lately died at Calcutta, where he had lived with me as a Persian reader about three years, assured me, that the letters of his prophet's book were properly called Zend, and the language Avesta, as the words of the Vedas are Sanscrit, and the characters Nagari; or as the old Sagas and poems of Iseland were expressed in Runic letters. Let us however, in compliance with custom, give the name of Zend to the sacred language of Persia, until we can find, as we shall very soon, a fitter appellation for it. The Zend and the old Pahlavi are almost extinct in Iran; for among six or seven thousand Gabrs, who reside chiefly at Yezd, and in Cirman, there are very few who can read Pahlavi, and scarce any who even boast of knowing the Zend; while the Parsi, which remains almost pure in the Shahnamah, has now become by the intermixture of numberless Arabic words, and many imperceptible changes, a new language exquisitely polished by a series of fine writers in prose and verse, and analogous to the different idioms gradually formed in Europe after the subversion of the Roman empire: but with modern Persian we have no concern in our present in-

quiry, which I confine to the ages that preceded the Mohammedan conquest. Having twice read the works of Firdausi with great attention since I applied myself to the study of old Indian literature, I can assure you with confidence, that hundreds of Parsi nouns are pure Sanscrit, with no other change than such as may be observed in the numerous bhashas, or vernacular dialects of India; that very many Persian imperatives are the roots of Sanscrit verbs; and that even the moods and tenses of the Persian verb substantive, which is the model of all the rest, are deducible from the Sanscrit by an easy and clear analogy: we may hence conclude, that the Parsi was derived, like the various Indian dialects, from the language of the Brahmans; and I must add, that in the pure Persian I find no trace of any Arabian tongue, except what proceeded from the known intercourse between the Persians and Arabs, especially in the time of Bahram, who was educated in Arabia, and whose Arabic verses are still extant, together with his heroic line in Deri, which many suppose to be the first attempt at Persian versification in Arabian metre: but, without having recourse to other arguments, the composition of words, in which the genius of the Persian delights, and which that of the Arabic abhors, is a decisive proof that the Parsi sprang from an Indian, and not from an Arabian stock. Considering languages as mere instruments of knowledge, and having strong reasons to doubt the existence of genuine books in Zend or Pahlavi (especially since the well-informed author of the Dabistan affirms the work of Zeratusht to have been lost, and its place supplied by a recent compilation) I had no inducement, though I had an opportunity, to learn what remains of those ancient languages; but I often conversed on them with my friend Bahman; and both of us were convinced after full consideration, that the Zend bore a strong resemblance to Sanscrit, and the Pahlavi to Arabic. He had at my request translated

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into Pahlavi the fine inscription exhibited in the Gulistan, on the diadem of Cyrus; and I had the patience to read the list of words from the Pazend in the appendix to the Farhangi Jehangiri. This examination gave me perfect conviction, that the Pahlavi was a dialect of the Chaldaic; and of this curious fact I will exhibit a short proof. By the nature of the Chaldean tongue most words ended in the first long vowel, like shemia, heaven; and that very word, unaltered in a single letter, we find in the Pazend, together with lailia, night; meyd, water; nira, fire; matra, rain; and a multitude of others, all Arabic or Hebrew, with a Chaldean termination; so zamar, by a beautiful metaphor, from priming trees, means in Hebrew to compose verses, and thence, by an easy transition to sing them; and in Pahlavi we see the verb zamruniten, to sing, with its forms zamrunemi, 1 sing, and zamrunid, he sang; the verbal terminations of the Persian being added to the Chaldaic root. Now all those words are integral parts of the language, not adventitious to it like the Arabic nouns and verbals engrafted on modern Persian; and this distinction convinces me, that the dialect of the Gabrs, which they pretend to be that of Zeratusht, and of which Bahman gave me a variety of written specimens, is a late invention of their priests, or subsequent at least to the Muselman invasion; for, although it may be possible that a few of their sacred books were preserved, as he used to assert, in sheets of lead or copper, at the bottom of wells near Yezd, yet, as the conquerors had not only a spiritual, but a political interest in persecuting a warlike, robust, and indignant race of irreconcileable, conquered subjects, a long time must have elapsed, before the hidden scriptures could have been safely brought to light, and few, who could perfectly understand them, must then have remained; but, as they continued to profess among themselves the religion of their forefathers, it then became expedient for the Mubeds

to supply the lost or mutilated works of their legislator by new compositions, partly from their imperfect recollection, and partly from such moral and religious knowledge as they gleaned, most probably, among the Christians, with whom they had an intercourse. One rule we may fairly establish in deciding the question, Whether the books of the modern Gabrs were anterior to the invasion of the Arabs? When an Arabic noun occurs in them, changed only by the spirit of the Chaldean idiom; as werta for werd, a rose; daha for dhahab, gold; or deman for zeman, time, we may allow it to have been ancient Pahlavi; but when we meet with verbal nouns or infinitives, evidently formed by the rules of Arabian grammar, we may be sure that the phrases in which they occur are comparatively modern; and not a single passage, which Bahman produced from the books of his religion would abide this test.

We come now to the language of the Zend; and here I must impart a discovery which I lately made, and from which we may draw the most interesting consequences. M. Anguetil, who had the merit of undertaking a voyage to India, in his earliest youth, with no other view than to recover writings of Zeratusht, and who would have acquired a brilliant reputation in France, if he had not sullied it by his immoderate vanity and virulence of temper, which alienated the good-will even of his own countrymen, has exhibited in his work, entitled Zendavesta, two vocabularies in Zend and Pahlavi, which he had found in an approved collection of Rawayat, or Traditional Pieces, in modern Persian. Of his Pahlavi no more need be said than that it strongly confirms my opinion concerning the Chaldaic origin of that language; but, when I perused the Zend glossary, I was inexpressibly surprised to find that six or seven words in ten were pure Sanscrit, and even some of their inflexions

formed by the rules of the Vyacaran; as yushmacam, the genitive plural of yushmad. Now M. Anquetil most certainly, and the Persian compiler most probably, had no knowledge of Sanscrit; and could not, therefore, have invented a list of Sanscrit words: it is, therefore, an authentic list of Zend words which had been preserved in books, or by tradition; and it follows, that the language of the Zend was at least a dialect of the Sansorit, approaching perhaps as nearly to it as the Pracrit, or other popular idioms, which we know to have been spoken in India two thousand years ago. From all these facts it is a necessary consequence, that the oldest discoverable languages of Persia were Chaldaic and Sanscrit; and that, when they had ceased to be vernacular, the Pahlavi and Zend were deduced from them respectively, and the Parsi either from the Zend, or immediately from the dialect of the Brahmans; but all had perhaps a mixture of Tartarian; for the best lexicographers assert, that numberless words in ancient Persian are taken from the language of the Cimmerians, or the Tartars of Kipchak; so that the three families, whose lineage we have examined in former discourses, had left visible traces of themselves in Iran, long before the Tartars and Arabs had rushed from their deserts, and returned to that very country from which, in all probability, they originally proceeded, and which the Hindus had abandoned in an earlier age, with positive commands from their legislators to revisit it no more. I close this head with observing, that no supposition of a mere political or commercial intercourse between the different nations, will account for the Sanscrit and Chaldaic words, which we find in the old Persian tongues; because they are, in the first place, too numerous to have been introduced by such means; and secondly, are not the names of exotic animals, commodities, or arts, but those of material elements, parts of the body, natural objects

and relations, affections of the mind, and other ideas common to the whole race of man.

If a nation of Hindus, it may be urged, ever possessed and governed the country of Iran, we should find on the very ancient ruins of the temple or palace, now called the Throne of Jemshid, some inscriptions in Devanagari, or at least in the characters on the stones at Elephanta, where the sculpture is unquestionably Indian, or in those on the Staff of Firuz Shah, which exist in the heart of India; and such inscriptions we probably should have found, if that edifice had not been erected after the migration of the Brahmans from Iran, and the violent schism in the Persian religion, of which we shall presently speak; for, although the popular name of the building at Istakhr, or Persepolis, be no certain proof that it was raised in the time of Jemshid, yet such a fact might easily have been preserved by tradition; and we shall soon have abundant evidence, that the temple was posterior to the reign of the Hindu monarchs. The cypresses indeed, which are represented with the figures in procession, might induce a reader of the Shahnamah to believe, that the sculptures related to the new faith introduced by Zeratusht; but as a cypress is a beautiful ornament, and as many of the figures appear inconsistent with the reformed adoration of fire, we must have recourse to stronger proofs, that the Takhti Jemshid was erected after Cayumers. The building has lately been visited, and the characters on it examined, by Mr. Francklin; from whom we learn, that Niebuhr has delineated them with great accuracy; but without such testimony I should have suspected the correctness of the delineation, because the Danish traveller has exhibited two inscriptions in modern Persian, and one of them from the same place, which cannot have

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been exactly transcribed: they are very elegant verses of Nizami and Sadi on the instability of human greatness, but so ill engraved or so ill copied, that if I had not had them nearly by heart, I should not have been able to read them; and M. Rousseau of Isfahan, who translated them with shameful inaccuracy, must have been deceived by the badness of the copy, or he never would have created a new king Wakam, by forming one word of Jem and the particle prefixed to it. Assuming, however, that we may reason as conclusively on the characters published by Niebuhr as we might on the monuments themselves, were they now before us, we may begin with observing, as Chardin had observed on the very spot, that they bear no resemblance whatever to the letters used by the Gabrs in their copies of the Vendidad. This I once ured, in an amicable debate with Balman, as a proof that the Zend letters were a modern invention; but he seemed to hear me without surprize, and insisted that the letters to which I alluded, and which he had often seen, were monumental characters never used in books, and intended either to conceal some religious mysteries from the vulgar, or to display the art of the sculptor, like the embellished Cufick and Nagari on several Arabian and Indian monuments. He wondered that any man could seriously doubt the antiquity of the Pahlavi letters; and in truth the inscription behind the horse of Rustam, which Niebuhr has also given us, is apparently Pahlavi, and might with some pains be decyphered; that character was extremely rude, and seems to have been written, like the Roman and the Arabic, in a variety of hands; for I remember to have examined a rare collection of old Persian coins in the Museum of the great Anatomist William Hunter; and, though I believed he legends to be Pahlavi, and had no doubt that they were coins of Parthian kings, yet I could not read the inscriptions without wasting more time than I had then at command, in comparing the letters and ascertaining the proportions in which they severally occurred. The gross Pahlavi was improved by Zeratusht or his disciples into an elegant and perspicuous character, in which the Zendavesta was copied; and both were written from the right hand to the left, like other Chaldaic alphabets, for they are manifestly both of Chaldean origin; but the Zend has the singular advantage of expressing all the long and short vowels by distinct marks in the body of each word, and all the words are distinguished by full points between them; so that if modern Persian were unmixed with Arabic, it might be written in Zend with the greatest convenience, as any one may perceive, by copying in that character a few pages of the Shahnamah. As to the unknown inscriptions in the palace of Jemshid, it may reasonably be doubted whether they contain a system of letters which any nation ever adopted: in five of them the letters, which are separated by points, may be reduced to forty, at least I can distinguish no more essentially different; and they all seem to be regular variations and compositions of a straight line and an angular figure like the head of a javelin, or a leaf (to use the language of botanists) hearted and lanced. Many of the Runic letters appear to have been formed of similar elements; and it has been observed, that the writing at Persepolis bears a strong resemblance to that which the Irish call Ogham. The word Agam in Sanscrit means mysterious knowledge; but I dare not affirm that the two words had a common origin; and only mean to suggest that, if the characters in question be really alphabetical, they were probably secret and sacerdotal, or a mere cypher perhaps, of which the priests only had the key. They might, I imagine, be decyphered if the language were certainly known; but in all other inscriptions of the

same sort, the characters are too complex, and the variations of them too numerous, to admit an opinion that they could be symbols of articulate sounds; for even the Nagari system, which has more distinct letters than any known alphabet, consists only of fortynine simple characters, two of which are mere substitutions, and four of little use in Sanscrit, or in any other language; while the more complicated figures, exhibited by Niebuhr, must be as numerous at least as the Chinese keys, which are the signs of ideas only, and some of which resemble the old Persian letters at Istakhr. The Danish traveller was convinced from his own observation that they were written from the left hand, like all the characters used by Hindu nations; but I must leave this dark subject, which I cannot illuminate, with a remark formerly made by myself, that the square Chaldaic letters, a few of which are found on the Persian ruins, appear to have been originally the same with the Devanagari before the latter were enclosed, as we now see them, in angular frames.

II. The primeval religion of Iran, if we rely on the authorities adduced by Mohsani Fani, was that which Newton calls the oldest (and it may be justly called the noblest) of all religions: "A firm belief that one "Supreme God made the world by his power, and " continually governed it by his providence; a pious " fear, love, and adoration of him; a due reverence " for parents and aged persons; a fraternal affection "for the whole human species, and a compassionate "tenderness even for the brute creation." A system of devotion so pure and sublime could hardly, among mortals, be of long duration; and we learn from the Dabistan, that the popular worship of the Iranians under Hushang, was purely Sabian; a word of which I cannot offer any certain etymology, but which has been deduced by grammarians from Saba, an host,

and particularly the host of heaven, or the celestial bodies, in the adjoration of which the Sabian ritual is believed to have consisted. There is a description in the learned work just mentioned, of the several Persian temples dedicated to the Sun and Planets. of the images adored in them, and of the magnificent processions to them on prescribed festivals; one of which is probably represented by sculpture in the ruined city of Jemshid. But the planetary worship in Persia seems only a part of a far more complicated religion, which we now find in these Indian provinces; for Mohsan assures us that, in the opinion of the best informed Persians, who professed the faith of Hushang, distinguished from that of Zeratusht, the first monarch of Iran, and of the whole earth, was Mahabad (a word apparently Sanscrit) who divided the people into four orders, the religious, the military, the commercial, and the servile, to which he assigned names unquestionably the same in their origin with those now applied to the four primary classes of the Hindus. They added, that he received from the Creator, and promulgated among men, a sacred book in a heavenly language, to which the Muselman author gives the Arabic title of Desatir, or Regulations, but the original name of which he has not mentioned; and that fourteen Mahabads had appeared or would appear in human shapes for the government of this world. Now when we know that the Hindus believe in fourteen Menus, or celestial personages with similar functions, the first of whom left a book of regulations, or divine ordinances, which they hold equal to the Veda, and the language of which they believe to be that of the gods, we can hardly doubt that the first corruption of the purest and oldest religion was the system of Indian theology, invented by the Brahmans, and prevalent in these territories, where the book of Mahabad, or Menu, is at this moment the standard of all religious and moral duties. The accession of Cayumers to the throne of Persia, in the eighth or ninth century before Christ, seems to have been accompanied by a considerable revolution both in government and religion: he was most probably of a different race from the Mahabadians who preceded him, and began perhaps the new system of national faith which Hushang, whose name it bears, completed; but the reformation was partial; for, while they rejected the complex polytheism of their predecessors, they retained the laws of Mahabad, with a superstitious veneration for the sun, the planets, and fire; thus resembling the Hindu sects, called Sauras and Sagnicas, the second of which is very numerous at Banares, where many agnihotras are continually blazing, and where the Sagnicas, when they enter on their sacerdotal office, kindle, with two pieces of the hard wood Semi, a fire which they keep lighted through their lives for their nuptial ceremony, the performance of solemn sacrifices, the obsequies of departed ancestors, and their own funeral pile. This remarkable rite was continued by Zeratusht, who reformed the old religion by the addition of genii, or angels, presiding over months and days, of new ceremonies in the veneration shown to fire, of a new work which he pretended to have received from heaven, and, above all, by establishing the actual adoration of one Supreme Being. He was born, according to Mohsan, in the district of Rai; and it was he (not, as Ammianus asserts, his protector Gushtasb) who travelled into India, that he might receive information from the Brahmans in theology and ethics. It is barely possible that Pythagoras knew him in the capital of Irak; but the Grecian sage must then have been far advanced in years; and we have no certain evidence of an intercourse between the two philosophers. The reformed religion of Persia continued in force till that country was subdued by the Muselmans; and, without studying the Zend, we have ample information concerning

it in the modern Persian writings of several who professed it. Bahman always named Zeratusht with reverence, but he was in truth a pure Theist, and strongly disclaimed any adoration of the fire or other elements: he denied that the doctrine of two coeval principles, supremely good and supremely bad, formed any part of his faith; and he often repeated with emphasis the verses of Firdausi on the prostration of Cyrus and his paternal grandfather before the blazing altar: "Think not that they were adorers of fire; of for that element was only an exalted object, on the " lustre of which they fixed their eyes; they humbled "themselves a whole week before God; and, if thy " understanding be ever so little exerted, thou must 4c acknowledge thy dependence on the Being supreme-"Iy pure." In a story of Sadi, near the close of his beautiful Bustan, concerning the idol of Somanath, or Mahadeva, he confounds the religion of the Hindus with that of the Gabrs, calling the Brahmans not only Moghs, (which might be justified by a passage in the Mesnavi) but even readers of the Zend and Pazend. Now, whether this confusion proceeded from real or pretended ignorance I cannot decide, but am as firmly convinced that the doctrines of the Zend were distinct from those of the Veda, as I am that the religion of the Brahmans, with whom we converse every day, prevailed in Persia before the accession of Carumers, whom the Parsis, from respect to his memory, consider as the first of men, although they believe in an universal deluge before his reign.

With the religion of the old Persians their philosophy (or as much as we know of it) was intimately connected; for they were assiduous observers of the luminaries, which they adored and established, according to Mohsan, who confirms in some degree the fragments of Berosus, a number of arti-

ficial cycles with distinct names, which seem to indicate a knowledge of the period in which the equinoxes appear to revolve. They are said also to have known the most wonderful powers of nature, and thence to have acquired the fame of magicians and enchanters: but I will only detain you with a few remarks on that metaphysical theology which has been professed immemorially by a numerous sect of Persians and Hindus, was carried in part into Greece, and prevails even now among the learned Muselmans, who sometimes avow it without reserve. The modern philosophers of this persuasion are called Sufis, either from the Greek word for a sage, or from the woollen mantle which they used to wear in some provinces of Persia: their fundamental tenets are, that nothing exists absolutely but God; that the human soul is an emanation from his essence, and though divided for a time from its heavenly source, will be finally reunited with it; that the highest possible happiness will arise from its reunion; and that the chief good of mankind in this transitory world, consists in as perfect an union with the Eternal Spirit as the incumbrances of a mortal frame will allow; that for this purpose they should break all connection (or taulluk, as they call it) with extrinsic objects, and pass through life without attachments, as a swimmer in the ocean strikes freely without the impediment of clothes; that they should be straight and free as the cypress, whose fruit is hardly perceptible, and not sink under a load, like fruit-trees attached to a trellis; that, if mere earthly charms have power to influence the soul, the idea of celestial beauty must overwhelm it in extatic delight; that for want of apt words to express the divine perfections and the ardour of devotion, we must borrow such expressions as approach the nearest to our ideas, and speak of Beauty and Love in a transcendent and mystical sense; that, like a read torn from its native

bank, like wax separated from its delicious honey, the soul of man bewails its disunion with melancholy masic, and sheds burning tears, like the lighted taper waiting passionately for the moment of its extinction, as a disengagement from earthly trammels, and the means of returning to its only beloved. Such in part (for I omit the minuter and more subtil metaphysics of the Sufis, which are mentioned in the Dabistan) is the wild and enthusiastic religion of the modern Persian poets, especially of the sweet Hafix and the great Maulavi. Such is the system of the Vedanti philosophers and best lyric poets of India; and as it was a system of the highest antiquity in both nations, it may be added to the many other proofs of an immemorial affinity between them.

III. On the ancient monuments of Persian sculpture and architecture we have already made such observations as were sufficient for our purpose; nor will you be surprized at the diversity between the figures at Elephanta, which are manifestly Hindu, and those at Persepolis, which are merely Sabian, if you concur with me in believing that the Takhti Jemshid was erected after the time of Cayumers, when the Brahmans had migrated from Iran, and when their intricate mythology had been superseded by the simpler adoration of the planets and of fire.

IV. As to the sciences or arts of the old Persians, I have little to say; and no complete evidence of them seems to exist. Mohsan speaks more than once of ancient verses in the Pahlavi language; and Bahman assured me, that some scanty remains of them had been preserved: their music and painting, which Nizami celebrated, have irrecoverably perished; and in regard to Mani, the painter and impostor, whose book of drawings, called Ar-

tang, which he pretended to be divine, is supposed to have been destroyed by the *Chinese*, in whose dominions he had sought refuge, the whole tale is too modern to throw any light on the questions before us concerning the origin of nations, and the inhabitants of the primitive world.

Thus has it been proved by clear evidence and plain reasoning, that a powerful monarchy was established in Iran long before the Assyrian, or Pishdadi government; that it was in truth a Hindu monarchy, though if any chuse to call it Cusian, Casdean, or Scythian, we shall not enter into a debate on mere names; that it subsisted many centuries, and that its history has been ingrafted on that of the Hindus, who founded the monarchies of Ayodhya and Indraprestha; that the language of the first Persian empire was the mother of the Sanserit, and consequently of the Zend and Parsi, as well as of Greek, Latin, and Gothic; that the language of the Assyrians was the parent of Chaldaic and Pahlavi, and that the primary Tartarian language also had been current in the same empire; although, as the Tartars had no books or even letters, we cannot with certainty trace their unpolished and variable idioms. We discover therefore in Persia, at the earliest dawn of history, the three distinct races of men, whom we described on former occasions as possessors of India, Arabia, Tartary; and, whether they were collected in Iran from distant regions, or diverged from it as from a common centre, we shall easily determine by the following considerations. Let us observe, in the first place, the central position of Iran, which is bounded by Arabia, by Tartary, and by India; whilst Arabia lies contiguous to Iran only, but is remote from Tartary, and divided even from the skirts of India by a considerable gulf; no country, therefore, but Persia seems likely to have

sent forth its colonies to all the kingdom's of Asia. The Brahmans could never have migrated from India to Iran, because they are expressly forbidden by their oldest existing laws to leave the region which they inhabit at this day; the Arabs have not even a tradition of an emigration into Persia before Mohammed, nor had they indeed any inducement to quit their beautiful and extensive domains; and as to the Tartars, we have no trace in history of their departure from their plains and forests till the invasion of the Medes, who, according to etymologists, were the sons of Madai; and even they were conducted by princes of an Assyrian family. The three races, therefore, whom we have already mentioned (and more than three we have not yet found) migrated from Iran as from their common country; and thus the Saxon Chronicle; I presume from good authority, brings the first inhabitants of Britam from Armenia; while a late very learned writer concludes, after all his laborious researches, that the Goths or Soythians came from Persia; and another contends with great force, that both the Irish and old Britons proceeded severally from the borders of the Caspian; a coincidence of conclusions from different media by persons wholly unconnected, which could scarce have happened if they were not grounded on solid principles. We may therefore hold this proposition firmly established, that Iran, or Persia in its largest sense, was the true centre of population, of knowledge, of languages, and of arts; which, instead of travelling westward only, as it has been fancifully supposed, or eastward, as might with equal reason have been asserted, were expanded in all directions to all the regions of the world in which the Hindu race had settled under various denominations : but whether Asia has not produced other races of men, distinct from the Hindus, the Arabs, or the Tartars; or whether any apparent diversity may not quve sprung from an intermixture of those three in different proportions, must be the subject of a future inquiry. There is another question of more immediate importance, which you, gentlemen, only can decide; namely, "by what means we can preserve " our Society from dying gradually away? as it has ad-" vanced gradually to its present (shall I say flourish-"ing or languishing?) state." It has subsisted five years without any expence to the members of it, until the first volume of our Transactions was published; and the price of that large volume, if we compare the different values of money in Bengal and in England, is not more than equal to the annual contribution towards the charges of the Royal Society by each of its fellows, who may not have chosen to compound for it on his admission. This I mention not from an idea that any of us could object to the purchase of one copy at least, but from a wish to inculcate the necessity of our common exertions in promoting the sale of the work, both here and in London. In vain shall. we meet as a literary body, if our meetings shall cease to be supplied with original dissertations and memorials; and in vain shall we collect the most interesting papers, if we cannot publish them occasionally without exposing the superintendents of the Company's press, who undertake to print them at their own hazard, to the danger of a considerable loss. By united efforts the French have compiled their stupendous repositories of universal knowledge; and by united efforts only can we hope to rival them, or to diffuse over our own country and the rest of Europe the lights attainable by our Asiatic Researches.

IV.

ALETTER

FROM

THE LATE HENRY VANSITTART, ESQ.

TO THE PRESIDENT.

Sir,

TAVING some time ago met with a Persian Labridgment, composed by Maulavi Khairuddin. of the asrarul Afaghinah, or the secrets of the Afghans, a book written in the Pushto language by Husain, the son of Sabir, the son of Khizr, the disciple of Hazrat Shah Kasim Sulaimani, whose tomb is in Chunargur, I was induced to translate it. Although it opens with a very wild description of the origin of that tribe, and contains a narrative which can by no means be offered upon the whole as a serious and probable history; yet I conceive that the knowledge of what a nation suppose themselves to be, may be interesting to a Society like this, as well as of what they really are. Indeed the commencement of almost every history is fabulous; and the most enlightened nations, after they have arrived at that degree of civilization and importance which has enabled and induced them to commemorate their actions, have always found a vacancy at their outset which invention, or at best presumption, must supply. Such fictions appear at first in the form of traditions; and having in this shape amused successive generations by a gratification of their national vanity, they are committed to writing, and acquire the authority of history.

As a kingdom is an assemblage of component parts, condensed by degrees from smaller associations of individuals to their general union, so history is a combination of the transactions not only of the different tribes, but even of the individuals of the nation of which it treats: each particular narrative in such a general collection must be summary and incomplete. Biography, therefore, as well as descriptions of the manners, actions, and even opinions of such tribes as are connected with a great kingdom, are not only entertaining in themselves, but useful, as they explain and throw a light upon the history of the nation.

Under these impressions I venture to lay before the Society the translation of an abridged history of the Afghans; a tribe at different times subject to and always connected with the kingdoms of Persia and Hindustan. I also submit a specimen of their language, which is called by them Pukhto; but this word is softened in Persian into Pushto.

I am, Sir,

With the greatest respect,

Your most obedient humble servant,

HENRY VANSITTART.

Calcutta, March 3, 1784.

ON

THE DESCENT OF THE AFGHANS FROM THE JEWS

THE Afghans, according to their own traditions, are the posterity of Melic Talut (king Saul) who, in the opinion of some, was a descendant of Judah, the son of Jacob; and according to others of Benjamin, the brother of Joseph.

In a war which raged between the children of Israel and the Amalekites, the latter being victorious, plundered the Jews, and obtained possession of the ark of the covenant. Considering this the god of the Jews, they threw it into the fire, which did not affect it. They afterwards attempted to cleave it with axes, but without success: every individual who treated it with indignity was punished for his temerity. They then placed it in their temple; but all their idols bowed to it. At length they fastened it upon a cow, which they turned loose in the wilderness.

When the prophet Samuel arose, the children of Israel said to him, "We have been totally subdued by the Amalekites, and have no king. Raise to us a king, that we may be enabled to contend for the glory of God." Samuel said, "In case you are led out to battle, are you determined to fight?" They answered, "What has befallen us that we should not fight against infidels? That nation has banished us from our country and children." At this time the angel Gabriel descended, and, delivering a wand, said, "It is the command of God that the person whose stature shall correspond with this wand, shall be king of Israel."

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Melic Talut was at that time a man of inferior condition, and performed the humble employment of feeding the goats and cows of others. One day a cow under his charge was accidentally lost. Being disappointed in his searches, he was greatly distressed, and applied to Samuel, saying, "I have lost a cow, " and do not possess the means of satisfying the owner. "Pray for me, that I may be extricated from this " difficulty." Samuel, perceiving that he was a man of lofty stature, asked his name. He answered, Talut. Samuel then said, "Measure Talut with the wand " which the angel Gabriel brought." His stature was equal to it. Samuel then said, "God has raised Talut to be your king." The children of Israel answered. "We are greater than our king. We are ee men of dignity, and he is of inferior condition. " How shall he be our king." Samuel informed them they should know that God had constituted Talut their king, by his restoring the ark of the covenant. He accordingly restored it, and they acknowledged him their sovereign.

After Talut obtained the kingdom, he seized part of the territories of Jalut, or Goliah, who assembled a large army, but was killed by David. Talut afterwards died a martyr in a war against the infidels; and God constituted David king of the Jews.

Melic Talut had two sons, one called Berkia, and the other Irmia, who served David, and were beloved by him. He sent them to fight against the infidels; and, by God's assistance, they were victorious.

The son of Berkia was called Afghan, and the son of Irmia was named Ushec. Those youths distinguished themselves in the reign of David, and were employed by Solomon. Afghan was distin-

guished by his corporal strength, which struck terror into Demons and Genii. Ushee was eminent for his learning.

Afghan used frequently to make excursions to the mountains; where his progeny, after his death established themselves, lived in a state of independence, built forts, and exterminated the infidels.

When the select of creatures, Muhammed, appeared upon earth, his fame reached the Afghans, who sought him in multitudes under their leaders Khalid and Abdul Rashid, sons of Walid. The prophet honoured them with the most gracious reception, saying, "Come, O Muluc, or Kings;" whence they assumed the title of Melic, which they enjoy to this day. The prophet gave them his ensign, and said that the faith would be strengthened by them.

Many sons were born of *Khalid*, the son of *Walid*, who signalized themselves in the presence of the prophet, by fighting against the infidels. *Muhammed* honoured and prayed for them.

In the reign of Sultan Mahmud of Ghaznah, eight men arrived, of the posterity of Khalid the son of Walid, whose names were Kalun, Alun, Daud, Yalua, Ahmed, Awin, and Ghazi. The Sultan was much pleased with them, and appointed each a commander in his army. He also conferred on them the offices of Vazir, and Vakili Mutlak, or Regent of the Empire.

Wherever they were stationed they obtained possession of the country, built mosques, and overthrew the temples of idols. They encreased so much, that the army of Mahmud was chiefly F4

composed of Afghans. When Herhind, a powerful prince of Hindustan, meditated an invasion of Ghaznah, Sultan Mahmud dispatched against him the descendants of Khalid with twenty thousand horse: a battle ensued; the Afghans made the attack; and, after a severe engagement, which lasted from daybreak till noon, defeated Herhind, killed many of the infidels, and converted some to the Muhammedan faith.

The Afghans now began to establish themselves in the mountains; and some settled in cities with the permission of Sultan Mahmud. They framed regulations, dividing themselves into four classes, agreeably to the following description:—The first is the pure class, consiting of those whose fathers and mothers were Afghans. The second class consists of those whose fathers were Afghans, and mothers of another nation. The third class contains those whose mothers were Afghans, and fathers of another nation. The fourth class is composed of the children of women whose mothers were Afghans, and fathers and husbands of a different nation. Persons who do not belong to one of these classes, are not called Afghans.

After the death of Sultan Mahmud they made another settlement in the mountains. Shihabuddin Gauri, a subsequent Sultan of Ghaznah, was twice repulsed from Hindustan. His Vazir assembled the people, and asked if any of the posterity of Khalid were living. They answered, "Many now live in a state of independence in the mountains, where they have a considerable army." The Vazir requested them to go to the mountains, and by entreaties prevail on the Afghans to come; for they were the descendants of companions of the prophet

The inhabitants of Ghaznah undertook this embassy, and, by entreaties and presents, conciliated the minds of the Afghans, who promised to engage in the service of the Sultan, provided he would himself come and enter into an agreement with them. The Sultan visited them in their mountains, honoured them, and gave them dresses and other presents. They supplied him with twelve thousand horse, and a considerable army of infantry. Being dispatched by the Sultan before his own army, they took Dehli, killed Roy Pahtoura the king, his ministers and nobles; laid waste the city, and made the infidels prisoners. They afterwards exhibited nearly the same scene in Canauj.

The Sultan, pleased by the reduction of those cities, conferred honours upon the Afghans. It is said that he then gave them the titles of Patan and Khan. The word Patan is derived from the Hindi verb Paitna, to rush, in allusion to their alacrity in attacking the enemy. The Patans have greatly distinguished themselves in the history of Hindustan, and are divided into a variety of sects.

The race of Afghans possessed themselves of the Mountain of Solomon, which is near Kandahar, and the circumjacent country, where they have built forts: this tribe has furnished many kings. The following monarchs of this race have sat upon the throne of Dehli:—Sultan Behlole, Afghan Lodi, Sultan Secander, Sultan Ibrahim, Shir Shah, Islam Shah, Adil Shah Sur. They also number the following kings of Gaur:—Solaiman Shah Gurzani, Bayazid Shah, and Kuth Shah; besides whom their nation has produced many conquerors of provinces. The Afghans are called Solaimani, either because they were formerly the subjects of Solomon, king of the Jews, or because they inhabit the Mountain of Solomon.

The translation being finished, I shall only add that the country of the Afghans, which is a province of Cabul, was originally called Roh, and from hence is derived the name of the Rohillahs. The city, which was established in it by the Afghans, was called by them Paishwer, or Paishor, and is now the name of the whole district. The sects of the Afghans, or Patans, are very numerous. The principal are these:-Lodi, Lohauni, Sur, Serwani, Yusufzihi, Bangish, Dilazai, Khatti, Yusin, Khail, and Buloje. The meaning of Zihi, is offspring; and of Khail, sect. A very particular account of the Afghans has been written by the late Hafiz Rahmat Khan, a chief of the Rohillahs, from which the curious reader may derive much information. They are Muselmans, partly of the Sunni, and partly of the Shiah persuasion. They are great boasters of the antiquity of their origin, and reputation of their tribe; but other Muselmans entirely reject their claim, and consider them of modern and even base extraction. However, their character may be collected from history, they have distinguished themselves by their courage, both singly and unitedly, as principals and auxiliaries. They have conquered for their own princes and for foreigners, and have always been considered the main strength of the army in which they have served. As they have been applauded for virtues, they have also been reproached for vices, having sometimes been guilty of treachery, and even acted the base part of assassins.

A Specimen of the Pushto Language.

By the oppression of tyrannical rulers, Fire, the grave, and *Paishor*, all three have been rendered equal.

With respect to prayers enjoined by the Sunnah, they are remitted.

It is thus expressed in the reports:

If a man perform them, it is very laudable. If he do not perform them, it is no crime in him.

If the disposition be not good, O Mirza, What difference is there between a Sayyed and a Brahman!

NOTE BY THE PRESIDENT.

HIS account of the Afghans may lead to a very interesting discovery. We learn from Esdras. that the ten tribes, after a wandering journey, came to a country called Arsareth; where, we may suppose, they settled. Now the Afghans are said, by the best Persian historians, to be descended from the Jews; they have traditions among themselves of such a descent; and it is even asserted, that their families are distinguished by the names of Jewish tribes, although, since their conversion to the Islam, they studiously conceal their origin: the Pushto language, of which I have seen a dictionary, has a manifest resemblance to the Chaldaic; and a considerable district under their dominion is called Hazareh, or Hazaret, which might easily have been changed into the word used by Esdras. I strongly recommend an inquiry into the literature and history of the Afghans.

V.

REMARKS

ON THE

ISLAND OF HINZUAN, OR JOHANNA.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

HINZUAN (a name which has been gradually corrupted into Anzuame, Anjuan, Juanny, and Johanna) has been governed about two centuries by a colony of Arabs, and exhibits a curious instance of the slow approaches toward civilization, which are made by a small community, with many natural advantages, but with few means of improving them. An account of this African island, in which we hear the language and see the manners of Arabia, may neither be uninteresting in itself, nor foreign to the objects of inquiry proposed at the institution of our Society.

On Monday, the 28th of July, 1783, after a voyage, in the Crocodile, of ten weeks and two days from the rugged islands of Cape Verd, our eyes were delighted with a prospect so beautiful, that neither a painter nor a poet could perfectly represent it, and so cheering to us, that it can justly be conceived by such only as have been in our preceding situation. It was the sun rising in full splendor on the isle of Mayata (as the seamen called it) which we had joyfully distinguished the preceding afternoon by the height of its peak, and which now appeared at no great distance from the windows of our cabin; while Hinzuan, for which we had so long panted, was plainly discernible a head, where its high lands presented themselves with remarkable boldness. The weather was fair, the water smooth; and a

gentle breeze drove us easily before dinner-time round a rock, on which the *Brilliant* struck just a year before, into a commodious road *, where we dropped our anchor early in the evening. We had seen *Mohila*, another sister island, in the course of the day.

The frigate was presently surrounded with canoes. and the deck soon crowded with natives of all ranks, from the high born chief, who washed linen, to the half-naked slave, who only paddled. Most of them had letters of recommendation from Englishmen, which none of them were able to read, though they spoke English intelligibly; and some appeared vain of titles. which our countrymen had given them in play, according to their supposed stations. We had Lords, Dukes, and Princes on board, soliciting our custom and importuning us for presents. In fact, they were too sensible to be proud of empty sounds, but justly imagined, that those ridiculous titles would serve as marks of distinction, and, by attracting notice, procure for them something substantial. The only men of real consequence in the island, whom we saw before we landed, were the Governor Abdullah, second coufin to the king, and his brother Alwi, with their several sons; all of whom will again be particularly mentioned: they understood Arabic, seemed zealots in the Mohammedan faith, and admired my copies of the Alkoran; some verses of which they read, whilst Alwi perused the opening of another Arabian manuscript, and explained it in English more accurately than could have been expected.

The next morning showed us the island in all its beauty; and the scene was so diversified, that a dis-

^{*} Lat. 12° 10' 47" S. Long. 44° 25' 5" E. by the Master.

tinct view of it could hardly have been exhibited by the best pencil: you must, therefore, be satisfied with a mere description, written on the very spot, and compared attentively with the natural landscape. We were at anchor in a fine bay, and before us was a vast amphitheatre, of which you may form a general notion by picturing in your minds a multi-tude of hills infinitely varied in size and figure, and then supposing them to be thrown together, with a kind of artless symmetry, in all imaginable positions. The back ground was a series of mountains, one of which is pointed, near half a mile perpendicularly high from the level of the sea, and little more than three miles from the shore: all of them were richly clothed with wood, chiefly fruittrees, of an exquisite verdure. I had seen many a mountain of a stupendous height in Wales and Swisserland, but never saw one before, round the bosom of which the clouds were almost continually rolling, while its green summit rose flourishing above them, and received from them an additional brightness. Next to this distant range of hills was another tier, part of which appeared charmingly verdant, and part rather barren; but the contrast of colours changed even this nakedness into a Nearer still were innumerable mountains. or rather cliffs, which brought down their verdure and fertility quite to the beach; so that every shade of green, the sweetest of colours, was displayed at one view by land and by water. But nothing conduced more to the variety of this enchanting prospect, than the many rows of palm-trees, especially the tall and graceful Arecas on the shores, in the valleys, and on the ridges of hills, where one might almost suppose them to have been planted regularly by design. A more beautiful appearance can scarce be conceived, than such a number of elegant palms in such a situation, with luxuriant tops. like verdant plumes, placed at just intervals, and

showing between them part of the remoter landscape. while they left the rest to be supplied by the beholder's imagination. The town of Matsamudo lay on our left, remarkable at a distance for the tower of the principal mosque, which was built by Halimah, a queen of the island, from whom the present king is descended: a little on our right was a small town, called Bantani. Neither the territory of Nice, with its olives, date-trees, and cypresses, nor the isles of Hieres, with their delightful orangegroves, appeared so charming to me as the view from the road of Hinzuan; which, nevertheless, is far surpassed, as the Captain of the Crocodile assured us, by many of the islands in the Southern Ocean. If life were not too short for the complete discharge of all our respective duties, public and private, and for the acquisition even of necessary knowledge in any degree of perfection, with how much pleasure and improvement might a great part of it be spent in admiring the beauties of this wonderful orb, and contemplating the nature of man in all its varieties!

We hastened to tread on firm land, to which we had been so long disused, and went on shore, after breakfast, to see the town, and return the Governor's visit. As we walked, attended by a crowd of natives, I surprized them by reading aloud an Arabic inscription over the gate of a mosque, and still more, when I entered it, by explaining four sentences, which were written very distinctly on the wall, signifying, " that " the world was given us for our own edification, not for the purpose of raising sumptuous build-" ings; life, for the discharge of moral and reli-" gious duties, not for pleasureable indulgences; wealth, to be liberally bestowed, not avariciously " hoarded; and learning, to produce good actions, " not empty disputes." We could not but respect the temple even of a false prophet, in which we

found such excellent morality: we saw nothing better among the Romish trumpery in the church at Madeira. When we came to Abdullah's house, we were conducted through a small court-vard into an open room, on each side of which was a large and convenient sofa, and above it a high bed-place in a dark recess, over which a chintz counterpoint hung down from the ceiling. This is the general form of the best rooms in the island; and most of the tolerable houses have a similar apartment on the opposite side of the court, that there may be at all hours a place in the shade for dinner or for repose. We were entertained with ripe dates from Yemen, and the milk of cocoanuts; but the heat of the room, which seemed accessible to all who chose to enter it, and the scent of musk, or civet, with which it was perfumed, soon made us desirous of breathing a purer air; nor could I be detained long by the Arabic manuscripts, which the Governor produced, but which appeared of little use, and consequently of no value, except to such as love mere curiosities. One of them, indeed, relating to the penal law of the Mohammedans, I would gladly have purchased at a just price; but he knew not what to ask; and I knew that better books on that subject might be procured in Bengal. He then offered me a black boy for one of my Alkorans, and pressed me to barter an Indian dress, which he had seen on board the ship, for a cow and calf. The golden slippers attracted him most, since his wife, he said, would like to wear them; and, for that reason, I made him a present of them; but had destined the book and the robe for his superior. No high opinion could be formed of Sayyad Abdullah, who seemed very eager for gain, and very servile where he expected it.

Our next visit was to Shaikh Salim, the king's eldest son; and if we had seen him first, the state Vol. II.

of civilization in Hinzuan would have appeared at its lowest ebb. The worst English hackney in the worst stable is better lodged, and looks more princely than this heir apparent; but though his mien and apparel were extremely savage, yet allowance should have been made for his illness; which, as we afterwards learned, was an abscess in the spleen: a disorder not uncommon in that country, and frequently cured, agreeably to the Arabian practice, by the actual cautery. He was incessantly chewing pieces of the Areca-nut with shell-lime: a custom borrowed, I suppose, from the Indians, who greatly improve the composition with spices and betel-leaves, to which they formerly added camphor: all the natives of rank chewed it, but not, I think, to so great an excess. Prince Salim from time to time gazed at himself with complacency in a piece of broken lookingglass, which was glued on a small board: a specimen of wretchedness, which we observed in no other house; but many circumstances convinced us that the apparently low condition of his royal highness, who was not on bad terms with his father, and seemed not to want authority, proceeded wholly from his avarice. His brother Hamdullah, who generally resides in the town of Domoni, has a very different character, being esteemed a man of worth, good sense, and learning: he had come, the day before, to Matsamudo, on hearing that an English frigate was in the road; and I, having gone out for a few minutes to read an Arabic inscription, found him on my return devouring a manuscript which I had left with some of the company. He is a Kadi or Mohammedan judge; and as he seemed to have more knowledge than his countrymen, I was extremely concerned that I had so little conversation with him. The king, Shaikh Ahmed, has a younger son, named Abdullah, whose usual residence is in the town of Wani, which he seldom leaves, as the state of his health is very infirm. Since the succession to the title and authority of Sultan is not unalterably fixed in one line, but requires confirmation by the chiefs of the island, it is not improbable that they may hereafter be conferred on prince *Hamdullah*.

A little beyond the hole in which Salim received us, was his haram, or the apartment of his women, which he permitted us all to see, not through politeness to strangers, as we believed at first, but as I learned afterwards from his own lips, in expectation of a present. We saw only two or three miserable creatures with their heads covered, while the favourite, as we supposed, stood behind a coarse curtain, and showed her ankles under it, loaded with silver rings; which, if she was capable of reflection, she must have considered as glittering fetters rather than ornaments; but a rational being would have preferred the condition of a wild beast, exposed to perils and hunger in a forest, to the splendid misery of being wife or mistress to Salim.

Before we returned, Alwi was desirous of showing me his books; but the day was too far advanced, and I promised to visit him some other morning. The governor however prevailed on us to see his place in the country, where he invited us to dine the next day. The walk was extremely pleasant from the town to the side of a rivulet, which formed in one part a small pool very convenient for bathing, and thence through groves and alleys to the foot of a hill; but the dining-room was little better than an open barn, and was recommended only by the coolness of its shade. Abdullah would accompany us on our return to the ship, together with two Muftis who spoke Arabic indifferently, and seemed eager to see all my manuscripts; but they were very moderately learned, and gazed with stupid wonder on a fine copy of the Hamasah, and on other collections of ancient poetry.

Early the next morning a black messenger, with a tawny lad as his interpreter, came from prince Salim; who having broken his perspective glass, wished to procure another by purchase or barter. A polite answer was returned, and steps taken to gratify his wishes. As we on our part expressed a desire to visit the king at Domoni, the prince's messenger told us that his master would, no doubt, lend us palanquins (for there was not a horse in the island) and order a sufficient number of his vassals to carry us. whom we might pay for their trouble as we thought just. We commissioned him therefore to ask that favour, and begged that all might be ready for our excursion before sun-rise, that we might escape the heat of the noon, which, though it was the middle of winter, we had found excessive. The boy, whose name was Combo Madi, staid with us longer than his companion: there was something in his look so ingenuous, and in his broken English so simple, that we encouraged him to continue his innocent prattle. He wrote and read Arabic tolerably well, and set down at my desire the names of several towns in the island, which he first told me was properly called Hinzuan. The fault of begging for whatever he liked, he had in common with the governor and other nobles, but hardly in a greater degree: his first petition for some lavender-water was readily granted; and a small bottle of it was so acceptable to him, that if we had suffered him, he would have kissed our feet: but it was not for himfelf that he rejoiced so extravagantly: he told us, with tears starting from his eyes, that his mother would be pleased with it, and the idea of her pleasure seemed to fill him with rapture. Never did I see filial affection more warmly felt, or more tenderly and, in my opinion, unaffectedly expressed; yet this boy was not a favourite of the officers, who thought him artful. His mother's name, he said, was Fatima; and he importuned us to

visit her; conceiving, I suppose, that all mankind must love and admire her. We promised to gratify him; and having made him several presents, permitted him to return. As he reminded me of Aladdin in the Arabian tale, I designed to give him that name in a recommendatory letter, which he pressed me to write, instead of St. Domingo, as some European visiter had ridiculously called him; but, since the allusion would not have been generally known, and since the title of Alau'ldin, or eminence in faith, might have offended his superiors, I thought it advisable for him to keep 'his African name. A very indifferent dinner was prepared for us at the house of the Governor, whom we did not see the whole day, as it was the beginning of Ramadan, the Mohammedan lent, and he was engaged in his devotions, or made them his excuse; but his eldest son sat by us while we dined, together with Musa who was employed, jointly with his brother Husain, as purveyor to the Captain of the frigate.

Having observed a very elegant shrub, that grew about six feet high, in the court-yard, but was not then in flower, I learned with pleasure, that it was hinna, of which I had read so much in Arabian poems, and which European botanists have ridiculously named Lawsonia. Musa bruised some of the leaves, and, having moistened them with water, applied them to our nails and the tips of our fingers, which in a short time became of a dark orange-scarlet. I had before conceived a different idea of this dye, and imagined, that it was used by the Arabs to imitate the natural redness of those parts in young and healthy persons, which in all countries must be considered as a beauty: - perhaps a less quantity of hinna, or the same differently prepared, might have produced that effect. The old men in Arabia used the same dye to conceal their grey hairs, while their daughters were dying their

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lips and gums black, to set off the whiteness of their teeth; so universal in all nations and ages are personal vanity and a love of disguising truth; though in all cases, the farther our species recede from nature, the farther they depart from true beauty; and men at least should disdain to use artifice or deceit for any purpose or on any occasion. If the women of rank at Paris, or those in London who wish to imitate them, be inclined to call the Arabs barbarians, let them view their own head-dresses and cheeks in a glass, and, if they have left no room for blushes, be inwardly at least ashamed of their censure.

In the afternoon I walked a long way up the mountains in a winding path amid plants and trees no less new than beautiful, and regretted exceedingly that very few of them were in blossom, as I should then have had leisure to examine them. Curiosity led from hill to hill; and I came at last to the sources of a rivulet, which we had passed near the shore, and from which the ship was to be supplied with excellent water. I saw no birds on the mountains but Guinea-fowl, which might have been easily caught: no insects were troublesome to me but mosquitos; and I had no fear of venomous having been assured that the air was too pure for any to exist in it; but I was often unwillingly a cause of fear to the gentle and harmless lizard, who ran among the shrubs. On my return I missed the path by which I had ascended; but, having met some blacks laden with yams and plantains, I was by them directed to another, which led me round, through a charming grove of cocoa-trees, to the Governor's country-seat, where our entertainment was closed by a syllabub, which the English had taught the Muselmans to make for them.

We received no answer from Salim; nor, indeed, expected one; since we took for granted that he could not but approve our intention of visiting his father; and we went on shore before sun-rise, in full expectation of a pleasant excursion to Domoni: but we were happily disappointed. The servants, at the prince's door, told us coolly, that their master was indisposed, and, as they believed, asleep; that he had given them no orders concerning his palanquins, and that they durst not disturb him. Alwi soon came to pay us his compliments, and was followed by his eldest son, Ahmed, with whom we walked to the gardens of the two princes Salim and Hamdullah: the situation was naturally good, but wild and desolate; and, in Salim's garden, which we entered through a miserable hovel, we saw a convenient bathing-place, well-built with stone, but then in great disorder, and a shed, by way of summer-house, like that under which we dined at the Governor's, but smaller and less neat. On the ground there lay a kind of cradle. about six feet long, and a little more than one foot in breadth, made of cords twisted in a sort of clumsy net-work, with a long thick bambu fixed to each side of it: this, we heard with surprize, was a royal palanguin, and one of the vehicles in which we were intended to have been rocked on mens shoulders over the mountains. I had much conversation with Ahmed, whom I tound intelligent and communicative: he told me that several of his countrymen composed songs and tunes; that he was himself a passionate lover of poetry and music; and that, if we would dine at his house, he would play and sing to us. We declined his invitation to dinner, as we had made a conditional promise, if ever we passed a day at Matsamudo, to eat our curry with Bana Gibu, an honest man, of whom we purchased eggs and vegetables, and to whom some Englishman had given the title of Lord, which made him extremely vain: we could therefore

make Sayyad Ahmed only a morning visit. He sung a hymn or two in Arabic, and accompanied his drawling, though pathetic, psalmody with a kind of mandoline, which he touched with an awkward quill: the instrument was very imperfect, but seemed to give him delight. The names of the strings were written on it in Arabian or Indian figures, simple and compounded; but I could not think them worth copying. He gave Captain Williamson, who wished to present some literary curiosities to the library at Dublin, a small roll containing a hymn in Arabic letters, but in the language of Mombaza, which was mixed with Arabic; but it hardly deserved examination, since the study of languages has little intrinsic value, and is only useful as the instrument of real knowledge, which we can scarce expect from the poets of the Mozambique. Ahmed would, I believe, have heard our European airs (I always except French melody) with rapture, for his favourite tune was a common Irish jig, with which he seemed wonderfully affected.

On our return to the beach I thought of visiting old Alwi, according to my promise, and prince Salim, whose character I had not then discovered: I resolved for that purpose to stay on shore alone, our dinner with Gibu having been fixed at an early hour. Alwi showed me his manuscripts, which chiefly related to the ceremonies and ordinances of his own religion; and one of them, which I had formerly seen in Europe, was a collection of sublime and elegant hymns in praise of Mohammed, with explanatory notes in the margin. I requested him to read one of them after the manner of the Arabs; and he chanted it in a strain by no means unpleasing; but I am persuaded that he understood it very imperfectly. The room, which was open to the street, was presently crowded with visiters, most of whom were Muftes, or Expounders of the Law; and Alwi, desirous perhaps to display

his zeal before them at the expence of good breeding directed my attention to a passage in a commentary on the Koran, which I found levelled at the Christuans. The commentator, having related with some additions (but on the whole not inaccurately) the circumstances of the temptation, puts this speech into the mouth of the tempter: "Though I am unable to delude thee, yet I will mislead, by thy means, more human creatures than thou wilt set " right." ' Nor was this menace vain, (says the Mohammedan writer) ' for the inhabitants of a region many thousand leagues in extent, are still so deluded by the Devil. hat they impiously call Isa the son of · God! Heaven preserve us,' he adds, ' from blass pheming Christians as well as blaspheming Jews." Although a religious dispute with those obstinate zealots would have been unreasonable and fruitless, yet they deserved, I thought, a slight reprehension, as the attack seemed to be concerted among them. commentator,' said I, was much to blame for passing so indiscriminate and hasty a censure: the title, which gave your legislator and gives you such offence, was often applied in Judea (by a bold figure agreeable to the Hebrew idiom, though unusual in Arabic) to angels, to holy men, and even to all mankind, who are commanded to call God their Father; and in this large sense the apostle, to the Romans, calls the elect the children of God, and the Messiah the first-born among many brethren; but the words only begotten are applied transcendently and incomparably to him alone *; and, as for me who believes the scriptures, which you also profess to believe, f though you assert without proof that we have alf tered them, I cannot refuse him an appellation, though far surpassing our reason, by which he is

^{*} Rom. viii. 29. See 1 John iii. 1. II. Barrow, 231, 232, 251.

distinguished in the Gospel; and the believers in Muhammed, who expressly name him the Messiah, and pronounce him to have been born of a virgin, which alone might fully justify the phrase condemned by this author, are themselves condemnable for cavilling at words, when they cannot object to the substance of our faith consistently with their own. The Muselmans had nothing to say in reply; and the conversation was changed.

I was astonished at the questions which Alwi put to me concerning the late peace and the independence of America; the several powers and resources of Britain and France, Spain and Holland, the character and supposed views of the Emperor, the comparative strength of the Russian, Imperial, and Othman armies, and their respective modes of bringing their forces to action. I answer him without reserve, except on the state of our possessions in India; nor were my answers lost, for I observed, that all the company were variously affected by them, generally with amazement, often with concern, especially when I described to them the great force and admirable discipline of the Austrian army, and the stupid prejudices of the Turks, whom nothing can induce to abandon their old Tartarian habits; and exposed the weakness of their empire in Africa, and even in the more distant provinces of Asia. In return, he gave me clear but general information concerning the government and commerce of his island: "His coun-" try," he said, "was poor, and produced few articles " of trade; but if they could get money, which they " now preferred to play-things," those were his words, "they might easily," he added, "procure foreign " commodities and exchange them advantageously " with their neighbours in the islands and on the " continent. Thus with a little money," said he, " we purchase muskets, powder, balls, cutlasses,

knives, clothes, raw cotton, and other articles brought from Bombay, and with those we trade to " Madagascar for the natural produce of the country or dollars, with which the French buy cattle, " honey butter, and so forth, in that island. With " gold, which we receive from your ships, we can " procure elephants teeth from the natives of Moambique, who barter them also for ammunition " and bars of iron; and the Portugueze in that country give us clothes of various kinds in exchange for our commodities; these cloths we dis-" pose of lucratively in the three neighbouring islands, " whence we bring rice, cattle, a kind of bread-fruit, " which grows in Comara, and slaves, which we buy " also at other places to which we trade; and we carry on this traffic in our own vessels."

Here I could not help expressing my abhorrence of their slave-trade, and asked him by what law they claimed a property in rational beings, since our Creator had given our species a dominion, to be moderately exercised, over the beasts of the field and the fowls of the air, but none to man over man. "By no " law," answered he, " unless necessity be a law. "There are nations in Madagascar and in Africa. " who know neither God nor his prophet, nor Moses, " nor David, nor the Messiah: those nations are in of perpetual war and take many captives, whom, if they could not sell, they would certainly kill. Individuals among them are in extreme poverty, " and have numbers of children, who, if they canof not be disposed of, must perish through hunger, together with their miserable parents. By purchasing these wretches we preserve their lives, and, er perhaps, those of many others whom our money relieves. The sum of the argument is this: If we " buy them they will live; if they become valuable servants, they will live comfortably; but, if they " are not sold, they must die miserably." 'There

* may be,' said I, ' such cases; but you fallaciously draw a general conclusion from a few particular instances; and this is the very fallacy which, on a thousand other occasions, deludes mankind. It is not to be doubted, that a constant and gainful traffic in hu-• man creatures foments war, in which captives are always made, and keeps up that perpetual enmity which you pretend to be the cause of a practice in * itself reprehensible, while in truth it is its effect. The same traffic encourages laziness in some parents. who might in general support their families by prof per industry, and seduces others to stifle their natural feelings. At most, your redemption of those unhappy children can amount only to a personal contract implied between you, for gratitude and reasonable service on their part, for kindness and humanity on yours; but can you think your part e performed by disposing of them against their wills, with as much indifference as if you were selling cattle, especially as they might become readers of the " Koran, and pillars of your faith?" "The law," said he. "forbids our selling them, when they are believers in the Prophet; and little children only are sold; nor they often, or by all masters." 'You, who believe in Muhammed, said I, sare bound by the the spirit and letter of his laws to take pains, that they also may believe in him; and if you nee glect so important a duty for sordid gain, I do onot see how you can hope for prosperity in this world, or for happiness in the next.' My old friend and the Muftis assented, and muttered a few prayers; but probably forgot my preaching before many minutes had passed.

So much time had slipped away in this conversation, that I could make but a short visit to Prince Salim; and my view in visiting him was to fix the time of our journey to Domoni as early as possible on the next morning. His appearance was more savage than ever, and I found him in a disposition to complain bitterly against the English. No acknowledgement, he said, had been made for the kind attentions of himself and the chief men of his country to the officers and people of the Brilliant. though a whole year had elapsed since the wreck. I really wondered at the forgetfulness, to which alone such a neglect could be imputed, and assured him that I would express my opinion both in Bengal and in letters to England. "We have little," said he, " to hope from letters; for, when we have been paid with them instead of money, and have shewn "them on board your ships, we have commonly been treated with disdain, and often with impreca-" tions." I assured him, that either those letters must have been written coldly and by very obscure persons, or shown to very ill-bred men, of whom there were too many in all nations; but that a few instances of rudeness ought not to give him a general prejudice against our national character. "But you," said he, " are a wealthy nation, and we are indigent, er yet, though all our groves of cocoa-trees, our fruits, and our cattle, are ever at your service, you always try to make hard bargains with us for what you chuse to dispose of; and frequently will neither sell nor give those things which we principally want." 'To form,' said I, 'a just opinion of · Englishmen, you must visit us in our own island, or at least India; here we are strangers and travelelers: many of us have no design to trade in any country, and none of us think of trading in Hinzuan, where we stop only for refreshment. The clothes, arms, or instruments, which your may want, are commonly necessary or convenient to us; but, if Sayyad Alwi or his sons were to be strangers in our country, you would have no reason to boast of superior hospitality.' He then showed me, a second time, a part of an old silk vest. with the star of the Order of the Thistle, and begged me to explain the motto; expressing a wish, that the order might be conferred on him by the King of England, in return for his good offices to the English. I represented to him the impossibility of his being gratified, and took occasion to say, that there was more true dignity in their own native titles, than in those of prince, duke, and lord, which had been idly given them, but had no conformity to their manners or the constitution of their government.

This conversation being agreeable to neither of us, I changed it, by desiring that the palanquins and bearers might be ready next morning as early as possible. He answered, that his palanquins were at our service for nothing, but that we must pay him ten dollars for each set of bearers; that it was the stated price, and that Mr. Hastings had paid it when he went to visit the king. This, as I learned afterwards, was false; but, at all events, I knew that he would keep the dollars himself, and give nothing to the bearers, who deserved them better, and whom he would compel to leave their cottages, and toil for his profit. "Can you imagine," I replied, "that we would employ four-and-twenty men to bear us so far on their shoulders without reward-" ing them amply? But since they are freemen (so he had assured me) "and not your slaves, we will pay "them in proportion to their diligence and good beha-"viour; and it becomes neither your dignity nor ours " to make a previous bargain." I showed him an elegant copy of the Koran, which I destined for his father, and described the rest of my present; but he coldly asked, "if that was all?" Had he been king, a purse of dry dollars would have given him more pleasure than the finest or holiest manuscript. Finding him, in conversing on a variety of subjects, utterly void of intelligence or principle, I took my leave, and saw him no more; but promised to let him know for certain whether we should make our intended excursion.

We dined in tolerable comfort, and had occasion, in the course of the day, to observe the manners of the natives in the middle rank, who are called *Banas*, all of whom have slaves constantly at work for them. We visited the mother of *Combomadi*, who seemed in a station but little raised above indigence; and her husband, who was a mariner, bartered an *Arabic treatise* on astronomy and navigation, which he had read, for a sea-compass, of which he well knew the use.

In the morning I had conversed with two very old Arabs of Yemen, who had brought some articles of trade to Hinzuan; and in the afternoon I met another, who had come from Maskat (where at that time there was a civil war) to purchase, if he could, an hundred stand of arms. I told them all that I loved their nation; and they returned my compliment with great warmth, especially the two old men, who were near fourscore, and reminded me of Zohair and Hareth.

So bad an account had been given me of the road over the mountains, that I dissuaded my companions from thinking of the journey, to which the captain became rather disinclined; but as I wished to be fully acquainted with a country which I might never see again, I wrote the next day to Salim, requesting him to lend me one palanquin and to order a sufficient number of men. He sent me no written answer, which I ascribe rather to his incapacity than to rudeness; but the Governor, with Alwa and two of his sons, came on board in the evening, and said, that they had seen my letter; that all should be ready; but that I could not pay less for the men than ten dollars. I said I would pay more, but it should be to the men themselves, according to their behaviour. They returned somewhat dissatisfied, after I had played at chess with Alwi's younger son, in whose manner and address there was something remarkably pleasing.

Before sun-rise, on the 2d of August, I went alone on shore, with a small basket of such provisions as I might want in the course of the day, and with some cushions to make the prince's palanquin at least a tolerable vehicle; but the prince was resolved to receive the dollars to which his men were entitled; and he knew that, as I was eager for the journey, he could prescribe his own terms. Old Alwi met me on the beach, and brought excuses from Salim, who he said was indisposed. He conducted me to his house, and seemed rather desirous of persuading me to abandon my design of visiting the king; but I assured him, that, if the prince would not supply me with proper attendants, I would walk to Domoni with my own servants and a guide. Shaikh Salim, he said, was miserably avaricious, and that he was ashamed of a kinsman with such a disposition; but that he was no less obstinate than covetous; and that, without ten dollars paid in hand, it would be impossible to procure bearers. I then gave him three guineas, which he carried, or pretended to carry to Salim; but returned without the change, alleging that he had no silver, and promising to give me on my return the few dollars that remained. In about an hour the ridiculous vehicle was brought by nine sturdy blacks, who could not speak a word of Arabic, so that I expected no information concerning the country through which I was to travel; but Alwi assisted me in a point of the utmost consequence. 'You cannot go,' said he, 'without an interpreter, for the king speaks only the language of this island; but I have a servant, whose name is Tumuni, a sensible and worthy man, who understands English, and is much esteemed by the king; he is known and valued all over

'Hinzuan. This man shall attend you; and you will soon be sensible of his worth.'

Tumuni desired to carry my basket; and we set out with a prospect of fine weather, but some hours later than I had intended. I walked, by the gardens of the two princes, to the skirts of the town, and came to a little village consisting of several very neat huts made chiefly with the leaves of the cocoa-tree; but the road a little farther was so stony, that I sat in the palanquin, and was borne with perfect safety over some rocks. I then desired my guide to assure the men that I would pay them liberally; but the poor peasants, who had been brought from their farms on the hills, were not perfectly acquainted with the use of money, and treated my promise with indifference.

About five miles from Matsamudo lies the town of Wani, where Shaikh Abdullah, who has already been mentioned, usually resides: I saw it at a distance. and it seemed to be agreeably situated. When I had passed the rocky part of the road, I came to a stony beach where the sea appeared to have lost some ground, since there was a fine sand to the left, and beyond it a beautiful bay, which resembled that of Weymouth, and seemed equally convenient for bathing; but it did not appear to me that the stones over which I was carried had been recently covered with water. Here I saw the frigate, and, taking leave of it for two days, turned from the coast into a fine country very neatly cultivated, and consisting partly of hillocks exquisitely green, partly of plains, which were then in a gaudy dress of rich yellow blossoms. My guide informed me they were plantations of a kind of vetch, which was eaten by the natives. Cottages and farms were interspersed all over this gay champaign, and the whole scene was delightful; but it was soon changed for beauties of a different kind.

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We descended into a cool valley, through which ran a rivulet of perfectly clear water; and there, finding my vehicle uneasy, though from the laughter and merriment of my bearers I concluded them to be quite at their ease, I bade them set me down, and walked before them all the rest of the way. Mountains, clothed with fine trees and flowering fhrubs, presented themselves on our ascent from the vale; and we proceeded for half an hour through pleasant woodwalks, where I regretted the impossibility of loitering a while to examine the variety of new blossoms, which succeeded one another at every step, and the virtues, as well as names, of which seemed familiar to Tumuni. At length we descended into a valley of greater extent than the former: a river or large wintery torrent ran through it, and fell down a steep declivity at the end of it, where it seemed to be lost among rocks. Cattle were grazing on the banks of the river, and the huts of their owners appeared on the hills: a more agreeable spot I had not before seen even in Swisserland or Merionethshire; but it was followed by an assemblage of natural beauties, which I hardly expected to find in a little island twelve degrees to the south of the Line. I was not sufficiently pleased with my solitary journey to discover charms which had no actual existence, and the first effect of the contrast between St. Jago and Hinzuan had ceased; but, without any disposition to give the landscape a high colouring, I may truly say, what I thought at the time, that the whole country which next presented itself, as far surpassed Ermenonville, or Blenheim, or any other imitations of nature, which I had seen in France or England, as the finest bay surpasses an artificial piece of water. Two very high mountains, covered to the summit with the richest verdure, were at some distance on my right hand, and separated from me by meadows diversified with cottages and herds, or by vallies resounding with torrents and waterfalls; on my left was the sea, to which there were beautiful openings from the hills and woods; and the road was a smooth path naturally winding through a forest of spicy shrubs, fruit-trees, and palms. Some high trees were spangled with white blossoms, equal in fragrance to orange-flowers: my guide called them Monongos; but the day was declining so fast that it was impossible to examine them: the variety of fruits, flowers, and birds, of which I had a transient view in this magnificent garden, would have supplied a naturalist with amusement for a month; but I saw no remarkable insect, and no reptile of any kind. The woodland was diversified by a few pleasant glades, and new prospects were continually opened: at length a noble view of the sea burst upon me unexpectedly; and, having passed a hill or two, we came to the beach, beyond which were several hills and cottages. We turned from the shore; and, on the next eminence, I saw the town of Domoni at a little distance below us. I was met by a number of natives, a few of whom spoke Arabic, and thinking it a convenient place for repose, I sent my guide to apprize the king of my intended visit. He returned in half an hour with a polite message; and I walked into the town, which seemed large and populous. great crowd accompanied me; and I was conducted to a house built on the same plan with the best houses at Matsamudo. In the middle of the court-yard stood a large Monongo-tree, which perfumed the air; the apartment on the left was empty; and in that on the right sat the king on a sofa or bench, covered with an ordinary carpet. He rose when I entered, and grasping my hands, placed me near him on the right; but as he could speak only the language of Hinzuan, I had recourse to my friend Tumuni, than whom a readier or more accurate interpreter could not have been found. I presented the king with a very handsome Indian dress of blue silk with golden flowers,

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which had been worn only once at a masquerade, and with a beautiful copy of the Koran, from which I read a few verses to him. He took them with great complacency, and said, he wished I had come by sea, that he might have loaded one of my boats with fruit, and with some of his finest cattle. He had seen me, he said, on board the frigate, where he had been, according to his custom, in disguise, and had heard of me from his son Shaikh Hamdullah. I gave him an account of my journey, and extolled the beauties of his country: he put many questions concerning mine, and professed great regard for our nation. "But I hear," said he, "that you are " a magistrate, and consequently profess peace: why " are you armed with a broad sword?" 'I was a man, I said, before I was a magistrate; and, if it 'should ever happen that law could not protect e me, I must protect myself.' He seemed about sixty years old, had a very cheerful countenance, and great appearance of good-nature mixed with a certain dignity, which distinguished him from the crowd of ministers and officers who attended him. Our conversation was interrupted by notice, that it was the time for evening prayers; and, when he rose, he said "this house is yours, and I will visit you in it, after "you have taken some refreshment." Soon after, his servants brought a roast fowl, a rice pudding, and some other dishes, with papayas and very good pomegranates; my own basket supplied the rest of my supper. The room was hung with old red cloth, and decorated with pieces of porcelain and festoons of English bottles; the lamps were placed on the ground in large sea-shells; and the bed-place was a recess, concealed by a chintz hanging, opposite to the sofa, on which we had been sitting. Though it was not a place that invited repose, and the gnats were inexpressibly troublesome, yet the fatigue of the day procured me very comfortable slumber. I was waked

by the return of the king and his train; some of whom were Arabs, for I heard one of them say huwa rakid, or, he is sleeping. There was immediate silence, and I passed the night with little disturbance, except from the unwelcome songs of the mosquitos. morning all was equally silent and solitary; the house appeared to be deserted; and I began to wonder what had become of Tumuni: he came at length with concern on his countenance, and told me that the bearers had run away in the night; but that the king, who wished to see me in another of his houses, would supply me with bearers, if he could not prevail on me to stay till a boat could be sent for. I went immediately to the king, whom I found sitting on a raised sofa in a large room, the walls of which were adorned with sontences from the Koran in very legible characters: about fifty of his subjects were seated on the ground in a semicircle before him; and my interpreter to his place in the midst of them. The good old king laughed heartily, when he heard the adventure of the night, and said, " you will now be my "guest for a week, I hope; but, seriously, if you " must return soon, I will send into the country for " some peasants to carry you." He then apologized for the behaviour of Shaikh Salim, which he had heard from Tumuni, who told me afterwards that he was much displeased with it, and would not fail to express his displeasure. He concluded with a long harangue on the advantage which the English might derive from sending a ship every year from Bombay to trade with his subjects, and on the wonderful cheapness of their commodities, especially of their cowries. Ridiculous as this idea might seem, it showed an enlargement of mind, a desire of promoting the interest of his people, and a sense of the benefits arising from trade, which could hardly have been expected from a petty African chief, and which, if he had

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been sovereign of Yemen, might have been expanded into rational projects proportioned to the extent of his dominions. I answered, that I was imperfectly acquainted with the commerce of India; but that I would report the substance of his conversation, and would ever bear testimony of his noble zeal for the good of his country, and to the mildness with which he governed it. As I had no inclination to pass a second night in the island, I requested leave to return without waiting for bearers: he seemed very sincere in pressing me to lengthen my visit, but had too much Arabian politeness to be importunate. We therefore parted; and at the request of Tumuni, who assured me that little time would be lost in showing attention to one of the worthiest men in Hinzuan, I made a visit to the Governor of the town, whose name was Mutekka: his manners were very pleasing, and he showed me some letters from the officers of the Brilliant. which appeared to flow warm from the heart, and contained the strongest eloge of his courtesy and liberality. He insisted on filling my basket with some of the finest pomegranates I had ever seen; and I left the town, impressed with a very favourable opinion of the king and his governor. When I reascended the hill, attended by many of the natives, one of them told me in Arabic, that I was going to receive the highest mark of distinction that it was in the king's power to show me; and he had scarce ended, when I heard the report of a single gun: Shaikh Ahmed had saluted me with the whole of his ordnance. I waved my hat, and said Allah Acbar: the people shouted, and I continued my journey, not without fear of inconvenience from excessive heat, and the fatigue of climbing rocks. The walk, however, was not on the whole unpleasant: I sometimes rested in the valleys, and forded all the rivulets, which refreshed me with

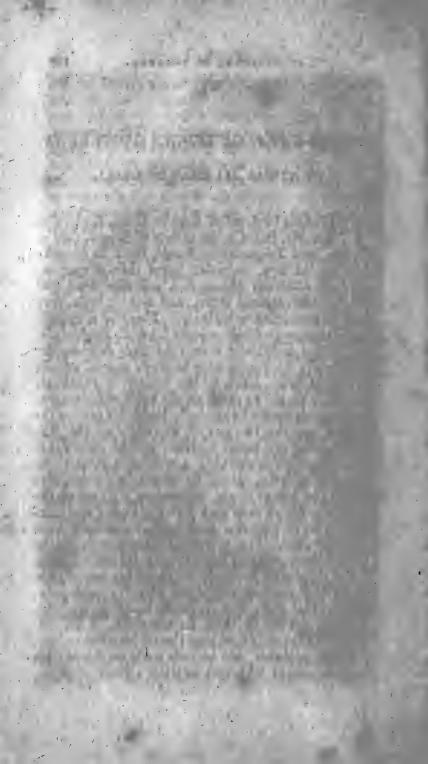
their coolness, and supplied me with exquisite water to mix with the juice of my pomegranates, and occasionally with brandy. We were overtaken by some peasants, who came from the hills by a nearer way, and brought the king's present of a cow with her calf, and a she-goat with two kids: they had apparently been selected for their beauty, and were brought safe to Bengal. The prospects, which had so greatly delighted me the preceding day, had not lost their charms, though they wanted the recommendation of novelty; but I must confess, that the most delightful object in that day's walk, of near ten miles, was the Black Frigate, which I discerned at sunset from a rock near the prince's gardens. Close to the town I was met by a native, who, perceiving me to be weary, opened a very fine cocoa-nut, which afforded a delicious draught: he informed me, that one of his countrymen had been punished that afternoon for a theft on board the Crocodile, and added, that, in his opinion, the punishment was no less just than the offence was disgraceful to his country. The offender, as I afterwards learned, was a youth of good family, who had married a daughter of old Alwi, but, being left alone for a moment in the cabin, and seeing a pair of blue Morocco slippers, could not resist the temptation, concealed them so ill under his gown, that he was detected with the mainer. This proves, that no principle of honour is instilled by education into the gentry of this island: even Alwi, when he had observed that, "in the month of Ramadan, it was " not lawful to paint with hinna, or to tell lies," and when I asked, whether both were lawful all the rest of the year, answered, that "lies were innocent, if no " man was injured by them." Tumuni took his leave, as well satisfied as myself with our excursion. I told him, before his master, that I transferred also to him the dollars, which were due to me out of the three guineas; and that, if ever they should part, I should

be very glad to receive him into my service in India. Mr. Roberts, the master of the ship, had passed the day with Sayyad Ahmed, and had learned from him a few curious circumstances concerning the government of Hinzuan; which he found to be a monarchy limited by aristocracy. The king, he was told, had no power of making war by his own authority; but, if the assembly of nobles, who were from time to time convened by him, resolved on a war with any of the neighbouring islands, they defrayed the charges of it by voluntary contributions, in return for which they claimed as their own all the booty and captives that might be taken. The hope of gain or the want of slaves is usually the real motives for such enterprizes, and ostensible pretexts are easly found. At that very time he understood they meditated a war, because they wanted hands for the following harvest. Their fleet consisted of sixteen or seventeen small vessels, which they manned with about two thousand five hundred islanders armed with muskets and cutlasses, or with bows and arrows. Near two years had elapsed before they had possessed themselves of two towns in Mayata, which they still kept and garrisoned. The ordinary expences of the government were defrayed by a tax from two hundred villages; but the three principal towns were exempt from all taxes, except that they paid annually to the chief Mufti a fortieth part of the value of all their moveable property; and from that payment neither the king nor the nobles claimed an exemption. The kingly authority, by the principles of their consitution, was considered elective, though the line of succession had not been altered since the first election of a sultan. He was informed that a wandering Arab, who had settled in the island, had, by his intrepidity in several wars, acquired the rank of a chieftain, and afterwards of a king with limited powers; and that he was the grandfather of Shaikh Ahmed. I had been assured that Queen

Halimah was his grandmother; and, that he was the sixth king; but it must be remarked, that the words jedd and jeddah in Arabic are used for a male and female ancestor indefinitely; and, without a correct pedigree of Ahmed's family, which I expected to procure but was disappointed, it would scarce be possible to ascertain the time when his forefather obtained the highest rank in the government. In the year 1000 Captain John Davis, who has written an account of his voyage, found Mayata governed by a king, and Ansuame, or Hinzuan, by a queen, who showed him great marks of friendship. He anchored before the town of Demos (does he mean Domoni?) which was as large, he says, as Plymouth; and he concludes, from the ruins around it, that it had once been a place of strength and grandeur. I can only say, that I observed no such ruins. Fifteen years after, Captain Peyton and Sir Thomas Roe touched at the Comara islands; and, from their several accounts, it appears that an old sultaness at that time resided in Hinzuan, but had a dominion paramount over all the isles, three of her sons governing Mohila in her name. If this be true, Sohaili and the successors of Halimah must have lost their influence over the other islands: and, by renewing their dormant claim as it suits their convenience, they may always be furnished with a pretence for hostilities. Five generations of eldest sons would account for an hundred and seventy of the years which have elapsed since Davis and Peyton found Hinzuan ruled by a sultaness; and Ahmed was of such an age, that his reign may be reckoned equal to a generation. It is probable, on the whole, that Halimah was the widow of the first Arabian king, and that her mosque has been continued in repair by his descendants; so that we may reasonably suppose two centuries to have passed since a single Arab had the courage and address to establish in that beautiful island a form of government, which,

though bad enough in itself, appears to have been administered with advantage to the original inhabitants. We have lately heard of civil commotions in Hinzuan, which, we may venture to pronounce, were not excited by any cruelty or violence of Ahmed, but were probably occasioned by the insolence of an oligarchy naturally hostile to king and people. That the mountains in the Comara islands contain diamonds, and the precious metals, which are studiously concealed by the policy of the several governments, may be true, though I have no reason to believe it, and have only heard it asserted without evidence; but I hope, that neither an expectation of such treasures, nor of any other advantage, will ever induce an European power to violate the first principles of justice by assuming the sovereignty of Hinzuan, which cannot answer a better purpose than that of supplying our fleets with seasonable refreshment; and, although the natives have an interest in receiving us with apparent cordiality, yet, if we wish their attachment to be unfeigned and their dealings just, we must set them an example of strict honesty in the performance of our engagements. In truth, our nation is not cordially loved by the inhabitants of Hinzuan, who, as it commonly happens, form a general opinion from a few instances of violence or breach of faith. Not many years ago an European, who had been hospitably received and liberally supported at Matsamudo, behaved rudely to a young married woman, who, being of low degree, was walking veiled through a street in the evening. Her husband ran to protect her, and resented the rudeness, probably with menaces, possibly with actual force; and the European is said to have given him a mortal wound with a knife or bayonet, which he brought, after the scuffle, from his lodging. This foul murder, which the law of nature would have justified the magistrate in punishing with death, was reported

to the king, who told the governor (and I use the very words of Alwi) that " I would be wiser to hush it up." Alwi mentioned a civil case of his own. which ought not to be concealed. When he was on the coast of Africa, in the dominions of a very savage prince, a small European vessel was wrecked; and the prince not only seized all that could be saved from the week, but claimed the captain and the crew as his slaves, and treated them with ferocious insolence. Alwi assured me, that, when he heard of the accident, he hastened to the prince, fell prostrate before him, and by tears and importunity prevailed on him to give the Europeans their liberty; that he supported them at his own expence, enabled them to build another vessel, in which they sailed to Hinzuan, and departed thence for Europe or India. He showed me the Captain's promissory notes for sums, which to an African trader must be a considerable object, but which are no price for liberty, safety, and, perhaps, life, which his good though disinterested offices had procured. I lamented that, in my situation, it was wholly out of my power to assist Alwi in obtaining justice; but he urged me to deliver an Arabic letter from him, inclosing the notes, to the Governor General, who, as he said, knew him well: and I complied with his request. Since it is possible that a substantial defence may be made by the person thus accused of injustice, I will not name either him or the vessel which he had commanded; but, if he be living, and if this paper should fall into his hands, he may be induced to reflect how highly it imports our national honour, that a people whom we call savage, but who administer to our convenience, may have no just cause to reproach us with a violation of our contracts.



ON THE BAYA, OR INDIAN GROSS-BEAK.

BY AT'HAR ALI KHAN OF DEHLI.

THE little bird, called Baya in Hindi, Berbera in Sanscrit, Babui in the dialect of Bengal, Cibu in Persian, and Tenawwit in Arabic, from his remarkably pendent nest, is rather larger than a sparrow, with yellow-brown plumage, a yellowish head and feet, a light coloured breast, and a conic beak, very thick in proportion to his body. This bird is exceedingly common in Hindustan: he is astonishingly sensible, faithful, and docile, never voluntarily deserting the place where his young were hatched, nowise averse, like most other birds, to the society of mankind, and easily taught to perch on the hand of his master. In a state of nature he generally builds his nest on the highest tree that he can find, especially on the Palmyra, or on the Indian fig-tree; and he prefers that which happens to overhang a well or a rivulet: he makes it of grass, which he weaves like cloth, and shapes like a large bottle, suspending it firmly on the branches, but so as to rock with the wind; and placing it with its entrance downwards, to secure it from birds of prey. His nest usually consists of two or three chambers; and it is the popular belie that he lights them with fire-flies, which he catches alive at night and confines with moist clay, or with cowdung: that such flies are often found in his nest, where pieces of cow-dung are also stuck, is indubitable; but, as their light could be of little use to him, it seems probable that he only feeds on them. He may be taught with ease to fetch a piece of paper,

or any small thing that his master points out to him. It is an attested fact, that, if a ring be dropped into a deep well, and a signal given to him, he will fly down with amazing celerity, catch the ring before it touches the water, and bring it up to his master with apparent exultation; and it is confidently asserted. that, if a house or any other place be shown to him once or twice, he will carry a note thither immediately on a proper signal being made. One instance of his docility I can myself mention with confidence, having often been an eye-witness of it: the young Hindu women at Banares and in other places wear very thin plates of gold, called ticas, slightly fixed, by way of ornament, between their eye-brows; and, when they pass through the streets, it is not uncommon for the youthful libertines, who amuse themselves with training Bayas, to give them a sign which they understand, and send them to pluck the pieces of gold from the foreheads of their mistresses, which they bring in triumph to the lovers. The Baya feeds naturally on grasshoppers and other insects, but will subsist, when tame, on pulse macerated in water. His flesh is warm and drying, of easy digestion, and recommended, in medical books, as a solvent of stone in the bladder or kidneys; but of that virtue there is no sufficient proof. The female lays many beautiful eggs, resembling large pearls: the white of them, when they are boiled, is transparent, and the flavour of them is exquisitely delicate. When many Bayas are assembled on a high tree, they make a lively din, but it is rather chirping than singing; their want of musical talents is, however, amply supplied by their wonderful sagacity, in which they are not excelled by any feathered inhabitants of the

- Trueton in

ON THE CHRONOLOGY OF THE HINDUS.

WRITTEN IN JANUARY 1788,

BY THE PRESIDENT.

THE great antiquity of the Hindus is believed so firmly by themselves, and has been the subject of so much conversation among Europeans, that a short view of their Chronological System, which has not yet been exhibited from certain authorities, may be acceptable to those who seek truth without partiality to received opinions, and without regarding any consequences that may result from their inquiries. The consequences, indeed, of truth cannot but be desireable, and no reasonable man will apprehend any danger to society from a general diffusion of its light; but we must not suffer ourselves to be dazzled by a false glare, nor mistake enigmas and allegories for historical verity. Attached to no system, and as much disposed to reject the Mosaic history, if it be proved erroneous, as to believe it, if it be confirmed by sound reasoning from indubitable evidence, I propose to lay before you a concise account of Indian Chronology, extracted from Sanscrit books, or collected from conversations with Pandits, and to subjoin a few remarks on their system, without attempting to decide a question, which I shall venture to start, "Whether it is not in fact the same with our " own, but embellished and obscured by the fancy of their poets and the riddles of their astronomers ?"

One of the most curious books in Sanscrit, and one of the oldest after the Vedas, is a tract on religious and civil duties, taken, as it is believed, from the oral instructions of Menu, son of Brahma, to the. first inhabitants of the earth. An exceeding wellcollated copy of this most interesting law-tract is now before me; and I begin my dissertation with a few couplets from the first chapter of it: " The sun causes the division of day and night, which are " of two sorts, those of men and those of the Gods; the day, for the labour of all creatures in "their several employments; the night for their slumber. A month is a day and night of the of patriarchs; and it is divided into two parts; the bright half is their day for laborious exertions; the dark half, their night for sleep. A year is a day and night of the Gods; and that is also divided into two halves; the day is, when the sun moves " toward the north; the night, when it moves to-" ward the south. Learn now the duration of a " night and day of Brahma with that of the ages respectively and in order. Four thousand years " of the Gods they call the Crita (or Satya) age; and its limits at the beginning and at the end are, in like manner, as many hundreds. In the three " successive ages, together with their limits at the " beginning and end of them, are thousands and " hundreds diminished by one. This aggregate of " four ages, amounting to twelve thousand divine " years, is called an age of the Gods; and a thou-" sand such divine ages added together must be considered as a day of Brahma: his night has also the "same duration. The before mentioned age of the Gods, or twelve thousand of their years, multi-" plied by seventy-one, form what is named here below a Manwantara. There are alternate creations and destructions of worlds through innumer-" able Manwantaras: the Being supremely desir-" able performs all this again and again."

Such is the arrangement of infinite time, which the Hindus believe to have been revealed from Hea. ven, and which they generally understand in a literal sense: it seems to have intrinsic marks of being purely astronomical; but I will not appropriate the observations of others, nor anticipate those in particular, which have been made by two or three of our members, and which they will, I hope, communicate to the Society. A conjecture, however, of Mr. Paterson has so much ingenuity in it, that I cannot forbeat mentioning it here, especially as it seems to be confirmed by one of the couplets just cited: he supposes, that, as a month of mortals is a day and night of the patriarchs, from the analogy of its bright and dark halves, so, by the same analogy, a day and night of mortals might have been considered by the ancient Hindus as a month of the lower world; and then a year of such months will consist only of twelve days and nights, and thirty such years will compose a lunar year of mortals; whence he surmises that the four million three hundred and twenty thousand years, of which the four Indian ages are supposed to consist, mean only years of twelve days; and, in fact, that sum divided by thirty, is reduced to an hundred and forty-four thousand: now a thousand four hundred and forty years are one pada, a period in the Hindu astronomy; and that sum multiplied by eighteen, amounts precisely to twenty-five thousand nine hundred and twenty, the number of years in which the fixed stars appear to perform their long revolution eastward. The last mentioned sum is the product also of an hundred and forty-four, which, according to M. Bailly, was an old Indian cycle, into an hundred and eighty, or the Tartarian period, called Van, and of two thousand eight hundred and eighty into nine, which is not one only of the lunar cycles, but considered by the Hindus as a mysterious number and an emblem of Divinity, because, if it be multiplied by any other

I

whole number, the sum of the figures in the different products remain always nine, as the Deity, who appears in many forms, continues One immutable essence. The important period of twenty-five thousand nine hundred and twenty years is well known to arise from the multiplication of three hundred and sixty into seventy-two, the number of years in which a fixed star seems to move through a degree of a great circle; and, although M. Le Gentil assures us, that the modern Hindus believe a complete revolution of the stars to be made in twenty-four thousand years, or fifty-four seconds of a degree to be passed in one year, yet we may have reason to think that the old Indian astronomers had made a more accurate calculation, but concealed their knowledge from the people under the veil of fourteen Manwantaras, seventyone divine ages, compound cycles, and years of different sorts, from those of Brahma to those of Patala, or the infernal regions. If we follow the analogy suggested by Menu, and suppose only a day and night to be called a year, we may divide the number of years in a divine age by three hundred and sixty, and the quotient will be twelve thousand, or the number of his divine years in one age: but, conjecture apart, we need only compare the two periods 4320000 and 25020, and we shall find, that among their common divisors, are 6, 9, 12 &c. 18, 36, 72, 144, &c.; which numbers with their several multiples, especially in a decuple progression, constitute some of the most celebrated periods of the Chaldeans, Greeks, Tartars, and even of the Indians. We cannot fail to observe, that the number 432, which appears to be the basis of the Indian system, is a 60th part of 25020, and, by continuing the comparison we might probably solve the whole enigma. In the preface to a Varanes Almanac I find the following wild stanza: "A thousand Great Ages are a day of Brahma; a thousand such days are an Indian hour

of Vishnu: six hundred thousand such hours make " a period of Rudra; and a million of Rudras " (or two quadrillions five hundred and ninety-two "thousand trillions of lunar years) are but a second " to the Supreme Being." The Hindu theologians deny the conclusion of the stanza to be orthodox: "Time," they say, " exists not at all with God;" and they advise astronomers to mind their own business, without meddling with theology. The astronomical verse, however, will answer our present purpose; for it shows, in the first place, that cyphers are added at pleasure to swell the periods; and, if we take ten. cyphers from a Rudra, or divide by ten thousand millions, we shall have a period of 250200000 years, which, divided by 60 (the usual divisor of time among the Hindus) will give 4320000, or a Great Age, which we find subdivided in the proportion of 4, 3, 2, 1, from the notion of virtue decreasing arithmetically in the golden, silver, copper, and earthen ages. But, should it be thought improbable that the Indian astronomers in very early times had made more accurate observations than those of Alexandria, Bagdad, or Maraghah, and still more improbable that they should have relapsed with apparent cause into error, we may suppose that they formed their divine age by an arbitrary multiplication of 24000 by 180, according to Le Gentil, or of 21600 by 200, according to the comment on the Surya Siddhanta. Now, as it is hardly possible that such coincidences should be accidental, we may hold it nearly demonstrated, that the period of a divine age was at first nierely astronomical, and may consequently reject it from our present inquiry into the . historical or civil chronology of India. Let us, however, proceed to the avowed opinions of the Hindus, and see, when we have ascertained their system, whether we can reconcile it to the course of nature and the common sense of mankind.

The aggregate of their four ages they call a divine age, and believe that, in every thousand such ages, or in every day of Brahma, fourteen Menas are successively invested by him with the sovereignty of the earth: each Menu, they suppose, transmits his empire to his sons and grandsons during a period of seventyone divine ages; and such a period they name a Manwantara; but, since fourteen multiplied by seventy-one are not quite a thousand, we must conclude that six divine ages are allowed for intervals between the Manwantaras, or for the twilight of Brahma's day. I hirty such days, or Calpas, constitute, in their opinion, a month of Brahma; twelve such months. one of his years; and an hundred such years, his age; of which age they assert, that fifty years have elapsed. We are now then, according to the Hindus in the first day or Calpa of the first month of the fifty-first year of Brahma's age, and in the twentyeighth divine age of the seventh Manwantara, of which divine age the three first human ages have passed, and four thousand eight hundred and eightyeight of the fourth.

In the present day of Brahma the first Menu was surnamed Swayambhuva, or son of the self-existent; and it is he by whom the institutes of religious and civil duties are supposed to have been delivered. In his time the Deity descended at a sacrifice, and, by his wife Satarupa, he had two distinguished sons, and three daughters. This pair were created for the multiplication of the human species, after that new creation of the world which the Brahmans call Padmacalpiya, or the Lotos-creation.

If it were worth while to calculate the age of Menu's institutes, according to the Brahmans, we must multiply four million three hundred and twenty thousand by six times seventy-one, and add to the

product the number of years already past in the seventh Manwantara. Of the five Menus who succeeded him, I have seen little more than the names; but the Hindu writings are very diffuse on the life and posterity of the seventh Menu, surnamed Vaivaswata, or Child of the Sun: he is supposed to have had ten sons, of whom the eldest was Icshwacu; and to have been accompanied by seven Rishis. or holy persons, whose names were, Casyapa, Atri, Vasishtha, Viswamitra, Gautama, Jamadagni, and Bharadwaja; an account which explains the opening of the fourth chapter of the Gita: " This im-" mutable system of devotion," says Crishna, " I " revealed to Vivaswat, or the Sun; Vivaswat declared it to his son Menu; Menu explained it to Icshwacu: thus the chief Rishis know " this sublime doctrine delivered from one to another."

In the reign of this sun born monarch, the Hindus believe the whole earth to have been drowned, and the whole human race destroyed by a flood, except the pious prince himself, the seven Rishis, and their several wives; for they suppose his children to have been born after the deluge. This general praylaya, or destruction, is the subject of the first Purana, or sacred poem, which consists of fourteen thousand stanzas; and the story is concisely, but clearly and elegantly, told in the eighth book of the Bhagawata, from which I have abstracted the whole, and translated it with great care, but will only present you here with an abridgment of it. "The demon Hayagriva having purloined the " Vedas from the custody of Brahma, while he was " reposing at the close of the sixth Manwantara, " the whole race of men became corrupt, except " the seven Rishis and Satyavata, who then reigned

" in Dravira, a maritime region to the south of Carnata: this prince was performing his ablutions " in the river Critamala, when Vishnu appeared to " him in the shape of a small fish, and, after seve-" ral augmentations of bulk in different waters, " was placed by Satyavrata in the ocean, where " he thus addressed his amazed votary: " In seven days all creatures, who have offended me, shall be " destroyed by a deluge, but thou shalt be secured " in a capacious vessel miraculously formed: take " therefore all kinds of medicinal herbs and esculent " grain for food, and, together with the seven holy " men, your respective wives, and pairs of all ani-" mals, enter the ark without fear; then shalt thou " know God face to face, and all thy questions shall " be answered." Saying this, he disappeared; and after seven days, the ocean ' began to overflow the coasts, and the earth to be flooded by constant showers, when Satyavrata, meditating on the Deity, saw a large vessel moving on the waters: ! he entered it, having in all respects conformed to the instructions of Vishnu; who, in the form of a vast fish, suffered the vessel to be tied with a great sea-serpent, as with a cable, to his measureless horn. When the deluge had ceased, Vishnu slew the demon, and recovered the Vedas, instructed "Satyavrata in divine knowledge, and appointed him the seventh Menu by the name of Vaivaswata? Let us compare the two Indian accounts of the Creation and the Deluge with those delivered by Moses. It is not made a question in this tract, whether the first chapters of Genesis are to be understood in a literal, or merely in an allegorical sense; the only points before us are, whether the creation described by the first Menu, which the Brahmans call that of the Lotos, be not the same with that recorded in our Scripture; and whether the story of the seventh Menu be not one and the same with that of Noah. I propose the questions, but affirm nothing; leaving others to settle their opinions, whether Adam be derived from adim, which in Sanserit means the first; or Menu from Nuh, the true name of the patriarch; whether the sacrifice, at which God is believed to have descended, alludes to the offering of Abel; and, on the whole, whether the two Menus can mean any other persons than the great progenitor, and the restorer of our species.

On a supposition that Vaivaswata, or sun-born, was the Noah of Scripture, let us proceed to the Indian account of his posterity, which I extract from the Puranart'haprecasa, or The Puranas Explained: a work lately composed in Sanscrit by Radhacanta Sarman, a Pandit of extensive learning and great fame among the Hindus of this province. Before we examine the genealogies of kings, which he has collected from the Puranas, it will be necessary to give a general idea of the avataras, or descents, of the Deity. The Hindus believe innumerable such descents or special interpositions of Providence in the affairs of mankind, but they reckon ten principal avataras in the current period of four ages; and all of them are described, in order as they are supposed to occur, in the following Ode of Jayadeva, the great lyric poet of India.

- 1. "Thou recoverest the Veda in the water of the ocean of destruction, placing it joyfully in the bosom of an ark fabricated by thee, O Cesava, assuming the body of a fish. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!
- 2. "The earth stands firm on thy immensely broad back, which grows larger from the callus.

occasioned by bearing that vast burden, O Cesave, assuming the body of a tortoise. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!

- 3. "The earth, placed on the point of thy tusk, remains fixed like the figure of a black antelope on the moon, O Cesava, assuming the form of a boar. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!
- 4. "The claw with a stupendous point, on the exquisite lotos of thy lion's paw, is the black bee that stung the body of the embowelled Hiranyacasipu, O Cesava, assuming the form of a man-lion. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe.
- 5. "By thy power thou beguilest Bali, O thou miraculous dwarf, thou purifier of men with the water (of Ganga) springing from thy feet, O Cesava, assuming the form of a dwarf. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!
- 6. "Thou bathest in pure water, consisting of the blood of Cshatriyas, the world, whose offences are removed, and who are relieved from the pain of other births, O Cesava, assuming the form of Parasu-Rama. Be victorious, O Ileri, lord of the universe!
- 7. "With ease to thyself, with delight to the Genii of the eight regions, thou scatterest on all sides in the plain of combat the demon with ten heads, O Cesava, assuming the form of Rama Chandra, Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!
 - 8. 55 Thou wearest on thy bright body a mantle

shining like a blue cloud, or like the water of Yamuna tripping towards thee through fear of thy furrowing ploughshare, O Cesava, assuming the form of Balla Rama. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!

- 9. "Thou blamest (Oh, wonderful!) the whole Veda, when thou seest, O kind-hearted, the slaughter of cattle prescribed for sacrifice, O Cesava, assuming the body of Buddha. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!
- o. "For the destruction of all the impure thou drawest thy cimeter like a blazing comet (how tremendous!) O Cesava, assuming the body of Calci. Be victorious, O Heri, lord of the universe!"

These ten Avataras are by some arranged according to the thousands of divine years in each of the four ages, or in an arithmetical proportion from four to one; and, if such an arrangement were universally received, we should be able to ascertain a very material point in the Hindu chronology; I mean the birth of Buddha, concerning which the different Pandits, whom I have consulted, and the same Pandits at different times, have expressed a strange diversity of opinion. They all agree that Calci is yet to come, and that Buddha was the last considerable incarnation of the Deity; but the astronomers at Varanes place him in the third age, and Radhacant insists that he appeared after the thousandth year of the fourth. The learned and accurate author of the Dabistan, whose information concerning the Hindus is wonderfully correct, mentions an opinion of the Pandits, with whom he had conversed, that Buddha began his career ten years before the close of the third age; and Go-verdhaua of Cashmir, who had once informed me that Crishna descended two centuries before Buddha.

assured me lately that the Cashmirians admitted an interval of twenty-four years (others allow only twelve) between these two divine persons. The best authority, after all, is the Bhagawat itself, in the first chapter of which it is expressly declared, that "Bud-" dha, the son of Jina, would appear at Cicata for the purpose of confounding the demons, just at " the beginning of the Caliyug." I have long been convinced, that, on these subjects, we can only reason satisfactorily from written evidence, and that our forensick rule must be invariably applied to take the declarations of the Brahmans most strongly against themselves; that is, against their pretensions to antiquity; so that, on the whole, we may safely place Buddha just at the beginning of the present age: but what is the beginning of it? When this question was proposed to Radhacant, he answered, "Of a period com-" prising more than four hundred thousand years, "the first two or three thousand may reasonably be " called the beginning." On my demanding written evidence, he produced a book of some authority, composed by a learned Goswami, and entitled Bhagawatamarita, or the Nectar of the Bhagawat, on which it is a metrical comment; and the couplet which he read from it deserves to be cited. After the just mentioned account of Buddha in the text, the commentator says,

Asau vyactah calerabdasahasradwitaye gate, Murtih patalaverna'sya dwibhuja chicurojj'hita.

Cicata, named in the text as the birth-place of

He became visible, the-thousand-and-second-year-ofthe-Cali-age being past; his body of-a-colour-be-

^{&#}x27; tween-white and ruddy, with-two-arms, without-

hair on his head?

Buddha, the Goswami supposes to have been Dhermaranya, a wood near Gaya, where a colossal image of that ancient deity still remains. It seemed to me of black stone: but, as I saw it by torch-light, I cannot be positive as to its colour, which may indeed have been changed by time.

The Brahmans universally speak of the Bauddhas with all the malignity of an intolerant spirit; yet the most orthodox among them consider Buddha himself as an incarnation of Vishnu. This is a contradiction hard to be reconciled, unless we cut the knot, instead of untying it, by supposing with Giorgi, that there were two Buddhas, the younger of whom established the new religion, which gave so great offence in India, and was introduced into China in the first century of our æra. The Cashmirian before mentioned asserted this fact, without being led to it by any question that implied it; and we may have reason to suppose that Buddha is in truth only a general word for a Philosopher. The author of a celebrated Sanscrit Dictionary, entitled from his name Amaracosha, who was himself a Bauddha, and flourished in the first century before Christ, begins his vocabulary with nine words that signify heaven, and proceeds to those which mean a deity in general; after which come different classes of Gods, Demigods, and Demons, all by generic names; and they are followed by two very remarkable heads; first (not the general names of Buddha, but) the names of a Buddha-in-general of which he gives us eighteen, such as Muni, Sastri, Munindra, Vinayaca, Samantabhadra, Dhermaraja, Sugata, and the like; most of them significative of excellence, wisdom, virtue, and sanctity; secondly, the names of a particular-Buddha-Muni-who-descendedin-the-family-of-Sacya (these are the very words of the original) and his titles are, Sacyanuni, Sacyasinha,

Servart'hasiddha, Saudhodani, Gautama, Arcabandhu, or Kinsman of the Sun, and Mayadevisuta, or Child of Maya. Thence the author passes to the different epithets of particular Hindu deities. When I pointed out this curious passage to Radhacant, he contended that the first eighteen names were general epithets, and the following seven proper names, or patronymics of one and the same person; but Ramulochan, my own teacher, who though not a Brahman is an excellent scholar and a very sensible unprejudiced man. assured me that Buddha was a generic word, like Deva, and that the learned author, having exhibited the names of a Devata in genearl, proceeded to those of a Buddha in general, before he came to particulars: he added, that Buddha might mean a Sage or Philosopher, though Budha was the word commonly used for a mere wise man without supernatural powers. It seems highly probable, on the whole, that the Buddha, whom Jayadeva celebrates in his Hymn, was the Sacyasinha, or Lion of Sacya, who, though he forbade the sacrifices of cattle, which the Vedas enjoin, was believed to be Vishnu himself in a human form. and that another Buddha, one perhaps of his followers in a later age, assuming his name and character, attempted to overset the whole system of the Brahmans, and was the cause of that persecution, from which the Bauddhas are known to have fled into very distant regions. May we not reconcile the singular difference of opinion among the Hindus as to the time of Buddha's appearance, by supposing that they have confounded the two Buddhas, the first of whom was born a few years before the close of the last age, and the second, when above a thousand years of the present age had elapsed? We know from better authorities, and with as much certainty as can justly be expected on so doubtful a subject, the real time, compared with our own æra, when the ancient Buddha began to distinguish himself; and it is for this reason principally that I have dwelt with minute anxiety on the subject of the last Avatar.

The Brahmans, who assisted Abulfazi in his curious but superficial account of his master's empire, informed him, if the figures in the Ayini Acbari be correctly written, that a period of 2962 years had elapsed from the birth of Buddha to the 40th year of Acbar's reign; which computation will place his birth in the 1366th year before that of our Saviour; but, when the Chinese government admitted a new religion from India in the first century of our æra, they made particular inquiries concerning the age of the old Indian Buddha, whose birth, according to Couplet, they place in the 41st year of their 28th cycle, or 1036 years before Christ; and they call him, says he, Foe, the son of Moye or Maya; but M. De Guignes, on the authority of four Chinese historians asserts, that Fo was born about the year before Christ 1027, in the kingdom of Cashmir. Giorgi, or rather Cassiano, from whose papers his work was compiled, assures us, that, by the calculation of the Tibetians, he appeared only 959 years before the Christian epoch; and M. Bailly, with some hesitation, places him 1031 before it, but inclines to think him far more ancient. confounding him, as I have done in a former tract, with the first Buddha, or Mercury, whom the Goths called Woden, and of whom I shall presently take particular notice. Now, whether we assume the medium of the four last-mentioned dates, or implicitly rely on the authorities quoted by De Guignes, we may conclude, that Buddha was first distinguished in this country about a thousand years before the beginning of our æra; and whoever, in so early an age, expects a certain epoch unqualified with about or nearly, will be greatly disappointed. Hence it is clear, that, when ther the fourth age of the Hindus began about one thousand years before Christ, according to Gover-dhan's account of Buddha's birth, or two thousand, according to that of Radhacant, the common opinion that 4888 years of it are now elapsed, is erroneous; and here for the present we leave Buddha, with an intention of returning to him in due time; observing only, that if the learned Indians differ so widely in their accounts of the age, when their ninth Avatar appeared in their country, we may be assured that they have no cerain chronology before him, and may suspect the certainty of all the relations concerning even his appearance:

The received chronology of the Hindus begins with an absurdity so monstrous, as to overthrow the whole system; for, having established their period of seventy one divine ages as the reign of each Menu, yet thinking it incongruous to place a holy personage in times of impurity, they insist that the Menu reigns only in every golden age, and disappears in the three human ages that follow it, continuing to dive and emerge like a water-fowl, till the close of his Manwantara. The learned author of the Puranart'hapracasa, which I will now follow step by step, mentioned this ridiculous opinion with a serious face; but, as he has not inserted it in his work, we may take his account of the seventh Menu according to its obvious and rational meaning, and suppose that Vaisvaswata, the son of Surva, the son of Casyapa, or Uranus, the son of Marichi, or Light: the son of Brahma, which is clearly an allegorical pedigree, reigned in the last golden age, or, according to the Hindus, three million eight hundred and ninety-two thousand eight hundred and eighty eight years ago. But they contend that he actually reigned on earth one million seven hundred and twenty-eight thousand years of mortals, or

four thousand eight hundred years of the Gods; and this opinion is another monster so repugnant to the course of nature and to human reason, that it must be rejected as wholly fabulous, and taken as a proof, that the *Indians* know nothing of their sun-born Menu but his name and the principal event of his life; I mean the universal deluge, of which the three first Avatars are merely allegorical representations, with a mixture, especially in the second, of astronomical mythology.

From this Menu the whole race of men is believed to have descended; for the seven Rishis, who were preserved with him in the ark, are not mentioned as fathers of human families; but, since his daughter Ila was married, as the Indians tell us, to the first Buddha, or Mercury, the son of Chandra, or the Moon, a male-deity, whose father was Atri, son of Brahma, (where again we meet with an allegory purely astronomical or poetical) his posterity are divided into two great branches, called the Children of the Sun, from his own supposed father, and the Children of the Moon, from the parent of his daughter's husband. The lineal male descendants in both these families are supposed to have reigned in the cities of Ayodhya, or Audh, and Pratisht'hana, or Vitora, respectively till the thousandth year of the present age, and the names of all the princes in both lines having been diligently collected by Radhacant from several Puranas, I exhibit them in two columns, arranged by myself with great attention.

SECOND AGE.

CHILDREN OF THE

SUN.	MOON.	
Icshwacu,	Budha,	
Vicueshi	Pururavas,	
Cucutst'ha,	Ayush,	
Aneas,	Nabusha,	
5. Prit'hu	Yayati,	G-
Viswagandhi,	Puru,	
Chandra,	Janamejaya	
Yuvanaswa,	Prachinwat,	•
Srava,	Pravira,	
10. Vrihadaswa,	Menasyu,	10.
Dhundhumara	Charupada,	
Drid'haswa,	Sudyu,	
Heryaswa,	Bahugava	
Nicumbha,	Sanyati,	
15. Crisaswa,	Ahanyati,	15.
Senajit,	Raudraswa,	
Yuvanaswa,	Riteyush,	
Mandhatri,	Rantinava,	
Purucutsa	Sumati,	·
20. Trasadasyu,	Aiti	10.
Anaranya,	Dushmanta,	
Heryaswa,	Bharata, *	
Praruna,	(Vitat'ha,	

CHILDREN OF THE

S U N.	MOON.	
Trivindhana,	Manyu,	
25. Satyavrata,	Vrihatcshetra, 25.	
Trisancu,	Hastin,	
Harischandra,	Ajamid'ha,	
Rohita,	Ricsha,	
Harita,	Samwarana,	
30. Champa,	Curu, 30.	
Sudeva,	Jahnu,	
Vijaya,	Surat'ha,	
Bharuca;	Vidurat'ha,	
Vrica,	Sarvabhauma,	
35. Bahuca,	Jayatsena, 35.	
Sagara,	Radhica,	
Asamanjas,	Ayutayush,	
Ansumat,	Acrodhana,	
Bhagirat'ha,	Devatit'hi,	
40. Sruta,	Riesha, 40.	
Nabha,	Dilipa,	
Sindhudwipa,	Pratipa,	
Ayutayush,	Santanu,	
Ritaperna,	Vichitravirya,	
45. Saudasa,	Pandu, 45.	
Asmaca	Yudhisht'hir)	
Mulaca,		,
Dasarat'ha,		

CHILDREN OF THE

SUN.

MOON.

Aidabidi,
50. Viswasaha,
C'hatwanga,
Dirghabahu,
Raghu,
Aja,
55. Dasarat'ha,
Rama.

It is agreed among all the Pandits, that Rama, their seventh incarnate Divinity, appeared as king of Ayodhya in the interval between the silver and the brazen ages; and, if we suppose him to have began his reign at the very beginning of that interval, still three thousand three hundred years of the Gods, or a million one hundred and eighty-eight thousand lunar years of mortals will remain in the silver age, during which the fifty-five princes between Vaivaswata and Rama must have governed the world; but, reckoning thirty years for a generation, which is rather too much for a long succession of eldest sons, as they are said to have been, we cannot, by the course of nature, extend the second age of the Hindus beyond sixteen hundred and fifty solar years. If we suppose them not to have been eldest sons, and even to have lived longer than modern princes in a dissolute age, we shall find only a period of two thousand years; and, if we remove the difficulty by admitting miracles, we must cease to reason, and may as well believe at once whatever the Brahmans chuse to tell 118.

In the lunar pedigree we meet with another absurdity equally fatal to the credit of the Hindu system. As far as the twenty-second degree of descent from Vaivaswata, the synchronism of the two families appears tolerably regular, except that the Children of the Moon were not all eldest sons; for king Yayati appointed the youngest of his five sons to succeed him in India, and allotted inferior kingdoms to the other four, who had offended him; part of the dacshin, or the south, to Yadu, the ancestor of Crishna; the north to Anu, the east to Druhya, and the west to Turvasu, from whom the Pandits believe, or pretend to believe, in compliment to our nation, that we are descended. But of the subsequent degrees in the lunar line they know so little. that, unable to supply a considerable interval between Bharat and Vitat'ha, whom they call son and successor, they are under a necessity of asserting, that the great ancestor of Yudhisht'hir actually reigned seven-and-twenty thousand years; a fable of the same class with that of his wonderful birth, which is the subject of a beautiful Indian drama. Now, if we suppose his life to have lasted no longer than that of other mortals, and admit Vitat'ha and the rest to have been his regular successors, we shall fall into another absurdity; for then, if the generations in both lines were nearly equal, as they would naturally have been, we shall find Yudhisht'hir, who reigned confessedly at the close of the brazen age, nine generations older than Rama, before whose birth the silver age is allowed to have ended. After the name of Eharat, therefore, I have set an asterisk, to denote a considerable chasm in the Indian history, and have inserted between brackets, as out of their places, his twentyfour successors, who reigned, if at all, in the following age, immediately before the war of the Mahabharat. The fourth Avatar, which is placed in the interval between the first and second ages, and the fifth which soon followed it, appear to be moral fables grounded on historical facts. The fourth was the punishment of an impious monarch, by the Deity himself bursting from a marble column in the shape of a lion; and the fifth was the humiliation of an arrogant prince, by so contemptible an agent as a mendicant dwarf. After these, and immediately before Buddha, come three great warriors, all named Rama; but it may justly be made a question, whether they are not three representations of one person, or three different ways of relating the same history. The first and second Ramas are said to have been contemporary; but whether all or any of them mean Rama, the son of Cush, I leave others to determine. The mother of the second Rama was named Caushalva, which is a derivative of Cushala, and, though his father be distinguished by the title or epithet of Dasarat'ha, signifying that his war-chariot bore him to all quarters of the world; yet the name of Cush, as the Cashmirians pronounce it, is preserved entire in that of his son and successor, and shadowed in that of his ancestor Vicueshi; nor can a just objection be made to this opinion from the nasal Arabian vowel in the word Ramah, mentioned by Moses, since the very word Arab begins with the same letter, which the Greeks and Indians could not pronounce; and they were obliged, therefore, to express it by the vowel which most resembled it. On this question, however, I assert nothing; nor on another, which might be proposed: " Whether the co fourth and fifth Avatars be not allegorical stories of the two presumptuous monarchs, Nimrod and G. Belus?" The hypothesis, that government was first established, laws enacted, and agriculture encouraged in India by Rama about three thousand eight hundred years ago, agrees with the received account of Noah's death, and the previous settlement of his immediate descendants.

THIRD AGE.

CHILDREN OF THE

S.U.N.

M O O N.

Cusha: Atit'hi, Nishadha. Nabhas. 5. Pundarica, Cshemadhanwas. Devanica. Ahinagu, Paripatra, 10. Ranach'hala. Vairanabha. Arca, Sugana, Vidhriti. 15. Hiranyanabha, Pushya, Dhruyasandhi, Sudersana, Agniverna, 20 Sighra, Maru, supposed to be still alive, Prasusruta, Sandhi,

Vitat'ha, Manyu, Vrihatcshetra, Hastin, Ajamid'ha, Ricsha, Samwarana, Curu, Jahnu. Surat ha. Vidurat'ha, Sarvabhauma, Jayatsena, Radhica, Ayutayush, Acrodhana, Devatit'hi,

Ricsha.

CHILDREN OF THE

SUN.

3100.

MOON.

Amersana, Dilipa,
25. Mahaswat, Pratipa,
Viswabhahu, Santanu,
Prasenajit, Vichitravirya,
Tacshaca, Pandu,
Vrihadbala, Yudhishi hira,
30. Vrihadrana, Y. B. C. Paricshit, 25.

Here we have only nine-and-twenty princes of the solar line between Rama and Vrihadrana exclusively; and their reigns, during the whole brazen age, are supposed to have lasted near eight hundred and sixtyfour thousand years: a supposition evidently against nature, the uniform course of which allows only a period of eight hundred and seventy, or, at the very utmost, of a thousand, years for twenty-nine gene-Paricshit, the great nephew and successor of Yudhisht'hir, who had recovered the throne from Duryodhan, is allowed without controversy to have reigned in the interval between the brazen and earthen ages, and to have died at the setting in of the Caliyug; so that, if the Pandits of Cashmir and Varanes have made a right calculation of Buddha's appearance, the present, or fourth, age must have begun about a thousand years before the birth of Christ. and consequently the reign of Icshwacu, could not have been earlier than four thousand years before that great epoch; and even that date will, perhaps, appear, when it shall be strictly examined, to be near two thousand years earlier than the truth. I cannot leave the third Indian age, in which the virtues and vices of mankind are said to have been equal, without observing, that even the close of it is manifestly fabulous and poetical, with hardly more appearance of historical truth than the tale of Troy, or of the Argonauts; for Yudhisht'hir, it seems, was the son of Dherma, the Genius of Justice; Bhima of Pavan, or the God of Wind; Arjun of Indra, or the Firmament; Nacul and Sahadeva, of the two Cumars, the Castor and Pollux of India; and Bhishma, their reputed great uncle, was the child of Ganga, or the Ganges, by Santanu, whose brother Devapi is supposed to be still alive in the city of Calapa; all which fictions may be charming embellishments of an heroic poem, but are just as absurd in civil history as the descent of two royal families from the Sun and the Moon.

FOURTH AGE.

CHILDREN OF THE

SUN.

MOON.

	Urucriya,
	Vatsavriddha,
	Prativyoma, 1
	Bhanu,
5.	Devaca,
:	Sahadeva,
÷	Vira, mi generalings
	Vrihadaswa,
	Bhanumat,
IO.	Praticaswa,
	Supratica,

Janamejaya,
Satanica,
Sahasranica,
Aswamedhaja,
Asimacrishna,
Nemichacra,
Upta,
Chitrarat'ha,
Suchirat'ha,
Di ritimat,
Sushena,

CHILDREN OF THE

	SUN.	MOON.
,	Marudeva,	Sunit'ha,
	Sunacshatra.	Nrichacshuh,
j	Pushcara,	Suc'hinala,
	15. Antaricsha,	Pariplava, a con 15.
	vio Sutapas, el	Sunaya, and a surger
	Amitrajit,	Medhavin,
	Vrihadraja,	Nripanjaya,
	Barhi,	Derva,
	20. Critanjaya,	Timi, 20.
	Rananjaya,	Vrihadrat'ha,
	Sanjaya,	Sudasa,
2	Slocya, and	Satanica,
	Suddhoda,	Durmadana,
	25. Langalada,	Rahinara, 7 25.
	Prasenajit,	Dandapani, Johnson
	Cshudraca,	Nimi
	Sumitra, Y. B. C.	Cshemaca, vitin
	2100.	,

In both families, we see, thirty generations are reckoned from Yudhisht hir, and from Vrihadbala his contemporary (who was killed in the war of Bharat by Abhimanyu, son of Arjun and father of Paricshit) to the time when the solar and hunar dynasties are believed to have become extinct in the present divine age; and for these generations the Hindus allot a period of one thousand years only, or a hundred years for three generations; which calculation, though pro-

bably too large, is yet moderate enough, compared with their absurd accounts of the preceding ages; but they reckon exactly the same number of years for twenty generations only in the family of Jarasandha whose son was contemporary with Yudhisht'hir, and founded a new dynasty of princes in Magadha, of Bahar: and this exact coincidence of the times, in which the three races are supposed to have been extinct, has the appearance of an artificial chronology. formed rather from imagination than from historical evidence, especially as twenty kings, in an age comparatively modern, could not have reigned a thousand years. I, nevertheless, exhibit the list of them as a curiosity, but am far from being convinced that all of them ever existed; that, if they did exist, they could not have reigned more than seven hundred years. I am fully persuaded by the course of nature and the concurrent opinion of mankind.

KINGS OF MAGADHA.

	Sahadeva,	Suchi, 120	
	Marjari,	Cshema,	
	Srutasravas,	Suvrata,	
	Ayutayush,	Dhermasutra,	
5.	Niramitra,	Srama,	15.
	Sunacshatra,	Drid'hasena,	
	Vrihetsena,	Cheavernagitami?	
	Carmajit,	Subala dibamente	
	Srutanjaya,	Sunita,	
10.	Vipra,	Satyajit.	20.

Puranjaya, son of the twentieth king, was put to death by his minister, Sunaça, who placed his own son Pradyota on the throne of his master; and this

tevolution constitutes an epoch of the highest importance in our present enquiry; first, because it happened according to the Bhagawatamrita, two years exactly before Buddha's appearance in the same kingdom; next, because it is believed by the Hindus to have taken place three thousand eight hundred and eighty-eight years ago, or two thousand one hundred years before Christ; and lastly, because a regular chronology, according to the number of years in each dynasty, has been established from the accession of Pradvota to the subversion of the genuine Hindu government; and that chronology I will now lay before you, after observing only, that Radhacant himself says nothing of Buddha in this part of his work, though he particularly mentions the two preceding Avataras in their proper places.

KINGS OF MAGADHA.

Y. B. C.

Pradyota,
Palaca,
Visac'hayupa,
Rajaca,
Nandiverdhana, 5 reigns = 138 years.

Sisunaga,
Cacaverna,
Cshemadherman,
Cshetrajnya.
Vidhisara
Ajatasatru,

Darbhaca.

7062

KINGS OF MAGADHA.

Y. B. C.

Ajaya Nandiverdhana Mahanandi. 10 r. = 360 y.

Nanda.

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This prince, of whom frequent mention is made in the Sanscrit books, is said to have been murdered. after a reign of a hundred years, by a very learned and ingenious, but passionate and vindictive, Brahman, whose name was Chanacya, and who raised to the throne a man of the Maurya race, named Chandragupta. By the death of Nanda, and his sons, the Cshatriya family of Pradvota became extinct.

MAURYA KINGS.

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1 502

Chandragupta,

Varisara.

Asocaverdhana

Suyasas, S. O. D. T. T. A. T. L.

Desarat'ha,

Sangata,

Salisuca.

Somasarman.

Satadhanwas,

Vrihadrat'ha,

10 r = 137 y.

On the death of the tenth Maurya king, his place was assumed by his commander in chief, Pushpamitra, of the Sunga nation or family.

SUNGA KINGS.

Pushpamitra.

Agnimitra,

-Sujvesht'ha,

Vasumitra

Abhadraca:

Pulinda,

Ghosha,

. Vajramitra,

Bhagavata, Devabhuti.

10. r. = 112 y.

Carrey Car and Prese

5 Carlon Land

and branch to the co

of Pranty of became extinct.

The last prince was killed by his minister Vasudeva, of the Canna race, who usurped the throne of Magadha.

TAURYANKINGR

CANNA KINGS

Y. B. C.

Vasudeva. Bhumitra,

Narayana,

Susarman.

4 r. = 345 y.

annamasani?

A Sudra, of the Andhra family, having murdered his master Susarman, and seized the government, founded a new dynasty of

ANDHRA KINGS.

Y. B. C. Balin. 908 Crishna. Srisantacarna, Paurnamasa. Lambodara, Vivilaca, Meghaswata, Vatamana, Talaca. Sivaswati. 10. Purishabheru. Sunandana, Chacoraca, Bataca, Gomatin : 15. Purimat, Medasiras. Sirascand'ha, Yainyasri, Vijaya, 20. 21. r. = 456 y. Chandrabija,

After the death of Chandrabija, which happened, according to the Hindus, 306 years before Vicramaditya. or 452 B. C. we hear no more of Magadha as an independent kingdom; but Radhacant has exhibited the names of seven dynasties, in which seventy six princes are said to have reigned one thousand three hundred and ninety-nine years in Avabhriti, a town of the Dacshin, or South, which we commonly call Decan. The names of the seven dynasties, or of the families who established them, are Abhira, Gardabhin, Canca, Yavana, Turushcara, Bhurunda, Maula; of which the Yavanas are by some, not generally, supposed to have been Ionians or Greeks, but the Turushcaras and Maulas are universally believed to have been Tures and Moguls; yet Radhacant adds, "when " the Maula race was extinct, five princes, named Bhu-" nanda Bangira, Sisunandi, Yasonandi, and Pravi-" raca reigned an hundred and six years (or till the year " 1053) in the city of Cilacila," which he tells me, he understands to be in the country of the Maharashtras, or Mahrattas; and here ends his Indian chronology; for "after Praviraca," says he, "this empire " was divided among Mlech'has, or Infidels." This account of the seven modern dynasties appears very doubtful in itself, and has no relation to our present inquiry; for their dominion seems confined to the Decan, without extending to Magadha; nor have we any reason to believe that a race of Grecian princes ever established a kingdom in either of those countries. As to the Moguls, their dynasty still subsists at least nominally, unless that of Chengiz be meant; and his successors could not have reigned in any part of India for the period of three hundred years, which . is assigned to the Maulas; nor is it probable that the word Ture, which an Indian could have easily pronounced and clearly expressed in the Nagari letters, should have been corrupted into Turushcara. On the whole, we may safely close the most authentic

system of Hindu Chronology that I have yet been able to procure, with the death of Chandrabija. Should any farther information be attainable, we shall, perhaps, in due time attain it either from books or inscriptions in the Sanscrit language; but from the materials with which we are at present supplied, we may establish as indubitable the two following propositions: That the three first ages of the Hindus are chiefly mythological, whether their mythology was founded on the dark enigmas of their astronomers, or on the heroic fictions of their poets; and that the fourth, or historical age, cannot be carried farther back than about two thousand years before Christ. Even in the history of the present age, the generations of men and the reigns of kings, are extended beyond the course of nature, and beyond the average resulting from the accounts of the Brahmans themselves; for they assign to an hundred and forty-two modern reigns a period of three thousand one hundred and fifty-three years, or about twenty-two years to a reign one with another; yet they represent only four Canna princes on the throne of Magadha for a period of three hundred and forty-five years; now it is even more improbable that four successive kings should have reigned eighty-six years and three months each, than that Nanda should have been king a hundred years, and murdered at last. Neither account can be credited; but, that we may allow the highest probable antiquity to the Hindu government, let us grant that three generations of men were equal on an average to an hundred years, and that Indian princes have reigned, one with another, two-andtwenty: then reckoning thirty generations from Arjun, the brother of Yudhist'hira, to the extinction of his race, and taking the Chinese account of Buddha's birth from M. De Guignes, as the most authentic medium between Abulfazt and the Tibetians, we may arrange the corrected Hindu Chronology according to the following table, supplying the word about or nearly (since perfect accuracy cannot be obtained, and ought not to be required) before every date.

	Y. B. C
Abhimanyu, son of Arjun,	2029
Pradyota,	1029
Buddha,	1027
Nanda,	699
Balin,	149
Vicramaditya,	56
Devapala, king of Gaur,	23

If we take the date of Buddha's appearance from Abu'lfazl, we must place Abhimanyu 2368 years before Christ, unless we calculate from the twenty kings of Magadha, and allow seven hundred years, instead of a thousand, between Arjun and Pradyota, which will bring us again very nearly to the date exhibited in the table; and, perhaps, we can hardly approach nearer to the truth. As to Raja Nanda, if he really sat on the throne a whole century, we must bring down the Andhra dynasty to the age of Vicramaditya, who with his feudatories had probably obtained so much power during the reign of those princes, that they had little more than a nominal sovereignty, which ended with Chandrabija in the third or fourth century of the Christian æra; having, no doubt, been long reduced to insignificance by the kings of Gaur, descended from Gopala. But, if the author of the Dabistan be warranted in fixing the birth of Buddha ten years before the Califug, we must thus correct the Chronological Table:

Y. B. C.

Buddha, — 1027
Paricshit, — 1017
Pradyota (reckoning 20 or 30 } 317 or 17

Y. A. C.

Nanda, — 13 or 313

This correction would oblige us to place Vicramaditya before Nanda, to whom, as all the Pandits agree, he was long posterior; and, if this be an historical fact, it seems to confirm the Bhagawatamrita, which fixes the beginning of the Culiyug about a thousand years before Buddha; besides that Balin would then be brought down at least to the sixth and Chundrabija to the tenth century after Christ, without leaving room for the subsequent dynasties, if they reigned successively.

Thus have we given a sketch of Indian history through the longest period fairly assignable to it, and have traced the foundation of the Indian empire above three thousand eight hundred years from the present time; but, on a subject in itself so obscure, and so much clouded by the fictions of the Brahmans, who, to aggrandize themselves, have designedly raised their antiquity beyond the truth, we must be satisfied with probable conjecture and just reasoning from the best attainable data; nor can we hope for a system of Indian Chronology, to which no objection can be made, unless the astronomical books in Sanscrit shall clearly ascertain the places of the colures in some precise years of the historical age, not by loose traditions, like that of a coarse observation by VOL. II.

Chiron, who possibly never existed (for "he lived," says Newton, "in the golden age," which must long have preceded the Argonautic expedition) but by such evidence as our own astronomers and scholars shall allow to be unexceptionable.

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A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE,

according to one of the Hypotheses intimated in the preceding Tract.

CHRISTIAN AND		Years
MUSELMAN.	HINDU.	from 1788
		of our æra.
Adam,	Menu I. Age I.	5794
Noah,	Menu II.	4737
Deluge, -		4138
Nimrod,	Hiranyacasipu. Ag	eII. 4006
Bel,	Bali,	3892
Rama,	Rama. Age III.	3817
Noah's death, -	· · · · · · · · · ·	3787
Serve .	Pradyota,	2817
	Buddha. Age IV.	2815
	Nanda,	2487
	Balin,	1937
	Vicramaditya,	1844
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Devapala,	1811
Christ,		1787
	Narayanpala,	1721
	Saca,	1709
Walid,		1080
Mahmud, -	<u></u>	786
Chengiz, -		548
Taimur,		391
Babur,		276
Nadirshah.		49
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VIII.

ON THE CURE OF THE ELEPHANTIASIS.

BY AT'HAR ALI KHAN OF DEHLI.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

MONG the afflicting maladies which punish the vices and try the virtues of mankind, there are few disorders of which the consequences are more dreadful or the remedy in general more desperate than the judham of the Arabs, or khorah of the Indians. It is also called in Arabia daul'asad: a name corresponding with the Leontiasis of the Greeks, and supposed to have been given in allusion to the grim distracted and lion-like countenances of the miserable persons who are affected with it. The more common name of the distemper is Elephantiasis, or, as Lucretius calls it, Elephas, because it renders the skin, like that of an Elephant, uneven and wrinkled, with many tubercles and furrows; but this complaint must not be confounded with the daul'fil, or swelled legs, described by the Arabian physicians, and very common in this country. It has no fixed name in English, though Hillary, in his Observations on the Diseases of Barbadoes, calls it the Leprosy of the joints. because it principally affects the extremities, which in the last stage of the malady are distorted, and at length drop off; but, since it is in truth a distemper corrupting the whole mass of blood, and therefore considered by Paul of Ægina as an universal ulcer, it requires a more general appellation, and may properly be named the Black Leprosy: which term is in fact adopted by M. Boissieu de Sauvages and Gorraus, in contradistinction to the White

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Leprosy, or the Beres of the Arabs and Leuce of the Greeks.

This disease, by whatever name we distinguish it, is peculiar to hot climates, and has rarely appeared in Europe. The philosophical poet of Rome supposes it. confined to the Banks of the Nile; and it has certainly been imported from Africa into the West India islands by the black slaves, who carried with them their resentment and their revenge; but it has been long known in Hindustan: and the writer of the following Dissertation, whose father was physician to Nadirshah and accompanied him from Persia to Dehli, assures me that it rages with virulence among the native inhabitants of Calcutta. His observation, that it is frequently a consequence of the venereal infection, would lead us to believe that it might be radically cured by mercury; which has, nevertheless, been found ineffectual, and even hurtful, as Hillary reports, in the West Indies. The juice of hemlock, suggested by the learned Michaelis, and approved by his medical friend Roederer, might be very efficacious at the beginning of the disorder, or in the milder sorts of it; but, in the case of a malignant and inveterate judham, we must either administer a remedy of the highest power, or, agreeably to the desponding opinion of Celsus, leave the patient to his fate, instead of teasing him with fruitless medicines, and suffer him, in the forcible words of Aretæus, to sink from inextricable slumber into death. The life of a man is, however, so dear to him by nature, and in general so valuable to society, that we should never despond while a spark of it remains; and, whatever apprehensions may be formed of future danger from the distant effects of arsenic, even though it should eradicate a present malady, yet, as no such inconvenience has arisen from the use of it in India, and as experience

must ever prevail over theory, I cannot help wishing that this ancient *Hindu* medicine may be fully tried under the inspection of our *European* surgeons, whose minute accuracy and steady attention must always give them a claim to superiority over the most learned natives; but many of our countrymen have assured me, that they by no means entertain a contemptuous opinion of the native medicines, especially in diseases of the skin. Should it be thought that the mixture of sulphur must render the poison less active, it may be adviseable at first to administer orpiment, instead of the *crystalline arsenic*.

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ON THE CURE OF THE ELEPHANTIASIS, AND OTHER DISORDERS OF THE BLOOD.

GOD IS THE ALL-POWERFUL HEALER.

IN the year of the Messiah 1783, when the worthy and respectable Maulavi Mir Muhammed Husain, who excels in every branch of useful knowledge, accompanied Mr. Richard Johnson from Lac'hnau to Calcutta, he visited the humble writer of this tract. who had long been attached to him with sincere affection; and, in the course of their conversation, One of the fruits of my late excursion,' said he, is a present for you, which suits your profession, and will be generally useful to our species. Conceiving you to be worthy of it, by reason of your assiduity in medical inquiries, I have brought you a prescription, the ingredients of which are easily found. but not easily equalled as a powerful remedy against s all corruptions of the blood, the judham, and the Persian fire, the remains of which are a source of s infinite maladies. It is an old secret of the Hindu physicians, who applied it also to the cure of cold and moist distempers; as the palsy, distortions of the face, relaxation of the nerves, and similar diseases. Its efficacy too has been proved by long experience: and this is the method of preparing it:

[•] Take of white arsenic, fine and fresh, one tola; • of picked black pepper six times as much: let both • be well beaten at intervals for four days successively • in an iron mortar, and then reduced to an impalpa-

ble powder in one of stone with a stone pestle, and
thus completely levigated, a little water being mixed
with them. Make pills of them as large as tares
or small pulse, and keep them dry in a shady

place *.

One of those pills must be swallowed morning and evening with some betel-leaf, or, in countries where betel is not at hand, with cold water. If the body be cleansed from foulness and obstructions by gentle cathartics and bleeding before the medicine is administered, the remedy will be speedier.

The principal ingredient of this medicine is the arsenic, which the Arabs call Shuce; the Persians mergi mush, or mouse-bane; and the Indians, sanc'hya: a mineral substance ponderous and crystalline. The orpiment, or yellow arsenic, is the weaker sort. It is deadly poison, and so subtil, that, when mice are killed by it, the very smell of the dead will destroy the living of that species. After it has been kept about

^{*} The lowest weight in general use among the Hindus is the reti, called in Sanscrit either rettica or ractica, indicating redness; and crishnala, from crishna, black; it is the red and black seed of the gunja plant, which is a creeper of the same class and order at least with glycyrrbiza: but I take this from report, having never examined its blossoms. One rattica is said to be of equal weight with three barley-corns, or four grains of rice in the husk: and eight reti-weights, used by jewellers, are equal to seven carats. I have weighed a number of the seeds in diamond-scales, and find the average Apothecary's weight of one seed to be a grain and five-sixteenths. Now, in the Hindu medical books, ten of the rattica-seeds are one mashaca; and eight mashacas make a tolaca, or tola; but in the law-books of Bengal a mashaca consists of sixteen racticas, and a rolaca of five mashas; and, according to some authorities, five retis only go to one masha, sixteen of which make a tolaca. We may observe, that the silver reti-weights, used by the goldsmiths at Banares are twice as heavy as the seeds; and thence it is that eight retis are commonly said to constitute one masha; that is, eight silver weights, or sixteen seeds; eighty of which seeds, or 105 grains, constitute the quantity of arsenic in the Hindu prescription.

seven years, it loses much of its force; its colour becomes turbid, and its weight is diminished. This mineral is hot and dry in the fourth degree: it causes suppuration, dissolves or unites, according to the quantity given, and is very useful in closing the lips of wounds when the pain is too intense to be borne. An unguent made of it with oils of any sort, is an effectual remedy for some cutaneous disorders; and, mixed with rose water, it is good for cold tumours, and for the dropsy; but it must never be administered without the greatest caution; for such is its power. that the smallest quantity of it in powder, drawn, like alcohol, between the eye-lashes, would in a single day entirely corrode the coats and humours of the eye; and fourteen retis of it would in the same time destroy life. The best antidote against its effects are the scrapings of leather reduced to ashes. If the quantity of arsenic taken be accurately known, four times as much of those ashes, mixed with water and drank by the patient, will sheath and counteract the poison.

The writer, conformably to the directions of his learned friend, prepared the medicine; and, in the same year, gave it to numbers, who were reduced by he diseases above mentioned to the point of death. God is his witness that they grew better from day to day, were at last completely cured, and are now living (except one or two, who died of other disorders) to attest the truth of this assertion. One of his first patients was a Parsi, named Menuchehr, who had come from Surat to this city, and had fixed his abode near the writer's house: he was so cruelly afflicted with a confirmed lues, here called the Persian Fire, that his hands and feet were entirely ulcerated and almost corroded, so that he became an object of disgust and abhorrence. This man consulted the writer on his case, the state of which he disclosed without reserve. Some blood was taken from him on the same day, and a cathartic administered on the next. On the third day he began to take the arsenic-pills, and, by the blessing of God, the virulence of his disorder abated by degrees, until signs of returning health appeared. In a fortnight his recovery was complete, and he was bathed, according to the practice of our physicians. He seemed to have no virus left in his blood, and none has been since perceived by him.

But the power of this medicine has chiefly been tried in the cure of the Juzam, as the word is pronounced in India; a disorder infecting the whole mass of blood, and thence called by some fisadi khun. The former name is derived from an Arabic root signifying, in general, amputation, maining, excision, and, particularly, the truncation or erosion of the fingers, which happens in the last stage of the disease. It is extremely contagious; and, for that reason, the prophet, said, Ferru mina'lmejdhumi cama teferru mina'l asad, or, 'Flee from a person afflicted with the ' indham, as you would flee from a lion.' The author of the Bahhru'ljawahir, or Sea of Pearls, ranks it as an infectious malady with the measles, the small pox, and the plague. It is also hereditary, and, in that respect, classed by medical writers with the gout, the consumption, and the white leprosy.

A common cause of this distemper is the unwholesome diet of the natives, many of whom are accustomed, after eating a quantity of fish, to swallow copious draughts of milk, which fail not to cause an accumulation of yellow and black bile, which mingles itself with the blood and corrupts it: but it has other causes; for a Brahmen, who had never tasted fish in his life, applied lately to the composer of this essay, and appeared in the highest degree affected by a corruption of blood; which he might have inherited, or acquired by other means. Those, whose religion permits them to eat beef, are often exposed to the danger of heating their blood intensely through the knavery of the butchers in the Bazar, who fatten their calves with Balawer; and those who are so ill-advised as to take provocatives (a folly extremely common in India) at first are insensible of the mischief, but, as soon as the increased moisture is dispersed, find their whole mass of blood inflamed and, as it were, adust; whence arises the disorder of which we now are treating. The Persian, or venereal fire, generally ends in this malady; as one Devi Prasad, lately in the service of Mr. Vansittart, and some others, have convinced me by an unreserved account of their several cases.

It may be here worth while to report a remarkable case, which was related to me by a man who had been afflicted with the juzam near four years; before which time he had been disordered with the Persian fire, and, having closed an ulcer by the means of a strong healing plaister, was attacked by a violent pain in his joints. On this he applied to a Cabiraja, or Hindu physician, who gave him some pills, with a positive assurance, that the use of them would remove his pain in a few days; and in a few days it was, in fact, wholly removed; but, a very short time after, the symptoms of the juzam appeared, which continually encreased to such a degree, that his fingers and toes were on the point of dropping off. It was afterwards discovered, that the pills which he had taken were made of cinnabar, a common preparation of the Hindus; the heat of which had first stirred the humours; which, on stopping the external discharge, had fallen on the joints, and then had occasioned a quantity of adust bile to mix itself with the blood and infect the whole mass.

Of this dreadful complaint, however caused, the first symptoms are a numbness and redness of the whole body, and principally of the face, an impeded hoarse voice, thin hair and even baldness, offensive perspiration and breath, and whitlows on the nails. The cure is best begun with copious bleeding, and cooling drink, such as a decoction of the nilufer, or Nymphea, and of violets, with some doses of manna: after which stronger cathartics must be administered. But no remedy has proved so efficacious as the pills composed of arsenic and pepper: one instance of their effect may here be mentioned, and many more may be added, if required.

In the month of February in the year just mentioned, one Shaikh Ramazani, who then was an upper-servant to the Board of Revenue, had so corrupt a mass of blood, that a black leprosy of his joints was approaching; and most of his limbs began to be ulcerated. In this condition he applied to the writer, and requested immediate assistance. Though the disordered state of his blood was evident on inspection, and required no particular declaration of it, yet many questions were put to him; and it was clear, from his answers, that he had a confirmed juzam: he then lost a great deal of blood, and, after due preparation. took the arsenic-pills. After the first week his malady seemed alleviated; in the second it was considerably diminished; and, in the third, so entirely removed, that the patient went into the bath of health, as a token that he no longer needed a physician.

ON THE INDIAN GAME OF CHESS.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

IF evidence be required to prove that chess was invented by the *Hindus*, we may be satisfied with the testimony of the Persians; who, though as much inclined as other nations to appropriate the ingenious inventions of a foreign people, unanimously agree, that the game was imported from the west of India, together with the charming fables of Vishnusarman, in the sixth century of our æra. It seems to have been immemorially known in Hindustan by the name of Chaturanga, that is, the four angas, or members of an army, which are said in the Amaracosha to be hastyaswarat'hapadatam, or elephants, horses, chariots, and foot soldiers; and in this sense the word is frequently used by epic poets in their descriptions of real armics. By a natural corruption of the pure Sanscrit word, it was changed by the old Persians into Chatrang; but the Arabs, who soon after took possession of their country, had neither the initial nor final letter of that word in their alphabet, and consequently altered it further into Shatraij, which found its way presently into the modern Persian, and at length into the dialects of India, where the true derivation of the name is known only to the learned. Thus has a very significant word in the sacred language of the Brahmans been transformed by successive changes into axedrez, scacchi, echecs, chess, and, by a whimsical concurrence of circumstances, given birth to the English word check; and even a name to the Exchequer of Great Britain. The beautiful simplicity and extreme perfection of the game, as it is

commonly played in Europe and Asia, convince me that it was invented by one effort of some great genius; not completed by gradual improvements, but formed, to use the phrase of Italian critics, by the first intention; yet of this simple game, so exquisitely contrived, and so certainly invented in India, I cannot find any account in the classical writings of the Brahmans. It is, indeed, confidently asserted, that Sanscrit books on Chess exist in this country; and, if they can be procured at Banares, they will assuredly be sent to us. At present I can only exhibit a description of a very ancient *Indian* game of the same kind; but more complex, and, in my opinion, more modern than the simple Chess of the Persians. This game is also called Chaturanga, but more frequently Chaturaji, or the Four Kings, since it is played by four persons representing as many princes, two allied armies combating on each side. The description is taken from the Bhawishva Puran, in which Yudhisht'hir is represented conversing with Vyasa, who explains at the king's request the form of the fictitious warfare and the principal rules of it. "Having marked eight " squares on all sides," says the sage, " place the red " army to the east, the green to the south, the yellow "to the west, and the black to the north: let the " elephant stand on the left of the king; next to him, "the horse; then the boat; and, before them all, "four foot-foldiers; but the boat must be placed in " the angle of the board." From this passage it clearly appears, that an army, with its four angas, must be placed on each side of the board, since an elephant could not stand in any other position on the left hand of each king; and Radhacant informed me, that the board consisted, like ours, of sixty-four squares, half of them occupied by the forces, and half vacant. He added, that this game is mentioned in the oldest law-books, and that it was invented by the wife of Ravan, king of Lanca, in order to amuse him

with an image of war, while his metropolis was closely besieged by Rama, in the second age of the world. He had not heard the story told by Firdausi, near the close of the Shahnamah; and it was probably carried into Persia from Canyacuvja, by Borzu the favourite physician, thence called Vaidyaprya, of the great Anushiravan; but he said that the Brahmans of Gaur, or Bengal, were once celebrated for superior skill in the game, and that his father, together with his spiritual preceptor Jagannat'h, now living at Tribeni, had instructed two young Brahmans in all the rules of it, and had sent them to Jayanagar at the request of the late Raja, who had liberally rewarded them. A ship or boat is substituted, we see, in this complex game for the rat'h, or armed chariot, which the Bengalese pronounce rot'h, and which the Persians changed into rokh, whence came the rook of some European nations; as the vierge and fol of the French are supposed to be corruptions of ferz and fil, the prime minister and elephant of the Persian and Arabs. were in vain to seek an etymology of the word rook in the modern Persian language; for, in all the passages extracted from Firdausi and Jami, where rokh is conceived to mean a hero or a fabulous bird, it signifies, I believe, no more than a cheek or a face; as in the following description of a procession in Egypt: "When a thousand youths, like cypresses, box-trees, "and firs, with locks as fragrant, cheeks as fair, and 66 bosoms as delicate as lilies of the valley, were " marching gracefully along, thou wouldst have said "that the new spring was turning his face (not, as Hyde translates the words, carried on rokhs) from " station to station." And as to the battle of the duwazdeh rakh, which D'Herbelot supposes to mean douze preux chevaliers, I am strongly inclined to think that the phrase only signifies a combat of twelve persons face to face, or six on a side. I cannot agree with my friend Radhacant, that a ship is properly introduced Vol. II. in this imaginary warfare instead of a chariot, in which the old Indian warriors constantly fought; for, though the king might be supposed to sit in a car, so that the four angas would be complete, and though it may often be necessary in a real campaign to pass rivers or lakes, yet no river is marked on the Indian, as it is on the Chinese chess-board; and the intermixture of ships with horses, elephants, and infantry embattled on a plain, is an absurdity not to be defended. The use of dice may, perhaps, be justified in a representation of war, in which fortune has unquestionably a great share; but it seems to exclude chess from the rank which has been assigned to it among the sciences, and to give the game before us the appearance of whist, except that pieces are used openly, instead of cards which are held concealed: nevertheless, we find that the moves in the game described by Vyasa were to a certain degree regulated by chance; for he proceeds to tell his royal pupil, that, "if cinque be thrown, the "king or a pawn must be moved; if quatre, the " elephant; if trois, the horse; and if deux, the boat."

He then proceeds to the moves: "The king passes freely on all sides, but over one square only; and with the same limitation, the pawn moves, but he advances straight forward, and kills his enemy through an angle; the elephant marches in all directions, as far as his driver pleases; the horse runs obliquely, traversing three squares; and the ship goes over two squares diagonally." The elephant, we find, has the powers of our queen, as we are pleased to call the minister, or general, of the Persians; and the ship has the motion of the piece to which we give the unaccountable appellation of bishop; but with a restriction which must greatly lessen his value.

The bard next exhibits a few general rules and superficial directions for the conduct of the game: "the pawns and the ship both kill and may be volun-" tarily killed; while the king, the elephant, and the " horse may slay the foe, but cannot expose them-" selves to be slain. Let each player preserve his own " forces with extreme care, securing his king above all, " and not sacrificing a superior to keep an inferior " piece." Here the commentator on the Puran cbserves, that the horse, who has the choice of eight moves from any central position, must be preferred to the ship, who has only the choice of four; but this argument would not have equal weight in the common game, where the bishop and tower command a whole line, and where a knight is always of less value than a tower in action, or a bishop of that side on which the attack is begun. "It is by the overbearing " power of the elephant that the king fights boldly; " let the whole army, therefore, be abandoned, in or-" der to secure the elephant: the king must never place one elephant before another, according to the rule of Gotama, unless he be compelled by want of room, " for he would thus commit a dangerous fault; and, if "he can slay one of two hostile elephants, he must destroy that on his left hand." The last rule is extremely obscure; but, as Gotama was an illustrious lawyer and philosopher, he would not have condescended to leave directions for the game of Chaturanga, if it had not been held in great estimation by the ancient sages of India.

All that remains of the passage, which was copied for me by Radhacant and explained by him, relates to the several modes in which a partial success or complete victory may be obtained by any one of the four players; for we shall see that, as if a dispute had arisen between two allies, one of the kings may assume the command of all the forces, and aim at separate con-

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quest. First, "When any one king has placed himself " on the square of another king, which advantage is " called Sinhasana, or the throne, he wins a stake; " which is doubled, if he kills the adverse monarch "when he seizes his place; and, if he can seat himself on the throne of his ally, he takes the command of " the whole army." Secondly, "If he can occupy succc cessively the thrones of all the three princes, he ob-" tains the victory, which is named Chaturaji; and the stake is doubled if he kill the last of the three just before he takes possession of his throne; but if he " kill him on his throne, the stake is quadrupled." Thus, as the commentator remarks, in a real warfare, a king may be considered as victorious when he seizes the metropolis of his adversary; but if he can destroy his foe, he displays greater heroism, and relieves his people from any further solicitude. "Both in gaining "the Sinhasana and the Chaturaji," says Vyasa, "the "king must be supported by the elephants, or all the " forces united." Thirdly, "When one player has " his own king on the board, but the king of his " partner has been taken, he may replace his captive ally, if he can seize both the adverse kings; or, if " he cannot effect their capture, he may exchange his "king for one of them, against the general rule, " and thus redeem the allied prince, who will supply "his place." This advantage has the name of Nripacrishta, or recovered by the king; and the Naucacrishta seems to be analogous to it, but confined to the case of ships. Fourthly, "If a pawn can march " to any square on the opposite extremity of the board, " except that of the king or that of the ship, he as-" sumes whatever power belonged to that square; and " this promotion is called Shutpada, or the six strides." Here we find the rule, with a singular exception, concerning the advancement of the pawns, which often occasions a most interesting struggle at our common chess, and which has furnished the poets and moralists

of Arabia and Persia with many lively reflections on human life. It appears that this privilege of Shatpada was not allowable, in the opinion of Gotama, when a player had three pawns on the board; but, when only one pawn and one ship remained, the pawn might advance even to the square of a king or a ship, and assume the power of either. Fifthly, "According " to the Racshasas, or giants (that is, the people of Lanca, where the game was invented) there could " be neither victory nor defeat if a king were left on the of plain without force: a situation which they named "Cacacasht'ha." Sixthly, "If three ships happen to " meet, and the fourth can be brought up to them in " the remaining angle, this has the name of Vrihanso nauca, and the player of the fourth seizes all the " others." Two or three of the remaining couplets are so dark, either from an error in the manuscript or from the antiquity of the language, that I could not understand the Pandit's explanation of them, and suspect that they gave even him very indistinct ideas; but it would be easy, if it were worth while, to play at the game by the preceding rules; and a little practice would, perhaps, make the whole intelligible. One circumstance, in this extract from the Puran, seems very surprizing: all games of hazard are positively forbidden by Menu, yet the game of Chaturanga, in which dice are used, is taught by the great Vyasa himself, whose law tract appears with that of Gotama among the eighteen books which form the Dhermasastra; but, as Radhacant and his preceptor Jagamat'h are both employed by government in compiling a digest of Indian laws, and as both of them, especially the venerable sage of Tribeni, understand the game, they are able I presume to assign reasons why it should have been excepted from the general prohibition, and even openly taught by ancient and modern Brahmans.

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TWO INSCRIPTIONS

FROM THE VINDYA MOUNTAINS.

Translated from the Sanscrit by Charles Wilkins, Esq.

FIRST INSCRIPTION,

In a Cavern, called the Grot of the Seven Rishis, near Gaya.

1. A NANTA VARMA, master of the hearts of the people, who was the good son of Sree Sardoola, by his own birth and great virtues classed amongst the principal rulers of the earth, gladly caused this statue of Kreeshna, of unsullied renown, confirmed in the world like his own reputation, and the image of Kanteematee * to be deposited in this great mountain-cave.

2. Sree Sardoola, of established fame, jewel of the diadems of kings, emblem of time to the martial possessors of the earth, to the submissive the tree of the fruit of desire, a light to the Military Order, whose glory was not founded upon the feats of a single battle, the ravisher of female hearts, and the image of Smara *, became the ruler of the land.

[·] Radba, the favourite mistress of Kreeshna.

[†] Kama Deva, the Cupid of the Hindus.

3. Wherever Sree Sardoola is wont to cast his own discordant sight towards a foe, and the fortunate star, his broad eye, is enflamed with anger between its expanded lids; there falleth a shower of arrows from the ear-drawn string of the bow of his son, the renowned Ananta Varma, the bestower of infinite happiness.

SECOND INSCRIPTION,

In a Cave behind Nagarjeni.

- ment was as the sportive elephant's in the season of lust, was like Manoo*, the appointer of the military station of all the chiefs of the earth.—By whose divine offerings, the God with a thousand eyes + being constantly invited, the emaciated Powlomee ‡, for a long time, sullied the beauty of her cheeks with falling tears.
- 2. Ananta Varma by name, the friend of strangers, renowned in the world in the character of valour, by nature immaculate as the lunar beams, and who is the offspring of Sree Sardoola:—By him this wonderful statue of Bhootapatee and of Devee ||, the maker of all things visible and invisible and the granter of boons, which hath taken sanctuary in this cave, was caused to be made. May it protect the universe!

^{*} The first legislator of the Hindus.

[†] Eendra a deification of the Heavens.

The wife of Eendra.

^{||} Seeva, or Mahadeva and his consort in one image, as a type of the deities, Genitor and Genitria.

- 3. The string of his expanded bow, charged with arrows and drawn to the extremity of the shoulder, bursteth the circle's centre. Of spacious brow, propitious distinction, and surpassing beauty, he is the image of the moon with an undiminished countenance. Ananta Varma to the end! Of form like Smara * in existence, he is seen with the constant and affectionate standing with their tender and fascinated eyes constantly fixed upon him.
- 4. From the machine his bow, reproacher of the crying Koorara; bent to the extreme, he is endued with force; from his expanded virtue he is a provoker; by his good conduct his renown reacheth to afar; he is a hero by whose coursing steeds the elephant is disturbed, and a youth who is the seat of sorrow to the women of his foes. He is the director, and his name is Ananta;

^{*} The Hindoo Cupid.

⁺ A bird that is constantly making a noise before rain.

[‡] This word signifies eternal or infinite.



A DESCRIPTION OF ASAM,

BY MOHAMMED CAZIM.

Translated from the Persian, by Henry Vansittart, Esq.*

A SAM, which lies to the north-east of Bengal, is divided into two parts by the river Brahmaputra, that flows from Khata. The northern portion is called Uttarcul, and the southern Dacshincul. Uttarcul begins at Gowahutty, which is the boundary of his Majesty's territorial possessions, and terminates in mountains inhabited by a tribe called Meeri Mechmi. Dacshincul extends from the village Sidea to the hills of Sringgar. The most famous mountains to the northward of Uttarcul, are those of Duleh and Landah; and to the southward of Dacshincul are those of Namrup, (Camrup?) situated four days journey above Ghergong, to which the Raja retreated. There is another chain of hills, which is inhabited by a tribe called Nanac, who pay no revenue to the Raja, but profess allegiance to him, and obey a few of his orders. But the * Zemleh tribe are entirely independent of him; and, whenever they find an opportunity, plunder the country contiguous to their mountains. Asam is of an oblong figure; its length about 200 standard coss, and its breadth, from the northern to the southern mountains, about eight days journey. From

^{*} This account of Asam was translated for the Society, but afterwards printed by the learned translator as an appendix to his Aalemgirnamab. It is reprinted here, because our government has an interest in being as well acquainted as possible with all the nations bordering on the British territories.

† In another copy this tribe are called Duffeh.

Gowahutty to Ghergong are seventy-five standard coss: and from thence it is fifteen days journey to Khoten, which was the residence of Peeran Wiseh*, but is now called Ava +, and is the capital of the Raja of Pegu, who considers himself of the posterity of that famous General. The first five days journey from the mountains of Camrup, is performed through forests. 'and over hills, which are arduous and difficult to pass. You then travel eastward to Ava through a level and smooth country. To the northward is the plain of Khata, that has been before mentioned as the place from whence the Brahmoputra issues, which is afterwards fed by several rivers that flow from the southern mountains of Asim. The principal of these is the Dhonec, which has before occurred in this history: it joins that broad river at the village Luckigereh.

Between these rivers is an island well inhabited, and in an excellent state of tillage. It contains a spacious, clear, and pleasant country, extending to the distance of about fifty coss. The cultivated tract is bounded by a thick forest, which harbours elephants, and where those animals may be caught, as well as in four or five other forests of Asam. If there be occasion for them, five or six hundred elephants may be procured in a year. Across the Dhonec, which is the side of Ghergong; is a wide, agreeable, and level country, which delights the heart of the beholder. The whole face of it is marked with population and tillage; and it presents on every side charming pros-

† This is a palpable mistake. Khoten lies to the north of Him-

alaya; and Piran Visab could never have seen Ava.

^{*} According to Khondemir, Peeran Wiseh was one of the nobles of Afrasiah, King of Turan, contemporary with Kaicaus, second Prince of the Kianian Dynasty. In the Ferhung Jehangeery and Borhaun Katea (two Persian Dictionaries) Peeran is described as one of the Pehlovan or heroes of Turan, and General under Afrasiah, the name of whose father was Wiseh.

pects of ploughed fields, harvests, gardens, and groves. All the island before described lies in Dacshincul. From the village Salagereh to the city of Ghergong is a space of about fifty coss, filled with such an uninterrupted range of gardens, plentifully stocked with fruit-trees, that it appears as one garden. Within them are the houses of the peasants, and a beautiful assemblage of coloured and fragrant herbs, and of garden and wild flowers blowing together. As the country is overflowed in the rainy season, a high and broad causeway has been raised for the convenience of travellers from Salagereh to Ghergong, which is the only uncultivated ground that is to be seen. Each side of this road is planted with shady bamboos, the tops of which meet, and are intertwined. Amongst the fruits which this country produces, are mangoes, plantains, jacks, oranges, citrons, limes, pine-apples, and punialeh, a species of amleh, which has such an excellent flavour, that every person who tastes it prefers it to the plum. There are also cocoa-nut trees, pepper vines, Areca trees, and the Sadij*, in great plenty. The sugar-cane excels in softness and sweetness, and is of three colours, red, black, and white. There is ginger free from fibres, and betel vines. The strength of vegetation and fertility of the soil are such, that whatever seed is sown, or slips planted, they always thrive. The environs of Ghergong furnish small apricots, yams, and pomegranates; but as these articles are wild, and not assisted by cultivation and engraftment, they are very indifferent. The principal crop of this country consists in rice and + mash. Ades is very scarce; and wheat and barley are never sown. The silks are excellent, and resemble

^{*} The Sadij is a long aromatic leaf, which has a pungent taste, and is called in Sanscrit, Tejapatra. In our botanical books it bears the name of Malabathrum, or the Indian Leaf.

[†] Mash is a species of grain, and Ades a kind of pea.

those of China; but they manufacture very few more than are required for use. They are successful in embroidering with flowers, and in weaving velver and tautbund, which is a species of filk of which they make tents and * kenauts. Salt is a very precious and scarce commodity; it is found at the bottom of some of the hills, but of a bitter and pungent quality. A better sort is in common, which is extracted from the plantain-tree. The mountains inhabited by the tribe called Nanac, produce plenty of excellent Lignum Alves, which a society of the natives import every year into Asam, and bartar for salt and grain. This evil disposed race of mountaineers are many degrees removed from the line of humanity, and destitute of the characteristical properties of a man. They go naked from head to foot, and eat dogs, cats, snakes, mice, rats, ants, locusts, and every thing of this sort which they can find. The hills of Camrup, Sided, and Luckigereh, supply a fine species of Lignum Aloes, which sinks in water. Several of the mountains contain musk-deer.

The country of *Uttarcul*, which is on the northern side of the *Brahmaputra*, is in the highest state of cultivation, and produces plenty of pepper and *Areca*-nuts. It even surpasses *Dacshincul* in population and tillage; but, as the latter contains a greater tract of wild forests, and places difficult of access, the rulers of *Asam* have chosen to reside in it for the convenience of control, and have erected in it the capital of the kingdom. The breadth of *Uttarcul*, from the bank of the river to the foot of the mountains, which is a cold climate, and contains snow, is various; but is nowhere less than fifteen coss, nor more than forty-five coss. The inhabitants of those

^{*} Kenauts are walls made to surround tents.

mountains are strong, have a robust and respectable appearance, and are of the middling size. Their complexions, like those of the natives of all cold climates, are red and white; and they have also trees and fruits peculiar to frigid regions. Near the fort of Jum Dereh, which is on the side of Gowahutty, is a chain of mountains, called the country of Dereng; all the inhabitants of which resemble each other in appearance, manners, and speech, but they are distinguished by the names of their tribes, and places of residence. Several of these hills produce musk, kataus*. bhoat in perce, and two species of horses, called goont and tanyans. Gold and silver are procured here, as in the whole country of Asam, by washing the sand of the rivers. This, indeed, is one of the sources of revenue. It is supposed that 12,000 inhabitants, and some say 20,000, are employed in this occupation; and it is a regulation, that each of these persons shall pay a fixed revenue of a tola; of gold to the Raja. The people of Asam are a base and unprincipled nation, and have no fixed religion. They follow no rule but that of their own inclinations, and make the approbation of their own vicious minds the test of the propriety of their actions. They do not adopt any mode of worship practised either by Heathens or Mohammedans; nor do they concur with any of the known sects which prevail amongst mankind. Unlike the Pagans of Hindustan, they do not reject victuals which have been dressed by Muselmans; and they abstain from no flesh

^{*} Kataus is thus described in the Barbaun Katea: "This word, in the language of Rum, is a sea-cow; the tail of which is hung upon the necks of horses, and on the summits of standards.

[&]quot;Some say that it is a cow which lives in the mountains of Khata." It here means the mountain-cow, which supplies the tail that is made into chowries; and in Sanscrit is called chamara.

[†] Bhoat and peree are two kinds of blanket.

[‡] Eighty reti-weights. See page 154, note.

except human. They even eat animals that have died a natural death; but, in consequence of not being used to the taste of ghee, they have such an antipathy to this article, that if they discover the least smell of it in their victuals, they have no relish for them. It is not their custom to veil their women: for even the wives of the Raja do not conceal their faces from any person. The females perform work in the open air, with their countenances exposed and heads uncovered. The men have often four or five wives each, and publicly buy, sell, and change them. They shave their heads, beards, and whiskers, and reproach and admonish every person who neglects this ceremony. Their language has not the least affinity with that of Bengal *. Their strength and courage are apparent in their looks; but their ferocious manners and brutal tempers are also betraved by their physiognomy. They are superior to most nations in corporal force and hardy exertions. They are enterprizing, savage, fond of war, vindictive, treacherous, and deceitful. The virtues of compassion, kindness, friendship, sincerity, truth, honour, good faith, shame, and purity of morals, have been left out of their composition. The seeds of tenderness and humanity have not been sown in the field of their frames. As they are destitute of the mental garb of manly qualities, they are also deficient in the dress of their bodies. They tie a cloth round their heads, and another round their loins, and throw a sheet upon their shoulder: but it is not customary in that country to wear turbans, robes, drawers, or shoes. There are no buildings of brick or stone, or with walls of earth, except the gates of the city of Ghergong, and some of their idolatrous temples. The rich and poor construct their habita-

^{*} This is an error: young Brahmens often come from Asam to Nadiya for instruction; and their vulgar dialect is understood by the Bengal teachers.

tions of wood, bamboos, and straw. The Raja and his courtiers travel in stately litters; but the opulent and respectable persons amongst his subjects are carried in lower vehicles called doolies. Asam produces neither horses*, camels, nor asses; but those cattle are sometimes brought thither from other countries. The brutal inhabitants, from a congenial impulse, are fond of seeing and keeping asses, and buy and sell them at a high price; but they discover the greatest surprize at seeing a camel; and are so afraid of a horse, that if one trooper should attack a hundred armed Asamians, they would all throw down their arms and flee; or should they not be able to escape, they would surrender themselves prisoners. Yet, should one of that detestable race encounter two men of another nation on foot, he would defeat them.

The ancient inhabitants of this country are divided into two tribes, the Asamians and the Cultanians. The latter excel the former in all occupations except war and the conduct of hardy enterprises, in which the former are superior. A body-guard of six or seven thousand Asamians, fierce as demons, of unshaken courage, and well provided with warlike arms and accoutrements, always keep watch near the Raja's sitting and sleeping apartments; these are his loyal and confidential troops and patrol. The martial weapons of this country are the musquet, sword, spear, and arrow and bow of bamboo. In their forts and boats they have also plenty of cannon, zerbzen*, and ramchangee, in the management of which they are very expert.

^{*} As the author has asserted that two species of horses, called goont and tanyans, are produced in Dereng, we must suppose that this is a different country from Asam.

[†] Swivels.

Whenever any of the Rajahs, magistrates, or principal men die, they dig a large cave for the deceased, in which they inter his women, attendants, and servants, and some of the magnificent equipage and useful furniture which he possessed in his life-time; such as elephants, gold and silver, badcash (large fans), carpets, clothes, victuals, lamps, with a great deal of oil, and a torch-bearer; for they consider these articles as stores for a future state. They afterwards construct a strong roof over the cave upon thick timbers. The people of the army entered some of the old caves, and took out of them the value of 90,000 rupees, in gold and silver. But an extraordinary circumstance is said to have happened, to which the mind of man can scarcely give credit, and the probability of which is contradicted by daily experience. It is this: All the nobles came to the imperial general and declared, with universal agreement, that a golden betelstand was found in one of the caves that was dug eighty years before, which contained betel-leaf quite green and fresh; but the authenticity of this story rests upon report.

Chergong has four gates, constructed of stone and earth; from each of which the Raja's palace is distant three coss. The city is encompassed with a fence of bamboos; and within it high and broad causeways have been raised for the convenience of passengers during the rainy season. In the front of every man's house is a garden, or some cultivated ground. This is a fortified city, which encloses villages and tilled fields. The Raja's palace stands upon the bank of the Degoo, which flows throughout the city. This river is lined on each side with houses; and there is a small market, which contains no shopkeepers except sellers of betel. The reason is, that it is not customary for the inhabitants to buy provisions for daily use, because they lay up a stock for themselves, which lasts

them a year. The Raja's palace is surrounded by a causeway, planted on each side with a close hedge of bamboos, which serves instead of a wall. On the outside there is a ditch, which is always full of water. The circumference of the enclosure is one coss and fourteen jereebs. Within it have been built lofty halls and spacious apartments for the Raja, most of them of wood, and a few of straw, which are called chuppers. Amongst these is a diwan khanah, or public saloon, one hundred and fifty cubits long, and forty broad, which is supported by sixty-six wooden pillars, placed at an interval of about four cubits from each other. The Raja's seat is adorned with latticework and carving. Within and without have been placed plates of brass, so well polished, that when the rays of the sun strike upon them, they shine like mirfors. It is an ascertained fact, that 3000 carpenters and 1200 labourers were constantly employed on this work, during two years before it was finished. When the Raja sits in this chamber, or travels, instead of drums and trumpets, they beat the * dhol and dand. The latter is a round thick instrument made of copper, and is certainly the same as the drum +, which it was customary, in the time of the ancient kings, to beat in battles and marches.

The Rajas of this country have always raised the crest of pride and vainglory, and displayed an ostentatious appearance of grandeur, and a numerous train of attendants and servants. They have not bowed the head of submission and obedience, nor have they paid tribute or revenue to the most powerful monarch; but they have curbed the ambition, and

^{*} The dbol is a kind of drum, which is beaten at each end.

[†] This is a kind of kettle-drum, and is made of a composition of several metals.

checked the conquests, of the most victorious princes of Hindustan. The solution of the difficulties attending a war against them, has baffled the penetration of heroes who have been stiled Conquerors of the World. Whenever an invading army has entered their territories, the Asamians have covered themselves in strong posts, and have distressed the enemy by stratagems, surprises, and alarms, and by cutting off their provisions. If these means have failed, they have declined a battle in the field, but have carried the peasants into the mountains, burnt ' the grain, and left the country empty. But when the rainy season has set in upon the advancing enemy, they have watched their opportunity to make excursions, and vent their rage; the famished invaders have either become their prisoners, or been put to death. In this manner powerful and numerous armies have been sunk in that whirlpool of destruction, and not a soul has escaped.

Formerly Husain Shah, a king of Bengal, undertook an expedition against Asam, and carried with him a formidable force in cavalry, infantry, and boats. The beginning of this invasion was crowned with victory. He entered the country, and erected the standard of superiority and conquest. The Raja being unable to encounter him in the field, evacuated. the plains, and retreated to the mountains. Husain left his son, with a large army, to keep possession of the country, and returned to Bengal. The rainy season commenced, and the roads were shut up by the inundation. The Raja descended from the mountains, surrounded the Bengal army, skirmished with them, and cut off their provisions, till they were reduced to such straits, that they were all, in a short time, either killed or made prisoners,

In the same manner Mohammed Shah, the son of Togluc Shah, who was king of several of the provinces of Hindustan, sent a well-appointed army of an hundred thousand cavalry to conquer Asam; but they were all devoted to oblivion in that country of enchantment; and no intelligence or vestige of them remained. Another army was dispatched to revenge this disaster; but when they arrived in Bengal, they were panic-struck, and shrunk from the enterprize; because if any person passes the frontier into that district, he has not leave to return. In the same manner; none of the inhabitants of that country are able to come out of it, which is 'the reason that no accurate information has hitherto been obtained relative to that nation. The natives of Hindustan consider them as wizzards and magicians, and pronounce the name of that country in all their incantations and counter-charms. They say that every person who sets his foot there, is under the influence of witchcraft, and cannot find the road to return.

Jeidej Sing*, the Raja of Ascan, bears the title of Swergi, or Celestial. Swerg, in the Hindustani language, means heaven. That frantic and vainglorious prince is so excessively foolish and mistaken, as to believe that his vicious ancestors were sovereigns of the heavenly host; and that one of them, being inclined to visit the earth, descended by a golcen ladder. After he had been employed some time in regulating and governing his new kingdom, he tecame so attached to it, that he fixed his abode in it, and never returned.

In short, when we consider the peculiar circumstances of Asam; that the country is spacious, popu-

^{*} Properly Jayadl waja Sinha, or the Lion with Banners of Conquest.

lous, and hard to be penetrated; that it abounds in perils and dangers; that the paths and roads are beset with difficulties; that the obstacles to the conquest of it are more than can be described; that the inhabitants are a savage race, ferocious in their manners, and brutal in their behaviour; that they are of a gigantic appearance, enterprising, intrepid, treacherous, well armed, and more numerous than can be conceived; that they resist and attack the enemy from secure posts, and are always prepared for battle; that they possess forts as high as heaven, garrisoned by brave soldiers, and plentifully supplied with warlike stores, the reduction of each of which would require a long space of time; that the way was obstructed by thick and dangerous bushes, and broad and boisterous rivers: when we consider these circumstances, we shall wonder that this country, by the aid of God, and the auspices of his Majesty, was conquered by the imperial army, and became a place for erecting the standard of the faith. The haughty and insolent heads of several of the detestable Asamians, who stretch the neck of pride, and who are devoid of religion and remote from God, were bruised by the hoofs of the horses of the victorious warriors. The Musselman heroes experienced the comfort of fighting for their religion; and the blessings of it reverted to the sovereignty of his just and pious Majesty.

The Raja, whose soul had been enslaved by pride, who had been bred up in the habit of presuming on the stability of his own government, never dreamt of this reverse of fortune; but being now overtaken by the punishment due to his crimes, fled, as has been before mentioned, with some of his nobles, attendants, and family, and a few of his effects, to the mountains of Camrup. That spot, by its bad air and water, and confined space, is rendered the worst place in the world, or rather it is in one of the pits of hell.

The Raja's officers and soldiers, by his orders, crossed the Dhonec, and settled in the spacious island between that and the Brahmaputra, which contains numerous forests and thickets. A few took refuge in other mountains, and watched an opportunity of committing hostilities.

Camrup is a country on the side of Dacshincul, situated between three high mountains, at the distance of four days journey from Ghergong. It is remarkable for bad water, noxious air, and confined prospects. Whenever the Raja used to be angry with any of his subjects, he sent them thither. The roads are difficult to pass, insomuch that a foot-traveller proceeds with the greatest inconvenience. There is one road wide enough for a horse; but the beginning of it contains thick forests for about half a coss. Afterwards there is a defile, which is stony and full of water. On each side is a mountain towering to the sky.

The Imperial General remained some days in Ghergong, where he was employed in regulating the affairs of the country, encouraging the peasants, and collecting, the effects of the Raja. He repeatedly read the Khotbeh, or prayer, containing the name and titles of the Prince of the Age, King of Kings, Alemgeer, Conqueror of the World; and adorned the faces of the coins with the imperial impression. this time there were heavy showers, accompanied with violent wind, for two or three days; and all the signs appeared of the rainy season, which in that country sets in before it does in Hindustan. General exerted himself in establishing posts, and fixing guards, for keeping open the roads and supplying the army with provisions. He thought now of securing himself during the rains, and determined, after the sky should be cleared from the clouds, the

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lightning cease to illuminate the air, and the swelling of the water should subside, that the army should again be set in motion against the Raja and his attendants, and be employed in delivering the country from the evils of their existence.

The author then mentions several skirmishes, which happened between the Raja's forces and the Imperial troops; in which the latter were always victorious. He concludes thus:

"At length all the villages of Dacshincul fell into the possession of the Imperial army. Several of the inhabitants and peasants, from the diffusion of the fame of his Majesty's kindness, tenderness, and justice, submitted to his government, and were protected in their habitations and property. The inhabitants of Uttarcul also became obedient to his commands. His Majesty rejoiced when he heard the news of this conquest, and rewarded the General with a costly dress, and other distinguishing marks of his favour."

The narrative, to which this is a supplement, gives a concise history of the military expedition into Asam. In this description the author has stopt at a period when the Imperial troops had possessed themselves of the capital, and were masters of any part of the plain country which they chose to occupy or over-run. The sequel diminishes the credit of the conquest, by showing that it was temporary, and that the Raja did not forget his usual policy of harassing the invading army during the rainy season: but this conduct produced only the effect of distressing and disgusting it with the service, instead of absolutely destroying it, as his predecessors had destroyed former adventurers. Yet the conclusion of this war is far from weakening the panegyric which the author has passed upon the Imperial General, to whom a difference of situation afforded an opportunity of displaying additional virtues, and of closing that life with heroic fortitude which he had always hazarded in the field with martial spirit. His name and titles were, Mir Jumleh, Moazzim Khan, Khani Khanan, Sipahi Salar.

REMARK.

The preceding account of the Asamians, who are probably superior in all respects to the Moguls, exhibits a specimen of the black malignity and frantic intolerance with which it was usual, in the reign of Aurangzib, to treat all those whom the crafty, cruel, and avaricious emperor was pleased to condemn as infidels and barbarians.

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ON THE MANNERS, RELIGION, AND LAWS OF THE CUCIS, OR MOUNTAINEERS, OF TIPRA.

Communicated, in Persian, by John Rawlins, Esq.

THE inhabitants of the mountainous districts to the east of *Bengal* give the name of *Patiyan* to the Being who created the universe; but they believe that a deity exists in every tree, that the sun and moon are Gods, and that whenever they worship those subordinate divinities, *Patiyan* is pleased.

If any one among them put another to death, the chief of the tribe, or other persons who bear no relation to the deceased, have no concern in punishing the murderer; but, if the murdered person has a brother, or other heir, he may take blood; nor has any man whatever a right to prevent or oppose such retaliation.

When a man is detected in the commission of theft or other atrocious offence, the chieftain causes a recompense to be given to the complainant, and reconciles both parties; but the chief himself receives a customary fine: and each party gives a feast of pork, or other meat, to the people of his respective tribe.

In ancient times it was not a custom among them to cut off the heads of the women whom they found in the habitations of their enemies; but it happened

once that a woman asked another why she came so late to her business of sowing grain: she answered, that her husband was gone to battle, and that the necessity of preparing food and other things for him had occasioned her delay. This answer was overheard by a man at enmity with her husband; and he was filled with resentment against her, considering, that, as she had prepared food for her husband for the purpose of sending him to battle against his tribe, so, in general, if women were not to remain at home, their husbands could not be supplied with provision, and consequently could not make war with advantage. From that time it became a constant practice to cut off the heads of the enemy's women; especially, if they happen to be pregnant, and therefore confined to their houses. And this barbarity is carried so far, that if a Cuci assail the house of an enemy, and kill a woman with child, so that he may bring two heads, he acquires honour and celebrity in his tribe, as the destroyer of two foes at once.

As to the marriages of this wild nation; when a rich man has made a contract of marriage, he gives four or five head of gayals (the cattle of the mountains) to the father and mother of the bride, whom he carries to his own house: her parents then kill the gayals, and, having prepared fermented liquors and boiled rice, with other eatables, invite the father, mother, brethren, and kindred of the bridegroom to a nuptial entertainment. When a man of small property is inclined to marry, and a mutual agreement is made, a similar method is followed in a lower degree: and a man may marry any woman, except his own mother. If a married couple live cordially together, and have a son, the wife is fixed and irremoveable; but, if they have no son, and especially if they live together on bad terms, the husband may divorce his wife, and marry another woman.

They have no idea of heaven or hell, the reward of good, or the punishment of bad actions; but they profess a belief, that when a person dies, a certain spirit comes and seizes his soul, which he carries away; and that whatever the spirit promises to give at the instant when the body dies, will be found and enjoyed by the dead; but that, if any one should take up the corse and carry it off, he would not find the treasure.

The food of this people consists of elephants, hogs, deer, and other animals; of which, if they find the carcasses or limbs in the forests, they dry and eat them occasionally.

When they have resolved on war, they send spies before hostilities are begun, to learn the stations and strength of the enemy, and the condition of the roads; after which they march in the night; and two or three hours before daylight, make a sudden assault with swords, lances, and arrows. If their enemies are compelled to abandon their station, the assailants instantly put to death all the males and females who are left behind, and strip the houses of all their furniture; but, should their adversaries, having gained intelligence of the intended assault, be resolute enough to meet them in battle, and should they find themselves overmatched, they speedily retreat and quietly return to their own habitations. If at any time they see a star very near the moon, they say, 'to-night we shall undoubtedly be attacked by some enemy;" and they pass that night under arms with extreme vigilance. They often lie in ambush in a forest near the path where their foes are used to pass and repass, waiting for the enemy with different sorts of weapons, and killing every man or woman who happens to pass by. In this situation, if a leech, or a worm, or a snake should bite one of them, he bears the pain in perfect silence:

and whoever can bring home the head of an enemy which he has cut off, is sure to be distinguished and exalted in his nation. When two hostile tribes appear to have equal force in battle, and neither has hopes of putting the other to flight, they make a signal of pacific intentions, and, sending agents reciprocally, soon conclude a treaty; after which they kill several head of gayals and feast on their flesh, calling on the sun and moon to bear witness of the pacification: but if one side, unable to resist the enemy, be thrown into disorder, the vanquished tribe is considered as tributary to the victors, who every year receive from them a certain number of gayals, wooden dishes, weapons, and other acknowledgments of vassalage. Before they go to battle they put a quantity of roasted alus (esculent roots like potatoes) and paste of riceflour into the hollow of bamboos, and add to them a provision of dry rice, with some leathern bags full of liquor: then they assemble and march with such celerity, that in one day they perform a journey ordinarily made by letter-carriers in three or four days, since they have not the trouble and delay of dressing victuals. When they reach the place to be attacked, they surround it in the night, and, at early dawn, enter it, putting to death both young and old, women and children, except such as they chuse to bring away captive. They put the heads which they cut off into leathern bags; and if the blood of their enemies be on their hands they take care not to wash it off. When, after this slaughter, they take their own food, they thrust a part of what they eat into the mouths of the heads which they have brought away, saying to each of them, 'Eat, quench thy thirst, and satisfy thy appetite. As thou hast been slain by my hand, so may thy kinsmen be slain by my kinsmen!' During their journey, they have usually two such meals; and every watch, or two watches, they send intelligence

of their proceedings to their families. When any of them sends word that he has cut off the head of an enemy, the people of his family, whatever be their age or sex, express great delight, making caps and ornaments of red and black ropes; then filling some large vessels with fermented liquors, and decking themselves with all the trinkets they possess, they go forth to meet the conqueror, blowing large shells and striking plates of metal, with other rude instruments of music. When both parties are met they show extravagant joy, men and women dancing and singing together; and if a married man has brought an enemy's head, his wife wears a head-dress with gay ornaments, the husband and wife alternately pour fermented liquor into each other's mouths, and she washes his bloody hands with the same liquor which they are drinking; thus they go revelling, with excessive merriment to their place of abode; and, having piled up the heads of their enemies in the court-yard of their chieftain's house, they sing and dance round the pile; after which they kill some gayals and hogs with their spears, and, having boiled the flesh, make a feast of it, and drink the fermented liquor. richer men of this race fasten the heads of their foes on a bamboo, and fix it on the graves of their parents, by which act they acquire great reputation. He who brings back the head of a slaughtered enemy, receives presents from the wealthy of cattle and spirituous liquors; and if any captives are brought alive, it is the prerogative of those chieftains who were not in the campaign, to strike off the heads of the captives. Their weapons are made by particular tribes; for some of them are unable to fabricate instruments of war.

In regard to their civil institutions, the whole management of their household affairs belongs to the women; while the men are employed in clearing fo-

rests, building huts, cultivating land, making war, or hunting game and wild beasts. Five days (they never reckon by months or years) after the birth of a male child, and three days after that of a female, they entertain their family and kinsmen with boiled rice and fermented liquor; and the parents of the child partake of the feast. They begin the ceremony with fixing a pole in the court-yard; and then, killing a gayal or a hog with a lance, they consecrate it to their deity; after which all the party eat the flesh and drink liquor, closing the day with dancing and with songs. If any one among them be so deformed, by nature or by accident, as to be unfit for the propagation of his species, he gives up all thought of keeping house, and begs for his subsistence, like a religious mendicant, from door to door, continually dancing and singing. When such a person goes to the house of a rich and liberal man, the owner of the house usually strings together a number of white and red stones, and fixes one end of the string on a long cane, so that the other end may hang down to the ground; then, paying a kind of superstitious homage to the pebbles, he gives alms to the beggar; after which he kills a gayal and a hog, and some other quadrupeds, and invites his tribe to The giver of such an entertainment acquires extraordinary fame in the nation: and all unite in applauding him with every token of honour and reverence.

When a Cuci dies, all his kinsmen join in killing a hog and a gayal; and, having boiled the meat, pour some liquor into the mouth of the deceased, round whose body they twist a piece of cloth by way of shroud. All of them taste the same liquor as an offering to his soul; and this ceremony they repeat at intervals for several days. Then they lay the body on a stage, and, kindling a fire under it, pierce it with a spir, and

dry it: when it is perfectly dried, they cover it with two or three folds of cloth; and, enclosing it in a little case within a chest, bury it under ground. All the fruits and flowers that they gather within a year after the burial, they scatter on the grave of the deceased; but some bury their dead in a different manner, covering them first with a shroud, then with a mat of woven reeds, and hanging them on a high tree. Some, when the flesh is decayed, wash the bones, and keep them dry in a bowl, which they open on every sudden emergence; and fancying themselves at a consultation with the bones, pursue whatever measures they think proper, alledging, that they act by the command of their departed parents and kinsmen. A widow is obliged to remain a whole year near the grave of her husband, where her family bring her food: if she die within the year, they mourn for her; if she live, they carry her back to her house, where all her relations are entertained with the usual feast of the Cuci.

If the deceased leave three sons, the eldest and the youngest share all his property, but the middle son takes nothing: if he have no sons, his estate goes to his brothers; and if he have no brothers, it escheats to the chief of the tribe.

NOTE.

A party of Cuci visited the late CHARLES CROFTES, Esq. at Jafarabad in the spring of 1776, and entertained him with a dance: they promised to return after their harvest, and seemed much pleased with their reception.

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XIII.

ON THE

SECOND CLASSICAL BOOK

OF THE

CHINESE.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

THE vicinity of China to our Indian territories. from the capital of which there are not more than six hundred miles to the province of Yunan, must necessarily draw our attention to that most ancient and wonderful empire, even if we had no commercial intercourse with its more distant and maritime provinces; and the benefits that might be derived from a more intimate connection with a nation long famed for their useful arts and for the valuable productions of their country, are too apparent to require any proof or illustration. My own inclinations and the course of my studies lead me rather to consider at present their laws, politics, and morals, with which their general literature is closely blended, than their manufactures and trade: nor-will I spare either pains or expense to procure translations of their most approved law-tracts, that I may return to Europe with distinct ideas, drawn from the fountain-head, of the wisest Asiatic legislation. It will probably be a long time before accurate returns can be made to my inquiries concerning the Chinese Laws; and, in the interval, the Society will not, perhaps, be displeased to know that a translation of a most venerable and excellent work may be expected from Canton through the kind assistance of an inestimable correspondent.

According to a Chinese writer, named Li Yang Ping, "the ancient characters used in his country were the outlines of visible objects, earthly and

celestial: but as things merely intellectual could onot be expressed by those figures, the grammarians of China contrived to represent the various operations of the mind by metaphors drawn from the productions of nature: thus the idea of roughness and of rotundity, of motion and rest, were conveyed to the eye by signs representing a mountain, the sky, a river and the earth; the figures of the sun, the moon, and the stars, differently combined, stood for smoothness and splendour, for any thing artfully wrought, or woven with delicate workmanship; extension, growth, increase, and many other qualities, were painted in characters taken from clouds, from the firmament, and from the vegetable part of the creation; the different ways of moving, agility and slowness, idleness and diligence, were expressed by various insects, birds, fish, and quadrupeds. In this manner passions and sentiments were traced by the pencil, and ideas not subject to any sense were exhibited to the sight, until by degrees new combinations were invented, new expressions added; the characters deviated imperceptibly from their primitive shape, and the · Chinese language became not only clear and forcible, but rich and elegant in the highest degree.'

In this language, so ancient and so wonderfully composed, are a multitude of books abounding in useful, as well as agreeable, knowledge; but the highest class consists of *Five* works; one of which, at least, every *Chinese* who aspires to literary honours, must read again and again, until he possess it perfectly.

The first is purely Historical, containing annals of the empire from the two-thousand three-hundred thirtyfeventh year before Christ: it is entitled Shuking, and a version of it has been published in France; to which country we are indebted for the most authentic and most valuable specimens of Chinese history and literature, from the compositions which preceded those of Homer to the poetical works of the present Emperor, who seems to be a man of the brightest genius and the most amiable affections. We may smile, if we please, at the levity of the French, as they laugh without scruple at our seriousness: but let us not so far undervalue our rivals in arts and in arms, as to deny them their just commendation, or to relax our efforts in that noble struggle, by which alone we can preserve our own eminence.

The fecond classical work of the Chinese contains three hundred odes, or short poems, in praise of ancient sovereigns and legislators, or descriptive of ancient manners, and recommending an imitation ofthem in the discharge of all public and domestic duties: they abound in wife maxims and excellent precepts, 'their whole doctrine,' according to Cunfu-tsu, in the Lunyu or Moral Discourses, 'being reducible to this grand rule, that we should not even ' entertain a thought of any thing base or culpable;' but the copies of the Shi King, for that is the title of the book, are supposed to have been much disfigured, fince the time of that great philosopher, by spurious passages and exceptionable interpolations; and the style of the poems is in some parts too metaphorical, while the brevity of other parts renders them obfcure; though many think even this obscurity fublime and venerable, like that of ancient cloysters and temples, 'Shedding,' as Milton expresses it, 'a 'dim religious light.' There is another passage in the Lunyu, which deserves to be set down at length: Why, my fons, do you not study the book of Odes? If we creep on the ground, if we lie useless and

in them we fee, as in a mirror, what may best become us, and what will be unbecoming; by their influence we shall be made social, affable, benevoelent; for as music combines sounds in just melody, of the ancient poetry tempers and composes our passions: the Odes teach us our duty to our parents at home, and abroad to our prince; they instruct us also delightfully in the various productions of ' nature.' 'Hast thou studied,' said the philosopher to his son Peyu, 'the first of the three hundred Odes on the nuptials of Prince Venvam and the virtuous ' Tai Jin? He who studies them not resembles a man with his face against a wall, unable to advance a step in virtue and wisdom.' Most of those Odes are near three thousand years old, and some, if we give credit to the Chinese annals, considerably older; but others are somewhat more recent, having been composed under the later emperors of the third family, called Sheu. The work is printed in four volumes; and towards the end of the first, we find the Ode, which Couplet has accurately translated at the beginning of the Tabio, or Great Science, where it is finely amplified by the philosopher: I produce the original from the Shi King itself, and from the book in which it is cited, together with a double version, one verbal and another metrical; the only method of doing justice to the poetical compositions of the Asiatics. It is a panegyric on Vucun, Prince of Guey in the province of Honang, who died, near a century old, in the thirteenth year of the emperor Pingvang, seven hundred and fifty-six years before the birth of Christ, or one hundred and forty-eight, according to Sir Isaac Newton, after the taking of Troy; so that the Chinese Poet might have been contemporary with Hesiod and Homer, or, at least, must have written the Ode before the Iliad and Odyssey were carried into Greece by Lycurgus.

The verbal translation of the thirty-two original characters is this:

Behold you reach of the river Ki;

Its green reeds how luxuriant! how luxuriant! 9 11 12 110

'Thus is our prince adorned with virtues;

As a carver, as a filer, of ivory,

' As a cutter, as a polisher, of gems.

- O how elate and sagacious! O how dauntless and composed!
- How worthy of fame! How worthy of reverence! 27 28 : .;26

We have a prince adorned with virtues,

Whom to the end of time we cannot forget.

THE PARAPHRASE.

Behold, where you blue riv'let glides Along the laughing dale; Light reeds bedeck its verdant sides, And frolic in the gale:

So shines our Prince! In bright array The Virtues round him wait; And sweetly smil'd th' auspicious day, That rais'd him o'er our state.

As pliant hands in shapes refin'd Rich iv'ry carve and smoothe, His Laws thus mould each ductile mind, And every passion soothe.

As gems are taught by patient art In sparkling ranks to beam, With manners thus he forms the heart, And spreads a gen'ral gleam.

What soft, yet awful, dignity!
What meek, yet manly, grace!
What sweetness dances in his eye,
And blossoms in his face!

So shines our Prince! A sky-born crowd Of Virtues round him blaze:
Ne'er shall Oblivion's murky cloud Obscure his deathless praise.

The prediction of the poet has hitherto been accomplished; but he little imagined that his composition would be admired, and his prince celebrated in a language not then formed, and by the natives of regions so remote from his own.

In the *tenth* leaf of the *Ta Hio*, a beautiful comparison is quoted from another ode in the *Shi King*, which deserves to be exhibited in the same form with the preceding:

- The peach-tree, how fair! how graceful!
- Its leaves, how blooming! how pleasant!
- Such is a bride, when she enters her bridegroom's house,
- And pays due attention to her whole family.

The simile may thus be rendered:

Gay child of Spring, the garden's queen,
You peach tree charms the roving sight:
Its fragrant leaves how richty green!
Its blossoms how divinely bright!

So softly smiles the blooming bride, By Love and conscious Virtue led O'er her new mansion to preside, And placid joys around her spread.

The next leaf exhibits a comparison of a different nature, rather sublime than agreeable, and conveying rather censure than praise:

O how horridly impends yon southern mountain!

Thus loftily thou sittest, O minister of YN!

All the people look up to thee with dread.

Which may be thus paraphrased:

See, where you crag's imperious height The sunny highland crowns, And hideous as the brow of night, Above the torrent frowns!

So scowls the Chief, whose will is law, Regardless of our state; While millions gaze with painful awe, With fear allied to hate. It was a very ancient practice in China to paint or engrave moral sentences and approved verses on vessels in constant use; as the words Renew thyself daily were inscribed on the bason of the emperor Tang, and the poem of Kien Long, who is now on the throne, in praise of tea, has been published on a set of porcelain cups; and if the description just cited of a selfish and insolent statesman were, in the same manner, constantly presented to the eves and attention of rulers, it might produce some benefit to their subjects and to themselves; especially if the comment of Tsem Tsu, who may be called the Xenophon, as Cun Fu Tsu was the Socrates, and Mem Tsu the Plato, of China, were added to illustrate and enforce it.

If the rest of the three hundred Odes be similar to the specimens adduced by those great moralists in their works, which the French have made public, I should be very solicitous to procure our nation the honour of bringing to light the second classical book of the Chinese. The third, called Yeking, or the book of changes, believed to have been written by Fo, the Hermes of the East, and consisting of right lines variously disposed, is hardly intelligible to the most learned Mandarins; and Cun Fu Tsu himself. who was prevented by death from accomplishing his design of elucidating it, was dissatisfied with all the interpretations of the earliest commentators. As to the fifth, or Liki, which that excellent man compiled from old monuments, it consists chiefly of the Chinese ritual, and of tracts on moral duties; but the fourth entitled Chung Cieu, or Spring and Autumn, by which the same incomparable writer meaned the flourishing state of an empire under a virtuous monarch, and the fall of kingdoms under bad governors, must be an interesting work in every nation. The powers, how-

ever, of an individual are so limited, and the field of knowledge is so vast, that I dare not promise more than to procure, if any exertions of mine will avail, a complete translation of the Shi King, together with an authentic abridgement of the Chinese laws, civil and criminal. A native of Canton, whom I knew some years ago in England, and who passed his first examinations with credit in his way to literary distinctions, but was afterwards allured from the pursuit of learning by a prospect of success in trade, has favoured me with the Three Hundred Odes in the original, together with the Lun Yu, a faithful version of which was published at Paris near a century ago; but he seems to think, that it would require three or four years to complete a translation of them; and Mr. Cox informs me that none of the Chinese to whom he has access, possess leisure and perseverance enough for such a task; yet he hopes, with the assistance of Whang Atong, to send me next season some of the poems translated into English. A little encouragement would induce this young Chinese to visit India, and some of his countrymen would, perhaps, accompany him; but though considerable advantage to the public, as well as to letters, might be reaped from the knowledge and ingenuity of such emigrants, yet we must wait for a time of greater national wealth and prosperity, before such a measure can be formally recommended by us to our patrons at the helm of government.

A Letter to the PRESIDENT from a young CHINESE.

SIR,

RECEIVED the favour of your letter dated 28th March, 1784, by Mr. Cox. I remember the pleasure of dining with you in company with Captain Blake and Sir Joshua Reynolds; and I shall always remember the kindness of my friends in England.

The Chinese book, Shi King, that contains three hundred poems, with remarks thereon, and the work of Con-fu-tsu, and his grandson, the Tai Ho, I beg you will accept: but to translate the work into English will require a great deal of time, perhaps three or four years; and I am so much engaged in business, that I hope you will excuse my not undertaking it.

If you wish for any books or other things from Canton, be so good as to let me know, and I will take particular care to obey your orders.

Wishing you health,

I am, SIR,

Your most obedient humble Servant,

WHANG ATONG.

To Sir WILLIAM JONES, Dec. 10, 1784.

A TABLE,

Containing Examples of all the different species of Infinitives and Participles that are derived from Triliteral Verbs, in the form in which they are used in the Persian and in the Language of Hindostan.

Mail: when the different radicals and set radicals and			Conjugation, 1st.	1	2d.		3d.		4th.	
With three difficent radical, none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same, but none of them, are same, but none of them, as a second planting, and the same of the same			From		From	f	From		From	
The With the administration of them, and the same, but more of them, and the same but more of the same but more of them, and the same but more of them, and the same but more of the same but more of them, and the same but more of		ſ	Infin. Jei action,	ا فعل	fault,.] قصر	opposition, مُعَالَفَتُ	ار کاخد	demonstration,	ظهر
II. With the ad and 3d radical; the same, but nows of them, and seemed the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, as a seemed to the same, but nows of them, as a seemed to the same, as	With three different radicals,	5417	Part. act. judging,	حكم	importuning, مَصَدّع	صدع	conforming, مُطَّابِيَّ			هلک
Infin. If With he ad and get articult the same, but more of them, as yet theme as yet the same, but more of them, as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet the as yet theme as yet theme as yet theme as yet theme as yet the as yet theme	none of them,	, ;.	0030	تتز	broken, مُكَسَّرُ	اكسر	ب connected, مُتَاسَّب	لَقُ إِنسا	absolved, مَطَ	طلف
Same but more of them, as year repeated, year repeated, year year repeated, year year repeated, year repeated	as just	-		عز عز	repetition, تَكْرِير	[كو	extension, مهادت	رُ (مدّ	confirmation, اتَّواً	- قر
Fart, pas. pechatical, part actions of them, as for the st radical, as VI. With a for the st radical, as VIII. With a for the st radical,	II. With the 2d and 3d radicals the	ا ادف	Part. act. performing the pilgrimage	, ==	certifying,	حت	extending,	مد	honoring,	
III. With 1 for the 1st radical, as VI. With 2 for the 2d radical, as VIII. With 2 for the 2d radical, as VIII. With 2 for the 2d radical, as VIII. With 3 for the 2d radical, as VIII. With 4 for the 3d radical, as VIII. With 5 for the 2d radical, as VIII. With 5 for the 2d radical, as VIII. With 6 for the 3d radical,	same, but none of them,		1	-	repeated, مُحَرَّرُ	ا كرّ				عد
III. With 1 for the 1st radical, as Part, act. Mi eating, part pass, Spate taken, as part pass, Spate taken, part pass, Spate taken, as part pass, Spate taken, pass, Spate taken, as part pass, Spate taken, as part pass, Spate taken, as pass, pass	as as	(ادب	instruction, تَادِيْتِ	أأدب	procrastination, مُواُخَرَتُ	اخر	presentment, أَبِثَار	ائر
Part, pas. 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2,	III. With 1 for the 1st radical,		00-	151	establishing, موصلاً	Jol	lying contiguous, صُواِرِنُ	أ ارف	giving to eat, مُورِّ	اکل
Infin.	as	7,1		أخد	well educated,	أذب	familiarized, مُوَّانَسُ	م اتس	pained, صُولَا	المم
Part, act. Main for the ad radical, as VI. With a for the ad radical, as VIII. With a for the ad radic				شارخ	mitigation, تأليع	150	complacency, مُلاَأَمَتُ	ت الام	compliance,	Jlm
Part, pass James sought, lafin. by relief, cue, lafter, congraulation, lab lafter, lab lafter, lab lafter, lab lafter, lab lafter, lab lafter, lab	IV. With I for the 2d radidal,	10) 0,0	اساز			M3			سال
V. With 1 for the 3d radical, Part, pas. Speech, Infin. Speech, Infin. Part, pas. Speech, Infin. Speech, Infin. Part, pas. Speech, Infin. Speech, In	as	۰ ساس	00 300	3lm	clothed in mail,	69	Control of the Contro	1	filled,	قام
V. With 1 for the 3d radical, A. With 2 for the 3d radical, A. With 2 for the 3d radical, A. With 3 for the 3d radical, A. With 4 for the 3d radical, A. With 5 for the 3d radical, A. With 6 for the 3d radical, A. With 7 for the 3d radical, A. With 8 for the 3d radical, A. With 9 for the 3d radical, A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and 3 the A. With 1 for the 5st, and			Man 1 to 1	ء بوڙ	congratulation, تَهْنَبَتُ	ِ هَنَا '	a miles of			برا
Part, pas. sp. freed, procongramulated, the part action, part, act. and a radical, as the protecting, part, act. and a radical, as the part act. And inclining, part, act. And	V. With 1 for the 3d radical,		The same of the		free,	براء		1 2	causing to build,	ينا
VII. With sor the st radical, as VIII. With sor the ad radical, as viii. As viii	as	۔ بوا ۔	1	1.	congratulated,	مثا	. 1			نشا
VII. With , for the 1st radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 2d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 2d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كالله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله , for the 3d radical, as parting, part, past. كال الله و أما الله و	R 15 S				concurrence, توثبت	وفاف	perseverance, مُوَاظَبَتُ	ب (وظم	necessity, أَبْجَا	وجب
Part, pas. pasech, lass perchited, lass perch, lass pe	VI. With , for the 1st radical,		2			وكد	agreeing, مُواَنِقُ			وجب
Infin. المنافع speaking, المن	as	ا وصع	Part, pas. placed,	وڤغ .	assisted, مُوَفَقُ	ونت				وجد
Part. act. المنافق speaking,	11.			توا	prolixity, تَطُويْلُ	طول				جوز
Part. pas. نَهُمْ dreaded, Infin. ههُ omission, Part. act. هاد transgressing, هه she part. pas. ههُ هُ	WII. With , for the 2d radical,			تنوأ	illuminating, مَنَوْر	ئور	rising against another,			قوم
الله المنافع	25	" فول		خو		طول				
VIII. With a for the 3d radical, as Part. act. as a transgressing, as Part. act. as a solicited, as	RA B			· Jan	education, تُرْبَيْتُ	ربو `	interview, مَادَقَاتُ		,	-
AX. With a for the 1st radical, as Vith with a for the 2d radical, as Vith with a for the 3d radical, as Vith with 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 1 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the 1st, and 5 the 2d radical, as Vith 2 for the	VIII. With , for the 3d radical,		·	عدو	instructing,	رپو	meeting, مُلَاقُي			
Infin. المائدة certainly, المائدة the act of blessing, المائدة the act of changing, المائدة the act of		· whe ·	1	دغو	instructed, مُرَبًا	ريو	•		•	
IX. With a for the 1st radical, as Part. act. المنابع prospering, المنابع obtained,		,		1	C 222	يسر	the act of blessing,			
Ax. With a for the 2d radical, as Part. pas. كين favoured by fortune, والمنتقل fortune, والمنتقل favoured by fortune, والمنتقل favoured favoured by fortune, والمنتقل favoured favoured favoured by fortune, والمنتقل favoured	IX. With g for the 1st radical,	· . T.			Oard prosperity	يهن			certain, موتر	يقى
X. With a for the 2d radical, as \ \text{Infin.} \ \text{give the act of walking out, pm at the act of walking out, pm at the act of the advances of changing, part act. \ \text{Jule inclining, part, act. } Jule inclinin	as	يين			0==3 1 === 3	ېسر				,
X. With a for the 2d radical, as Part. act. المالة (hoosing, الموقع choosing, choosing, proposing, choosing			7.0			غېر	man of the set			
Art. pas. عنده sold, المبتد changed, المبتد c	X. With & for the 2d radical,		28-	ميل		خېر	opposing, مُغَايِّر			
XI. With a for the 3d radical, as Infin. ويلم injustice, explaining,	as	سېر			changed, مغبر	غبر		Ĺ		
XI. With a for the 3d radical, as Part. act. والم منائق judging, الكلام praying, الكلام praying, الكلام praying, الكلام praying, الكلام for the 3d radical, as الله إلى الكلام praying, الكلام doubled, الله ألله ألله ألله ألله ألله إلى الكلام praying, الكلام repugnant, r			Infin. injustice,		the act of doubling,	ڏني	compensation, مَكَافَاتُ		.,	
Part. pas. وَمُونَا فَا فَعَنْ فُولِ اللّهِ مُعْلَمًا وَلَوْلِهِ مَا اللّهِ اللّهُ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهِ اللّهُ الللّهُ اللللللّهُ اللللّهُ الللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ ا	XI. With a for the 3d radical,	2.7		1	praying, مصلي		repugnant, مَنَافِي			
XII. With t for the ist, and ithe ad radical, as اول الله الله الله الله الله الله الله	as	باب			مُثَنَّا doubled,	ثقي		1	covered over,	çi,mış
XII. With t for the 1st, and a the ad radical, as Part, act. اود اود Part, act. اود					explication, -	اول				
ad radical. as an armstated.		1	Post oct 11 troublesome.	ود						4.1
	2d radical, as	اوپ	7735	رق	sranslated,	اول .		£ -	weighte down,	-,'

A TABLE CONTAINING EXAMPLES, &c.

51k.	6th.	7th.	8 <i>tb</i> .	10th.
From	From	From	From	From
مبر arrogance, تکبر	Sier negligence, sie	ر contrition, اِنْكَسَار	regulation, انْتَظَامُ كَا كَسَر	تبل a meeting, اسْتَقْبَالُ انظم
مرف possessing, متَصَرَّق	عتب succeeding another, متعاقب	و ۵ - ۵ و د منافرج comprehending & comprehended, ج	expecting, مُتَنَظِّم درج	rotecting, فظر
annexed, علق عام	بعد · removed, مُتَبَاعَدُ		regulated,	خکم confirmed, مُسْتَحَكَّمُ لظم
investigation, تَجَسَّسُ	دت - mutual search, تَدَاتَتُ	أنحلاً solution,	اِعْتَمَامً الْعَتْمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمَامُ الْعَلَمُ الْعَلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعَلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلْمُ الْعِلمُ الْعِلْمُ ال	independency, تَرَّ independency, تَرُّ
رد opposing, متردد	حَج disputation, تَحَاجَ	flowing profusely,	wearing out,	مَدُّ absolute, يَّقُ
أَصْرَ injured,	رد opposing each other, متراد		depraved, مُخْتَارًا	مر past, مر
deliberation,	مس touched, متماس		confidence, أيتمال	اصل extirpation, استَبْصَالُ ال
retarding, متاخر			confiding, مُوتَمِيْ	ادب , studying civility مستادب امن
فال المالغور			confided, موتم	اصل عستاصل امس
Time the act of begging, Jum	آهات expostulation, بالد		auguration, الْعَتْبَا,	فال }
ا الله عَنْسَاءُ عَنْسَوَهُ وَ begging, الله	أَيْسَأَيْرُ begging,			
,	Jelezo portended, Jis			
ا هذا refreshing with good food, اتَهَنُّو ا			ر commencement,	براء purification, استبراً بدأ
frecing,	يها مُتَبَاّهِي boasting mutually مُتَبَاّهِي	Section 2	beginning,	براء desiring to be free, براء
دية congratulated; نها		٠.	begun,	أبدأ
وقف delay, تَوَقَّفُ	وضع : . submission 'تَوَاضُعُ		union, اتَّحَا	وطن residence, اِسْتَبُطَانُ وحد
وجد giving countenance, متوجد	وتو succeeding another, متواتو		approaching, متّص	وطن residing, وصل
وقع expected, مَتَوَقَع	وصْل united, مُتَوَاصُلُ		united,	ودع deposited, وحد
صور , the act of imagining نَصُورُ	جوز excess, نجاوز کا	submission, انقباد	affection, اشْتِبُنَ } قود	صوب approbation, استصواب ا شوق
صور imagining, متصور	جوز exceeding, مُتَجَاَّوِزَ	obeying, منقاد	desiring, مُشْتَنُّ قود	طول exalting himself, مُسْتَطْبِرُ شوق
صور imagined, مُتَصَوَّر	عور received in loan, متعَاور		desired, مُشتَّلُ	عور received in loan, مُسْتَعَار شوق
عدو violence, تعدي	لغو prosecution, تَلاَفِي	brightness, انجلا	conference, التقاب إجلو	دعو ,the act of petitioning استدعاً القو
transgressing, see	علو متعالي raising on high,	contagious,	coming to meet, مُثَنَّعُ عِدْو	عدو, desiring aid to oppose مستعدي التو
لَّقُو met, مُتَلَقَّا			afflicted,	دعو solicited, مستَدَعًا بلو
the act of making happy, يمن	ا يجر ، ,the act of revolting تَبَاجُرُ		the act of ascertaining,	بسر , the act of facilitating بسر
يقى ascertaining, متبقى	يجر revolting, مُتَباَدِر		1	exploring, مستبغي
تَعَا roused, تَعَالَمُ تَعَالَمُ roused,	ا revolted, مُتَبَاَّجُرُ			
application, تَعَبِّدُ	أَمْيِلُ inflection, تَمَايُلُ	submission, اِنْتِبَادُ	option, اَحْتِبَارُ قَبِد	مبل the act of soothing, مبل
wondering, متخبر	غَيْرِ. altering, مُتَغَايِّر	obeying, مُنْقَادُ	choosing, مُخْتَلُرُ قبد	acquiring gain, عبر
appointed, متعبن			chosen, مُخْتَارُ	زيد increased, خبر
gas rebellion, gas	علي exaltation, تَعَالِيُ	expiration of time, انتضا	sufficiency, وَكَتِعَا } قضو	قضي appeal for judgment, يُسْتَقَمَّا } كغي
سني wishing, مُتَمَلِّي	نهي compleating, مُتَنَاعِي	coming to a conclusion, ي		فني enjoying plenty, مستغني قضي
مني wished, مُتَمَنَّا			73	excepted, قضي دغير
اول exposition, تَآوِلُ				
interpreting, مُتَاوِّلُ			returning, موتاب	اور taking fright, مُسْتَاوِرُ اوب
اول translated, مُتَاوِّلُ			returned, مُوتَابُ	اور affrighted, مُسْتَاوَرُ اوب

				Co	ONJUGATION 1st.		$2d_*$ From		3d. From		4th. From	
					22	1	confirmation,	ا اید		ſ		
		With 1 for the 1st, and g		Infin.	strength,	اید اید	confirming,	اید			confirming, و دور	اید
	XIII.	the 2d radical, as	} اید	Part. act.	potent,	- 1	confirmed,	اید			confirmed, مُويَدُ	ايد
			Į		made desperate,	ابس ِ	accusation,	ا سوء	عَمْانِينَ evil doing,	ا سوء	evil doing,	.ين سوء
	VIII	With 1 the 3d, and, the		Infin.	depravity,	me a	accusations	,	come,	"	sinning, مَسْنِي	سوء سوء
	AIV.	2d radical, as	> سوء	Part. act.							<u>g</u>	9
			(Part: pas.	the act of calling to eat and drink	!	preparation,	[ſ		
	YV.	With 1 the 3d, and & the		Infin.	2 **-		preparing,	هيء هيء				
	Z1, V -	2d radical,	٢ جيء		coming, جاءِي	جيء	Lie prepared,	.				
			Ĺ	Part. pas.	00- 11-5		the act of calling ' father,'	[هيءُ	the cultivation of friendship,			
	V 171	With 1 the 1st, and, the	i	Infin.	medicine,	اسو	giving comfort,		the convation of menusing,	احو	0.03	
•	XVI.	2d radical,	> اخو	Part. act.	curing,	اسو	giving connon,	lme			giving comfort, مُوسِيَّ	اسو
			{	Part. pas.	cured,	اسو	performance,	[0.5.5) . [
	373711	With 1 the 1st, and & the		Infin.	gsi trouble,	ادی	performing,	15.21	parallelism, مُوَازَاتُ	از <i>ي</i> ا	molestation, ابذا	ادی
B 5.	Y 111.	3d radical,	انې	Part. act.	gsī taking trouble,	اذي	performed, صودا	ادي	parallel, مُواَرِيُ	ازي	molesting, مُورِّدِي	డ్షస్ట్
VER			Į	Part. pas.			performed,	ادي			2	
AL	3/7/117	. With 1 the 2d, and g the		Infin.	واي observation,	راي			dissimulation, مُوَايَاتُ	راي	the act of shewing,	راي
TER	XVIII	2d radical, as	ا راي	Part. act.	observing,	راي			dissembling, مراثي	راي		
ILI	ĺ		Į	-		£1.		l ſ	0	. [0 -0	
T	VIV	With, the 1st, and & the		Infin.	protection, وَقَيْ	وقي	the act of protecting,	وقي	the performance of what is due,	وقبي	the performance of what is stipula	وقي ,ted
ABIC	ліл.	3d radical,	که وقبی	Part. act.	protecting, وَاقِيَ	وقبي	powerful,	وقي	performing, مَواَفي	وفي	making a will, موصي	وصي
AR			{	-	protected, موقي	وقي	directed by a will,	وصي	23	{	performed, مُوفاً	وقي
COM	vv	With g the 1st, and g the		Infin.	power, یدي	يدى			payment out of one's own hand,	يري	000	
H	AA.	3d radical,	\ يدي	Part. act.	2 2-						beneficent,	يدي
			l		hurt in the hand,	یدی		ſ		ţ	benifited, مُودًا	يدي
	XXI.	With, the 2d, and & the		Infin.	strength, قوت	قوي	corroboration, تَقُوبَتُ	قوي	the act of making equal	سوي,	0.04	
		3d radical,	ل قوي	Part. act.	0.0 -	قوي	strengthening, مُعَوِّي	قوي	equal, مساوي	سوي	having strong cattle, مُقْوِي	قوي
				,	narrated,	روي	strengthened,	قوي		{	0 - 0	
	XXII	. With & the 2d, and & the		Infin.	اife, عبات life,	حبي	salutation, تَحَبِّن	حبي			اَحْبَاءُ vivification,	حبي
	74.7411	3d radical, as	≺حبي		gela living,	حبي	saluting, محيم	حبي			vivifying,	حبي
				Part. pas.	00 -		{	Ĺ		1		
	XXII	I. With, for the 1st, and g		Infin.	vid. gol. اوي							
	20,711	2d radical,	> اوي	Part. act.	vid. gol. آوي							
				Part. pas.				}	•	{		
	XXI	V With the same and it		Infin.	promise, وآي	وأي						
	WAI	V. With, the 1st, and \(\varphi \) the 3d radical,	واي	Part. act.								
				Part. pas.			l l	į		t		

A TABLE CONTAINING EXAMPLES, &c.

51b. From	6th.	7th.	8th. · · · · ·	10 <i>th</i> .
confirmation, sul	١٠٠ ، حتى ، ١٠٠			From
مَالَةُ confirming, ما				
made soft, متابّس		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
	Į.			
preparation, وه				Ĭ
preparing, ديمه				
هي بتهباً و prepared			}	
اخو. behaviour of a brother تاخي	mutual fraternity, الخو]	
acting like a brother, متاخي	behaving mutually like brothers,		imitating, موتسي	
				•
أَنْ caution, يَانِي sil				waiting with patience, انى ستآني
cautious, متاني		4		<u>ن</u> ي .
}	}			
	looking at one another, راي	- '/		a desired
روني the act of fulfilling, توقيي	2		[
ine act of funding,	ولي a series of succession, ولي		abstinence, وقي abstinent, مَتَقَيْ	the act of fulfilling, وني fulfilling, وني fulfilling,
وني giving up life, متوقيق deceased,	ولى , following in succession مَتَوَالَي		وقي abstinent, وقي	fulfilling, مُسْتُوفي
eig deceased,	}			
قوي superior strength, قَعَوِيَهُ	sells the act of amount		[
أَمْتُونِي having great strength, مُتَقَوِّي	قوي the act of empowering, قوي empowering, تتقاوي		equality, استوا	
	قوي empowering, متعاوي		سوي equal, مستوي	
	1	}		modesty, استخبا
				modesty,
l				
20003		1	į	
collecting together, متاوِي	1.		receiving into his house, وتوي	
,		1	S mo mo mouse, (55)	
,	Į.		}	
1				

ADVERTISEMENT.

E XAMPLES of derivatives from Arabic quadriliterals rarely occur in the Persian language; and from the 9th, 11th, 12th, and 13th, conjugations of triliterals there are none to be met with. I have, therefore, confined my observations to the nine conjugations included in the table. And all hough particular senses and uses are assigned to each of these by grammarians, (which may be seen in Mr. Richardson's Gram. p. 65.) it is at the same time to be observed, that they are nevertheless frequently used in other senses; many of them retaining the simple signification of their primitives: and that every root does not extend through every conjugation, but that some are used in one form, many in several, none in all,

These observations are applicable to the present subject; and the derivatives of such conjugations as are more frequently used in the Arabic, seem also to be more frequently than any other introduced into the Persian.

Where no example of any particular form is to be found in Golius and Meninski, I have left a blank in the table, which may be filled up whenever any can be met with.

With regard to the examples which I have brought to illustrate the following rules, they are such as came first to hand; and one example of an infinitive or participle is intended as a representation of the infinitives and participles of every species and conjugation. To have attempted a complete system of

examples would have carried me far beyond the limits of my present undertaking.

OF ARABIC INFINITIVES.

I. Their Masculine Singulars are used in the Persian as Substantives; and in every respect serve the same purposes, and are subject to the same rules of construction as substantives originally Persian.

Ex '		
1. governing a fub. fol.	اظها ريكانكي	demonstrations of unanimity
2. agreeing with an ad. fol.	استعجال تمام	great haste
3. agreeing with a part. pas. fo		
4. nominatives to verbs,	نظربرايي بود	
	احتظا ظِو افريافت	great delight
6. governed by a prep.	بعد از تغديم مراس	after perform- ing the duties
7. united by a conjunction	اقبال و اجلال طینده این معاده	prosperity and splendour
3. rendered definite by عود ع		the union that was between

II. Their Masculine Plurals are used in the Persian as substantives; and in every respect serve the same purposes, and are subject to the same rules of construction as substantives originally Persian.

Ex.

1. governing a sub. fol.

the dispositions اخلاق مردم

Ex.

2. agreeing with an ad. fol.

good actions انعال نبک

3. agreeing with a part. pas. fol. in delifications described

III. Their Feminine Singulars are used in the Persian as substantives; and in every respect serve the same purposes, and are subject to the same rules of construction as substantives originally Persian.

Ex.

1. nominatives to verbs,

there is permission

2. governing a sub. fol.

the business of the empire

3. agreeing with an ad. fol.

مقاتله عظیمه a bloody battle

4. agreeing with a part. مكاتبة مرقومة بدوستي a letter written pas. fol. in friendship

IV. Their Feminine Plurals are used in the Persian as substantives; and in every respect serve the same purposes, and are subject to the same rules of construction as substantives originally Persian.

Ex.

1. governing a sub. fol.

the civilities of friends

2. agreeing with an ad. fol.

public affairs معاملات كلّي

3. agreeing with a part. pas. fol. تكلبغات مزبور the said bur-

V. The Infinitives of the first conjugation of transitive verbs are regularly of the form exhibited in the table. But those of Intransitives are reducible to no

proper rule without innumerable exceptions. Grammarians make of them in all thirty two different forms, which may be seen in Mr. Richardson's Grammar, p. 92. but for these irregularities, he justly observes, that a dictionary is the only proper guide. These Infinitives, both Singulars and Plurals, are introduced freely into the Persian as Substantives.

Ex. governing another sub. fol. وصول مكتوب the arrival of the letter & ca & ca

OF ARABIC PARTICIPLES ACTIVE.

I. Their Masculine Singulars are used in the Persian as participles, as substantives, and as adjectives.

Ex.

1. as participles with a verb fol. منتظر ماند he remained expecting

be shining and blazing

a. as sub. governing another sub. fol. حاكم شهر governor of the

causing gladness صوجب خو شنو دي —the cause of gladness

composing this book—the author of this book

following the noble law—follower of the noble law

3: as an ad. qualifying a sub. مردم تابل an able man

4. following another sub. signify- حضرت خالت God the creator ing the same thing

Ex.

- 5. agreeing with an ad. fol. عامل نبك a good agent.
- 6. agreeing with a part. pas. fol. حاكم مستقل absolute judge
- 7. governed by a verb, قاتلرا كشت he put the murderder to death
- 3. nominatives to verbs, اكرعاشق صادق است if the lover be sincere
- 9. with a prep. fol. an un- مشتمل برمصادقت containing friend-common construction,

Ex. 1. governed by a sub. علم أو لبن وأخرين the knowledge of the moderns and ancients

the sect of the faithful

III. Their masculine imperfect plurals are used in the Persian as substantives.

Ex.

- officers of the pre- sent and future
- 2. agreeing with an ad. fol. عمال جديده the new and old agents

IV. Their feminine singulars are used in the Persian as participles, as substantives, and as adjectives.

Ex.

- 1. as a part. act. with a verb. fol. cin all she is pregnant
- 2. as a sub. governing another fol. Should queen of the empire

Ex.

- 3. as an ad. qualifying a sub. going a pregnant wos before, has all assessing
- مشفقه مهر بار .) kind friend following,
- 5. as a sub. qualified by a part. ماحية موصوفة accomplished pas. following,
- V. Their feminine perfect plurals are used in the Persian as substantives expressing things without life.

Ex.

- 1. governing a sub. following, (اتعات زمار) the incidents of
- unforeseen واردات ناکهانی 2. agreeing with an ad. fol.

OF ARABIC PARTICIPLES PASSIVE.

I. Their masculine singulars are used in the Persian as participles passive, as substantives, and as adjectives.

Ex.

the sum of my جملكي همت مصرون براري است. asa part. pas. desire is bestowed on that

> be the shade of ظل شغنت مهد و دیاد clemency extended

I make it the مشهود ضمير منيرميكر داند 2. as a sub. governing another following it

perception (i.e. the thing per-ceived) of your enlightened soul; i. e. I represent it, &c.

the desire, (i. e. the thing desired) of the souls

- 3. as an ad. qualifying a sub. going بندة مظلوم the injured slave
- 4. joined with another sub. by a con. مقصود و مرام intention and design
- 5. governed by verbs, خلایق رامحظوظ کردانند make the people glad
 nominatives to verbs, مقصود اوشان برایی بود their intention

II. Their masculine perfect plural does not seem to be used in the Persian, either in the form of the nominative or the oblique case.

III. Their feminine singulars are used in the Persian as substantives, and as adjectives.

Ex.

- r. as a sub. governing another fol. it, معشوقة صن my beloved, i. e. the beloved of me
- 2. as a sub. agreeing with a part. معشوقه مذكور the said bepas. fol.
- 3. as an ad. agreeing with a sub. والده مخدومة respected mogoing before,

IV. Their feminine perfect plurals are used in the Persian as substantives, to express things without life.

Ex.

- the demands مطلوبات ان مهربان الله علام the demands
- 2. agreeing with an ad. fol. امتدمات شرعي law affairs

V. The active and passive participles of transitive verbs form, with a following substantive having the article y prefixed to it, compounds corresponding to that of which are used in the Persian as substantives and as adjectives.

Ex.

ı. as a sub. a nominative to تعذَّ والفصل است he evades a dethe verb,

a person de-serving respect

a pen cut short in the point

OF ARABIC ADJECTIVES resembling PAR-TICIPLES.

I. The forms represent three species of Arabic words which are derived from intransitive verbs; and called by Arabic grammarians, adjectives resembling participles. The singulars of these forms are used in the Persian both as adjectives and substantives.

Ex.

1. as a sub. qualified by the pronoun dem. that respectable person ble person a with a verb, that respectable person he is wicked

3. as an ad. qualifying a sub. دوست قديم an old friend

II. Their plurals are used in the Persian as substantives.

Ex.

ı. governing a sub. fol. the learned men of Greece

2. agreeing with an ad. fol. شرفاي پاک نهاد noblemen of integrity

participles, form, with a following substantive having the article & prefixed to it, compounds corresponding to that of خوبروي, which are used in the Persian both as substantives and adjectives.

Ex.

I. as a sub. qualified by the ارن حسن الوجع that beauty pro. demon.

that old servant أن قديم الخدمت 2. as a sub. qualified عديم الخدمت مذكور the said old serby an ad. fol.

3. as an ad. qualifying a مردم قديم الخدمت a man of long ser-

OF PARTICIPLES expressing the Sense of their PRIMITIVES in a stronger Degree.

I. The forms single participles which express the sense of their primitives in a stronger degree; and are sometimes used in the Persian as adjectives.

Ex.

a poisonous medicine ادويه قتاله a poisonous medicine

2. agreeing with a verb. fol. he is full of patience

is the form of a participle expressing the sense of the primitive in a less degree; but it does not seem to be used in the Persian.

OF ARABIC SUBSTANTIVES.

I. The Arabic noun of time and place are frequently employed in the Persian; and the following list exhibits the forms of such as are derived from the first conjugations of the different species of triliterals.

CONJUGATION FIRST.

		FROM ROOTS
	I.	د به the time and place of writing, مكتب
	П.	قر a place of rest—residence, مَقَرَ
	III.	رم أم place of safety,
	V.	the place and time of beginning,
ALS	VI.	وضع place—opportunity,
TER	VII.	the place and time of standing,
RIL	VIII.	the place or object of desire,
L mon	X.	بيع the place and time of selling, بيع
ACE f	XI.	رمي , the place and time of throwing مرما
PLI	XII.	the place of return—the center, اوب
NOUNS of TIME and PLACE from TRI	XV.	the time of coming—arrival, حجي جي
Tr	XVII.	اتى , the place, the way of approaching ماتا
NS 6	XVIII.	the place of looking, beholding, el
NOU	XIX.	the place of power—and thus lord,
		master, &c: ولي
	XXI.	a place of division—the interval, هوي
	XXII.	the time and place of living,
	XXIII.	اوي a place of habitation—refuge, اوي

is sometimes added to the common form, as a burning place.

II. The noun of time and place from the derivative conjugations is exactly the same with the participle passive; and is also used in the Persian.

Ex. 1. a part. pas. from the 10th con. مستودع deposited—also a place of deposit

III. The Persian language has terms proper to itself for expressing the instrument of action; it does not however reject the use of the Arabic instrumental noun, which is represented by the forms,

ا بمبزاری عقل سنجید he weighed in scale of reason مقتاح مقصود the key of his intention

IV. All Arabic proper names, and the names of things, are introduced into the Persian at pleasure.

Ex. مريم Mary, مقد Mecca, عبن the eye, محمد flesh, ما an ancestor, &c. &c.

OF ARABIC ADJECTIVES.

I. Besides the Arabic participles which we have already observed are used as adjectives, there is also a plantiful source of real adjectives formed by affixing to substantives of almost every denomination, which are freely introduced into the Persian.

Ex. انساني humane, اراضي earthly, مصري Egyptian, &c. &c.

II. The masculine singulars of Arabic superlatives are used in the Persian both as substantives and adjectives.

Ex.

the most fortunate of times

2. as an ad. qualifying a sub. دروقت احسن at a most lucky going before,

III. The masculine plurals of Arabic superlatives are used in the Persian both as substantives and adjectives.

Ex.

- a. as a sub. governing another fol. it, اكا بروقت the great men of the age
- as an ad. qualifying a sub. اشخاص اكابر most illustrious going before,

IV. The feminine singulars of Arabic superlatives are used in the Persian as adjectives.

Ex. 1. qualifying a sub. going دولت عظمي prosperity most before,

V. Arabic ordinal numbers are used in the Persian as adjectives.

Ex. 1. qualifying a sub. before, باب اول the first chapter

Of the FORM of ARABIC WORDS when used in the PERSIAN.

I. All Arabic infinitives, participles, substantives, and adjectives, are introduced into the Persian in the form of the nominative, which throws away from the last letter every species of nunnation (5), or short vowel (5), which they may posses as Arabic words, and remain without motion; but when their construction in the Persian requires them to assume the termination of another case, they receive it in the same manner as if they were originally Persian words; with the following exceptions.

nst. When an Arabic word terminating in \mathcal{L} , that must be pronounced as 1*, becomes the first substantive in construction with another substantive following it, \mathcal{L} is actually changed into 1, to which short \mathcal{L} () is afterwards affixed to shew the construction.

Ex. تمناي in construction becomes تمناي , as يناي as مولي the petition of intercession, and so also مولي معني دعوي معني

2d. Feminine Arabic substantives terminating in \ddot{z} , when introduced into the Persian, change \ddot{z} , sometimes into z, and sometimes into \ddot{z} .

Ex. محبت friendship, being found written by the same author are and محبت.

3d. Feminine Arabic adjectives and participles ternating in z, when introduced into the Persian, always change z into x.

^{*} See Richardson's Arabic Gram. p. 109. Canon. III.

Ex خالصة pure, is always written حالصة, as حالصة

although introduced into the Persian as nominatives, are originally the oblique case.

Ex. دانایای منقد مبی چنبی فر مودند the learned ancients thus said.

5th. When an Arabic infinitive is used in the Persian language as an adverb, it is introduced in the form of the Arabic accusative without any change.

Ex. اتفاقا accidentally, &c. &c.

OF ARABIC ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

I. Arabic adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, seem to be introduced into the Persian language at pleasure. Of these Mr. Richardson has made a very useful collection in his chapter of separate particles, to which I beg leave to refer; observing, at the same time, that a knowledge of such as are most frequently employed, will easily be acquired from experience without any particular instructions.

OF ARABIC COMPOUNDS.

I. The manner in which different Arabic parts of speech are employed to form a variety of compounded words made use of in the Persian, is well explained by Sir William Jones in his Persian Grammar; and

with respect to phrases purely Arabic, and whole sentences, which are often met with in Persian authors, they require a perfect knowledge of the Arabic language, and do not belong to this place.

OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF ARABIC INFINITIVES, PARTICIPLES, SUB-STANTIVES, AND ADJECTIVES.

I. In the Persian language, when Arabic adjectives or participles are made use of to qualify Arabic or Persian substantives singular, they agree with them in gender and number.

Ex:

- r. an Arabic sub. mas. qualified عاشف مذكور the said lover by an Arabic part. mas.
- 2. an Arabic sub. fem. qualified والده مكرمة respected mother by an Arabic part. pas. fem.
- 3. a Pers. sub. mas. qualified by دوست قديم an old friend an Arabic ad. mas.
- 4. a Pers. sub. fem. qualified by عزيزة dear sister an Arabic ad. fem.

II. When Arabic adjectives and participles are made use of to qualify Arabic and Persian substantives masculine and plural, they remain in the masculine singular.

· Ex.

- 1. an Arabic sub. mas. plu. with مذكور the said officers an Arabic part. mas. sing.
- 2. a Pers. sub. mas. plu. with مذكور the said brethren an Arab. part. mas. sing.

III. When Arabic adjectives and participles are made use of to qualify Arabic or Persian substantives feminine and plural, they are put in the feminine singular; and often, though not so properly, in the masculine singular.

Ex. 1. an Arabic sub. fem. plur. with Arabic part. sin.

both fem. masc. تكليفات مذكورة مذكور the said burthens 2. a Persian sub. fem. plur. with Arabic part. sing. both fem.

and mas.

accomplished wo-

IV. An Arabic substantive, in the Persian, is often rendered definite by a following Arabic adjective or participle having the article & prefixed.

Ex. a sub. with a part. pas.

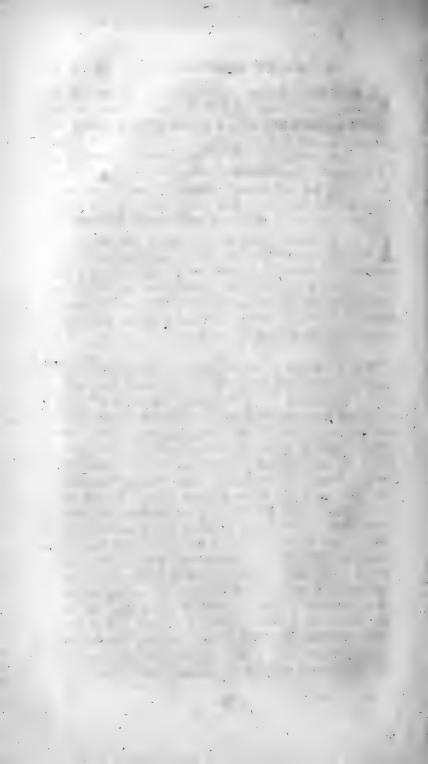
the prophet elect نبي المختار

For an account of the genders of Arabic words, and of their perfect and imperfect plurals, I must again refer to Mr. Richardson's Arabic Grammar; and to that of Erpenius, where the latter subject is treated at still greater length.

Of the INTRODUCTION of the ARABIC into the LANGUAGE of HINDOSTAN.

I. All the different species of infinitives, participles, substantives, and adjectives, which we have enumerated; and all compounds formed by Arabic

and Persian words, are introduced into the language of Hindostan, in the same form, for the same purposes, and with the same freedom as in the Persian: submitting themselves to the different rules of regimen and concord that are peculiar to that language; in the same manner as if they were words originally belonging to it. Arabic adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, are also used in the language of Hindostan; but I think less frequently than in the Persian.



ON THE

ASTRONOMICAL COMPUTATIONS

OF THE

HINDUS.

BY SAMUEL DAVIS, Esq.

Bhagalpur, 15th Feb. 1789.

IT is, I believe, generally admitted, that inquiries into the astronomy of the *Hindus* may lead to much curious information, besides what relates merely to the science itself; and that attempts to ascertain the chronology of this ancient nation will, as they have hitherto done, prove unsatisfactory unless assistance be derived from such researches.

The following communication is not expected to contribute towards so desirable a purpose; but, with all its imperfections, it may have the useful effect of awakening the attention of others in this country who are better qualified for such investigations, and of inciting them to pursue the same object more successfully, by showing that numerous treatises in Sanscrit on astronomy are procurable, and that the Brahmens are extremely willing to explain them. As an encouragement to those who may be inclined to amuse themselves in this way, I can farther venture to declare, from the experience I have had, that Sanscrit books in this science are more easily translated than almost any others, when once the technical terms are understood: the subject of them admitting neither of metaphysical reasoning nor of metaphor, but being delivered in plain terms and generally illustrated with examples in practice, the meaning may be well enough made out, by the help of a Pandit, through the medium of the Persian or the Hindi language.

Moreover, it does not appear that skill in the abstruse parts of modern mathematics is indispensably necessary; but that, with as much knowledge of geometry and the circles of the sphere as, it may be supposed, most of the members of this society possess, a considerable progress might be made in revealing many interesting particulars, which at present lie hid to Europeans in the Jyotish, or astronomical, Sastra.

The prediction of eclipses and other phenomena, published in the Hindu Patra, or almanac, excited my curiosity long ago to know by what means it was effected; but it was not until lately that I had any means of gratification. I had before this been inclined to think, with many others, that the Brahmens possess no more knowledge in astronomy than they have derived from their ancestors in tables ready calculated to their hands, and that few traces of the principles of the science could be found among them; but by consulting some Sanscrit books, I was induced to alter my opinion. To satisfy myself on this subject, I began with calculating, by a modern Hindu formula, an eclipse which will happen in next November; the particulars of which process, although in some measure interesting, were not sufficient for my purpose, as it yet remained to be learnt on what grounds some tables used in it were constructed: and for this information I was referred to the Surva Siddhanta, an original treatise, and reputed a divine revelation. For a copy of the Surya Siddhanta I am indebted to Sir Robert Chambers, who procured it among other books at Benares; but the obscurity of many technical terms made it some times difficult to be understood even by the Pandit I employed, who was by no means deeply versed in the science he professed. By his diligence, however, and through the obliging assistance of Mr. Duncan at Benares, who procured for me the Tita, or Commentary, this

difficulty was at length surmounted; and a computation of the above-mentioned eclipse, not merely on the principles, but strictly by the rules, of the Surya Siddhanta, is what I propose now to present you with, after such preliminary observations as may be necessary to make it intelligible.

I suppose it sufficiently well known, that the Hindu division of the ecliptic into signs, degrees, &c. is the same as ours; that their astronomical year is sydereal, or containing that space of time in which the sun, departing from a star, returns to the same; that it commences on the instant of his entering the sign Aries, or rather the Hindu constellation Mesha "; that each astronomical month contains as many even days and fractional parts as he stays in each sign; and that the civil differs from the astronomical account of time only, in rejecting those fractions, and beginning the year and month at sunrise, instead of the intermediate instant of the artificial day or night. Hence arises the unequal portion of time assigned to each month dependent on the situation of the sun's apsis, and the distance of the vernal equinoctial colure from the beginning of Mesha in the Hindu sphere; and by these means they avoid those errors which Europeans, from a different method of adjusting their calendar by intercalary days, have been subject to. An explanation of these matters would lead me beyond my present intention, which is to give a general account only of the method by which the Hindus compute eclipses, and thereby to show, that a late French author was too hasty in asserting generally that they determine them

^{*} Or, to be more particular, on his entering the Nacsbatra, or lunar mansion (Aswini). There were formerly only twenty-seven Nacsbatras: a 28th (Abbijit) has been since added, taken out of the 21st and 22d, named Uttarasbara and Sravana. These three in their order comprehend 10°, 5°, and 11°, 40′ of the Zodiac: the rest comprehend 13° 20′ each.

"by set forms, couched in enigmatical verses,*" &c. So far are they from deserving the reproach of ignorance which Mons. Sonnerat has implied, that on inquiry, I believe, the Hindu science of astronomy will be found as well known now as it ever was among them, although, perhaps, not so generally, by reason of the little encouragement men of science at present meet with, compared with what they formerly did under their native princes.

It has been common with astronomers to fix on some epoch, from which, as from a radix, to compute the planetary motions; and the ancient Hindus chose that point of time counted back when, according to their motions as they had determined them, they must have been in conjunction in the beginning of Mesha, or Aries; and coeval with which circumstance they supposed the creation. This, as it concerned the planets only, would have produced a moderate term of years compared with the enormous antiquity, that will be hereafter stated; but, having discovered a slow motion of the nodes and apsides also, and taking it into the computation, they found it would require a length of time corresponding with 1955884890 years now expired, when they were so situated, and 2364115110 years more, before they would return to the same situation again, forming together the grand anomalistic period denominated a Calpa, and fancifully assigned as the day of Brahma. The Galpa they divided into Manwanteras, and greater and less Yugas. The use of the Manwantera is not stated in the Surya Siddhanta; but that of the Maha, or greater Yug, is sufficiently evident, as being an anomalistic period of the sun and moon, at the end of which the latter, with her apogee and ascending node, is found, together with the sun,

^{*} See the translation of Mons. Sonnerat's Voyage.

in the first of Aries; the planets also deviating from that point only as much as is their latitude and the difference between their mean and true anomaly.

These cycles being so constructed as to contain a certain number of mean solar days, and the Hindu system assuming that at the creation, when the planets began their motions, a right line, drawn from the equinoctial point Lanca through the centre of the earth, would, if continued, have passed through the centre of the sun and planets to the first star in Aries: their mean longitude for any proposed time afterwards may be computed by proportion. As the revolutions a planet makes in any cycle are to the number of days composing it, so are the days given to its motion in that time; and the even revolutions being rejected, the fraction, if any, shows its mean longitude at midnight under their first meridian of Lanca: for places east or west of that meridian a proportional allowance is made for the difference of longitude on the earth's surface, called in Sanscrit the Desantara. The positions of the apsides and nodes are computed in the same manner; and the equation of the mean to the true place, determined on principles which will be hereafter mentioned.

The division of the Maha Yug into the Satya, Treta, Dwapur, and Cali ages, does not appear from the Surya Siddhanta to answer any practical astronomical purpose, but to have been formed on ideas similar to the golden, silver, brazen, and iron ages of the Greeks. Their origin has however been ascribed to the precession of the equinoxes by those who will of course refer the Manwantera and Calpa to the same foundation: either way the latter will be found anomalistic, as has been described, if I rightly understand the following passage in the first section of the Surya Siddhanta; the translation of which is, I believe, here correctly given.

-- "Time, of the denomination Murta *, is estimated by respirations; six respirations make a " Vicala, sixty Vicalas a Danda, sixty Dandas a Nac-" shatra day, and thirty Nacshatra days a Nacshatra " month. The Savan month is that contained between thirty successive risings of Surya, and varies in " its length according to the Lagna Bhuja. Thirty "Tit'his compose the Chandra month. The Saura " month is that in which the sun describes one sign " of the Zodiac, and his passage through the twelve " signs is one year, and one of those years is a Deva "day, or day of the Gods. When it is day at Asura+ " it is night with the Gods, and when it is day with the "Gods it is night at Asura. Sixty of the Deva days " multiplied by six give the Deva year, and twelve " hundred of the Deva years form the aggregate of "the four Yugas. To determine the Saura years " contained in this aggregate, write down the following " numbers, 4, 3, 2, which multiply by 10,000; the or product 4,320,000 is the aggregate or Maha Yuga, " including the Sandhi and Sandhyansa t. This is " divided into four Yugas, by reason of the diffe-" rent proportions of Virtue prevailing on earth, in " the following manner: - Divide the aggregate "4,320,000 by 10, and multiply the quotient by four " for the Satya Yug, by three for the Treta, by two

+ Asura, the south pole, the habitation of the Asura Loca, or demons, with whom the Devas, who reside at Sumeru, the north pole, wage eternal war.

‡ Sandhi and Sandhyansa, the morning and evening twilight.

The proper words, I believe, are Sandbya and Sandbyansa.

^{*} This is mean sydereal time :- A Nacshatra, or syderal day, is the time in which the earth makes a turn upon its axis, or, according to the Hindus, in which the stars make one complete revolution. This is shorter than the Savan, or solar day, which varies in its length according to the Lagna Bhuja, or right ascension, and also from the sun's unequal motion in the ecliptic; for both which' circumstances the Hindus have their equation of time, as will appear in the calculation of the eclipse.

" for the Dwapar, and by one for the Cali Yug. Di-" vide either of the Yugs by six for its Sandhi and " Sandhyansa. Seventy-one Yugs make a Manwantera; and at the close of each Manwantera there is " a Sandhi equal to the Satya Yug, during which " there is an universal deluge. Fourteen Manwan-" teras, including the Sandhi, compose a Calpa, and " at the commencement of each Calpa there is a Sandhi equal to the Satya Yug, or 1,728,000 Saura vears. A Calpa is therefore equal to 1000 Maha "Yugs. One Calpa is a day with Brahma, and his " night is of the same length; and the period of his " life is 100 of his years. One half of the term of " Brahma's life, or fifty years, is expired, and of the " remainder the first Calpa is begun; and six Manwanteras, including the Sandhi, are expired. The seventh Manwantera, into which we are now advanced, is named Vaivaswata. Of this Manwante a "twenty-seven Maha Yugs are elapsed, and we are on now in the Satya Yug of the twenty-eighth, which " Satya Yug consists of 1,728,000 Saura years. The " whole amount of years, expired from the begin-" ning of the Calpa * to the present time, may hence

-		- 1
• Con	struction of th	e Calpa.
	GENN.MI	Years.
Cali,	10	432000
Dwapar,	4320000 X 2	= 864000
Treta,	4320000 × 3	= 1296000
Satya,	4320000 × 4	1728000
Aggregat	e or Maba Yug,	4320000
Manwant	era,	306720000
With a S.	andhi equal to the	
Satya 1	Yug,	1728000
		308448000
		14
Calpa, -		4318272000
With a S	andbi equal to the	0
Satya	Yug	1728000
Wholed	luration of Calpa,	4320000000

Computation of the period elapsed of the Calpa at the end of the last Satya age, when the Surya Siddhanta is supposed to have been written.

Sandbi at the beginning of the Calpa, 1728000

6 Manwanteras, or 308448000 × 6 = 1850688000

27 Maha Yugs of the 7th Manwantera, or 4320000 × 27 == 116640000

Satya Age of the 28th
Maba Yug, = 1728000
1970784000

- " be computed; but from the number of years so found, must be made a deduction of one hundred
- " times four hundred and seventy-four divine years,
- " or of that product multiplied by three hundred and
- " sixty for human years, that being the term of Brah-
- " ma's employment in the creation; after which the
- " planetary motions commenced.
- "Sixty Vicalas make one Cala, sixty Calas one Bhaga, thirty Bhagas one Rasi, and there are twelve Rasis in the Bhagana*.
- " In one Yug, Surya, Budha, and Sucra perform 4220000 Madhyama revolutions through the Zodiac.
- " Mangala, Vrihasputi, and Sani make the same num-
- " ber of Sighra revolutions through it; Chandra makes
- " 57753336 Madhyama revolutions; Mangala 2296832 Madhyama revolutions; Budha's Sighras
- " are 17937060; Vrihaspati's Madhyamas 364220;
- " Sucra's Sighrus 7022376; Sani's Madhyamas are
- "146568. The Chandrochcha revolutions are 488203; "the retrograde revolutions of the Chandrapata are
- "the retrograde revolutions of the Chandrapata are 232238.
- "The time contained between sunrise and sunrise is the Bhuni Savan day: the number of those days

* The division of the Bhagana, or Zodiac, into signs, de-

grees, &c.

† Surya the Sun; Budba, Mercury; Sucra, Venus; Mangala, Mars; Vribaspati, Jupiter; Sani, Saturn; Chandra, the Moon; the Chandra Uchcha, or Chandrachcha, the Moon's apogee; Chandra Pata, the Moon's ascending node. The Madbyama revolutions of Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, and the Sighra revolutions of Venus and Mercury, answer to their revolutions about the Sun.

\$\frac{1}{57753336} \tag{4320000} = 53433336 \text{ lunar months, or lunations}\$ in a Yug?\$

and $\frac{1}{577917828} = 29$ 31 50, 6, &c.

\$\frac{1}{53433336} = 29 31 50, 6, &c.

in each mean lunation, or in English time 29.12.44.2 47"36". 53433336—51840000=1593336 Adhi or intercalary lunar months in 4320000 solar sydereal years.

- " contained in a Yug is 1577917828*. The number of Nacshatra days 1582237828 +; of Chandra days
- " 1603000080; of Adhi months 1593336; of Cshaya "Tit'his 25082252; of Saura months 51840000.
- From either of the planets Nacshatra days deduct

1577917828 = 27. 19. 18. 1. 37. &c., the Moon's periodical 57753336 month. The 1603000080 Chandra, or lunar days, called also Tit'his, are each one-thirtieth part of the moon's synodical month or relative period, and vary in length according to the inequality of her motion from the sun. The Csbaya Tit his and Adhi, or intercalary lunar months, are sufficiently evident.

The sun and planets preside alternately over the days of the week, which are named accordingly. The first day after the creation was Ravivar, or Sunday: it began at midnight, under the meridian of Lanca; and the Ravivar of the Hindus corresponds with our Sunday. The sun and planets in the same manner govern the years: hence they may be said to have weeks of years.

Daniel's prophecy is supposed to mean weeks of years.

The Hindu cycle of 60, supposed by some to be the Chaldean Sosos, is referred to the planet Jupiter: " one of these years is " equal to the time in which by the mean motion, he (Vrihaspati) " advances one degree in his orbit." (Commentary on the Surya Siddhanta.) This cycle is, I believe, wholly applied to astrology. Neither this cycle of 60 nor the Pitri's day are mentioned in this part of the Surya Siddhanta, where they might be expected to occur. Perhaps on inquiry there may be found some reason for supposing them both of a later invention. "The Pitris inhabit be-" hind Chandra, and their mid-day happens when Chandra is in " conjunction with Surya; and their midnight, when Chandra is in copposition to Surya; their morning, or suntise, is at the end " of half the Crishna Pacsha; and their sunset at the end of half "the Sucla Pacsha; this is declared in the Sacelya Sanhita. Their " names are Agni, Swati, &c. their day and night are therefore together equal to one Chandra month." (Commentary). Hence, it appears, the Hindus have observed that the moon revolves once on her axis in a lunar month, and consequently has the same side always opposed to the earth. They have also noticed the difference of her apparent magnitude in the horizon and on the meridian, and endeavour to explain the cause of a phenomenon, which Europeans as well as themselves are at a loss to account for.

^{* \}frac{1577917828}{4320000} = 365. 15. 31. 31. 24. diurnal revolutions of the Sun, the length of the *Hindu* year.

 $[\]frac{1582277828}{4320000} = 365.15.31.31.24. diurnal revolutions of the stars in one year.$

" the number of its revolutions, the remainder will be the number of its Savan days contained in a Yur.

"The difference between the number of the revolu-

- "tions of Surya and Chandra gives the number of " Chandra months; and the difference between the
- " Saura months and Chandra months gives their num-
- " ber of Adhi months. Deduct the Savan days from 66 the Chandra days, the remainder will be the num-
- " ber of Tit'hi Cshayas. The number of Adhi months,
- " Tit'hi Cshayas, Nacshatra, Chandra, and Savan
- days, multiplied severally by 1000, gives the num-
- ber of each contained in a Calpa.
- "The number of Mandochcha revolutions, which revolutions are direct, or according to the order of " the signs contained in a Calpa, is of Surya 387; " of Mangala 204; of Buddha 368; of Vrihaspati

900; of Sucra 535; of Sani 39.

"The number of revolutions of the Patas, which revolutions are retrograde, or contrary to the order " of the signs contained in a Calpa, is of Mangala " 214; of Buddha 488; of Vrihaspati 174; of Su-" cra 903; of Sani 662. The Pata and Uchcha of " Chandra are already mentioned,"

It must be observed, that, although the planetary motions as above determined might have served for computations in the time of Meya, the author of the Surya Siddhanta, yet for many years past they have not been found to agree with the observed places in the heavens in every instance; and that corrections have accordingly been introduced, by increasing or reducing those numbers. Thus the motions of the moon's apogee and node are now increased in computations of their places by the addition of four revolutions each in a Yug to their respective numbers above given. The nature of these corrections, denominated in Sanscrit

Bija, is explained in a passage of the Tica, or Commentary, on the Surya Siddhanta, wherein is maintained the priority of that Sastra in point of time to all others. The translation of that passage, together with the text it illustrates, is as follows:

(Surya Siddhanta). "Arca (the Sun) addressing "Meya, who attended with reverence, said, Let your "attention, abstracted from human concerns, be wholly applied to what I shall relate. Surya in every former Yug revealed to the Munis the invariable science of astronomy. The planetary motions may alter; "but the principles of that science are always the same."

The Commentary. - " Hence it appears, that the " Surva Siddhanta was prior to the Brahma Siddhanta " and every other Sastra; because this Sastra must be "the same that was revealed in every former Yug, al-"though the motions of the planets might have been "different. This variation in the planetary motions " is mentioned in the Vishnu Dhermotter, which di-" rects that the planets be observed with an instru-"ment, whereby their agreement or disagreement " may be determined in regard to their computed of places; and in case of the latter, an allowance of " Bija accordingly made. Vasisht' ha in his Siddhanta " also recommends this occasional correction of Bija, " saying to the Muni Mandavya," I have shown you " how to determine some matters in astronomy; but "the mean motion of Surya and the other planets " will be found to differ in each Yug." Accordingly " Aryabhatta, Brahmagupta, and others, having ob-" served the heavens, formed rules on the principles " of former Sastras, but which differed from each "other in proportion to the disagreements which "they severally observed of the planets, with re-" spect to their computed places.

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" Why the Munis, who certainly knew, did not " give the particulars of those deviations, may seem " unaccountable, when the men Aryabhatta, Brahmagupta, and others have determined them. The " reason was, that those deviations are not in them-" selves uniform; and to state their variations would " have been endless. It was therefore thought better, " that examinations at different times should be made. " and due corrections of the Bina introduced. A " Ganita Sastra, whose rules are demonstrable, is et true; and when conjunctions, oppositions, and " other planetary phenomena, calculated by such " Sastras, are found not to agree with observation, a proportionable Bija may be introduced without any derogation from their credit. It was therefore " necessary, that this Sastra (the Surva Siddhanta) " should be revealed in each Yug, and that other " Sastra should be composed by the Munis. The Language representation of the contract of

"The original Sistra then appears to be the Surya Siddhanta; the second, the Brahma Siddhanta; the third, the Paulastya Siddhanta; the fourth, the Soma Siddhanta." The second of the Source of the So

In the following table are given the periodical revolutions of the planets, their nodes and apsides, according to the Surya Siddhanta. The corrections of Bija at present used, are contained in one column *, and the inclination of their orbits to the ecliptic in another. The obliquity of the ecliptic is inserted ac-

[&]quot;This I must, however, at present omit, not having as yet discovered the corrections of this kind that will bring even the Sun's place, computed by the Surya Siddhanta, exactly to an agreement with the astronomical books in present use. Of these books, the principal are the Grahalighava, composed about 268 years ago, the tables of Macaranda used at Benares and Tirbut, and the Siddhanta Rahasya, used at Nadiya; the last written in 1513 Saca, or 198 years ago.

cording to the same Sastra. Its diminution does not appear to have been noticed in any subsequent treatise. In the tables of Macaranda and also in the Grahalaghava, the latter written only 263 years ago, it is expressly stated at twenty-four degrees.

The motion of the equinoxes, termed in Sanscrit the Cranti, and spoken of in the Tica, or commentary, on the Surya Siddhanta as the Sun's pata or node, is not noticed in the foregoing passage of that book; and, as the Hindu astronomers seem to entertain an idea of the subject different from that of its revolution through the Platonic year I shall farther on give a translation of what is mentioned, both in the original and commentary, concerning it.

The next requisite for the computation of the eclipse is the portion of the Calpa expired to the present time, which is determined in the following manner:

The Surya Siddhanta is supposed to have been received, through divine revelation, towards the close of the Satya age, at the end of which, 50 of the years of Brahma were expired, and of the next Calpa, or day, 6 Manwanteras, 27 greater Jugs, and the Satya age of the the 28th Yug, together with the Sandhya or twilight at the beginning of the Calpa; the aggregate of which several periods is 1970784000 years elapsed of the Calpa to the beginning of the last Treta age; to which add the Treta and Dwapar ages, together with the years elapsed of the present Cali age, for the whole amount of sydereal years from the beginning of the Calpa to the present Bengal year. But in the foregoing quotation it is observed, from that amount of years must be made a deduction of 47400 divine, or 17064000 human or sydereal years. the term of Brahma's employment in the work of

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The Planets in their order.	Sydereal Period.	Period of the Apsides. Period of the Nodes.		Mean motion per day "" per danda" ""	Inclination of the circumfrence of the Orbit	circumference of the Orbit
	Days. D. P. V.	Days, D.	Days. D.	" "		Tojan.
The Moon, Mercury, Venus, The Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Satura,		3232 2949379117.4 4077307049 7735087392 1753242031	6 — 3233742458 11 15 &c. 1747417306 45 Frecession of the equi- 5 — noxes 54" per year. 9 &c. 7373447794 23 &c. 6 &c. 9068493264 22 &c. 6 &c. 2383561673 42 &c.	37 26 24 26 25 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26 26	4 30 2 — 2 — 2 — Cobliquity of the Ecliptic 24° I 30 I 30	

The longitude of the Sun's apogee in the Hindu sphere is 2; 17°, 17', 15", to which add the Ayanansa 19°, 21', 27", the sum 3°, 6°, 38', 42", is its place according to European expression. In this the Hindu account differs about 1° 22' from the observations of European astronomers, who determine the place of the earth's aphelion in the present age to be in 9°, 8°, 1′. There is much greater disagreement with respect to the aphelia and nodes of the other planets.

On supposition that the obliquity of the ecliptic was accurately observed by the ancient Hindus, as 24°, and that its decrease has been from that time half a second a year, the date of the Surya Siddhanta will be about 3840 years. It is remarkable that the Hindus do not appear to have noticed its decrease.

The Cacshas are explained farther on.

creation; for, as the universe was not completed, the planetary motions did not commence until that portion of the Calpa was elapsed.

This deduction appears to have been intended as a correction, which, without altering the date of the Calpa as settled, probably, by yet more ancient astronomers, might (joined perhaps with other regulations) bring the computed places of the planets to an agreement with their observed places, when the Surya Siddhanta was written; and, as the arguments of its commentator in support of the propriety of it, without prejudice to other authors, contain some curious particulars, I hope I may be excused for departing from my immediate object to insert a translation of them.

"In the Surya Siddhanta, Soma Siddhanta, Praja-" peti, Vasisht'ha, and other Sastras; this deduction is required to be made from the Calpa, because at "the end of that term the planetary motions com-"menced. The son of Jishnu, who understood four " Vedas, and Bhascaracharya, considered these mo-" tions as commencing with the Calpa. It may seem strange that there should be such a disagreement. "Some men say, As it is written that the Calpa is the day of Brahma, and as a day is dependent on "the rising and setting of the sun, the motion of the " sun and planets must have begun with the Calpa; " and therefore Brahmagupta should be followed; but I think otherwise. The Calpa or Brahma's day. is not to be understood as analogous to the solar day otherwise than as containing a determined portion " of time; neither is it at all dependent on the com-" mencement of the Calpa; but, being composed of the " same periods as the latter, it will not end until the " term of years here deducted shall be expired of the · next Calpa. The motions of the Grahas must

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"therefore be computed from the point of time here stated, as the beginning of Brahma's day, and not as Brahmagupta and others direct, from the beginning of the Calpa; which will not be found to answer.

" Other men say, that rules derived from the Ganita Sastra and agreeing with observation, are right; "that any period deduced from such a mode of comof putation, and the planets determined to have been "then in the first of Mesha, may be assumed; that it will therefore answer either way, to consider these " motions as beginning with the Calpa, or after the above-mentioned period of it was expired. This however is not true; for in the instance of Mangala "there will be found a great difference, as is here shown. The revolutions of Mangala in a Calpa, " according to Brahmagupta, are 2296828522, and, " by the rule of proportion, the revolutions of Man-" gala in 17064000 years are 9072472 7' 28° 0' 16"*. "For any other planet, on trial, a similar disagree-" ment will be found, and the proposition of comput-" ing from either period must be erroncous. Moreover, of what use is it to make computations for a space of time, when the planets and their motions " were not in being? A day had being?

"It might, however, from the foregoing circumstances, be imputed to Brahmagupta and the rest, that they have given precepts through igno-

rant Price of the Continue of the Section

Because = 2296828523×17064000 = Revolutions. 43200000000 = 9072472 7s 28° 0 16"

" rance, or with intent to deceive—That, having stated the revolutions of the planets different from the account revealed by Surya, they must certainly " have been in error—That Brahmagupta could not " have counted the revolutions from the beginning of " the Calpa: neither could he from the mean mo-"tion of the planets have so determined them.-He was a mortal, and therefore could not count the re-" volutions.—Although the rule of proportion should 66 be granted to have served his purpose for the revo-" lutions of the planets, yet it certainly could not for "those of their Mandochcha, because it was not within 66 the term of a man's life to determine the mean motion of the Mandochcha; and this assertion is justi-" fied by the opinion of Bhascaracharya. But the rule " of proportion could not have answered even for the splanets; for, although their mean motion be ob-" served one day, and again the next, how can a man " be certain of the exact time elapsed between the two observations? And if there be the smallest error in " the elapsed time, the rule of proportion cannot " answer for such great periods. An error of the " 10-millionth part of a second (Vicala) in one day, " amounts to forty degrees * in the computation of a " Calpa; and the mistake of 1-tenth of a respiration in " one Saura year, makes a difference in the same pe-" riod of 20000 days. That it is therefore evident, " Brahmagupta's motive for directing the planetary " motions to be computed as commencing with the " Calpa, was to deceive mankind, and that he had of not the authority of the Munis, because he differs " from the Surya Siddhanta, Brahma Siddhanta, Soma 66 Siddhanta; from Vasishtha, and other Munis.

^{*} The error would be more than 43°

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"Such opinions would have no foundation, as I " shall proceed to show. Brahmagupta's rules are " consistent with the practice of the Pandits his pre-" decessors: and he formed them from the Purana " Vishnu Dhermottara, wherein is contained the Brahma Siddhanta; and the periods given by Ary-" abhatta are derived from the Parasera Siddhanta: " the precepts of the Munis are therefore the autho-" rities of Brahmagupta, Aryabhatta, and Bhasca-" racharya, whose rules cannot be deceitful. The " Munis themselves differed with regard to the num-" ber of Savan days in a Yug, which is known from " the Pancha Siddhanta, composed by Vara Acharya; " wherein are proposed two methods of computing the sun's place, the one according to the Surya " Siddhanta, the other according to the Romaca Sidd-" hanta; whence it appears that there were diffe-" rent rules of computation even among the Munis. "It is also mentioned in the Tica on the Varaha " Sanhita, that, according to the Paulastya Siddhanta, " there was formerly a different number of Savan " days estimated in a Yug. The maxims therefore of " Brahmagupta and the other two, agreeing with those " of the Munis, are right; but, should it even be " supposed that the Munis themselves could be mistaken, yet Brahmagupta and the other two had " the sanction of the Vedas, which in their numerous " Sac'has (branches) have disagreements of the same "kind; and, according to the Sacalya Sanhita, " Brahma, in the revelation he made to Nared, told " him, although a circumstance or thing were not " perceptible to the senses, or reconcileable to rea-" son, if authority for believing it should be found " in the Vedas, it must be received as true.

[&]quot; If a planet's place, computed both by the Surya" Siddhanta and Parasera Siddhanta, should be found

to differ, which rule must be received as right? "I answer, that which agrees with his place by observation: and the Munis gave the same di-" rection. If computations from the beginning of " the Calpa, and from the period stated in the Surya " Siddhanta give a difference, as appears in the instance of Mangala, which of the two periods to be " computed from is founded in truth? I say it is of no consequence to us which, since our obiect is only to know which period answers for com-" putation of the planetary places in our time, not at the beginning of the Calpa. The difference " found in computing according to Brahmagupta and " the Munis, must be corrected by an allowance of bija, or by taking that difference as the cshepa; but the books of the Munis must not be altered, " and the rules given by Brahmagupta, Varacharya, " and Aryabhatta may be used with such precautions. "Any person may compose a set of rules for the com-" mon purposes of astronomy; but, with regard to "the duties necessary in eclipses, the computation " must be made by the books of the Munis, and the bija applied; and in this manner it was that Vara-" ha, Aryabhatta, Brahmagupta, and Cesava Samvat-" sara, having observed the planets and made due al-" lowance of bija, composed their books.

"Ganesa mentions, that the Grahas were right in their computed places in the time of Brahma, "Acharya, Vasisht'ha, Casyapa, and others, by the rules they gave, but in length of time they differed; after which, at the close of the Satya age, Surya revealed to Meya a computation of their true places. The rules then received answered during the Treta and Dwapar ages, as also did other rules formed by the Munis during those periods. In the beginning of the Cali Yug, Parasera's book answered; but Aryabhatta, many years after, having examined Vol. II.

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"the heavens, found some deviation, and introduced a correction of bija. After him, when further deviations were observed, Durga Sinha, Mihira, and others, made corrections. After them came the son of Jistnu and Brahmagupta, and made corrections. After them Cesava settled the places of the planets; and, sixty years after Cesava, his son Ganesa made corrections."

We have now, according to the Hindu system, the mean motion of the planets, their nodes and apsides. and the elapsed time since they were in conjunction in the first of Mesha, with which, by the rule of proportion, to determine their mean longitude for any proposed time of the present year. It is, however, observed in the Surya Siddhanta, that to assume a period so great is unnecessary; for use, the computation may be made from the beginning of the Treta age, at which instant all the Grahas, or moveable points in the heavens, were again in conjunction in Mesha, except the apogees and ascending nodes, which must therefore be computed from the creation. The same is true of the beginning of the present Cali age; for the greatest common divisor of the number, of days composing the Maha Yug and the planetary revolutions in that period, is four, which quotes 394479457 days, or 1080000 years; and the Treta and Dwapar ages contain together just that number of years. The present Hindu astronomers therefore find it unnecessary to go farther back than the beginning of the Cali Yug * in determining the mean lon-

^{*} Neither do they, in computing by the formulas in common use, go farther back than to some assigned date of the æra Saca; but, having the planets places determined for that point of time, they compute their mean places and other requisites for any proposed date afterwards by tables, or by combinations of figures contrived to facilitate the work; as in Grabalaghava, Siddhanta Rabaya, and many other books. An inquirer into Hindu astronomy having access to such books only, might easily be ded to assert

gitude of the planets themselves; but for the position of their apsides and nodes, the elapsed time since the creation must be used; or at least in instances, as of the sun, when the numbers 387 and 432,000000 are incommensurable but by unity. I have however in the accompanying computation, taken the latter period in both cases.

For the equation of the mean to the true anomaly, in which the solution of triangles is concerned, and which is next to be considered, the Hindus make use of a canon of sines, constructed according to the Surya Siddhanta, in the following manner:-" Divide the number of minutes contained in one sine 1800 " by eight, the quotient 225 is the first Jyapinda, or " the first of the twenty-fourth portions of half the " string of the bow. Divide the first Jyapinda by "225, the quotient 1 deduct from the dividend, and the remainder 224 add to the first for the se-"cond Jyapinda 449. Divide the second Jyapinda" by 225, the quotient being 1, and the fraction " more than half a minute, deduct 2 from the foregoing remainder 224, and add the remainder so found to the second for the third Jyapinda 671. "Divide this by 225, the quotient 3 deduct from the last remainder 222; the remainder so found " 219, add to the third for the fourth Jyapinda 890. Divide this by 225, and the quotient deduct from " the last remainder; the remainder so found add "to the fourth for the fifth Jyapinda 1105, and proceed in this manner until the twenty-four Cra-

that the Brahmans compute eclipses by set forms, couched in enigmatical verses, out of which it would be difficult to develop their system of astronomy; and this I apprehend was the case with Mons. Sonnerat. The Jyotish Pandits in general, it is true, know little more of astronomy than they learn from such books, and they are consequently very ignorant of the principles of the science; but there are some to be met with who are better informed.

" majvas t are completed, which will be as follows: 225, 449, 671, 890, 1105, 1315, 1520, 1719, 1910, 2093, 2267, 2431, 2585, 2728, 2859, 2978, 3084, 3177, 3256, 3321, 3372, 3409, 3431, 3438. For the utcramajya *, the twenty-third cramajya deducted from the trijya or twenty-fourth cramajya, coleaves the first utcramajya; the twenty-second deducted from the twenty-third, leaves the second " utcramajya; the twenty-first from the twenty-second, " leaves the third; the twentieth from the twenty-" first, leaves the fourth. In the same manner proceed until the utcramajvas are completed; which " will be as follows: 7, 29, 66, 117, 182, 261, 354, So far the Surya Siddhanta on the subject of the sines. The commentator shows how they are geometrically constructed: "With a radius describe a " circle, the periphery of which divide into 21600 " equal parts, or minutes. Draw north and south, and east and west, lines through the centre: set " off contrarywise from the east point, 225 on the cc periphery, and draw a string from those extremi-"ties across the tripu . The string is the jya, and its half the ardhajya, called jiva. The Pandits say, " a planet's place will correspond with the ardhajya; " by which, therefore, computations of their places, " are always made; and by the term jya is always understood the ardhajya. The first jya will be " found to contain 449 minutes, and the operation, " repeated to twenty-four divisions, will complete the cramajya. In each operation, the distance con-

I Cramajyas, right sines. * Utcramajyas, versed sines.

[†] Tryjya, the radius.

stained between the jya and its arc, or that line which represents the arrow of a bow, must be examined, and the number of minutes therein contained and taken for the utcramajya. The circle may represent any space of land; the bhujajva * is " the bhuju; the cotifya the coi, and the trijya the The square of the bhujajya deducted from the square of the trijya, leaves the square of the cotiiva; the root of which is the cotijya; and, in the same manner, from the cotifya is determined the bhujajya. The cotyutcramajya deducted from the triiya, leaves the bhujacramajya. The bhujot-crama-" iya deducted from the trijya, leaves the coticramaiya. When the bhujajya is the first division of the trijya, the cotifya is the twenty-three remaining divisions; which cotifya deducted from the trijya, leaves the " bhujotcrama jya. On this principle are the jyas given in the text: they may be determined by calculation also, as follows:

"The trijya take as equal to 3438 minutes, and containing twenty-four jyapindas; its half is the jya of
one sine or 1719; which is the eighth jyapinda, or
the sixteenth cotijyapinda. The square of the
trijya multiply by 3, and divide the product by
4, the square root of the quotient is the jya of
two sines, or 2977. The square root of half the
square of the trijya is the jya of one sine and an half
(45°) or 2431; which deducted from the trijya
leaves the utcramajya 1007. By this utcramajya
multiply the trijya; the square root of half the product is the jya of 22°, 30', or 1315". The square
of this deduct from the square of the trijya, the

^{* *} Bbujajya, the sine complement.

[†] A diagram might here be added for illustration, but it must be unnecessary to any one who has the smallest knowledge of Geometry.

"square root of the difference is the jya, of 67°, 30', or 3177', which is the cotijya of 22°, 30' equal to 1315'. The bhujajya and cotijya deducted severally from the trijya, leaves the uteramajya of each 2123", and 261'."—&c.

This is sufficient to show, that the *Hindus* have the right construction of the sines, although they do not appear, from any thing I can learn, ever to have carried it farther than to twenty-four divisions of the quadrant, as in the following table. Instances of the like inaccuracy will occur in the course of this paper. The table of sines may perhaps be more clearly represented in the following manner:

Right Sines, the Radius containing 3438 Minutes.

Arc.	Sine	Arc.	Sina	Arc.	Sine
ISt = 225= 30,45	225	9th=2025=33°	45 1910	17th=3825=63°,45	3084
2d = 450= 7,30				18th=4050=67,30	
				19th =4275=71,15	
				20th=4500=75 ,-	
5th=1125=18,45	1105	T3th=2925=48	45 2505	21st =4725=78 ,45	3370
				22d =4950=82 ,30	
8th=1800=70 -	1710	1511= 3275=50 :	15 28 59	23d =5175=86,15 24th=5400=90,-	3431

Versed Sines.

Arc.	Sine.	Arc.	Sine.	Arc.	Sine.
Ist = 225' = 30,45	7	9th=2025=33°,45	579	1.7th=3325=63°,45	1928
2d = 450 = 7,30				18th=4050=67,30	
3d = 675 = 11,15				19th=4275=71,15	
4th= 900 = 15,-				20th=4500=75,-	
5th=1125=18,45				21st =4725=78,45	
				22d = 4950 = 82,30	
				23d = 5175 = 86,15	
8th=1800=30,-	460	16th = 1600 = 60,-	1719	24th= 5400=90,-	3438

For the sines of the intermediate arcs, take a mean proportion of the tabular difference, as for the sine of 14°, which is between the third and fourth tabular arcs, or 165 minutes exceeding the third; therefore 225'



being the difference of those arcs, and 219 the difference of their sines, $\frac{165'\times210'}{225}$ =160', 36", or a mean proportional number, to be added to the sine of the third tabular arc, for the sine required of 14° or 831' 36". In the sexagesimal arithmetic, which appears to be universally used in the *Hindu* astronomy, when the fraction exceeds half unity, it is usually taken as a whole number: Thus, 831', 35'', 35''', would be written 831', 36.

To account for the apparent unequal motions of the planets, which they suppose to move in their respective orbits through equal distances in equal times, the *Hindus* have recourse to excentric circles, and determine the excentricity of the orbits of the sun and moon with respect to that circle, in which they place the earth as the centre of the universe, to be equal to the sines of their greatest anomalistic equations, and accordingly that the delineation of the path of either may be made in the following manner:

Describe a circle, which divide as the ecliptic into signs, degrees, and minutes; note the place of the Mandochcha, or higher apsis, which suppose in g. Draw a diameter to that point, and set off from the centre \oplus towards the place of the apogee, the excentricity equal to the sine of the greatest equation, which of the sun is 130' 32". Here the excentricity is represented much greater, that the figure may be better understood. Round the point E, as the centre, describe the excentric circle FGHI, which is the sun's orbit, and in the point H, where it s cut by the line \oplus 8 prolonged, is the place of the Mandochcha, or higher apsis; and in the opposite point F is the lower. From the place of the apogee H, set off its longitude in reverse, or contrary to the order of the signs, for the beginning of Aries, and divide this

circle, as the former, into signs and degrees. Note the sun's mean longitude in each circle, as suppose in Gemini, and from both points draw right lines to the earth at \(\Phi \). According to the Hindu system, which appears to be the same as the Ptolemaic, the angle $a \oplus C$ will be the mean anomaly, the angle $b \oplus C$ the true anomaly, and the angle $a \oplus b$ their difference, or the equation of the mean to the true place; to be subtracted in the first six signs of anomaly, and added in the last six. The Europeans, in the old astronomy, found the angle $b \oplus C$ by the following proportion, and which subtracted from $a \oplus C$, left the equation, which as the Hindus, they inserted in tables calculated for the several degrees of the quadrant;—as the co-sine of the mean anomaly $\oplus e=Ed$ added to the excentricity $E \oplus$, is to the sine of the mean anomaly ae = bd; so is the radius to the tangent of the true anomaly: or, in the right angled triangle $d \oplus b$, in which are given $d \oplus$ and bd, if $d \oplus$ be made radius, bd will be the tangent of the angle $b \oplus d$, required. The Hindus, who have not the invention of tangents, take a different method, on principles equally true. They imagine the small circle or epicycle, cdef, drawn round the planet's mean place a with a radius equal to the excentricity, which in this case, of the sun, is 130' 30", and whose circumference in degrees, or equal divisions of the deferent ABCD, will be in proportion as their semi-diameters; or, as \oplus C=3438', to ABCD=360°, so ag=130' 32", to efgd=13° 40', which is called the paridhi-ansa, or paridhi degrees. In the same proportion also will be the correspondent sines he and ai, and their co-sines cb and lk, which are therefore known by computation, in minutes or equal parts of the radius $a \oplus$, which contains, as before mentioned, 3438'. In the right angled trangle $h \oplus c$, right angled at h, there are given the sides $h \oplus (= a \oplus + c b$, because cb = ha) and hc; to find the hypotenuse $c \oplus$, by means of which the angle $a \oplus m$ may be determined; for its sine is lm, and, in the similar triangles $hc \oplus$ and $lm \oplus$, as $c \oplus$ is to $m \oplus$, so is hc to lm, the sine of the angle of equation. From the third to the ninth sine of anomaly, the co-sine cb must be subtracted from the radius 3438' for the side $h \oplus$.

It is, however, only in computing the retrogradations and other particulars respecting the planets Mer-cury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, where circles greatly excentric are to be considered, that the Hindus find the length of the carna, or hypotenuse $c \oplus s$; in other cases, as for the anomalistic equations of the sun and moon, they are satisfied to take hc as equal to the sine lm, their difference, as the commentator on the Siddhanta observes, being inconsiderable.

Upon this hypothesis are the Hindu tables of anomaly computed with the aid of an adjustment, which, as far as I know, may be peculiar to themselves. Finding that, in the first degree of anomaly, both from the higher and lower apsis, the difference between the mean and observed places of the planets was greater than became thus accounted for, they enlarged the epicycle in the apogee and perigee, proportionably to that observed difference for each planet respectively, conceiving it to diminish in inverse proportion to the sine of the mean anomaly, until at the distance of three sines, or half-way between those points, the radius of the epicycle should be equal to the excentricity or sine of the greatest equation. This assumed difference in the magnitude of the epicycle, they called the difference of the paridhi ansa, between vishama and sama; the literal meaning of which is odd and even. From the first to the third sign of anomaly, or rather in the third, a planet is in vishama; from the third to the

sixth, or in the perigee, in sama; in the ninth sign, in vishama; and in the twelfth, or the apogee, in sama. The paridhi degrees, or circumference of the epicycle in sama are, of the sun 14°; in vishama 13° 40'; of the moon in sama 32°; in vishama, 31° 40°; the difference assigned to each between sama and vishama, 20'.

To illustrate these matters by examples, let it be required to find the equation of the sun's mean to his true place in the first degree of anomaly. The sine of 1° is considered as equal to its arc, or 60.-The circumference of the epicycle in sama, or the apogee, is 14°, but diminishing in this case towards vishama, in inverse proportion to the sine of anomaly. Therefore, as radius 3438 is to the difference between sama and vishama 20', so is the sine of anomaly 60' to the diminution of the epicycle in the point of anomaly proposed, 20'' (= $\frac{60'+20'}{3438}$) which, subtracted from 14°, leaves 13° 59′ 40″. Then, as the circumference of the great circle 360° is to the circumference of the epicycle 13° 59' 40", so is the sine of anomaly 60' to its correspondent sine in the epicycle hc; which, as was observed, is considered as equal to lm, or true sine of the angle of equation 2' 19" 56" $(=\frac{13^{\circ} \circ (40''+60'')}{240^{\circ}})$, which, in the *Hindu* canon of sines, is the same as its arc, and is therefore the equation of the mean to the true place in 1° of anomaly, to be added in the first six sines and subtracted in the last six.

For the equation of the mean to the true place in 5° 14' of anomaly. The sine of 5° 14' is 313' 36' 8''' and $\frac{313' 36'' 8''' + 20' = 6272' 2'' 40'''}{3438'} = 1' 49''$, to be deducted from the paridhi degrees in sama. -14° 1' $49'' = 13^{\circ}$ 58' 11", and $\frac{313', 36'', 8'' + 13^{\circ}}{360^{\circ}}$ 18' $\frac{4379, 59, 27}{360^{\circ}} = 12'$ 9" 59" the sine of the angle of equation, which is equal to its arc.

For the same in 14° of anomaly. The sine of 140, is $831.36.-\frac{831'36''\times20''}{3438''}=4'50''$, and, $\frac{14^{\circ}-4'50''\times831'38''}{360^{\circ}}=32'9''$ the sine of the angle of equation.

For the same in two sines of anomaly. The sine of 60° is $2978'' \frac{2978' \times 20'}{3438} \frac{17}{17}$, 19''; and $\frac{14^{\circ}-17'}{360^{\circ}}$ = 113' 25" 20", the sine of equation equal to its arc.

For the equation of the mean to the true place of the moon in 1° of anomaly. The paridhi degrees of the moon in sama are 32°, in vishama 31°, 40′, the difference 20′. The sine of 1° is 60′ and $\frac{60' \times 20''}{3438'} = 21''$ to be deducted from the paridhi degrees in sama, 32° -21'' = 31° 59′ 39''. $\frac{31°, 59′, 39'' + 60′}{360°} = 5′, 20″, the equation required.$

For the same in ten degrees of anomaly. The sine of 10° is $597'\frac{597'\times20'}{3438'}=3'$ 28", and $32^{\circ}-3';\frac{28''\times597'}{360^{\circ}}=52'$ 28", the equation required.

For the same in three sines of anomaly. The sine of 90° is the radius or 343%, and $\frac{343\% \times 20'}{343\%} = 20'$, $\frac{32^{\circ}-20' \times 343\%}{300'} = 302'$, 25", the sine of the greatest angle of equation, equal to the radius of the epicycle in this point of anomaly, the arc corresponding with which is 302' 45", the equation required.

For the equation of the mean to the true motion in these several points of anomaly, say, as radius 3438 is to the mean motion, so is the co-sine cb of the anomalistic angle gac in the epicycle, to the difference between the mean and apparent motion, or the equation required, to be subtracted from the

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mean motion from the first three sines of anomaly; added in the next six, and subtracted in the last three.

Example, for the sun, in 5° 14' of anomaly. The co-sine of 5° 14' in the Hindu canon is 3422' 17" 52". The paridhi circle in this point, found before, is 13° 58' 11"; and $\frac{3422, 17', 52'''+13°, 58'}{360°} = 132' 48"$ the co-sine c b in the epicycle; then, as radius 3438 is to the sun's mean motion 59' 8" per day, or 59" 8" per danda, so is the co-sine c b = 132' 48", to the equation required, 2' 17" per day, or 2" 17" per danda. The motion of the sun's apsis is so slow as to be neglected in these calculations; but that of the moon is considered, in order to know her mean motion from her apogee, which is 783' 54".

In this manner may be determined the equation of the mean to the true anomaly and motion for each degree of the quadrant; and which will be found to agree with the tables of *Macaranda*. The following tables are translated from that book:

Solar Equations, Ravi p'hala

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2		1. 4	10	2	18	32	K	9	57	1	53	62	I	55	34	I	
3		7 .		2	18	33	I	II	57	I	53	63	1	56	35	150	58
4			19	2	17	34	1	13	47	I	51	64	I	57	34	16	57
5	1	1	37	2.	1.7	35	İ	15	40	1	51	65	1	68	34		55
6	1	3	56	2	17	36	I	17	32	I	49	66	I	59	30		55
7 8	1	5	15	2	16	37	I	19	23	I	47	67	2	-	23		52
8	I	3 3	33	2	16	38	I	21	11	1	45	68	2	I	14		49
9	20)	51	2	15	39	I	22	57	I	43	69	2	2	4		46
10	2	3	7	2	14	40	I	24	42	I	42	70	2	2	51		43
II	2	5	23	2;	14	41	1	26	26	I	40	71	2	3	35		41
12	2		39	2	,13	4.2	I	28	7	I	38	72	2	4	17		39
13	2	9 :	55	2	13	43	I	29	46	I	36	73	2	4	57		37
14	3		10	2	12	44	1	3 I	23.	I	34	74	2	5	35		35
15	3	4	24	2	II	45	I	32	58	I	32	75	2	6	I 2		32
16	. 3	6	37	2	II	46	2	34	32	I	30	76	2	6	45	1	31
17	3	8	39	2	10	47	I	36	4	I	29	77	2	7	17	1	28
18	4		I	. 2	9	48	I	37	35	I	28	78	2	7	45		25
119	1		12	2	8	49	I	39	6	I	28	79	2	8	12		23
20			22	2	7	50	I	40	36	I	26	80	2	8	36		22
21	1 "		3 I	2	6	51	1	42	3	I	23	81	2	8	58		20
2.2	1 ,	9	39	2	6	52	I	43	26	I	19	82	, 2	9	18		18
23		I	47	2	5	53	I	44	45	1	15	83	2	9	36		15
24	1	3	53	2	3	54	I	46	2	I	14	84		9	51		12
25	5	5	57	2	2	155	, I	47	17	I	13	85	2	10	3		10
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		2	53	I	.58	58	I	51	**	I	II		2	10	27		4
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Lunar Equations, Chandra p'hala.

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	Anomaly.	m		o the	me	of se an to	Anomaly.	E	in to		me	the an so		E	ean	the to the	me	of the an to
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	1		5	20	66		31	2	36	37	.59	20	1 .	4	25	·26	33	41
ı	2	1	10	40	169	38	32	2	41	II	58	41	62	1 4	27	36	32	39
I	3		16	-	60	33	3-3	2	45	36			153	4	29	59	31	35
ı	4		21	19	69	28	34	2	-49	58	157	19	1	4	32	19	30	29
I	5		26	36	69	21	35	2	54	20	10		65	4	34		29	22
I			3 t	54	69	13	36	2	58	39	55			4	36		28	13
I	7 8		37	12	69	4	37	3	2	54	1	14	1 -	4	38		27	7
I	- /		42	29	68	54	38	3	7	5	54	30	61	1 4	40	٠.	26	1
1	.9		47	44	68	43	39	3	II	16	53	44	69	4	42	50	24	55
I	10		5 ² 5 ⁸	58	68	28	40	3	15	18	52	58 26	70	4	44		23	49
ı	11	I		23	67	11	11 12	3	23	24	5 I	57	71 72	4	46	24	22	42
I	13	I	38	40	67	5 ² 35	43	3	27	26	150	48	73	4	49	38	20	34
1	14	T	13	45	67	17	44	3	30	54	49	46	74	4	51	9	19	14
1	15	1	18	53	66	55	45	3	34	39	48	54	75	4	52	53	18	3
	16	I	2:4	-	66	38	46	. 3	38	21	48	-	76	4	53	54	16	51
ı	17	E	29	5	66	18	47	. 3	41	58	47	5	77	4	55	6	15	38
ľ	18	I	34	9	65	574	48	3	45	32	46	9	78	4	56	15	14	25
l	19	1	39	10	6.5	36	49	: 3	48	59	45	13	79	4	57	17	13	14
ŀ	20	I.	44	. 9	65:	134	50	-3	52	24	14	19	80	. 4	58	13	12	3
Į.	21	I	49	1.7	64		51	. 3	55	46	43	27	81	4	59	6	10	53
ŧ.	22		54	.,3	64	24	52	3.	59	2	42	32	82	4	59	53	. 0	41
	23	I	58	3	631	56	53	4	2	13	41	37	83	.5	U	27	8	34
	24	1	3		63	24	54	4	5	18	40 39	4I 44	85	5.	I		7	14
	25	2	13	35	62	22	55	4	11	16	38	47	86	5	I 2	40	-	2
L	27	2	18	6	61	48	57	4	14	II	37		87	. 5	2	3	4	51
	28	Ξ.,	22		61	13	58	4	17	_	36		88	5		36	-	37
1	29	2	27	7.4	60	35	59			46	35	7 - 1	89	5	2	44		44
	301	2	32		59	56	60	4	22	29	34	48		5		48	-	_
-		-	-							-	-	-	-	-				

Having the true longitude of the sun and moon, and the place of the node determined by the methods explained, it is easy to judge, from the position of the latter, whether at the next conjunction or opposition there will be a solar or a lunar eclipse; in which case the tit'hi, or date of the moon's synodical month, must be computed from thence, to determine the time counted from midnight of her fullor change. Her distance in longitude from the sun, divided by 720, the minutes contained in a tit'hi, or the thirtieth part of 360°, the quotient shows the tit'hi she has passed, and the fraction, if any, the part performed of the next; which, if it be the fifteenth, the difference between that fraction and 720' is the distance she has to go to her opposition, which will be in time proportioned to her actual motion; and that being determined, her longitude, the longitude of the sun, and place of the node may be known for the instant of full moon, or middle of the lunar eclipse. The Hindu method of computing these particulars is so obvious in the accompanying instance, as to require no further description here; and the same may be said with respect to the declination of the sun and the latitude of the moon.

It is evident from what has been explained, that the *Pandits*, learned in the *Jyotish Sastra*, have truer notions of the form of the earth and the economy of the universe than are ascribed to the *Hindus* in general: and that they must reject the ridiculous belief of the common *Brahmens*, that eclipses are occasioned by the intervention of the monster *Rahu*, with many other particulars equally unscientific and absurd. But, as this belief is founded on explicit and positive declarations contained in the *Vedas* and *Puranas*, the divine authority of which writings no devout *Hindu* can dispute, the astronomers have some of them cautiously explained such passages in those writings as disagree with the

principles of their own science; and, where reconciliation was impossible, have apologized, as well as they could, for propositions necessarily established in the practice of it, by observing, that certain things, as stated in other Sastras, "might have been so formerly, and may be so still; but for astronomical purposes. astronomical rules must be followed." Others have, with a bolder spirit, attacked and refuted unphilosophical opinions. Bhascara argues, that it is more reasonable to suppose the earth to be self-balanced in infinite space. than that it should be supported by a series of animals. with nothing assignable for the last of them to rest upon: And Nerasinha, in his commentary, shows that by Rahue and Cetu, the head and tail of the monster, in the sense they generally bear, could only be meant the position of the moon's nodes and the quantity of her latitude, on which eclipses do certainly depend; but he does not therefore deny the reality of Rahu and Cetu: on the contrary, he says, that their actual existence and presence in eclipses ought to be believed, and may be maintained as an article of faith, without any prejudice to astronomy. The following Sloca, to which a literal translation is annexed, was evidently written by a Justish, and is well known to the Pandits in general:

Vip'halanyanyasastrani, vivadasteshu cevalam:
Sap'halam jyotisham sastram, chandrarcau yatra sacshinau.

"Fruitless are all other Sastras; in them is contention only. Fruitful is the Joytish Sastra, where the sun and moon are two witnesses."

The argument of Varahaacharya concerning the monster Rahu, might here be annexed, but, as this

paper will without it be sufficiently prolix, I shall next proceed to show how the astronomical Pandits determine the moon's distancé and diameter, and other requisites for the prediction of a lunar eclipse.

The earth they consider as spherical, and imagine its diameter divided into 1600 equal parts, or Yojanas. An ancient method of finding a circle's circumference was to multiply the diameter by three; but this being not quite enough, the Munis directed that it should be multiplied by the square root of ten. This gives for the equatorial circumference of the earth in round numbers 5059 Yojanas, as it is determined in the Surya Siddhanta. In the table of sines, however, found in the same book, the radius being made to consist of 3438 equal parts or minutes, of which equal parts the quadrant contains 5400, implies the knowledge of a much more accurate ratio of the diameter to the circumference; for by the first it is as 1. to 3. 1627. &c. by the last, as 1. to 3. 14136; and it is determined by the most approved labours of the Europeans, as 1. to 3. 14159, &c. In the Puranas the circumference of the earth is declared to be 500,000,000 Yojans; and, to account for this amazing difference the commentator before quoted thought, "the Yojanz stated in the Surya Siddhanta contained each 100,000 of those meant in the Puranas; or per-66 haps, as some suppose, the earth was really of that size in some former Calpa. Moreover, others say, "that from the equator south ward, the earth increases in bulk: however, for astronomical purposes, " the dimensions given by Surya must be assumed." The equatorial circumference being assigned, the circumference of a circle of longitude in any latitude is determined. As radius 3438 is to the Lambajya or sine of the polar distance, equal to the completement of the latitude to ninety degrees, so is the equa-Vol. II.

260 ON THE ASTRONOMICAL COMPUTATIONS torial dimension 5059, to the dimension in Yojans required.

Of a variety of methods for finding the latitude of a place, one is by an observation of the palabha, or shadow, projected from a perpendicular Gnomon when the sun is in the equator. The Sancu, or Gnomon, is twelve angulas, or digits, in length divided, each into sixty vingulas; and the shadow observed at Benares is 5, 45. Then, by the proportion of a right angled triangle $\sqrt{12.2 + 5.45} = 13$ 18 the acsha carna (hypotenuse) or distance from the top of the Gnomon to the extremity of the shadow; which take as radius, and the projected shadow will be the sine of the zenith distance, in this case, equal to the latitude of the place $\frac{3438 \times 545}{4} = 1487$, the arc corresponding with which, in the canon of sines, is 25° 26' the latitude of Benares. The sine complement of the latitude is 3101' 57", and again by trigonometry $\frac{3101'' 57'' + 5059 38}{2428} = 4565$, 4 Yogans the circumference of a circle of longitude in the latitude of Benares.

The longitude is directed to be found by observation of lunar eclipses calculated for the first meridian, which the Surya Siddhanta describes as passing over Lanca, Rohitaca, Avanti, and Sannihita-saras. Avanti is said by the commentator to be "now called Ujjayini," or Ougein, a place well known to the English in the Mahratta dominions. The distance of Benares from this meridian is said to be sixty-four Yojan eastward; and as 4565 Yojan, a circle of longitude at Benares, is to sixty dandas, the natural day, so is

sixty-four Yojan to 0, 50, the difference of longitude in time, which marks the time after midnight, when, strictly speaking, the astronomical day begins

at Benares *. A total lunar eclipse was observed to happen at Benares fifty-one palas later than a calculation gave it for Lanca, and $\frac{5^{1}+45^{6}5}{65} = \text{sixty-four}$ Yojana, the difference of longitude on the earth's surface.

According to Rennel's map, in which may be found Ougein, and agreeably to the longitude assigned to Benares, the equinoctial point Lanca falls in the Eastern Ocean, southward from Ceylon and the Maldiva Islands. Lanca is fabulously represented as one of four cities built by Devatas, at equal distances from each other, and also from Sumeru and Badawanal, the north and south poles, whose walls are of gold, &c. and with respect to Meya's performing his famous devotions, in reward of which he received the astronomical revelations from the sun, recorded in the Surva Siddhanta, the commentator observes, " he performed "those devotions in Salmala, a country a little to the " eastward of Lanca: the dimensions of Lanca are equal to one twelfth part of the equatorial circumfe-" rence of the earth," &c. Hence, perhaps on inquiry, may be found whether by Salmala is not meant Ceylon. In the history of the war of Rama with Rawan, the tyrant of Lanca, the latter is said to have married the daughter of an Asura, named Meya: but these disquisitions are foreign to my purpose.

For the dimensions of the moon's cacsha (orbit) the rule in the Sanscrit text is more particular than is necessary to be explained to any person, who has informed

^{* &}quot;This day (astronomical day) is accounted to begin at midinight under the rec'ba (meridian) of Lanca; and at all places
east or west of that meridian, as much sooner or latter as is their
desantera (longitude) reduced to time, according to the Surya
Siddhanta, Brahma Siddhanta, Vasishtha Siddhanta, Soma Siddhanta, Parasero Siddhanta, and Aryabhatta. According to Brahmagupta and others, it begins at sunrise; according to the Ro-

[&]quot;magupta and others, it begins at sunrise; according to the Ro"maca and others, it begins at noon; and according to the Arsha
"Siddhanta, at sunset." (Tica on the Surya Siddhanta).

himself of the methods used by European astrono mers to determine the moon's horizontal parallax. In general terms, it is to observe the moon's altitude, and thence, with other requisites, to compute the time of her ascension from the sensible cshitija, or horizon, and her distance from the sun when upon the rational horizon, by which to find the time of her passage from the one point to the other; or, in other words, 'to find the difference in time between the meridian to which the eye referred her at rising, and the meridian she was actually upon; in which difference of time she will have passed through a space equal to the earth's semidiameter or 800 Yojan: and by proportion, as that time is to her periodical month, so is 800 Yojan to the circumference of her cacsha, 324000 Yojan. The errors arising from refraction, and their taking the moon's motion as along the sine instead of its arc, may here be remarked; but it does not seem that they had any idea of the first *, and the latter they perhaps thought too inconsiderable to be noticed. Hence it appears. that they made the horizontal parallax 53' 20" and her distance from the earth's centre 51570 Yojan; for $\frac{180^{\circ} \times 1600}{324000} = 53' 20''$; and as 90° or 5400' is to the radius 3438', so is one-fourth of her orbit 81000 Yojan to 51570, and $\frac{31570 \times 21600}{3059}$ = 220184, the same distance in geographical miles. European astronomers compute the mean distance of the moon about 240000, which is something above a fifteenth part more than the Hindus found it so long ago as the time of Meya, the author of the Surya Siddhanta.

By the Hindu system the planets are supposed to. move in their respective orbits at the same rate; the dimensions therefore of the moon's orbit

^{*} But they are not wholly ignorant of optics: they know the angles of incidence and reflection to be equal, and compute the place of a star or planet, as it would be seen reflected from water or a mirror.

known, those of the other planets are determined, according to their periodical revolutions, by proportion. As the sun's revolutions in a Maha Yug 4320000 are to the moon's revolutions in the same cycle 5753336, so is her orbit 324000 Yojan to the sun's orbit 4331500 Yojan; and in the same manner for the cacshas, or orbits of the other planets. All true distance and magnitude derivable from parallax, is here out of the question; but the Hindu hypothesis will be found to answer their purpose in determining the duration of eclipses, &c.

For the diameters of the sun and moon, it is directed to observe the time between the appearance of the limb upon the horizon and the instant of the whole disk being risen, when their apparent motion is at a mean rate, or when in three signs of anomaly; then, by proportion, as that time is to a natural day, so are their orbits to their diameters respectively; which of the sun is 6500 Yojan; of the moon, 480 Yojan. These dimensions are increased or diminished as they approach the lower or higher apsis, in proportion as their apparent motion exceeds or falls short of the mean, for the purpose of computing the diameter of the earth's shadow at the moon, on principles which may perhaps be made more intelligible by a figure.

Let the earth's diameter be lm=gh=cd; the distance of the moon from the earth AB, and her diameter CD. By this system, which supposes all the planets moving at the same rate, the dimensions of the sun's orbit will exceed the moon's, in proportion as his period in time exceeds hers; let his distance be AE, and EFG part of his orbit. According to the foregoing computation also, the sun's apparent diameter f i, at this distance from the earth, is 6500 Yojan; or rather, the angle his diameter subtends when viewed in three signs of anomaly, would be 6500 parts of the

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circumference of a circle consisting of 4331500, and described round the earth as a centre with a radius equal to his mean distance, which is properly all that is meant by the vishcambha, and which, therefore, is increased or diminished according to his equated motion. This in three signs of anomaly is equivalent to 32' 24"; for, as 4331500 to 360°, so 6500 to 32' 24". The Europeans determine the same to be 32' 22". In the same manner, the sun's vishcambha in the mean racsha of the moon, or the portion of her orbit in Yojans, included in this angle, is found, as 4331500 is to 324000, so is 6500 to 486 Yojan or n, o, of use in solar eclipses; but this I am endeavouring to explain is a lunar one. It is evident that the diameter of the earth's shadow at the moon will be c, d,—c, a+b, d, or a b when her distance is Ae; and that c a and bd will be found by the following proportion: as Ak is to fi-gh=fg+hi, so is Ae to ca+bd. But it has been observed that Ak and f i are proportioned by the Hindus according to the moon's distance A e, the apparent motion of the sun and moon, and the angles subtended by their diameters. The Hindu rule therefore states, As the sun's vishcambha or diameter is to the moon's, so is the difference of the diameters of the sun and earth, in Yojans, to a fourth number, equal to ca + bd to be subtracted from the suchi. or hn=cd to find a b; also, that the number of Yojans, thus determined as the diameters of the moon and shadow, may be reduced to minutes of a great circle by a divisor of fifteen. For, as the minutes contained in 360°=21600, are to the moon's orbit in Yojan 324000, so is one minute to fifteen Yojan.

The diameter of the moon's disk, of the earth's shadow, and the place of the node being found, for the instant of opposition or full moon, the remaining

part of the operation differs in no respect that I know of from the method of European astronomers to compute a lunar eclipse. The translation of the Formula for this purpose, in the Surya Siddhanta, is as follows: "The earth's shadow is always six signs " distant from Surya; and Chandra is eclipsed when-" ever at the purnima the pata is found there; as is also Surya, whenever at the end of the amavasya the " pata is found in the place of Surya; or, in either "case, when the pata is nearly so situated. At the end of the amavasya tit'hi the signs, degrees, " and minutes of Surya and Chandra are equal; and " at the end of the purnima tit'hi the difference is ex-" actly six signs; take therefore the time unexpired of either of those tit'his, and the motion for that "time add to the madhyama, and the degrees and mi-" nutes of Surva and Chandra will be equal. For "the same instants of time compute the place of the ve pata in its retrograde motion, and, if it should be in " conjunction with Surya and Chandra, then, as from "the intervention of a cloud, there will be an obscust rity of Surya or of Chandra. Chandra, from the west, approaches from the earth's shadow, which on entering, he is obscured. For the instant of the puri-" nima, from the half sum of the chandramana and the " tamoliptamana subtract the vicshepa, the remainder is the ch'channa. If the ch'channa is greater * than the " grahyamana, the eclipse will be total; and if less, the " eclipse will be proportionably less. The grahya and " grahaca deduct and also add; square the difference 45 and the sum severally; subtract the square of the " vicshepa from each of those squares, and the square " root of each remainder multiply by sixty; divide 66 each product by the difference of the gati of Surya

^{*} Or, when the ch'channa and grabyamana are equal, the eclipse

"and Chandra; the first quotient will be half the duration of the eclipse in dandas and palas; and the second quotient will be half the vimardardha duration in dandas and palas," &c. The ch'channa, or portion of the disk eclipsed, is here found in degrees and minutes of a great circle; it may also be estimated in digits; but the angulas or digits of the Hindus are of various dimensions in different books.

The beginning, middle, and end of the eclipse may now be suposed found for the time in *Hindu* hours, when it will happen after midnight; but, for the corresponding hour of the civil day, which begins at sunrise, it is further necessary to compute the length of the artificial day and night; and, for this purpose, must be known the ayanansa or distance of the vernal equinox from the first of metha, the sun's right ascension and declination; which several requisites shall be mentioned in their order.

Respecting the precession of the equinoxes and place of the colure, the following is a translation of all I can find on the subject in the Surya Siddhanta and its commentary:—

Text. "The ayanansa moves eastward thirty times "twenty in each Maha Yug; by that number (600) "multiply the ahargana (number of mean solar days "for which the calculation is made) and divide the product by the savan days in a Yug, and of the quotient take the bhuja, which multiply by three, and civide the product by ten; the quotient is the ayan"a sa. With the ayanansa correct the graha, cranti, the ch'haya, charadala, and other requisites to find the pushti and the two vishuvas. When the carna is less than the surya ch'haya, the pracchacra moves

ceastward, and the ayanansa must be added; and when more, it moves westward, and the ayanansa must be subtracted.

Commentary. "By the text, the ayana bhagana is understood to consist of 600 bhaganas (periods) in " a Maha Yug; but some persons say, the meaning is thirty bhaganas only, and accordingly that there " are 30,000 bhaganas. Also that Bhascar Acharya " observes, that, agreeably to what has been delivered by Surya, there are 30,000 bhaganas of the ayanansa " in a Culpa. This is erroneous; for it disagrees with the Sastras of the Rishis. The Sacalya San-" hita states that the bhaganas of the Cranti pata in " a Maha Yug are 600 eastward. The same is ob-" served in the Vasisht'ha Siddhanta; and the rule of for determining the ayanansa is as follows:- The expired years divide by 600, of the quotient make " the bhuja, which multiply by three, and divide the or product by ten. The meaning of Bhascar, Acha-" rya was not, that Surya gave 30,000 as the bhaganas, of the ayanansa in a Calpa, the name he used being " Saura not Surya, and applied to some other book. "From the natansa is known the crantyansa, and " from the crantijya the bhujajya, the arct of which is the bhujansa of Surya, including the ayanansa: this for the first three months; after which, for the next three months, the place of Surya, found by " this mode of calculation, must be deducted from six signs. For the next three months the place of " Surya must be added to six signs, and for the last " three months the place of Surya must be deducted " from twelve signs. Thus, from the shadow may " be computed the true place of Surya. For the " same instant of time compute his place by the " ahargana, from which will appear whether the " ayanansa is to be added or subtracted. If the place " found by the ahargana be less than the place

" found by the shadow, the ayanansa must be added. In the present time the ayanansa is added. Ac-

- " cording to the author of the Varasanhita, it was " said to have been formerly deducted *; and the
- southern ayana of Surya to have been in the first
- half of the nacshatra Aslesha +; and the northern " ayana in the beginning of Dhanishta: that in his
- time the southern ayana was in the beginning of " Cacara, or Cancer; and the northern in the be-
- " ginning of Macara, or Capricorn.
- "The bhag anas of the ayanansa in a Maha Yug are " 600, the saura years in the same period 4,320,000;
- one bhagana of the ayanansa therefore contains
- 7,200 years. Of a bhagana there are four padas. " First pada, when there was no ayanansa; but the
- ayanansa beginning from that time and increasing,
- " it was added. It continued increasing 1800 years;
- when it became at its utmost, or twenty-seven de-
- " grees. Second pada: After this it diminished;

^{* &}quot; It was said to have been formerly rina." In the Hindu specious arithmetic, or algebra, dhana signifies affirmation or addition, and rina negation or subtraction: the sign of the latter is a point placed over the figure, or the quantity noted down; thus, four added to seven, is equal to three. See the bija ganita, where the mode of computation is explained thus: " When a man has four pieces of money, and owes seven of the same value, his circumstances reduced to the form of an equation, or his books balanced, show a deficiency of three pieces."

⁺ This describes the place of the solstitial colure; and, according to this account of the ayanansa, the equinoctial colure must then have passed through the tenth degree of the nacihatra Bharani and the 30 20' of Visac'ha. The circumstance, as it is mentioned in the Vara Sanhita, is curious and deserving of notice. I shall only observe here, that, although it does not disagree with the present system of the Hindus in regard to the motion of the equinoctial points, yet the commentator on the Varasanbita supposes that it must have been owing to some preternatural cause. The place here described of the colure, is on comparison of the Hindu and European spheres about 3° 40' eastward of the position, which it is supposed by Sir Isaac Newton, on the authority of Eudoxus, to have had in the primitive sphere at the time of the Argonautic expedition. When we will also know the fit was

" but the amount was still added, until, at the end of 1800 years more, it was diminished to nothing. "Third pada: The ayanansa for the next 1800 years " was deducted; and the amount deducted at the end of that term was twenty-seven degrees. Fourth pada: The amount deduction diminished; and at " the end of the next term of 1800 years, there was nothing either added or subtracted. The Munis, having observed these circumstances, gave rules accordingly: if in the savan days of a Maha Yug there are 600 bhaganas, what will be found in the ahargana proposed? which statement will produce bhaganas, sines, &c.; reject the bhaganas, and " take the bhuja of the remainder, which multiply by three and divide by ten, because there are four of padas in the bhagana; for if in 90° there is a cer-" tain number found as the bhuja, when the bhuja degrees are twenty-seven, what will be found? " and the numbers twenty-seven and ninety used in " the computation being in the ratio of three to ten, " the latter are used to save trouble.

"There is another method of computing the aya"nansa: The cranti-pata-gati is taken at one minute
"per year; and according to this rule the ayanansa
"increases to twenty-four degrees; the time necessary for which, as one pada is 1440 years. This is
the gati of the nacshatras of the cranti mandala.

"The nacshatra Revati rises where the nari mandala and the cshitija intersect *; but it has been

^{*} This can happen only when there is no ayanansa. The nari mandala is the equator. The yoga star of Revati is in the last of Mina (Pisces) or, which is the same, in the first of Mesba (Aries) and has no latitude in the Hindu tables. Hence, from the ayanansa and time of the beginning of the Hindu year, may be known their zodiacal stars. Revati is the name of the twenty-seventh lunar mansion, which comprehends the last 13° 20' of Mina. When the ayanansa was 0, as at the creation, the beginning of the

observed to vary twenty-seven degrees north and south. The same variation is observed in the other « nacshatras: it is therefore rightly said, that the chacra moves eastward. The chacra means all the " nacshatras. The planets are always found in the nacshatras, and the cranti-pata-gati is owing to " them, not to the planets; and hence it is observed in the text, that the pata draws chandra to a dis-

" tance equal to the cranti degrees."

Here, to my apprehension, instead of a revolution of the equinoxes through all the signs in the course of the Platonic year, which would carry the first of Vaisuc'h through all the seasons, is clearly implied a libration of those points from the third degree of Pisces to the twenty-seventh of Aries, and from the third of Virgo to the twenty-seventh of Libra, and back again in 7200 years; but, as this must seem to Europeans an extraordinary circumstance to be stated in so ancient a treatise as the Surya Siddhanta, and believed by Hindu astronomers ever since, I hope the above quotations may attract the attention of those who are qualified for a critical examination of them, and be compared with whatever is to be found in other Sastras, on the same subject. Whatever may be the result of such an investigation, there is no mistaking the rule for determining the ayanansa, which was at the beginning of the present year 19° 21', and consequently the vernal equinox in Pisces 10° 39' of the Hindu sphere; or, in other words, the sun entered Mesha or Aries, and the Hindu year began when he was advanced 19° 21' into the northern signs, according to European expression:

Cali Yug, &c. the colure passed through the yoga star of Revati. It is plain, that in this passage Revati applies either to the particular yoga star of that name or to the last, or twenty-seventh In ar mansion, in which it is situated. (See a former note.) In each nacsbatra, or planetary mansion, there is one star called the roga, whose latitude, longitude, and right ascension the Hindus have determined and inserted in their astronomical tables.

The ayanansa added to the sun's longitude in the Hindu sphere, gives his distance from the vernal equinox: of the sum take the bhuja; that is, if it exceeds three sines, subtract it from six sines; if it exceeds six sines, subtract six from it; and if it exceeds nine sines, subtract it from twelve. The quantity so found will be the sun's distance from the nearest equinoctial point from which is found his declinationas radius is to the paramapacramajya, or sine of the greatest declination 24°, so is the sun's distance from the nearest equinoctial point to the declination sought: which will agree with the table of declination in present use, to be found in the tables of Macaranda, and calculated for the several degrees of the quadrant. The declination thus determined for one sign, two signs, and three signs, is 11° 43', 20° 38', and the greatest declination, or the angle of inclination of the ecliptic and equator 24°. The co-sines of the same in the Hindu canon are 3366', 3217' and 3141'; and, as the co-sine of the declination for one sine, is to the co-sine of the greatest declination, so is the sine of 30° to the sine of the right ascension for a point of the ecliptic at that disance from either of the two vishuvas, or equinoctial points. In this manner is found the right ascension for the twelve signs of the ecliptic, reckoned from the vernal equinox; and also, by the same management of triangles, the ascensional difference and oblique ascension for any latitude: which several particulars. are inserted in the Hindu books, as in the following table, which is calculated for Bhagalpur, on suppo-

sition that the palabha or equinoctial shadow is 5 30: By the Lagna of Lanca, Madhyama, or mean Lagna; the Hindus mean those points of the equator which rise respectively with each thirtieth degree of the ecliptic counted from Aries in a right sphere, answering to the right ascension in any latitude; by the Lagna of a particular place, the oblique ascension, or the divisions of the equator which rise in succession with each sign in an oblique sphere, and by the chara

the ascensional difference.

1935 323 1795 299 268 45 2063 1670 278 327 55 1670 278 327 55 1997 1795 299 268 45 2063 1935 323 110 18 1825 1935 299 268 45 1527	Visha, 1795 299 268 45 1527 255 Mit'huna, 1935 323 110 18	8 327 55 1343	Hindu Nambs. In respirations answering to minutes of the a Nacshatra equator. In palas, or minutes of answering to minutes of the shatra day. In palas, or minutes of minutes of time, answering to minutes of the shatra day. In palas, or minutes of minutes of time, so to a Nace minutes of the a Nacshatra day.	Lagna of Lanca. Chara of Bhagalpur. Ullagna.
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COMPUTATION OF THE ECLIPSE.

Let it be premised that the position of the sun, moon, and nodes, by calculation, will on the first of next Vaisac'h be as here represented in the Hindu manner, excepting the characters of the signs.

By inspection of the figure, and by considering the motion of the sun, moon, and nodes, it appears that, when the sun comes to the sign Tula, Libra, corresponding with the month of Cartic, the descending node will have gone back to Aries; and that consequently a lunar eclipse may be expected to happen at the end of the purnima tit'hi, or time of full moon, in that month.

FIRST OPERATION.

To find the number of mean solar days from the creation to some part of the purnima tit'hi in Cartic, of the 4891st year of the Cali Yug.

Years expired of the Calpa to the end of the Satya Yug, - Deduct the term of Brahma's employ-	1970784000
ment in the creation,	17064000
From the creation, when the planetary motions began, to the end of the Satya Yug, Add the Treta Yug, Dwapar Yug, Present year of the Cali Yug,	1953720000 1296000 864000 4890
From the creation to the next approaching Bengal year,	1955884890
Or solar months, (×12) Add seven months,	23470618680
THE WAY TO STATE OF THE PARTY.	23470618680

As the solar months in a Yug, 51840000, are to the intercalary lunar months in that cycle, 1593336, so are the solar months 23470618687, to their corresponding intercalary hunar months 721384677; which added together, give 24192003364 lunations. This number multiplied by thirty produces 725760100920 tit'his, or lunar days; from the creation to the new moon in Cartic; to which add fourteen tit'his for the same, to the purnima tit'his in that month 725760100034. Then, as the number of tit'his in a Yug, 1603000080, is to their difference exceeding the mean solar days in that cycle (called cshaya tit'his) 25082252, so are 725760100934 tit'his, to their excess in number over the solar days 11356017987, which subtracted, leaves 714404082947, as the number of mean solar days from the creation, or when the planetary motions began, to a point of time which will be midnight under the first meridian of Lanca, and near the time of full moon in Cartic*. The first day after the creation being Ravi-var, or Sunday, divide the number of days by seven for the day of the week, the remainder after the division being two, marks the day Soma-var, or Monday.

SECOND OPERATION.

For the mean longitude of the sun, moon, and the ascending node. Say, as the number of mean solar days in a Maha Yug is to the revolutions of any planet in that cycle, so are the days from the creation to even revolutions, which reject, and the fraction, if any, turned into sines, &c. is the mean longitude required.

^{*} In the year of the Cali Yug 4891, corresponding with 1196 Bengal style, and with the month of October or November (hereafter to be determined) in the year of Christ 1789.

ist. Of the Sun.

$$\frac{714404082947 \times 4320000}{1577917828} = \frac{Revolutions}{(195584890)} \frac{Sines}{6} \stackrel{?}{22} \frac{44}{2} \frac{2}{12}$$

2d. Of the Moon.

$$\frac{714404082947 \times 57753336}{1577917828} = (26147888255) \quad 0 \quad 21 \quad 21 \quad 58 \quad 56$$

3d. Of the Moon's Apogee.

$$\frac{714404082947 \times 488203}{1577917828} = (221034460) \qquad \text{if 5 31 13 35}$$

Correction of the Bija add.

4th. Of the Moon's ascending Node.

Correction of the Bija add.

5th. Of the Sun's Apogee.

$$\frac{714404082947 \times 387}{1577917828} \qquad (2 - 175 -) 2 17 17 15 - 4$$

Vor. II. or en alle parties and a construction of the construction

	Mean longitude for midnight un- der the meridian of Lanca.			Deduct for the longitude of Bhagalpur as * 80° 50' of equator east.		Mean longitude						
	s	Q	1	11.	in	1 1	"					
Of the Sun,	6	21	44	2	12	1	27	6	21	42	35	12
Moon,	-	21	21	58	56	19	34	-	21	2	25	-
Node,	4	29	27	40	28	-	4	4	29	27	36	_
Sun's Apogee,	2	17	17	15		inconsi	iderable	2	17	17	16	-
Moon's Apogee,	II	7	9	6	3		9	III	7	8	57	

THIRD OPERATION.

For the equated longitude of the Sun and Moon, &c.

1st. Of the Sun.

The mean longitude of the sun is 6' 21° 42' 35" 12"; of the apogee 2 17 17 15, the difference, or mean anomaly, 4° 4° 25' 20"; its complement to 6 signs or distance from the perigee 1' 25° 34' 40", the equation for which is required. This may either be taken from the foregoing table, translated from Macaranda, or calculated in the manner explained as follows:

The sine of 1°25° 34′40″ is 2835′31″ and $\frac{2875′31″\times20′}{3438″}$ = 14′30″ to be subtracted from the *paridhi* degrees in sama; 14°—14′30″ = 13°53′30″, the circumference of the epicycle in this point of anomaly; and $\frac{23°43′30″\times2835′31″}{360°}$ = 108′61″ the sine of the angle of equation, considered as equal to its arc, or 1°48′6″, to be deducted from the mean, for the true longitude;

^{*} This longitude, assigned to Bhagalpur, is erroneous; but the error does not in the least affect the main object of the paper.

6' 21° 42 35"—1° 48' 6"=6' 19° 54' 29" for midnight agreeing with mean time; but as, in this point of anomaly, the true or apparent midnight precedes that estimated for mean time, for which the computation has been made, a proportionable quantity must be deducted from the sun's place, which is thus found: Say, as the minutes contained in the ecliptic are to the sun's mean motion in one day 59' 8", so is the equation of his mean to his true place 180' 6", to the equation of time required, or 18" (= $\frac{59'8'' \times 108'6"}{21600}$) and 6' 19° 54' 29"—29"—18" = 6' 19° 54' 11" the sun's true longitude for the apparent midnight.

For the sun's true motion. The co-sine of the sun's distance from the perigee is 1941' o" 1", and $\frac{1941'}{3}$ o" 1", $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ o" $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$

2d. Of the Moon.

The moon's mean longitude for the mean midnight is 0° 21° 2′ 25", which exceeds her mean longitude for the true midnight, but $\frac{108 \times 79^{\circ}}{2160^{\circ}} = 3' 57"$, her motion in the difference of time between the mean and true midnight 0° 21° 2′ 25"—3′ 57" = 0 20 58 28 mean longitude, for which the anomalistic equation is to be found. Place of the apogee 11° 7° 8′ 55" and the moon's distance from it 1° 13° 49′ 33". The sine of the latter, 2379′ 39". By the rule before explained $\frac{2379' \cdot 30'' \times 20'}{3438} = 13' \cdot 51"$, and $\frac{32^{\circ}-13' \cdot 51'' \times 2379' \cdot 39''}{360} = 210'$ the sine of the angle of equation equal to its arc, or 3° 30" to be subtracted, 0° 20′ 58" 28""—3° 30 = 0° 17′ 28′ 28" the moon's true place, agreeing with the true or apparent midnight.

For the moon's true motion. The co-sine of her distance from the apogee 2479. 13. Circumference of the epicycle 31° 46' 9'', and $\frac{31^{\circ} 46' 9'' \times 2479' 13''}{360^{\circ}} = 218' 47''$ co-sine in the epicycle. The moon's mean motion from her apogee is 790' 35'' - 6' 41'' = 783' 54'', and $\frac{783' 54'' \times 218' 47'}{3838''} = 49' 53''$ the equation of her mean to her true motion, to be subtracted, $790 \cdot 35 - 49 \cdot 53 = 740 \cdot 42$ the moon's true motion per day, or 740'' 42''' per danda.

For the place of the moon's apogee reduced to the apparent midnight. The motion of the apogee is 6' 41'' per day. $\frac{108' 6'' \times 6' 41''}{21600'} = 2''$, $11! 7^{\circ} 8' 57'' - 2''$ = 11' $7^{\circ} 8' 55''$ its place.

For the same of the node. Its motion per day is 3' 11", and $\frac{108'6''\times3'11''}{21600'} = 1$ ", and 4' 29° 27' 36"— $1'' = 4^5 29^\circ 27' 35''$ its place.

The true longitude and motion, therefore, for the apparent time of midnight at *Bhagalpur*, 714404082947 solar days after the creation, or commencement of the planetary motions, will be

		Longitude.			Motion	per day.
	S	Q	1	"	, , ,	11
Of the Sun,					60	
Moon,					740	
Sun's Ap	oogee, 2	17	17	15	inconsi	derable
Moon's	Apogee, I I	7	8	55	6	41
Moon's l	Node, 4	29	27	35	3	II.

FOURTH OPERATION.

Having the longitude and motion as above, to determine the *tit'hi* and time remaining unexpired to the instant of opposition, or full moon.

The moon's longitude subtracted from the sun's, leaves 5' 27° 34' 17", or 10654' 17", which, divided by 720', the minutes in a mean tit'hi, quotes fourteen even tit'his expired, and the fraction, or remainder 574' 17", is the portion expired of the 15th, or purnima tit'hi, which subtracted from 720', leaves 145' 43" remaining unexpired of the same; which, divided by the moon's motion per danda from the sun, will give the time remaining unexpired from midnight to the instant of the full moon with as much precision as the Hindu astronomy requires. Deduct the sun's motion 60" 24" per danda from the moon's 740' 42", the remainder 680" 8", is the moon's motion from the sun; by this divide the part remaining unexpired of the purnima tit'hi 145' 43".

$$\frac{145'43''=524580'''}{680'' 8'''=40818'''}=\frac{D.}{12}$$

therefore 12 dandas, 51 palas after midnight will be the end of the purnima tit'hi, or instant of opposition of the sun and moon.

FIFTH OPERATION.

Having the instant of opposition as above, to find the true longitude and motion of the sun and moon, the latitude of the latter, and the place of the node.

D. P.

Add the mean motion of each for 12 51 to the mean place, found before for the true midnight; and for the mean places so found, compute again the anomalistic equations. This being but a repetition of operation, the third is unnecessary to be detailed. The several particulars are as follows:

	Mean longi- tude for mid- night.		Mean longi- tude at full moon.			Equ a	True longi- tude at full moon.			i- ull			
Of the Sun, Moon's Apogee, Moon's Node,	6 2 2	7 8	17 28 55	6	2 I 2 3	54 47 10	17 47 21	1 47 3 40	50	6	20	7	7 27

	Mean motion.	Equation.	True motion at full moon.		
Of the Sun,	790 35	× 1' 16"	60′ 24″		
Moon,		- 47 28	743 7		

Hence it appears that, at the opposition, the moon will be near her descending node; for, 45 29° $28' \cdot 16'' \times 6^{\circ} = 10^{\circ} \cdot 29^{\circ} \cdot 28' \cdot 16''$, the place of the descending node in antecedentia, and 125-105 290 28' 16"=1" o° 31' 44" its longitude according to the order of the signs, and 1° 0° 31′ 44"-20° 7′ 27"= 10° 24′ 17" the moon's distance from her descending node, which, being within the limit of a lunar eclipse, shows that the moon will be then eclipsed. For her latitude at this time, say, as radius is to the inclination of her orbit to the ecliptic, 4° 30' or 270', so is the sine of her distance from the node 620' 57", to her latitude of 48' 45" (= $\frac{279'' \times 620' 57'}{3428'}$

SIXTH OPERATION.

From the elements now found, to compute the diameters of the moon and shadow, and the duration of the eclipse.

11.	THE REAL PROPERTY.	15.534				Yojan.
The	Sun's mean	diameter	15	1110	10	6500
	Moon's		1			480
	Earth's		.,			1600

Sun's mean motion,		•	59' 8"
Moon's,	11, 12, -	-	790.35
Sun's true motion,		"	60 24
Moon's,		-	743 7
Moon's latitude, -	-, 19-	-	48 45

As the moon's mean motion is to her mean diameter, so is her true motion to her true diameter for the time of opposition $\frac{743'7''\times480}{79^\circ, 35} = 451$ II Yojan, which divided by fifteen, quotes 30'5" of a great circle.

As the sun's mean motion is to his mean diameter, so is his true motion to his diameter at the inftant

of opposition
$$\frac{60'24'' \times 6500}{59'8''} = 6639$$
 14 Yojan.

As the moon's mean motion is to the earth's diameter, so is the moon's equated motion to the Suchi, or a fourth number, which must be taken as the earth's diameter, for the purpose of proportioning its shadow to the moon's distance and apparent diameter $\frac{1600 \times 743'7''}{790'35''} = 1503 56$ Yojan, the Suchi.

As the sun's mean diameter is to the moon's diameter, so is the difference above 5039 14, to a fourth number, which deducted from the Suchi, or equated diameter of the earth, leaves the dimeter of the earth's

shadow at the moon,
$$\frac{Y}{6500} = 372$$
. 7, and $\frac{Y}{14} = 372$.

1503. 56-372.7 = 1131.49 Yojan, which divided by fifteen, quotes 75'.27'' of a great circle for the same.

From the half sum of the diameters of the moon and shadow $\frac{75'27''\times30'5'}{2} = 52'46''$, subtract the moon's latitude 48' 45", the remainder is the *Cheh'anna*, or portion of the moon's diameter eclipsed, 4' 1" of a great circle, and by the nature of a right angled triangle, the square root of the difference of the squares of the moon's latitude, and the half sum of the diameters of the shadow and moon, will be the path of the moon's centre, from the beginning to the middle of the eclipse.

The diameter of the shadow is, 75 27 Of the moon, - 30 5

Sum, - 105 32

Half sum, 52 46

The moon's latitude is, - 48 45

 $\sqrt{52.46^2 \times 48.45^2}$ = 20′ 11″ which, divided by the moon's motion from the sun, quotes the half duration of the eclipse in dandas and palas, or Hindu mean solar hours, $\frac{20' 11'' = 1211''}{682'' 43'''} = 1$ 46 25; which doubled, is 3 32 50, the whole duration of the eclipse; which will be partial, the moon's latitude being greater than the difference between the semi-diameters of the moon's disk and the earth's shadow.

SEVENTH OPERATION.

To find the position of the equinoctial colures, and thence the declination of the sun, the length of day and night, and the time counted from sunrise, or hour of the civil day when the eclipse will happen.

1st. For the ayanansa or distance of the vernal equi-

nox from the 1st of Mesha. $\frac{714404082947 \times 600}{1577947828} = (271650)$ 8s 4° 31′ 30″ 52″ of which take the bhuja 8s 4° 31′ 30″
52″'-6³=2⁵ 4° 31′ 30″ 52″ which multiply by three, and divide by ten, $\frac{64° 31′ 30″ 52 \times 3}{10} = 19° 21′ 27″$ the ayanansa, which in the present age is added to the sun's longitude, to find his distance from the vernal equinox. The sun's equated longitude is 6s 19° 54′ 11″, and 6s 19° 54′ 11″ × 19° 21′ 27′ = 7s 9° 15′ 38″ his distance from the vernal equinox.

2d. For the declination, right ascension, and ascensional difference. The sun's place is 7s 9° 15′ 38″, and 1s 9° 15′ 38″ his distance from the autumnal equinox; the sine of which is 2174′ 41″, and as radius is to the sine of the greatest declination 24°, termed the paramapacramajya 1397′, so is 2174. 41 to the sine of his declination 883′ 40″, the arc corresponding with which, in the canon of sines, is 14° 53′, $(\frac{1397\times2174^{4}41^{n}}{3438}=883′40″)$. The equi-

noctial shadow at *Bhagalpur* is 5, 30, and, as the *Gnomon* of twelve *angalas* is to the equinoctial shadow, so is the sine of the declination 883, 40, to the

cshitijya, $\frac{5}{30\times 883'}$ $\frac{40''}{3438}$ = 405' i". And as the co-sine of the declination is to radius, so is the cshitijya to the sine of the chara, or ascensional difference, $\frac{405}{3322}$ $\frac{1\times 3438}{3322}$ = 419' 4": its arc is 419' 56" the ascensional difference.

3d. For the length of the day and night.

The modern Hindus make their computations in mean solar time; the Surya Siddhanta directs, that

they should be made in sydereal time. A sydereal day contains sixty dandas; each danda, sixty viculas; and each vicula six respirations, in all 21600 respirations answering to the minutes of the equator. A nacshatra day is exceeded in length by the savan or solar day by reason of the sun's proper motion in the ecliptic, the former measures time equably, but the latter varies in its length from the inequality of the sun's motion, and the obliquity of the ecliptic. The sun's equated motion for the middle of the eclipse was found 60' 24"; and the oblique ascension for the eighth sign from the vernal equinox, in which he will be found at that time, is taken from the foregoing table 343 palas, or 2058 respirations. As the number of minutes contained in one sine 1800, is to the number of respirations, or the arc of the equator in minutes answering to the oblique ascension of the sine, the sun is in 2058, as above, so is the equated motion 60' 24", to the excess in respirations of the savan or solar day over the nacshatra or sydereal day $\frac{2058' \times 60' 24''}{1200} = 69' 3''$; which added to 21600' gives the length of the solar day by civil account from sunrise to sunrise, sydereal time 21669. 3 respirations. From one-fourth of this deduct the ascensional dif. ference, the sun being declined towards the south pole, for the semidiurnal arc; and add it for the seminocturnal arc: the former is 4997 19", and the latter 5837' 11"; which may be reduced to dandas or Hindu hours by a division of 360. Hence half the day is 13 52 53, and half the night 16 12 52. The whole day added to half the night shows the hour counted from the preceding sunrise to midnight 43 58 38, to which add the time at midnight unexpired of the purnima tit'hi, for the hour of the civil day corresponding with the middle of the eclipse. The hour from midnight to the end of the purnimatit'hi is already found 12 51 in mean solar time, and to reduce it to sydereal time, say, as 21600' is to D P 21600" × 59' 8", so is 12 51, to sidereal hours 12 53, equal to 2 51 solar hours.

From the preceding sunrise At midnight will remain tit hi,		43 59 — 1,2 53 —
Hour of the civil day at the eclipse, Deduct the half duration,	•	56 52 — 1 46 25
Beginning of the eclipse, Add the whole duration, End of the eclipse,		55 5 35 3 32 50 58 38 25

And the day and night containing together 60 II v 30, the eclipse should end I 33 5 before sunrise, according to this calculation.

The first day after the creation, according to the Hindus, was ravi-var, or Sunday: the number of days for which the above calculation has been made, is 714404082947, which divided by seven, the number of days in a week are 12057726135 weeks and two days; the astronomical day therefore of soma-var, or Monday, will end at midnight preceding the eclipse; but the soma-var by civil computation will continue to the next ensuing sunrise, and this somavar, by calculating the number of days elapsed from the instant the sun entered the sign Tula, to his advance of 19° 54' on that sign, will be found to fall on the 19th of the month Cartic, answering to the third of November.

The time of the full moon and the duration of the eclipse, found by this computation, differ considerably from the Nautical Almanac. The Siddhanta Rahasya and Grahalaghava, comparatively modern treatises, are nearer the truth, yet far from correct. The Hindus, in determining these phenomena, are satisfied when within a few minutes of the true time.

A comparative statement of this eclipse as predicted in the Nautical Almanac, with computations of it made by different Hindu books. Those marked (*) are made for different meridians, the last 1 believe for Tirhut.

1	
	Equated longitude for midnight at
NAMES.	Bhagalpur, supposed in 8° 50' E. from
	Lanca, and 88° E. from Greenwich.
	The Sun. The Moon. The Node.
4	
	S 0 1 11 S 0 1, 11
Surya Siddhanta,	
Tables of Macaranda,	6 19 54 11 — 17 28 28 1 — 31 44 6 19 55 9 — 17 30 91 — 32 7
* Grahalaghava,	0 19 33 9 1/ 34 9 7
Siddhanta Rahasya,	6 19 54 29 - 17 16 25 1 - 27 35
Siddhailta Rainasyus	
	Add to each the ayanunsa 19° 21' 27"
The second second	for the longitude counted according to
	European astronomers from the Equi-
	noctial colure.
	S ° ' ' ' S ° ' ' ' S ° ' ''
C C: 13.	1 3 13
Surya Siddhanta,	7 9 15 38 1 6 49 55 1 19 53 11
Tables of Macaranda,	7 9 16 36 1 6 51 36 1 19 53 54
* Grahalaghava,	
Siddhanta Rahasya,	7 9 15 56 1 6 37 52 1 19 49 2
Nautical Almanac.	7 147 8 1 7 50-58 1 19 45 30
-	From midnight to the Duration of the
	middle of the Eclipse. Eclipse.
	Hindu time. English time. Hindutime. Eng. time.
100	
	D. V. P. H. M. S. D. P. V. H. M. S.
Surya Siddhanta,	12.53 - 5 9 12 3 12 50 1 17 8
Tables of Macaranda,	4 50 - 1 46 20
* Grahalaghava,	*14 50 - 5 56 - 5 18 - 1 56 36
Siddhanta Rahasya,	13 53 - 5 33 - 4 58 - 1 49 16
* Grahana Mala, a Ca-	
talogue of Eclipses,	16 6 - 6 26 24 5 26 - 2 10 24
Nautical Almanac.	$16 - 37 0 24 15 5 22 2 \frac{1}{2} 2 9 -$
	10 -3/1 0 24 15/3 22 22/2 9



XVI.

ON THE

ANTIQUITY OF THE INDIAN ZODIAC.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

T ENGAGE to support an opinion (which the learned and industrious M. Montucla seems to treat with extreme contempt) that the Indian division of the Zodiac was not borrowed from the Greeks or Arabs. but, having been known in this country from time immemorial, and being the same in part with that used by other nations of the old Hindu race, was probably invented by the first progenitors of that race before their dispersion. "The Indians," he says, "have two divisions of the Zodiac; one, like that of the Arabs, relating to the moon, and consisting of twenty-seven equal parts, by which they can tell " very nearly the hour of the night; another relating to the sun, and, like ours, containing twelve signs, " to which they have given as many names, corresof pending with those which we have borrowed from "the Greeks." All that is true; but he adds, "It " is highly probable that they received them at some " time or another by the intervention of the Arabs; for " no man, surely, can persuade himself, that it is the " ancient division of the Zodiac formed, according to some authors, by the forefathers of mankind, " and still preserved among the Hindus." Now I undertake to prove, that the Indian Zodiac was not borrowed mediately or directly from the Arabs or Greeks: and, since the solar division of it in India is the same in substance with that used in Greece, we may reasonably conclude, that both Greeks and Hindus received it from an older nation, who first gave names to the

luminaries of heaven, and from whom both Greeks and Hindus, as their similarity in language and religion fully evinces, had a common descent.

The same writer afterwards intimates, that " the ec time when Indian astronomy received its most " considerable improvement, from which it has now. " as he imagines, wholly declined, was either the. " age when the Arabs, who established themselves " in Persia and Sogdiana, had a great intercourse with the Hindus, or that, when the successors of :: " Chengiz united both Arabs and Hindus under one vast dominion." It is not the object of this essay to correct the historical errors in the passage lastcited, nor to defend the astronomers of India from the charge of gross ignorance in regard to the figure of the earth and the distances of the heavenly bodies: a charge, which Montucla very boldly makes on the authority, I believe, of father Souciet. I will only remark, that, in our conversations with the Pandits, we must never confound the system of the Jyautishicas, or mathematical astronomers, with that of the Pauranicas, or poetical fabulists; for to such a confusion alone must we impute the many mistakes of Europeans on the subject of Indian science. A venerable mathematician of this province, named Ramachandra, now in his eightieth year, visited me lately at Crishnanagar; and part of his discourse was so applicable to the inquiries, which I was then making, that, as soon as he left me, I committed it to writing. "The " Pauranics," he said, " will tell you, that our earth is " a plane figure studded with eight mountains, and " surrounded by seven seas of milk, nectar, and other fluids; that the part which we inhabit " is one of seven islands, to which eleven smaller " isles are subordinate; that a God, riding on a huge elephant, guards each of the eight regions; and

that a mountain of gold rises and gleams in the " centre; but we believe the earth to be shaped like " a Cadamba fruit, or spheroidal, and admit only four oceans of salt water, all which we name from the four " cardinal points, and in which are many great peninsulas, with innumerable islands. They will tell you "that a dragon's head swallows the moon, and thus " causes an eclipse; but we know that the supposed " head and tail of the dragon mean only the nodes, or of points formed by intersections of the ecliptic and "moon's orbit. In short, they have imagined a " system which exists only in their fancy; but we consider nothing as true without such evidence as " cannot be questioned." I could not perfectly understand the old Gymnosophist, when he told me that the Rasichacra, or Circle of Signs (for so he called the Zodiac) was like a Dhustura flower; meaning the Datura, to which the Sanscrit name has been softened, and the flower of which is conical, or shaped like a funnel. At first I thought that he alluded to a projection of the hemisphere on the plane of the colure, and to the angle formed by the ecliptic and equator; but a younger aftronomer, named Vinayaca, who came forward to see me, assured me that they meant only the circular mouth of the funnel, or the base of the cone; and that it was usual among their ancient writers to borrow from fruits and flowers their appellations of several plane and solid figures.

From the two Brahmans, whom I have just named, I learned the following curious particulars; and you may depend on my accuracy in repeating them, since I wrote them in their presence, as well as corrected what I had written, till they pronounced it perfect. They divide a great circle, as we do; into three hundred and sixty degrees, called by them ansas, or portions; of which they, like us, allot thirty to each of the twelve signs, in this order:

Vol. II.

Mesha, the Ram, Vrisha, the Bull. Mithuna, the Pair.

4. Carcata, the Crab. Sinha, the Lion. Canya, the Virgin. Tula, the Balance.

8. Vrishchica, the Scorpion.

Dhanus, the Bow.

Macara, the Sea-Monster.

Cumbha, the Ewer.

12. Mina, the Fish.

The figures of the twelve asterisms, thus denominated with respect to the sun, are specified by *Szipeti*, author of the *Retnamala*, in *Sanscrit* verses; which I produce as my vouchers in the original, with a verbal translation:

Meshadayo nama samanarupi,
Vinagadadhyam mit'hunam nriyugmam,
Pradipasasye dadhati carabhyam
Navi st'hita varini canyacaiva.
Tula tulabhrit pretimanapanir
Dhanur dhanushman hayawat parangah
Mrigananah syan macaro'tha cumbhah
Scandhe nero rictaghatam dadhanah,
Anyanyapuchch'habhimuc'ho hi minah
Matsyadwayam swast'halacharinomi.

The ram, bull, crab, lion, and scorpion, have the figures of those five animals respectively: the pair are a damsel playing on a vina, and a youth wielding a mace; the virgin stands on a boat in water, holding in one hand a lamp, in the other an ear of rice-corn; the balance is held by a weigher with a weight in one hand; the bow, by an archer, whose



hinder parts are like those of a horse; the sea-" monfter has the face of an antelope; the ewer is a "waterpot borne on the shoulder of a man, who " empties it; the fish are two with their heads turned "to each other's tail: and all these are supposed to

" be in such places as suit their several natures."

To each of the twenty-seven lunar stations, which they call nacshatras, they allow thirteen ansas and one-third, or thirteen degrees twenty minutes; and their names appear in the order of the signs, but without any regard to the figures of them.

Magha. Mula. Aswini. Purva p'halguni. Bharani. Purvashadha. Critica. Uttara p'halguni. Uttarashadha. Sravana. Rohini. Hasta. Chitra. Dhanishta. Mrigasiras. Swati. Satabhisha. Ardra. Visac'ha. Purva bhadrahada. Punarvasu. Anuradha. Uttarabhadrapada. Pushya. 18. Tyesht'ha. 27. Revati. o. Aslesha.

Between the twenty-first and twenty-second constellations, we find in the plate three stars, called Abhijit; but they are the last quarter of the asterism immediately preceding, or the later Ashar, as the word is commonly pronounced. A complete revolution of the moon, with respect to the stars, being made in twenty-seven days, odd hours, minutes, and seconds, and perfect exactness being either not attained by the and U 2 m of the the

Hindus, or not acquired by them, they fixed on the number twenty-seven, and inserted Abhijit for some astrological purpose in their nuptial ceremonies. The drawing, from which the plate was engraved, seems intended to represent the figures of the twenty-seven constellations, together with Abhijit, as they are described in three stanzas by the author of the Retnamala:

- Turagamuc'hasadricsham yonirupam cshurabham, Sacatasamam at'hainasyottamangena tulyam, Manigrihasara chacrabhani salopamam bham, Sayanasadrisamanyachchatra paryancarupam.
- 2. Hastacarayutam cha maucticasamam
 chanyat pravalopamam,
 Dhrishyam torana sannibham balinibham,
 satcundalabham param;
 Crudhyatcesarivicramena sadrisam,
 sayyasamanam param,
 Anyad dentivilasavat st'hitamatah
 sringatacavyacti bham.
 - 3. Trivicramabham cha mridangarupam, Vrittam tatonyadyamalabhwayabham, Paryancarupam murajanucaram, Ityevam aswadibhachacrarupam.
- "A horse's head, yoni or bhaga, a razor, a wheeldefined carriage, the head of an antelope, a gem, a
 house, an arrow, a wheel, another house, a bedstead, another bedstead, a hand, a pearl, a piece
 of coral, a festoon of leaves, an oblation to the
 Gods, a rich ear-ring, the tail of a fierce lion, a
 couch, the tooth of a wanton elephant, near which

is the kernel of the sringataca nut, the three foot-

steps of Vishnu, a tabor, a circular jewel, a two-faced image, another couch, and a smaller sort of tabor;

" such are the figures of Aswini and the rest in the

se circle of lunar constellations."

The Hindu draughtsman has very ill represented most of the figures; and he has transposed the two Asharas as well as the two Bhadrapads; but his figure of Abhijit, which looks like our ace of hearts, has a resemblance to the kernel of the trapa: a curious water-plant described in a separate essay. In another Sanscrit book the figures of the same constellations are thus varied:

A horse's head. A straight tail. A couch.

Yoni, or bhaga. Two stars S. to N. A winnowing fan.

A flame. Two, N. to S. Another.

A waggon. A hand. An arrow.

A cat's paw. A pearl. A tabor.

One bright star. Red saffron. A circle of stars.

A bow. A festoon. A staff for burdens.

A child's pencil. A snake. The beam of a balance.

9. A dog's tail. 18. A boar's head. 27. A Fish.

From twelve of the afterisms just enumerated are derived the names of the twelve *Indian* months, in the usual form of patronymics; for the *Pauranies*, who reduce all nature to a system of emblematical mythology, suppose a celestial nymph to preside over each of the constellations, and seign that the God *Soma*, or *Lunus*, having wedded twelve of them, became the father of twelve *Genii*, or months, who are named after their several mothers; but the *Jyautishi*-

cas assert, that, when their lunar year was arranged by former astronomers, the moon was at the full in each month on the very day when it entered the nacshatra, from which that month is denominated. The manner in which the derivatives are formed, will best appear by a comparison of the months with their several constellations:

Aswina. Chaitra.
Cartica. 8. Vaisac'ha.
Margasirsha. Jyaisht'ha.
4. Pausha. Ashara.
Magha. Sravana.
Phalguna. 12. Bhadra.

The third month is also called Agrahayana (whence the common word Agran is corrupted) from another name of Mrigasiras.

Nothing can be more ingenious than the memorial verses, in which the *Hindus* have a custom of linking together a number of ideas otherwise unconnected, and of chaining, as it were, the memory by a regular measure: thus by putting teeth for thirty-two, Rudra for eleven, season for six, arrow or element for five, ocean, Veda, or age, for four, Rama, fire, or quality for three, eye, or Cumara for two, and earth or moon for one, they have composed four lines, which express the number of stars in each of the twenty-seven asterisms:

Vahni tri ritwishu gunendu critagnibhuta, Banaswinetra sara bhucu yugabdhi ramah, Rudrabdhiramagunavedasata dwiyugma, Denta budhairabhihitah cramaso bhatarah. That is, "three, three, six; five, three, one; four, three, five; five, two, two; five, one, one; four, four, three; eleven, four, and three; three, four, an hundred; two, two, thirty-two. Thus have the stars of the lunar constellations, in the order as they appear, been numbered by the wise."

If the stanza was correctly repeated to me, the two Asharas are considered as one asterism, and Abhijit as three separate stars; but I suspect an error in the third line, because devibana, or two and five would suit the metre as well as bdhirama; and because there were only three Vedas in the early age, when, it is probable, the stars were enumerated, and the technical verse composed.

Two lunar stations, or mansions, and a quarter are co-extensive, we see, with one sign; and nine stations correspond with four signs. By counting, therefore, thirteen degrees and twenty minutes from the first star in the head of the Ram, inclusively, we find the whole extent of Aswini, and shall be able to ascertain the other stars with sufficient accuracy; but first let us exhibit a comparative table of both Zodiacs, denoting the mansions, as in the Varanes Almanac, by the first letters or syllables of their names:

Months.	Solar Asterisms.	Mansions.
Aswin] Mesh	$\int A + bh + \frac{c}{4}$
Cartic	Vrish	$\begin{cases} A + bh + \frac{4}{4} \\ \frac{30}{4} + ro + \frac{M}{2} \end{cases}$
Agrahayan	Mit'hun	$\frac{M}{2} + a + \frac{3P}{4}$
Paush	Carcat 4.	$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{4} + 10 + \frac{2}{4} \\ \frac{M}{2} + a + \frac{3P}{4} \\ \frac{P}{4} + p + sl. \ 9. \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} m + PU + \frac{U}{4} \end{cases}$
Magh	7 Sinh	$\int m + PU + \frac{U}{4}$
P'halgun	Canya	$\begin{cases} \frac{3U}{4} + h + \frac{ch}{2} \\ \frac{ch}{4} + s + \frac{3v}{4} \end{cases}$
Chaitr	Tula	$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{4}{2} + s + \frac{3}{4} \end{bmatrix}$
Vaisac'h	Vrischic. 8.	$\left\{\frac{v}{4} + a + j\right\} 18$
Jaisht'h	Dhan	$\int mu + pu + \frac{u}{2}$
Ashar	Macar	$\frac{3^{u}}{4} + S + \frac{4}{dh}$
Sravan ,	Cumbh	$\frac{dh}{2} + s + \frac{3pu}{3}$
Bhadr	J Min 12.	$\left\{\frac{pu}{4} + u + r \cdot 27\right\}$

Hence we may readily know the stars in each mansion, as they follow in order:

Lunar Mansions.	Solar Asterisms.	Stars.
Aswini.	Ram	Three in and near the head.
Bharani.	-	Three in the tail.
Critica.	Bull	Six of the pleiads.
Rohini.	-	Five in the head and neck.
Mrigasiras.	Pair	Three in or near the feet, perhaps in the Galaxy.
Ardra.	proper on	One on the knee.

STARS.

STARS.	Four in the heads, breast, and shoulder. Three in the body and claws. Five in the face and mane. Five in the leg and haunch. Two; one in the tail. Two on the arm and zone Five near the hand. One in the spike. One in the spike. One in the body. Three in the tail. Eleven to the point of the arrow. Two in the leg. Two in the leg. Two in the stream. Many in the stream. Two in the first fish. Two in the first fish.	Thirty-two in the second fish and cord.
SOLAR ASTERISMS.	Crab Lion Virgin Scorpion Bow Sea-monster Ewer Fish	
LUNAR MANSIONS.	'Punarvasu Pushya. Aslesha. Magha. Purvap'halguni. Uttarap'halguni. Hasta. Chitra. Swati. Visac'ha. Anuradha. Jyesht'ha. Mula. Purvashara. Sravana. Dhanisht'a. Satabhisha. Purvabhadrapada. Uttarabhadrapada.	Revati.

Wherever the *Indian* drawing differs from the memorial verse in the *Retnamala*, I have preferred the authority of the writer to that of the painter, who has drawn some terrestrial things with so little similitude, that we must not implicitly rely on his representation of objects merely celestial. He seems particularly to have erred in the stars of *Dhanisht'a*.

For the assistance of those who may be inclined to re-examine the twenty-seven constellations with a chart before them, I subjoin a table of the degrees to which the nacshatras extend respectively from the first star in the asterism of Aries, which we now see near the beginning of the sign Taurus, as it was placed in the ancient sphere.

N.	D.	M. N.	D.	M. N.	D. M.
I.	13°.	20'. X.	133°.	20'. XIX.	2560. 20'.
II.	· 26°.	40'. XI.	1467.	40'. XX.	2660. 40'.
III.	40°.	o'. XII.	1600.	o'. XXI.	280° o'.
IV.	53°.	20'. XIII.	173°.	20'. XXII.	293°. 20'.
V. '		40'. XIV.	186°.	4o'. XXIII.	306°. 40'.
VI.	80°.	o'. XV.		o'. XXIV.	/
VII.	93°°	20'. XVI.		20'. XXV.	
VIII.		40'. XVII.		40' XXVI.	
IX	. 120°.	o's XVIII.	240°.	o'. XXVII	. 360° o'.

The asterisms of the first column are in the figns of Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo; those of the second, in Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius; and those of the third, in Capricornus, Aquarius, Pisces, Aries. We cannot err much therefore, in any series of three constellations; for, by counting 13° 20' forwards and backwards, we find the spaces occupied by the two extremes, and the intermediate space belongs

of course to the middlemost. It is not meant that the division of the Hindu Zodiac into such spaces is exact to a minute, or that every star of each asterism must necessarily be found in the space to which it belongs; but the computation will be accurate enough for our purpose, and no lunar mansion can be very remote from the path of the moon. How Father Souciet could dream that Visac'ha was in the Northern Crown, I can hardly comprehend; but it surpasses all comprehension that M. Bailly should copy his dream, and give reasons to support it; especially as four stars, arranged pretty much like those in the Indian figure, present themselves obviously near the Balance, or the Scorpion. I have not the boldness to exhibit the individual stars in each mansion, distinguished in Bayer's method, by Greek letters, because, though I have little doubt that the five stars of Aslesha, in the form of a wheel, are $\eta, \gamma, \zeta, \mu, \varepsilon$, of the Lion, and those of Mula γ, ε, δ, ζ, φ, τ, σ, ν, ο, ξ, π, of the Sagittary: and though I think many of the others equally clear, yet, where the number of stars in a mansion is less than three, or even than four, it is not easy to fix on them with confidence; and I must wait, until some young Hindu astronomer, with a good memory and good eyes, can attend my leisure on serene nights at the proper seasons, to point out in the firmament itself the several stars of all the constellations for which he can find names in the Sanscrit language. The only stars, except those in the Zodiac, that have yet been distinctly named to me, are the Septarshi, Dhruva, Arundhati, Vishnupad, Matrimandel; and, in the southern hemisphere, Agastya, or Canopus. twenty-seven Yoga stars, indeed, have particular names, in the order of the nacshatras, to which they belong; and since we learn * that the Hindus have

^{*} See p, 270.

determined the latitude, longitude, and right ascension of each, it might be useful to exhibit the list of them: but at present I can only subjoin the names of twenty-seven Yogas, or divisions of the Ecliptic.

Vishcambha.	Ganda.	Parigha.
Priti.	Vriddhi.	Siva.
Ayushmat.	Dhruva.	Siddha.
Saubhag ya	Vyaghata,	Sadhya.
Sobhana.	Hershana.	Subha.
Atiganda.	Vajra.	Sucra.
Sucarman.	Asrij.	Brahman.
Dhriti.	Vyatipata.	Indra.
Sula.	Variyas.	Vaidhriti.

Having shown in what manner the Hindus arrange the Zodiacal stars with respect to the sun and moon, let us proceed to our principal subject, the antiquity of that double arrangement. In the first place, the Brahmans were always too proud to borrow their science from the Greeks, Arabs, Moguls, or any nation of Mlechch'has, as they call those who are ignorant of the Vedas, and have not studied the language of the Gods. They have often repeated to me the fragment of an old verse, which they now use proverbially, na nicho yavanatparah, or no base creature can be lower than a Yavan; by which name they formerly meant an lonian or Greek, and now mean a Mogul, or generally, a Muselman. When I mentioned to different Pandits, at several times, and in feveral places, the opinion of Montucla, they could not prevail on themselves to oppose it by serious argument; but some laughed heartily; others, with a sarcastic smile, said it was a pleasant imagination; and all seemed to think it a notion bordering on phrenzy. In fact, although the figures of the



LODING. ORIENTAL



From I to 12 are the 12 signs, a The Sun She Moon chars. d Morning Ampiler. Founs. The conterns the Earth surrounded by the Sea, marked with the fourtradinal Points E.W.N.S. g Salum . h Dragous Head ordfsending Node 1 Dragous I'ail or Descending Node

twelve Indian signs bear a wonderful resemblance to those of the Grecian, yet they are too much varied for a mere copy, and the nature of the variation proves them to be original; nor is the resemblance more extraordinary than that, which has often been observed. between our Gothic days of the week and those of the Hindus, which are dedicated to the same luminaries, and (what is yet more singular) revolve in the same order: -Ravi, the Sun; Soma, the Moon; Mangala, Tuisco; Budha, Woden; Vrihaspati, Thor; Sucra, Freya; Sani, Sater; yet no man ever imagined that the Indians borrowed so remarkable an arrangement from the Goths or Germans. On the planets I will only observe, that Sucra, the regent of Venus, is, like all the rest, a male deity, named also Usanas, and believed to be a sage of infinite learning; but Zohrah, the Nahid of the Persians, is a goddess like the Freya of our Saxon progenitors. The drawing, therefore, of the planets, which was brought into Bengal by Mr. Johnson, relates to the Persian system, and represents the genii supposed to preside over them, exactly as they are described by the poet Hatifi: " He bedecked "the firmament with stars, and ennobled this earth " with the race of men; he gently turned the auspi-"cious new moon of the festival, like a bright jewel, " round the ancle of the sky; he placed the Hindus" " Saturn on the seat of that restive elephant, the revolving sphere, and put the rainbow into his hand. " as a hook to coerce the intoxicated beast; he made " silken strings of sun-beams for the lute of Venus; " and presented Jupiter, who saw the felicity of true " religion, with a rosary of clustering pleiads. The 66 bow of the sky became that of Mars when he was " honoured with the command of the celestial host; " for God conferred sovereignty on the Sun; and squa-"drons of stars were his army."

The names and forms of the lunar constellations, especially of Bharani and Abhijit, indicate asimplicity of manners peculiar to an ancient people; and they differ entirely from those of the Arabian system, in which the very first asterism appears in the dual number, because it consists only of two stars. Menzil, or the place of alighting, properly signifies a station or stage, and thence is used for an ordinary day's journey; and that idea seems better applied than mansion to so incessant a traveller as the moon; the menazilu'l kamar, or lunar stages, of the Arabs have twenty-eight names, in the following order, the particle al being understood before every word:

	Sharatan.	Nathrah.	١ ، ١	Ghafr.		Dhabili.
	Butain.	Tarf.		Zubaniyah		Bulaa.
	Thurayya.	Jabhah.		Iclil.		Suud.
	Debaran.	Zubrah.		Kalb.		Akhbiya
	Hakaah.	Sarfah.		Shaulah.		Mukdim.
	Hanaah.	Awwa.		Naaim.		Mukhir.
7.	Dhiraa. 14.	Simac.	21.	Beldah.	28.	Risha.

Now, if we can trust the Arabian lexicographers, the number of stars in their several menzils rarely agrees with those of the Indians; and two such nations must naturally have observed, and might naturally have named, the principal stars near which the moon passes in the course of each day, without any communication on the subject. There is no evidence, indeed, of a communication between the Hindus and Arabs on any subject of literature or science; for, though we have reason to believe that a commercial intercourse subsisted in very early times between Yemen and the western coast of India, yet the Brahmans, who alone are permitted to read the six

Vedangas, one of which is the astronomical Sastra. were not then commercial, and, most probably, neither could nor would have conversed with Arabian merchants. The hostile irruption of the Arabs into Hindustan, in the eighth century, and that of the Moguls under Chengiz, in the thirteenth, were not likely to change the astronomical system of the Hindus; but the supposed consequences of modern revolutions are out of the question; for, if any historical records be true, we know with as positive certainty, that Amarsihn and Calidas composed their works before the birth of Christ, as that Menander and Terence wrote before that important epoch. Now the twelve signs and twentyseven mansions are mentioned, by the several names before exhibited, in a Sanscrit vocabulary by the first of those Indian authors; and the second of them frequently alludes to Rohini and the rest by name in his Fatal Ring, his Children of the Sun, and his Birth of Cumara; from which poem I produce two lines, that my evidence may not seem to be collected from mere conversation :-

> Maitre muhurte sasalanch'hanena, Yogam gatasuttarap'halganishu.

"When the stars of Uttarup'halgun had joined in a fortunate hour the fawn-spotted moon."

This testimony being decisive against the conjecture of M. Montucla, I need not urge the great antiquity of Menu's Institutes, in which the twenty-seven asterisms are called the daughters of Dacsha and the consorts of Soma, or the Moon; nor rely on the testimony of the Brahmans, who assure me with one voice, that the names of the Zodiacal stars occur in the Vedas; three of which I firmly believe, from internal and external evidence, to be more than three thousand

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years old. Having therefore proved what I engaged to prove, I will close my essay with a general observation. The result of Newton's researches into the history of the primitive sphere was, "that the practice of obser-" ving the stars began in Egypt in the days of Ammon, and was propagated thence by conquest in the reign of his son Sisac, into Afric, Europe, and Asia; " since which time Atlas formed the sphere of the Ly-" bians; Chiron, that of the Greeks; and the Chal-" deans, a sphere of their own." Now I hope, on some other occasions, to satisfy the public, as I have perfectly satisfied myself, that "the practice of ob-" serving the stars began, with the rudiments of civil society, in the country of those whom we call Chal-" deans; from which it was propagated into Egypt, " India, Greece, Italy, and Scandinavia, before the " reign of Sisac or Sacya, who by conquest spread a " new system of religion and philosophy from the Nile to the Ganges about a thousand years before " Christ; but that Chiron and Atlas were allegorical " or mythological personages, and ought to have no " place in the serious history of our species."

XVII.

ACCOUNT OF THE KINGDOM OF NEPAL,

BY FATHER GIUSEPPE,

Prefect of the Roman Mission.

COMMUNICATED BY JOHN SHORE, ESQ.

THE kingdom of Nepal is situated to the northeast of Patna, at the distance of ten or eleven days journey from that city. The common road to it lies through the kingdom of Macwanpur; but the missionaries and many other persons enter it on the Bettia quarter. Within the distance of four days journey from Nepal the road is good in the plains of Hindustan, but in the mountains it is bad, narrow, and dangerous. At the foot of the hills the country is called Teriani; and there the air is very unwholesome from the middle of March to the middle of November; and people in their passage catch a disorder, called in the language of that country Aul, which is a putrid fever, and of which the generality of people who are attacked with it die in a few days; but on the plains there is no apprehension of it. Although the road be very narrrow and inconvenient for three or four days at the passes of the hills, where it is necessary to cross and recross the river more than fifty times, yet, on reaching the interior mountain before you descend, you have an agreeable prospect of the extensive plain of Nepal, resembling an amphitheatre covered with populous towns and villages: the circumference of the plain is about 200 miles, a little irregular, and surrounded by hills on all sides, so that no person can enter or come out of it without passing the mountains.

There are three principal cities in the plain, each of which was the capital of an independent kingdom; the principal city of the three is situated to the northward of the plain, and is called Cat'hmandu: it contains about 18,000 houses; and this kingdom from south to north extends to the distance of twelve or thirteen days journey as far as the borders of Tibet, and is almost as extensive from east to west. The king of Cat'hmandu has always about fifty thousand soldiers in his service. The second city to the southwest of Cat'hmandu is called Lelit Pattan, where I resided about four years; it contains near 24,000 houses; the southern boundary of this kingdom is at the distance of four days journey, bordering on the kingdom of Macwanpur. The third principal city to the east of Lelit Pattan is called B'hatgan; it contains about 12,000 families, extends towards the east to the distance of five or six days journey, and borders upon another nation, also independent, called Ciratas, who profess no religion. Besides these three principal cities, there are many other large and less considerable towns or fortresses, one of which is Timi, and another Cipoli, each of which contains about 8,000 houses, and is very populous. All those towns, both great and small, are well built; the houses are constructed of brick, and are three or four stories, high; their apartments are not lofty; they have doors and windows of wood, well worked and arranged with great regularity. The streets of all their towns are paved with brick or stone, with a regular declivity to carry off the water. In almost every street of the capital towns there are also good wells made of stone, from which the water passes through several stonecanals for the public benefit. In every town there are large square varandas, well built, for the accommodation of travellers and the public. These varandas are called Pali; and there are also many of them, as well as wells, in different parts of the country for public

use. There are also, on the outside of the great towns, small square reservoirs of water, faced with brick, with a good road to walk upon, and a large flight of steps for the convenience of those who choose to bathe. A piece of water of this kind on the outside of the city of Cat'hmandu, was at least 200 feet long on each side of the square; and every part of its workmanship had a good appearance.

The religion of Nepal is of two kinds: the more ancient is protessed by many people who call themselves Baryesu: they pluck out all the hair from their heads; their dress is of coarse red woollen cloth, and they wear a cap of the same: they are considered as people of the religious order; and their religion prohibits them from marrying, as it is with the Lamas of Tibet, from which country their religion was originally brought; but in Nepal they do not observe this rule, except at their discretion. They have large monasteries, in which every one has a separate apartment, or place of abode; they observe also particular festivals, the principal of which is called Yatra in their language, and continues a month or longer, according to the pleasure of the king. The ceremony consists in drawing an idol, which at Lelit Pattan is called Baghero *, in a large and richly ornamented car, covered with gilt copper: round about the idol stand the king and the principal Baryesus; and in this manner the vehicle is almost every day drawn through some one of the streets of the city by the inhabitants, who run about beating and playing upon every kind of instrument their country affords, which make an inconcéiveable noise.

^{*} I suppose a name of Bhagavat or Crishna; but Bharga is Mahadeva, and Bajri, or Vajri, means the Thunderer.

The other religion, the more common of the two. is that of the Brahmens, and is the same as is followed in Hindustan, with the difference that in the latter country, the Hindus being mixed with the Mohammedans, their religion also abounds with many prejudices, and is not strictly observed; whereas in Nepal, where there are no Muselmans (except one Cashmirian merchant) the Hindu religion is practised in its greatest purity. Every day of the month they class under its proper name, when certain sacrifices are to be performed and certain prayers offered up in their temples. The places of worship are more in number in their towns than, I believe, are to be found in the most populous and most flourishing cities of Christendom; many of them are magnificent according to their ideas of architecture, and constructed at a very considerable expence; some of them have four or five square cupolas; and in some of the temples two or three of the extreme cupolas, as well as the doors and windows of them, are decorated with gilt copper.

In the city of Lelit Pattan the temple of Baghero was contiguous to my habitation, and was more valuable, on account of the gold, silver, and jewels it contained, than even the house of the king. Besides the large temples, there are also many small ones, which have stairs, by which a single person may ascend on the outside all around them; and some of those small temples have four sides, others six, with small stone or marble pillars, polished very smooth, with two or three pyramidal stories, and all their ornaments well gilt and neatly worked, according to their ideas of taste: and I think, that, if Europeans should ever go into Nepal, they might take some models from those little temples, especially from the two which are in the great court of Lelit Pattan, before the royal palace. On the outside of some of their temples there are also great square pillars of single stones, from twenty to

thirty feet high, upon which they place their idols, superbly gilt. The greatest number of their temples have a good stone staircase in the middle of the four squares, and at the end of each flight of stairs there are lines cut out of stone on both sides. Round about their temples there are also bells, which the people ring on particular occasions; and when they are at prayers, many cupolas are also quite filled with little bells, hanging by cords in the inside, about the distance of a foot from each other, which make a great noise on that quarter where the wind conveys the sound. There are not only superb temples in their great cities, but also within their castles.

To the eastward of Cat'hmandu, at the distance of two or three miles, there is a place called Tolu, by which there flows a small river, the water of which is esteemed holy, according to their superstitious ideas; and thither they carry people of high rank, when they are thought to be at the point of death. At this place there is a temple, which is not inferior to the best and richest in any of the capital cities. They also have at on tradition, that, at two or three places in Nepal, valuable treasures are concealed under ground. One of those places they believe is Tolu; but no one is permitted to make use of them except the king, and that only in cases of necessity. Those treasures, they say, have been accumulated in this manner: When any temple had become very rich from the offerings of the people, it was destroyed, and deep vaults dug under ground, one above another, in which the gold, silver, gilt copper, jewels, and every thing of value were deposited. When I was in Nepal, Gainprejas, king of Cat'hmandu, being in the utmost distress for money to pay his troops, in order to support himself against Prit'hwinarayan, ordered search to be made for the treasures of Tolu; and, having dug to a considerable depth under ground, they came to the first

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vault; from which his people took to the value of a lac of rupees in gilt copper, with which Gainprejas paid his troops, exclusive of a number of small figures in gold, or gilt copper, which the people who had made the search had privately carried off; and this I know very well; because one evening as I was walking in the country alone, a poor man, whom I met on the road, made me an offer of a figure of an idol in gold, or copper gilt, which might be five or six sicca weight, and which he cautiously preserved under his arm; but I declined accepting it. The people of Gainprejas had not completely emptied the first vault, when the army of Prit'hwinarayan arrived at Tolu, possessed themselves of the place where the treasure was deposited, and closed the door of the vault, having first replaced all the copper there had been on the outside.

To the westward also of the great city of Lelit Pattan, at the distance of only three miles, is a castle called Banga, in which there is a magnificent temple. No one of the missionaries ever entered into this castle, because the people who have the care of it have such a scrupulous veneration for this temple, that no person is permitted to enter it with his shoes on; and the missionaries, unwilling to shew such respect to their false deities, never entered it. But when I was at Nepal, this castle being in the possession of the people of Gorc'ha, the Commandant of the castle and of the two forts which border on the road, being a friend of the missionaries, gave me an invitation to his house, as he had occasion for a little physic for himself and some of his people. I then, under the protection of the Commandant, entered the castle several times, and the people durst not oblige me to take off my shoes. One day, when I was at the Commandant's house, he had occasion to go into the varanda, which is at the bottom of the great court

facing the temple, where all the chiefs dependent upon his orders were assembled, and where also was collected the wealth of the temple; and, wishing to speak to me before I went away, he called me into the varanda. From this incident I obtained a sight of the temple, and then passed by the great court which was in front: it is entirely marble almost blue, but interspersed with large flowers of bronze well disposed, to form the pavement of the great courtyard, the magnificence of which astonished me; and I do not believe there is another equal to it in Europe.

Besides the magnificence of the temples, which their cities and towns contain, there are many other rarities. At Cat'hmandu, on one side of the royal garden, there is a large fountain, in which is one of their idols, called Narayan. This idol is of blue stone, crowned and sleeping on a mattress of the same kind of stone; and the idol and mattress appear as floating upon the water. This stone machine is very large: I believe it to be eighteen or twenty feet long, and broad in proportion; but well worked, and in good repair.

In a wall of the royal palace of Cat'hmandu, which is built upon the court before the palace, there is a great stone of a single piece, which is about fifteen feet long, and four or five feet thick: on the top of this great stone there are four square holes at equal distances from each other. In the inside of the wall they pour water into the holes, and in the courtside, each hole having a closed canal, every person may draw water to drink. At the foot of the stone is a large ladder, by which people ascend to drink; but the curiosity of the stone consists in its being quite covered with characters of different languages cut upon it. Some lines contain the characters of the language of the country; others the characters of

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Tibet, others Persian, others Greek, besides several others of different nations; and in the middle there is a line of Roman characters, which appears in this form AVTOMNEW INTER LHIVERT; but none of the inhabitants have any knowledge how they came there, nor do they know whether or not any European had ever been in Nepal before the missionaries, who arrived there only the beginning of the present century. They are manifestly two French names of seasons, with an English word between them.

There is also to the northward of the city of Cat'hmandu a hill called Simbi, upon which are some tombs of the Lamas of Tibet, and other people of high rank of the same nation. The monuments are constructed after various forms; two or three of them are pyramidal, very high and well ornamented; so that they have a very good appearance, and may be seen at a considerable distance. Round these monuments are remarkable stones covered with characters, which probably are the inscriptions of some of the inhabitants of Tibet, whose bones were interred there. The natives of Nepal not only look upon the hill as sacred, but imagine it is protected by their idols; and, from this erroneous supposition, never thought of stationing troops there for the defence of it, although it be a post of great importance, and only at a short mile's distance from the city: but during the time of hostilities a party of Prit'hwinarayan's troops being pursued by those of Gainprejas, the former, to save themselves, fled to this hill, and, apprehending no danger from its guardian idols, they possessed themselves of it, and erected a fortification (in their own style) to defend themselves. In digging the ditches round the fort, which were adjoining to the tombs, they found considerable pieces of gold, with a quantity of which metal the corpses of the grandees of Tibet

are always interred; and when the war was ended, I myself went to see the monuments upon the hills.

I believe that the kingdom of Nepal is very ancient, because it has always preserved its peculiar language and independence; but the cause of its ruin is the dissention which subsists among the three kings. After the death of their sovereign, the nobles of Lelit Pattan nominated for their king Gainprejas, a man possessed of the greatest influence in Nepal; altho' some years afterwards they removed him from his government, and conferred it upon the king of Bhatgan; but he also a short time afterwards was deposed; and, after having put to death another king who succeeded him, they made an offer of the government to Prit'hwinarayan, who had already commenced war. Prit'hwinarayan deputed one of his brothers, by name Delmerden Sah, to govern the kingdom of Lelit Pattan, and he was in the actual government of it when I arrived at Nepal; but the nobles perceiving that Prit'hwinarayan still continued to interrupt the tranquillity of the kingdom, they disclaimed all subjection to him, and acknowledged for their sovereign Delmerden Sah, who continued the war against his brother Prit'hwinarayan: but some years afterwards they even deposed Delmerden Sah, and elected in his room a poor man of Lelit Pattan, who was of royal origin.

The king of Bhatgan, in order to wage war with the other kings of Nepal, had demanded assistance from Prit'hwinarayan; but seeing that Prit'hwinarayan was possessing himself of the country, he was obliged to desist, and to take measures for the defence of his own possessions; so that the king of Gorc'ha, although he had been formerly a subject of Gainprejas, taking advantage of the dissentions which prevailed among the other kings of Nepal, attached to his party many

mountain-chiefs, promising to keep them in possession, and also to augment their authority and importance; and if any of them were guilty of a breach of faith, he seized their country as he had done to the kings of *Marecajis*, although his relations.

The king of Gorc'ha having already possessed himself of all the mountains which surround the plain of Nepal, began to descend into the flat country, imagining he should be able to carry on his operations with the same facility and success as had attended him on the hills; and, having drawn up his army before a town, containing about 8000 houses, situate upon a hill called Cirtipur, about a league's distance from Cat'hmandu, employed his utmost endeavours to get possession of it. The inhabitans of Cirtipur receiving no support from the king of Lelit Pattan, to whom. they were subject, applied for assistance to Gainprejas, who immediatly marched with his whole army to their relief, gave battle to the army of the king of Gorc'ha, and obtained a complete victory. A brother of the king of Gorc'ha was killed on the field of battle; and the king himself, by the assistance of good bearers, narrowly escaped with his life, by fleeing into the mountains. After the action, the inhabitants of Cirtipur demanded Gainprejas for their king, and the nobles of the town went to confer with him on the business, but, being all assembled in the same apartment with the king, they were all surprised and seized by his people. After the seizure of those persons, Gainprejas, perhaps to revenge himself of these nobles for having refused their concurrence to his nomination as king, privately caused some of them to be put to death; another, by name Danuvanta, was led through the city in a woman's dress, along with several others, clothed in a ridiculous and whimsical manner, at the expence of the nobles of Lelit Pattan. They were

then kept in close confinement for a long time. At last, after making certain promises, and interesting all the principal men of the country in their behalf, Gainprejas set them at liberty.

The king of Gorc'ha, despairing of his ability to get possession of the plain of Nepal by strength, hoped to effect his purpose by causing a famine, and with this design, stationed troops at all the passes of the mountains to prevent any intercourse with Nepal; and his orders were most rigorously obeyed, for every person who was found in the road, with only a little salt or cotton about him, was hung upon a tree; and he caused all the inhabitants of a neighbouring village to be put to death in a most cruel manner (even the women and children did not escape) for having supplied a little cotton to the inhabitants of Nepal; and, when I arrived in that country at the beginning of 1769, it was a most horrid spectacle to behold so many people hanging on the trees in the road. However the king of Gorc'ha being also disappointed in his expectations of gaining his end by this project. fomented dissentions among the nobles of the three kingdoms of Nepal, and attached to his party many of the principal ones, by holding forth to them liberal and enticing promises; for which purpose he had about 2000 Brahmens in his service. When he thought he had acquired a party sufficiently strong, he advanced a second time with his army to Cirtipur, and laid seige to it on the north-west quarter, that he might avoid exposing his army between the two cities of Cat'hmandu and Lelit Pattan. After a siege of several months, the king of Gorc'ha demanded the regency of the town of Cirtipur, when the commandant of the town, seconded by the approbation of the inhabitants, dispatched to him by an arrow a very impertinent and exasperating answer. The king of Gorc'ha was so much enraged at this mode of proceeding, that he gave immediate orders to all his troops to storm the town on every side: but the inhabitants bravely defended it, so that all the efforts of his men availed him nothing; and, when he saw that his army had failed of gaining the precipice, and that his brother, named Suruparatna, had fallen wounded by an arrow, he was obliged to raise the siege a second time, and to retreat with his army from Cirtipur. The brother of the king was atterwards cured of his wound by our father Michael Angelo, who is at present in Bettia.

After the action, the king of Gorc'ha sent his army against the king of Lamii (one of the twenty-four kings who reign to the westward of Nepal) bordering upon his own kingdom of Gorc'ha. After many desperate engagements, an accommodation took place with the king of Lamji: and the king of Gorc'ha collecting all his forces, sent them for the third time to besiege Cirtipur; and the army on this expedition was commanded by his brother Suruparatna. The inhabitants of Cirtipur defended themselves with their usual bravery, and, after a siege of several months, the three kings of Nepal assembled at Cat'hmandu to march a body of troops to the relief of Cirtipur. One day in the afternoon they attacked some of the Tanas of the Gorc'hians, but did not succeed on forcing them, because the king of Gorc'ha's party had been reinforced by many of the nobility, who, to ruin Gainprejas, were willing to sacrifice their own lives. The inhabitants of Cirtipur having already sustained six or seven months siege, a noble of Lelit Pattan, called Danuvanta, fled to the Gorc'ha party, and treacherously introduced their army into the town. The inhabitants might still have defended themselves, having many other fortresses in the upper parts of the town to retreat to; but the people at Gorc'ha having published a general amnesty, the inhabitants, greatly exhausted by the fatigues of a long siege, surrendered

themselves prisoners upon the faith of that promise. In the mean time the men of Gorc'ha seized all the gates and fortresses within the town; but two days afrerwards Prit'havinarayan, who was at Navacuta (a long day's journey distant) issued an order to Suruparatna his brother, to put to death all the principal inhabitants of the town, and to cut off the noses and lips of every one, even the infants, who were not found in the arms of their mothers; ordering at the same time all the noses and lips, which had been cut off, to be preserved, that he might ascertain how many souls there were, and to change the name of the town into Naskatapur, which signifies the town of cut-noses. The order was carried into execution with every mark of horror and cruelty, none escaping but those who could play on wind instruments; although father Michael Angelo, who, without knowing that such an inhuman -scene was then exhibited, had gone to the house of Suruparatna, and interceded much in favour of the poor inhabitants. Many of them put an end to their lives in despair; others came in great bodies to us in search of medicines; and it was most shocking to see so many living people with their teeth and noses resembling the skulls of the deceased.

After the capture of Cirtipur, Prit'hwinarayan dispatched immediately his army to lay siege to the great city of Lelit Pattan. The Gorc'hians surrounded half the city to the westward with their Tanas; and, my house being situated near the gate of that quarter, I was obliged to retire to Cat'hmandu, to avoid being exposed to the fire of the besiegers. After many engagements between the inhabitants of the town of Lelit Pattan and the men of Gorc'ha, in which much blood was spilt on both sides, the former were disposed to surrender themselves, from the fear of having their noses cut off, like those at Cirtipur, and also their right hands: a barbarity the Gorc'hians had threatened them with, unless they would surrender within

five days. One night all the Gorc'hians quitted the siege of Lelit Pattan to pursue the Englisharmy, which, under the command of Captain Kinloch, had already taken Siduli, an important fort at the foot of the Nepal hills, which border upon the kingdom of Tirhut: but Captain Kinloch not being able to penetrate the hills, either on the Siduli quarter or by the pass at Hereapur, in the kingdom of Macwanpur, the army of Gorc'ha returned to Nepal to direct their operations against the city of Cat'hmandu, where Gainprejas was, who had applied for succour to the English. During the siege of Cat'hmandu the Brahmens of Gorc'ha came almost every night into the city, to engage the chiefs of the people on the part of their king; and the more effectually to impose upon poor Gainprejas, many ofthe principal Brahmens went to his house, and told him to persevere with confidence, that the chiefs of the Gorc'ha army were attached to his cause, and that even they themselves would deliver up their king Prit'hwinarayan to his hands. Having by these artifices procured an opportunity of detaching from his party all his principal subjects, tempting them with liberal promises according to their custom, one night the men of Gorc'ha entered the city without opposition, and the wretched Gainprejas, perceiving he was betrayed, had scarce time to escape with about three hundred of his best and most faithful Hindustani troops towards Leht Pattan; which place however he reached the same night.

The king of Gorc'ha having made himself master of Cat'hmandu in the year 1768, persisted in the attempt of possessing himself also of the city of Lelit Pattan, promising all the nobles that he would suffer them to remain in the possession of their property, that he would even augment it; and because the nobles of Lelit Pattan placed a reliance on the faith of his promises, he sent his domestic priest to make this protestation; that, if he

failed to acquit himself of his promise, he should draw curses upon himself and his family even to the fifth past and succeeding generation, so that the unhappy Gainprejas and the king of Lelit Pattan, seeing that the nobility were disposed to render themselves subject to the king of Gorc'ha, withdrew themselves with their people to the king of B'hatgan. When the city of Lelit Pattan became subject to the king of Gorc'ha. he continued for some time to treat the nobility with great attention, and proposed to appoint a vicerov of the city from among them. Two or three months afterwards, having appointed the day for making his formal entrance into the city of Lelit Pattan, he made use of innumerable stratagems to get into his possession the persons of the nobility, and in the end succeeded. He had prevailed upon them to permit their sons to remain at court as companions of his son; he had dispatched a noble of each house to Navacut, or New Fort, pretending that the apprehensions he entertained of them had prevented his making a public entrance into the city; and the remaining nobles were seized at the river without the town, where they went to meet him agreeably to a prior engagement. Afterwards he entered the city, made a visit to the temple of Baghero adjoining to our habitation, and passing in triumph thro' the city amidst immense numbers of soldiers who composed his train, entered the royal palace which had been prepared for his reception; in the mean time parties of his soldiers broke open the houses of the nobility, seized all their effects, and threw the inhabitants of the city into the utmost consternation. After having caused all the nobles who were in his power to be put to death, or rather their bodies to be mangled in a horrid manner, he departed with a design of besieging B'hatgan; and we obtained permission, through the interest of his son, to retire with all the Christians into the possessions of the English.

At the commencement of the year 1769, the king of Gorc'ha acquired possession of the city of B hatgan, by the same expedients to which he owed his former successes; and on his entrance with his troops into the city, Gamprejas, seeing he had no resource left to save himself, ran courageously with his attendants towards the king of Gorc'ha, and, at a small distance from his palanquin, received a wound in his foot, which a few days afterwards occasioned his death. The king of Lelit Pattan was confined in irons till his death; and the king of B'hatgan, being very far advanced in years, obtained leave to go and die at Benares. A short time afterwards the mother of Gainprejas also procured the same indulgence, having from old age already lost her eye sight; but before her departure they took from her a necklace of jewels (as she herself told me) when she arrived at Patna with the widow of her grandson: and I could not refrain from tears, when I beheld the misery and disgrace of this blind and unhappy queen.

The king of Gorc'ha, having thus in the space of four years effected the conquest of Nepal, made himself master also of the country of the Ciratas to the east of it, and of other kingdoms, as far as the borders of Coch Bihar. After his decease, his eldest son Pratap Sinh held the government of the whole country: but scarcely two years after, on Pratap Sinh's death, a younger brother, by name Bahadar Sah, who resided then at Bettia with his uncle Delmerden Sah, was invited to accept of the government: and the beginning of his government was marked with many massacres. The royal family is in the greatest confusion, because the queen lays claim to the government in the name of her son, whom she had by Pratap Sinh; and perhaps the oath violated by Prit'hwinarayan will in the progress of time have its effect. Such have been the successors of the kingdoms of Nepal, of which Prit'hwinarayan had thus acquired possession.

XVIII.

ON THE CURE OF PERSONS BITTEN BY SNAKES.

BY JOHN WILLIAMS, ESQ.

THE following statement of facts relative to the cure of persons bitten by snakes, selected from a number of cases which have come within my own knowledge, require no prefatory introduction, as it points out the means of obtaining the greatest selfgratification the human mind is capable of experiencing, That of the preservation of the life of a fellowcreature, and snatching him from the jaws of death, by a method which every person is capable of availing himself of. Eau de Luce, I learn from many communications which I have received from different parts of the country, answers as well as the pure caustic alkali spirit; and though, from its having some essential oils in its composition, it may not be so powerful, yet, as it must be given with water, it only requires to encrease the dose in proportion; and, so long as it retains its milky white colour, it is sufficiently efficacious.

From the effect of a ligature applied between the part bitten and the heart, it is evident that the poison diffuses itself over the body by the returning venous blood; destroying the irritability, and rendering the system paralytic. It is therefore probable that the volatile caustic alkali, in resisting the disease of the poison, does not act so much as a specific in destroying its quality, as by counteracting the effect on the system, by stimulating the fibres, and preserving that irritability which it tends to destroy.

Vol. II.

CASE I.

In the month of August 1780, a servant of mine was bitten in the heel, as he supposed, by a snake; and in a few minutes was in great agony, with convulsions about the throat and jaws, and continual grinding of the teeth. Having a wish to try the effects of volatile alkali in such cases, I gave him about forty drops of Eau de Luce in water, and applied some of it to the part bitten. The dose was repeated every eight or ten minutes, till a small phialful was expended: it was near two hours before it could be said he was out of danger. A numbness and pricking sensation was perceived extending itself up to the knee, where a ligature was applied so tight, as to stop the returning venous blood, which seemingly checked the progress of the deleterious poison. The foot and leg, up to where the ligature was made, were stiff and painful for several days; and, which appeared very singular, were covered with a branny scale.

The above was the first case in which I tried the effects of the volatile alkali, and, apprehending that the essential oils in the composition of Eau de Luce, though made of the strong caustic volatile spirit, would considerably diminish its powers, I was induced, the next opportunity that offered, to try the effects of pure volatile caustic alkali spirit, and accordingly prepared some from quicklime and the sal ammoniac of this country.

CASE II.

In July 1782, a woman of the Brahmen cast, who lived in my neighbourhood at Chunar, was bitten by a Cobra de Capello between the thumb and fore-finger of her right hand. Prayers and superstitious incantations were practised by the Brahmens about her, till the became speechless and convulsed, with locked

jaws, and a profuse discharge of saliva running from her mouth. On being informed of the accident, I immediately sent a servant with a bottle of the volatile caustic alkali spirit, of which he poured about a teaspoonful, mixed with water, down her throat, and applied some of it to the part bitten. The dose was repeated a few minutes after, when she was evidently better, and in about half an hour was perfectly recovered.

This accident happened in a small hut, where I saw the snake, which was a middle-sized Cobra de Capello. The Brahmens would not allow it to be killed. In the above case, no other means whatever were used for the recovery of the patient than are here recited.

CASE. III.

A woman-servant in the family of a gentleman at Benares, was bitten in the foot by a Cobra de Capello. The gentleman immediately applied to me for some of the volatile caustic alkali, which I fortunately had by me. I gave her about sixty drops in water, and also applied some of it to the part bitten. In about seven or eight minutes after, she was quite recovered. In the above case, I was not witness to the deleterious effect of the poison on the patient; but saw the snake after it was killed.

CASE IV.

In July 1784, the wife of a servant of mine was bitten by a Cobra de Capello on the out-side of the little toe of her right foot. In a few minutes she became convulsed, particularly about the jaws and throat, with a continued gnashing of the teeth. She at first complained of a numbness extending from the

wound upwards; but no ligature was applied to the limb. About sixty drops of the volatile caustic spirit were given to her in water, by forcing open her mouth, which was strongly convulsed: in about seven minutes the dose was repeated, when the convulsions left her; and in three more she became sensible, and spoke to those who attended her. A few drops of the spirit had also been applied to the wound. The snake was killed and brought to me, which proved to be a Cobra de Capello.

CASE V.

As it is generally believed that the venom of snakes is more malignant during hot dry weather than at any other season, the following case, which occurred in the month of July 1788, when the weather was extremely hot, no rain, excepting a slight shower, having fallen for many months, may not be unworthy of notice:—

A servant belonging to an officer at Juanpoor, was bitten by a snake on the leg, about two inches above the outer ancle. As the accident happened in the evening, he could not see what species of snake it was. He immediately tied a ligature above the part bitten; but was in a few minutes in such exquisite torture from pain, which extended up his body and to his head, that he soon became dizzy and senseless. On being informed of the accident, I sent my servant with a phial of the volatile caustic alkali, who found him, when he arrived, quite torpid, with the saliva running out of his mouth, and his jaws so fast locked, as to render it necessary to use an instrument to open them, and administer the medicine. About forty drops of the volatile caustic spirit were given to him in water, and applied to the wound; and the same dose repeated. a few minutes after. In about half an hour he was per-

fectly recovered. On examining the part bitten, I could discover the marks of three fangs; two on one side, and one on the other; and, from the distance they were asunder, I should judge it a large snake. More than ten minutes did not appear to have elapsed. from the time of his being bitten till the medicine was administered. The wounds healed immediately, and he was able to attend to his duty the next day. Though the species of snake was not ascertained, yet I judge, from the flow of saliva from the mouth, convulsive spasms of the jaws and throat, as well as from the marks of three fangs, that it must have been a Cobra de Capello; and, though I have met with five and six fangs of different sizes in snakes of that species, I never observed the marks of more than two having been applied in biting in any other case which came within my knowledge.

CASE VI.

In September 1786, a servant belonging to Captain S___, who was then at Benares, was bitten in the leg by a large Cobra de Capello. He saw the snake coming towards him, with his neck spread out in a very tremendous manner, and endeavoured to avoid him; but, before he could get out of his way, the snake seized him by the leg, and secured his hold for some time, as if he had not been able to extricate his teeth. Application was immediately made to his master for a remedy, who sent to consult me; but, before I arrived, had given him a quantity of sweet oil, which he drank. So soon as I saw him, I directed the usual dose of volatile caustic alkali to be given, which fortunately brought away the oil from his stomach, or it is probable that the stimulating effect of the volatile spirit would have been so much blunted by it, as to have become inefficacious: a second dose was immediately administered, and some time after, a third,

The man recovered in the course of a few hours. As oil is frequently administered as a remedy in the bite of snakes, I think it necessary to caution against the use of it with the volatile alkali, as it blunts the stimulating quality of the spirit, and renders it useless.

Of the numerous species of snakes which I have met with, not above six were provided with poisonous fangs; though I have examined many which have been considered by the natives as/dangerous, without being able to discover any thing noxious in them.

The following is an instance of the deleterious effect of the bite of a snake, called by the natives *Krait*, a species of the *Boa*, which I have frequently met with in this part of the country:—

CASE VII.

On the 16th September 1788, a man was brought to me who had been bitten by a snake, with the marks of two fangs on two of his toes; he was said to have been bitten above an hour before I saw him: he was perfectly sensible, but complained of great pain in the parts bitten, with an unusual languor. I immediately gave him thirty drops of the volatile caustic alkali spirit in water, and applied some of it to the wounds. In a few minutes he became easier, and in about half an hour was carried away by his friends, with perfect confidence in his recovery, without having taken a second dose of the medicine, which indeed did not appear to have been necessary; but, whether from the effect of the bite of the snake, or the motion of the dooly on which he was carried, I know not; but he became sick at the stomach, threw up the medicine, and died in about a quarter of an hour after. The man said that the snake came up to him while he was sitting on the ground; and that he put him away with his hand once, but that he turned about and bit him, as described. The snake was brought to me, which I examined: it was about two feet and a half long, of a lightish brown colour on the back, a white belly, and annulated from end to end with 208 abdominal, and forty-six tail scuta. I have met with several of them from thirteen inches to near three feet in length: it had two poisonous fangs in the upper jaw, which lay naked, with their points without the upper lip. It does not spread its neck, like the Cobra de Capello, when enraged; but is very active and quick in its motion.

I have seen instances of persons bitten by snakes, who have been so long without assistance, that, when they have been brought to me, they have not been able to swallow, from convulsions of the throat and fauces, which is, I observe, a constant symptom of the bite of the Cobra de Capello: and indeed I have had many persons brought to me who had been dead some time; but never knew an instance of the volatile caustic alkali failing in its effect, where the patient has been able to swallow it,

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XIX.

ON SOME ROMAN COINS FOUND AT NELORE.

TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE ASIATIC SOCIETY.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to present you with an extract of a letter from Mr. Alexander Davidson, late Governor of Madras, giving an account of some Roman Coins and Medals lately found near Nelore, together with a drawing of them, copied from one transmitted by Mr. Davidson; which, I imagine, may be acceptable to the Asiatic Society.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient humble servant,

S. DAVIS.

Galcutta, March 20, 1788.

Extract of a Letter from Alexander Davidson, Esq. Dated Madras, July 12, 1787.

A PEASANT near *Nelore*, about 100 miles northwest of *Madras*, was ploughing on the side of a stony craggy hill: his plough was obstructed by some brick-work: he dug, and discovered the remains of a small *Hindu* temple, under which a little pot was found with *Roman* coins and medals of the second century.

He sold them as old gold; and many no doubt were melted, but the *Nawab Amirul Umara* recovered upwards of thirty of them. This happened while I was governor; and I had the choice of two out of the whole. I chose an *Adrian* and *Faustina*.

Some of the *Trajans* were in good preservation. Many of the coins could not have been in circulation: they were all of the purest gold, and many of them as fresh and beautiful as if they had come from the mint but yesterday. Some were much defaced and perforated, and had probably been worn as ornaments on the arm, and others pending from the neck.

I send you drawings of my two coins, and have no objection to your publishing an account of them in the Transactions of the Asiatic Society. I received my information respecting them from the young Nawab; and if my name be necessary to authenticate the facts I have related, you have my permission to use it.

ON TWO HINDU FESTIVALS,

AND THE

INDIAN SPHINX.

BY THE LATE COLONEL PEARSE, MAY 12, 1785.

I BEG leave to point out to the Society, that the Sunday before last was the festival of Bhavani, which is annually celebrated by the Gopas. and all other Hindus who keep horned cattle for use or profit. On this feast they visit gardens, erect a pole in the fields, and adorn it with pendants and garlands. The Sunday before last was our first of May, on which the same rites are performed by the same class of people in England, where it is well known to be a relique of ancient superstition in that country: it should seem, therefore, that the religion of the east and the old religion of Britain had a strong affinity. Bhavani has another festival; but that is not kept by any one set of Hindus in particular, and this is appropriated to one class of people. This is constantly held on the ninth of Baisac'h; which does not always fall on our first of May, as it did this year. Those members of the Society who are acquainted with the rules which regulate the festivals, may be able to give better information concerning this point. I only mean to point out the resemblance of the rites performed here and in England, but must leave abler hands to investigate the matter further, if it should be thought deserving of the trouble. I find that the festival which I have mentioned, is one of the most ancient among the Hindus.

II. During the Huli, when mirth and festivity reign among Hindus of every class, one subject of diversion is to send people on errands and expeditions, that are to end in disappointment, and raise a laugh at the expence of the person sent. The Huli is always in March, and the last day is the greatest holiday. All the Hindus who are on that day at Jaggannat'h, are entitled to certain distinctions, which they hold to be of such importance, that I found it expedient to stay there till the end of the festival; and I am of opinion, and so are the rest of the officers, that I saved above five hundred men by the delay. The origin of the Huli seems lost in antiquity; and I have not been able to pick up the smallest account of it.

If the rites of May-day show any affinity between the religion of England in times past and that of the Hindus in these times, may not the custom of making April-fools, on the first of that month, indicate some traces of the Huli? I have never yet heard any account of the origin of the English custom; but it is unquestionably very ancient, and is still kept up even in great towns, though less in them than in the country. With us it is chiefly confined to the lower classes of people; but in India high and low join in it; and the late Shujaul Daulah, Iam told, was very fond of making Huli fools, though he was a Muselman of the highest rank. They carry it here so far, as to send letters making appointments, in the names of persons who, it is known, must be absent from their house at the time fixed on; and the laugh is always in proportion to the trouble given.

III. At Jagannat'h I found the Sphinx of the Exptians, and present the Society with a drawing of it. Murari Pandit, who was deputy Faujdar of Balasor, attended my detachment on the part of the Mahrattas.

He is now the principal Faujdar, and is much of the gentleman: a man of learning, and very intelligent. From him I learned that the Sphinx, here called Singh, is to appear at the end of the world, and, as soon as he is born, will prey on an elephant. He is, therefore, figured seizing an elephant in his claws; and the elephant is made small, to show that the Singh, even a moment after his birth, will be very large in proportion to it.

When I told Murari that the Egyptians worshipped the bull, and chose the God by a black mark on his tongue, and that they adored birds and trees, he immediately exclaimed, "their religion then was the same "with ours; for we also chuse our sacred bulls by the same marks; we reverence the hansa, the garura, and other birds; we respect the pippal and the vata among trees, and the tulast among shrubs; but as for onions (which I had mentioned) they are eaten by low men, and are fitter to be eaten than worshipped."

REMARK BY THE PRESIDENT.

Without presuming to question the authority of Murari Pandit, I can only say, that several Brahmans now in Bengal, have seen the figure at Jagannat'h, where one of the gates is called Sinhadwar; and they assure me, that they always considered it as a mere representation of a Lion seizing a young elephant; nor do they know, they say, any sense for the word Sinha but a Lion, such as Mr. Hastings kept near his garden. The Huli, called Holaca in the Vedus, and P'halgutsava in common Sanscrit books, is the festival of the vernal season, or Nauruz of the Persians.

HOLDER CONTROL OF THE PARTY OF

XXI.

A SHORT DESCRIPTION OF CARNICOBAR, BY MR. G. HAMILTON.

COMMUNICATED BY MR. ZOFFANY.

THE island, of which I propose to give a succinct account, is the northernmost of that cluster in the Bay of Bengal, which goes by the name of the Nicobars. It is low, of a round figure, about forty miles in circumference, and appears at a distance as if entirely covered with trees: however, there are several well cleared and delightful spots upon it. The soil is a black kind of clay, and marshy. It produces in great abundance, and with little care, most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, plantains, papayas, cocoanuts, and areca-nuts; also excellent yams, and a root called cachu. The only four-footed animals upon the island are hogs, dogs, large rats, and an animal of the lizard kind, but large, called by the natives tolongui; these frequently carry off fowls and chickens. The only kind of poultry are hens, and those not in great plenty. There are abundance of snakes, of many different kinds; and the inhabitants frequently die of their bites. The timber upon the island is of many sorts, in great plenty, and some of it remarkably large. affording excellent materials for building or repairing ships.

The natives are low in stature, but very well made, and surprizingly active and strong; they are coppercoloured, and their features have a cast of the *Malay*; quite the reverse of elegant. The women, in particular, are extremely ugly. The men cut their hair short, and the women have their heads shaved quite bare, and wear no covering but a short petticoat, made of a sort of rush or dry grass, which reaches half way down the thigh. This grass is not interwoven, but hangs round the person something like the thatching of a house. Such of them as have received presents

of cloth-petticoats from the ships, commonly tie them round immediately under the arms. The men wear nothing but a narrow strip of cloth about the middle, in which they wrap up their privities so tight, that there hardly is any appearance of them. The ears of both sexes are pierced when young, and by squeezing into the holes large plugs of wood, or hanging heavy weights of shells, they contrive to render them wide, and disagreeable to look at. They are naturally disposed to be good humoured and gay, and are very fond of sitting at table with Europeans, where they eat every thing that is set before them; and they eat most enormously. They do not care much for wine, but will drink bumpers of arrack as long as they can see. A great part of their time is spent in feasting and dancing. When a feast is held at any village, every one that chuses goes uninvited, for they are utter strangers to ceremony. At those feasts they eat immense quantities of pork, which is their favourite food. Their hogs are remarkably fat, being fed upon the cocoa-nur kernel and sea-water: indeed all their domestic animals, fowls, dogs, &c. are fed upon the same. They have likewise plenty of small sea-fish, which they strike very dexterously with lances, wading into the sea about knee deep. They are sure of killing a very small fish at ten or twelve yards distance. They eat the pork almost raw, giving it only a hasty grill over a quick fire. They roast a fowl, by running a piece of wood through it, by way of spit, and holding it over a brisk fire, until the feathers are burnt off, when it is ready for eating, in their taste. They never drink water; only cocoa-nut milk and a liquor called soura, which oozes from the cocoa-nut tree after cutting off the young sprouts or flowers. This they suffer to ferment before it is used, and then it is intoxicating, to which quality they add much by their method of drinking it, by sucking it slowly through a small straw. After eating, the

young men and women, who are fancifully drest with leaves, go to dancing, and the old people surround them smoking tobacco and drinking soura. The dancers, while performing, sing some of their tunes, which are far from wanting harmony, and to which they keep exact time. Of musical instruments they have only one kind, and that the simplest. It is a hollow bamboo about 21 feet long and three inches in diameter; along the outside of which there is stretched from end to end a single string made of the threads of a split cane; and the place under the string is hollowed a little, to prevent it from touching. This instrument is played upon in the same manner as a guitar. It is capable of producing but few notes; the performer however makes it speak harmoniously, and generally accompanies it with the voice.

What they know of physic is small and simple. I had once occasion to see an operation in surgery performed on the toe of a young girl, who had been stung by a scorpion or centipee. The wound was attended with a considerable swelling, and the little patient seemed in great pain. One of the natives produced the under jaw of a small fish, which was long, and planted with two rows of teeth as sharp as needles: taking this in one hand, and a small stick by way of hammer in the other, he struck the teeth three or four times into the swelling, and made it bleed freely: the toe was then bound up with certain leaves, and next day the child was running about perfectly well.

Their houses are generally built upon the beach in villages of fifteen or twenty houses each; and each house contains a family of twenty persons and upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars, about ten feet from the ground; they are round and, having no windows, look like bee - hives, covered with

thatch. The entry is through a trap-door below, where the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. This manner of building is intended to secure the houses from being infested with snakes and rats; and for that purpose the pillars are bound round with a smooth kind of leaf, which prevents animals from being able to mount; besides which, each pillar has a broad round flat piece of wood near the top of it, the projecting of which effectually prevents the further progress of such vermin as may have passed the leaf. The flooring is made with thin strips of bamboos, laid at such distances from one another as to leave free admission for light and air; and the inside is neatly finished and decorated with fishing lances, nets, &c.

The art of making cloth of any kind is quite unknown to the inhabitants of this island; what they have is got from the ships that come to trade in cocoanuts. In exchange for their nuts (which are reckoned the finest in this part of India) they will accept of but few articles; what they chiefly wish for is cloth of different colours, hatchets and hanger-blades, which they use in cutting down the nuts. Tobacco and arrack they are very fond of; but expect these in presents. They have no money of their own, nor will they allow any value to the coin of other countries, further than as they happen to fancy them for ornaments; the young women sometimes hanging strings of dollars about their necks. However, they are good judges of gold and silver; and it is no easy matter to impose baser metals upon them as such.

They purchase a much larger quantity of cloth than is consumed upon their own island. This is intended for the *Choury* market. *Choury* is a small island to the southward of theirs, to which a large fleet of their boats sails every year about the month of *November*, to exchange cloth for *canoes*; for they

cannot make these themselves. This voyage they perform by the help of the sun and stars, for they know nothing of the compass.

In their disposition there are two remarkable qualities. One is their entire neglect of compliment and ceremony, and the other, their aversion to dishonesty. A Carnicobarian travelling to a distant village upon business or amusement, passes through many towns in his way without perhaps speaking to any one. If he is hungry or tired, he goes up into the nearest house. and helps himself to what he wants, and sits till he is rested, without taking the smallest notice of any of the family, unless he has business or news to communicate. Theft or robbery is so very rare amongst them, that a man going out of his house, never takes away his ladder, or shuts his door, but leaves it open for any body to enter that pleases, without the least apprehension of having any thing stolen from him.

Their intercourse with strangers is so frequent, that they have acquired in general the barbarous language of the *Portuguese*, so common over *India*; their own tongue has a sound quite different from most others, their words being pronounced with a kind of stop, or catch in the throat, at every syllable. The few following words will serve to shew those who are acquainted with other *Indian* languages, whether there is any similitude between them.

A man, Kegonia To eat, Gnia.

A woman, Kecanna. To drink, Okk.

A child, Chu. Yams, T'owla.

To laugh, Ayelaur. To weep, Poing.

A canoe, App. A pine-apple, Frung.

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A house,	Albanum.	To sleep,	Loom loom.
A fowl,	Hayam.	A dog,	T'amam.
A hog,	Hown.	Fire,	T'amia.
Fish,	Ka.	Rain,	Koomra.

They have no notion of a God; but they believe firmly in the Devil, and worship him from fear. In every village there is a high pole erected with long strings of ground-rattans hanging from it, which, it is said, has the virtue to keep him at a distance. When they see any signs of an approaching storm, they imagine that the Devil intends them a visit; upon which many superstitious ceremonies are performed. The people of every village march round their own boundaries, and fix up at different distances small sticks split at the top, into which split they put a piece of cocoa-nut, a wisp of tobacco, and the leaf of a certain plant. Whether this is meant as a peace-offering to the Devil, or a scarcecrow to frighten him away, does not appear.

When a man dies, all his live stock, cloth, hatchets, fishing-lances, and in short every moveable thing he possessed is buried with him; and his death is mourned by the whole village. In one view, this is an excellent custom, seeing it prevents all disputes about the property of the deceased amongst his relations. His wife must conform to custom, by having a joint cut off from one of her fingers; and, if she refuses this, she must submit to have a deep notch cut in one of the pillars of her house.

I was once present at the funeral of an old woman. When we went into the house, which had belonged to the deceased, we found it full of her female relations; some of them were employed in wrapping up the

corpse in leaves and cloth, and others tearing to pieces all the cloth which had belonged to her. In another house hard by, the men of the village, with a great many others from the neighbouring towns, were sitting drinking soura and smoking tobacco. In the mean time two stout young fellows were busy digging a grave in the sand near the house. When the woman had done with the corpse, they set up a most hideous howl, upon which the people began to assemble round the grave, and four men went up into the house to bring down the body; in doing this they were much interrupted by a young man, son to the deceased, who endeavoured with all his might to prevent them, but finding it in vain, he clung round the body, and was carried to the grave along with it: there, after a violent struggle, he was turned away, and conducted back to the house. The corpse now put into the grave, and the lashings which bound the legs and arms cut, all the live stock which had been the property of the deceased, consisting of about half a dozen hogs and as many fowls, was killed, and flung in above it. A man then approached with a bunch of leaves stuck upon the end of a pole, which he swept two or three times gently along the corpse, and then the grave was filled up. During the ceremony, the women continued to make the most horrible vocal concert imaginable: the men said nothing. A few days afterwards, a kind of monument was erected over the grave, with a pole upon it, to which long strips of cloth of different colours were hung.

Polygamy is not known among them; and their punishment of adultery is not less severe than effectual. They cut, from the man's offending member, a piece of the foreskin proportioned to the frequent commission or enormity of the crime.

There seems to subsist among them a perfect equality. A few persons, from their age, have a little Z 3

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more respect paid to them; but there is no appearance of authority one over another. Their society seems bound rather by mutual obligations continually conferred and received: the simplest and best of all ties.

The inhabitants of the Andamans are said to be Cannibals. The people of Carnicobar have a tradition among them, that several conoes came from Andaman many years ago, and that the crews were all armed, and committed great depredations, and killed several of the Nicobarians. It appears at first remarkable, that there should be such a wide difference between the manners of the inhabitants of islands so near to one another; the Andamans being savage Cannibals, and the others, the most harmless inoffensive people possible. But it is accounted for by the following historical anecdote, which, I have been assured, is matter of fact. Shortly after the Portuguese had discovered the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope, one of their ships, on board of which were a number of Mozambique negroes, was lost on the Andaman islands, which were till then uninhabited. The blacks remained on the island and settled there: the Europeans made a small shallop, in which they sailed to Pegu. On the other hand, the Nicobar islands were peopled from the opposite main and the coast of Pegu; in proof of which, the Nicobar and Pegu languages are said, by those acquainted with the latter, to have much resemblance.

XXII.

THE DESIGN OF A TREATISE ON THE PLANTS OF INDIA.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

HE greatest, if not the only, obstacle to the progress of knowledge in these provinces, except in those branches of it which belong immediately to our several professions, is our want of leisure for general researches; and, as Archimedes, who was happily master of his time, had not space enough to move the greatest weight with the smallest force, thus we, who have ample space for our inquiries, really want time for the pursuit of them. "Give me a place to " stand on, said the great mathematician, and I will " move the whole earth:" Give us time, we may say, for our investigations, and we will transfer to Europe all the sciences, arts, and literature of Asia. " Not to have despaired," however, was thought a degree of merit in the Roman General, even though he was defeated; and, having some hope that others may occasionally find more leisure than it will ever, at least in this country, be my lot to enjoy, I take the liberty to propose a work, from which very curious information, and possibly very solid advantage, may be derived.

Some hundreds of plants, which are yet imperfectly known to European botanists, and with the virtues of which they are wholly unacquainted, grow wild on the plains and in the forests of India. The Amarcosh, an excellent vocabulary of the Sanscrit language, contains in one chapter the names of about three hundred medicinal vegetables; the Medini may com-

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prize many more; and the Dravyabidana, or Dictionary of Natural Productions, includes, I believe, a far greater number; the properties of which are distinctly related in medical tracts of approved authority. Now the first step, in compiling a treatise on the plants of India, should be to write their true names in Roman letters, according to the most accurate orthography, and in Sanscrit preferably to any vulgar dialect; because a learned language is fixed in books, while popular idioms are in constant fluctuation, and will not perhaps, be understood a century hence by the inhabitants of these Indian territories, whom future botanists may consult on the common appellations of trees and flowers. The childish denominations of plants from the persons who first described them, ought wholly to be rejected; for Champaca and Hinna seem to me not only more elegant, but far properer, designations of an Indian and an Arabian plant, than Michelia and Lawsoma; nor can I see without pain, that the great Swedish botanist considered it as the supreme and only reward of labour in this part of natural history, to preserve a name by hanging it on a blossom, and that he declared this mode of promoting and adorning botany, worthy of being continued with holy reverence, though so high an honour, he says, ought to be conferred with chaste reserve, and not prostituted for the purpose of conciliating the good-will, or eternizing the memory, of any but his chosen followers; no, not even of saints. His list of an hundred and fifty such names, clearly shows that his excellent works are the true basis of his just celebrity, which would have been feebly supported by the stalk of the Linnea. From what proper name the Plantain is called Musa, I do not know; but it seems to be the Dutch pronunciation of the Arabic word for that vegetable, and ought not, therefore, to have appeared in his list; though, in my opinion, it is the only rational name in the muster-roll. As to the system of Linneus, it is the system of Nature, subordinate indeed to the beautiful arrangement of natural

orders, of which he hath given a rough sketch, and which may hereafter, perhaps, be completed: but the distribution of vegetables into classes, according to the number, length, and position of the stamens and pistils, and of those classes into kinds and species, according to certain marks of discrimination, will ever be found the clearest and most convenient of methods, and should therefore be studiously observed in the work which I now suggest; but I must be forgiven, if I propose to reject the Linnaan appellations of the twenty-four classes, because, although they appear to be Greek (and, if they really were so, that alone might be thought a sufficient objection) yet in truth they are not Greek, nor even formed by analogy to the language of Grecians; for Polygamos, Monandros, and the rest of that form, are both masculine and feminine; Polyandra, in the abstract, never occurs, and Polyandrion means a public cemitery; diacia and hiæcus are not found in books of authority; nor, if they were, would they be derived from dis, but from dia, which would include the triæcia; let me add that the twelfth and thirteenth classes are ill distinguished by their appellations, independently of other exceptions to them, since the real distinction between them consists not so much in the number of their stamens, as in the place where they are inserted; and that the fourteenth and fifteenth are not more accurately discriminated by two words formed in defiance of grammatical analogy, since there are but two powers, or two diversities of length in each of those classes. Calycopolyandros might, perhaps, not inaccurately denote a flower of the twelfth class; but such a compound would still savour of barbarism or pedantry; and the best way to amend such a system of words is to efface it, and supply its place by a more simple nomenclator, which may easily be found. Numerals may be used for the eleven first classes, the former of two numbers being always appropiated to the stamens, and the latter to the pistils. Short phrases, as on th

calva or calice, in the receptacle, two long, four long from one base, from two or many bases, with anthers connected, on the pistils, in two flowers, in two distinct plants, mixed, concealed, or the like, will answer every purpose of discrimination; but I do not offer this as a perfect substitute for the words, which I condemn. The allegory of sexes and nuptials, even if it were complete, ought, I think, to be discarded, as unbecoming the gravity of men, who, while they search for truth, can have no business to inflame their imaginations; and, while they profess to give descriptions, have nothing to do with metaphors. Few passages in Aloisia, the most impudent book ever composed by man, are more wantonly indecent than the hundred-forty-sixth number of the Botanical Philosophy, and the broad comment of its grave author, who dares, like Octavius in his epigram, to speak with Roman simplicity; nor can the Linnaan description of the Arum, and many other plants, be read in English without exciting ideas which the occasion does not require. Hence it is that no well-born and well-educated woman can be advised to amuse herself with botany as it is now explained, though a more elegant and delightful study, or one more likely to assist and embellish other female accomplishments, could not possibly be recommended.

When the Sanscrit names of the Indian plants have been correctly written in a large paper-book, one page being appropriated to each, the fresh plants themselves, procured in their respective seasons, must be concisely, but accurately, classed and described; after which their several uses in medicine, diet, or manufactures, may be collected with the assistance of Hindu physicians, from the medical books in Sanscrit, and their accounts either disapproved or established by repeated experiments, as fast as they can be made with exactness.

By way of example, I annex the descriptions of five *Indian* plants; but am unable, at this season, to re-examine them, and wholly despair of leisure to exhibit others, of which I have collected the names, and most of which I have seen in blossom.

I. MUCHUCUNDA.

Twenty, from One Base.

Cal. Five-parted, thick; leafleats oblong.

Cor. Five petals, oblong.

Stam. From twelve to fifteen, rather long, fertile; five shorter, sterile. In some flowers, the unprolific stamens longer.

Pist. Style cylindric.

Peric. A capsule, with five cells, many-seeded.

Seeds. Roundish, compressed, winged.

Leaves. Of many dfferent shapes.

Uses. The quality refrigerant.

One flower, steeped: whole night in a glass of water, forms a cooling nucleage, of use in virulent gonorrhoeas. The *Muducunda*, called also *Pichuca*, is exquisitely fragrant its calyx is covered with an odoriferous dust; and the dried flowers in fine powder, taken as snuff, are said, in a *Sanscrit* book, almost instantaneously to remove a nervous head-ach.

Note. This plant differs a little from the Pentapetes of Linnaus.

II. BILVA, or MALURA. Many on the Receptacle, and One.

Cal. Four or five cleft beneath.

Cor. Four or five petals; mostly reflex.

Stam. Forty to forty-eight filaments; anthers mostly erect.

Pist. Germ, roundish; Style smooth, short; Stigma

clubbed.

Peric. A spheroidal berry, very large; many-seeded.

Seeds. Toward the surface ovate, in a pellucid

Leaves. Ternate; common petiole long; leaflets subovate; obtusely notched with short petioles; some almost lanced.

Stem. Armed with sharp thorns.

Uses. The fruit nutritious, warm, cathartic; in taste delicious, in fragrance exquisite: its aperient and detersive quality, and is efficacy in removing habitual costiveness, having seen proved by constant experience. The mucus of the seed is, for some purposes, a very good cement.

Note. This fruit is called Srip'hala, because it sprang, say the Indian poets from the milk of Sri, the Goddess of Abundance, who bestowed it on mankind at the request of Iswara, whence he alone wears a chaplet of Bilva flowers: to him only the Hindus offer them; and, when they see any of them fallen on the ground, they take them up with reverence, and carry them to his temple. From the first blossom of this plant, that I could inspect, I had imagined that it belonged to the same class with the Durio, because the filaments appeared to be distributed in five sets; but in all that I have since examined, they are perfectly distinct.

III. SRINGATACA.

Four and One.

Cal. Fourcleft, with a long peduncle above.

Cor. Fou petals.

Stam. Anthers kidney-shaped.

Pist. Germ roundish; Style long, as the filaments; Stigma clubbed.

Seed. A Nut with four opposite angles (two of them

sharp thorns) formed by the Calyx.

Leaves. Those which float on the water are rhomboidal; the two upper sides unequally notched, the two lower, right lines. Their petioles buoyed up by spindle-shaped spongy substances, not bladders.

Root. Knotty, like coral.

Uses. The fresh kernel, in sweetness and delicacy, equals that of the filbert. A mucus, secreted by minute glands, covers the wet leaves, which are considered as cooling.

Note. It seems to be the floating Trapa of Linnaus.

IV. PUTICARAJA.

Ten and One.

Cal. Five-cleft.

Cor. Five equal petals.

Peric. A thorny legumen; two seeds.

Leaves. Oval, pinnated.

Stem. Armed.

Uses. The seeds are very bitter, and, perhaps, tonic; since one of them, bruised and given in two doses, will, as the *Hindus* assert, cure an intermittent fever.

V. MADHUCA. (See Vol. 1. page 300.)

Many, not on the Receptacle, and One.

Cal. Perianth four or five - leaved.

Cor. One-petaled. Tube inflated, fleshy. Bor-der nine, or ten, parted.

Stam. Anthers from twelve to twenty-eight, erect,

acute, subvillous.

Pist. Germ roundish; S tyle long, awl-shaped. Peric. A Drupe, with two or three Nuts?

Leaves. Oval, somewhat pointed.

Uses. The tubes esculent, nutritious; yielding, by distillation, an inebriating spirit, which, if the sale of it were duly restrained by law, might be applied to good purposes. A useful oil is expressed from the seed.

Note. It resembles the Bassia of Koenig.

Such would be the method of the work which I recommend; but even the specimen which I exhibit, might, in skilful hands, have been more accurate. Engravings of the plants may be annexed; but I have more than once experienced, that the best anatomical and botanical prints give a very inadequate, and sometimes a very false notion of the objects which they were intended to represent. As we learn a new language by reading approved compositions in it with the aid of a Grammar and Dictionary, so we can only study with effect the natural history of vegetables by analysing the plants themselves with the Philosophia Botanica, which is the Grammar, and the Genera et Species Plantarum, which may be considered as the Dictionary of that beautiful language, in which Nature would teach us what plants we must avoid as noxious, and what we must cultivate as salutary; for that the qualities of plants are in some degree connected with the natural orders and classes of them, a number of instances would abundantly prove.

XXIII.

ON THE DISSECTION OF THE PANGOLIN,

In a Letter to General Carnac from Adam Burt, Esq.

COMMUNICATED BY THE GENERAL.

SIR,

In compliance with your desire, I most willingly do myself the honour to present to you my observations and reflections on the dissection of one of those animals, of which we have a print, with a very short account, in the First Volume of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society. The animal, from which that likeness has been taken, was sent by Mr. Leslie, from Chitra, to the President Sir William Jones. It is distinguished in the Transactions by a name, which I do not at present remember; but probably the animal is of the same genus with the Manis, as described in the former edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica, or, perhaps, not different from the Pangolin of Buffon.

The representation of this animal in the Memoirs of the Asiatic Society, makes it unnecessary for me to enter into any general description of its external figure and appearance. There are on each foot five claws, of which the outer and inner are small when compared with the other three. There are no distinct toes; but each nail is moveable by a joint at its root. This creature is extremely inoffensive: it has no teeth; and its feet are unable to grasp. Hence it would appear that Nature, having furnished it with a coat of mail for its protection, has, with some regard to justice, denied it the powers of acting with hostility against

its fellow-creatures. The nails are well adapted for digging in the ground; and the animal is so dexterous in eluding its enemies, by concealing itself in holes and among rocks, that it is extremely difficult to procure one.

The upper jaw is covered with a cross cartilaginous ridge, which though apparently not at all suited to any purposes of mastication, may, by increasing the surface of the palate, extend the sense of taste. The œsophagus admitted my fore-finger with ease. The tongue at the bottom of the mouth is nearly about the size of the little finger, from whence it tapers to a point. The animal at pleasure protrudes this member a great way from the mouth. The tongue arises from the ensiform cartilage, and the contiguous muscles of the belly, and passes in form of a round distinct muscle from over the stomach, through the thorax, immediately under the sternum; and interior to the windpipe in the throat. When dissected out, the tongue could be easily elongated so as to reach more than the length of the animal, exclusive of its tail. There is a cluster of salivary glands seated around the tongue, as it enters the mouth. These will necessarily be compressed by the action of the tongue, so as occasionally to supply a plentiful flow of their secretion.

The stomach is cartilaginous, and analogous to that of the gallinaceous tribe of birds. It was filled with small stones and gravel, which in this part of the country, are almost universally calcareous. The inner surface of the stomach was rough to the feel, and formed into folds, the interstices of which were filled with a frothy secretion. The guts were filled with a sandy pulp, in which, however, were interspersed a few distinct small stones. No vestiges of any animal or vegetable food could be traced in the whole primæ viæ. The gall-bladder was distended with a

fluid, resembling in colour and consistence the dregs of beer.

The subject was a female: its dugs were two, seated on the breast. The uterus and organs of generation were evidently those of a viviparous animal.

Forcibly struck with the phenomena which this quadruped exhibited, my imagination at once over-leaped the boundaries by which science endeavours to circumscribe the productions and the ways of Nature; and believing with Buffon, que tout ce qui peut etre est, I did not hesitate to conjecture that this animal might possibly derive its nourishment from mineral substances. This idea I accordingly hazarded in an address to Colonel Kyd. The spirit of inquiry, natural to that gentleman, could be ill satisfied by ideas thrown out apparently at random; and he soon called on me to explain my opinion, and its foundation.

Though we have perhaps no clear idea of the manner in which vegetables extract their nourishment from earth, yet the fact being so, it may not be unreasonable to suppose that some animal may derive nutriment by a process somewhat similar. It appears to me, that facts produced by Spallanzani directly invalidate the experiments, from which he has drawn the inference, that fowls swallow stones merely from stupidity; and that such substances are altogether unnecessary to those animals. He reared fowls, without permitting them ever to swallow sand or stones; but he also established the fact, that carnivorous animals may become frugivorous; and herbivorous animals may come to live on flesh. A woodpidgeon he brought to thrive on putrid meat. The experiment on fowls, then, only corroborates the proof. that we have it in our power by habits to alter the natural constitution of animals. Again the eminent investigator of truth found, that fowls died when fed

Vol. II.

on stones alone; but surely that fact is far short of proving that such substances are not agreeable to the original purposes of nature in the digestive process of these animals. When other substances shall have been detected in the stomach of this animal, my inference, from what I have seen, must necessarily fall to the ground. But if, like other animals with muscular and cartilaginous stomachs, this singular quadruped consumes grain, it must be surprising that no veftige of such food was found present in the whole alimentary canal, since in that thinly inhabited country, the wild animals are free to feed without intrusion from man. Nor can it be inferred from the structure of the stomach, that this animal lives on ants or on insects. Animals devoured as food, though of considerable size and solidity, with a proportionably small extent of surface to be acted on by the gastric juice and the action of the stomach, are readily dissolved and digested by animals possessing not a cartilaginous, but a membranaceous stomach; as for instance, a frog in that of a snake.

In the stomach many minerals are soluble, and the most active things which we can swallow. Calcareous substances are readily acted on. Dr. Priestly has asked, " May not phlogistic matter be the most es-" sential part of the food and support of both vegestable and animal bodies?" I confess, that Dr. Priestly's finding cause to propose the question, inclines me to suppose that the affirmative to it may be true. Earth seems to be the basis of all animal matter. The growth of the bones must be attended with a constant supply; and in the human species there is a copious discharge of calcareous matter thrown out by the kidneys and salivary glands. May not the quadruped in question derive phlogiston from earth? salt, from mineral substances? And, as it is not deprived of the power of drinking water,

what else is necessary to the subsistence of his corporeal machine?

Considering the scaly covering of this animal, we may conceive that it may be at least necessary for its existence, on that account, to imbibe a greater proportion of earth than is necessary to other animals. It may deserve consideration, that birds are covered with feathers, which in their constituent principles approach to the nature of horn and bone. Of these animals the gallinaceous tribe swallow stones; and the carnivorous take in the feathers and bones of their prey: the latter article is known to be soluble in the membranaceous stomachs; and hence is a copious supply of the earthy principles. In truth, I do not know that any thing is soluble in the stomach of animals, which may not be thence absorbed into their circulating system; and nothing can be so absorbed without affecting the whole constitution.

What I have here stated is all that I could advance to the Colonel; but my opinion has been since not a little confirmed, by observing the report of experiments by M. Bruquatelli of Pavia, on the authority of M. Crell, by which we learn, that some birds have so great a dissolvent power in the gastric juice, as to dissolve in their stomachs flints, rock-crystal, calcareous stones, and shells.

I beg only farther to observe, that some things in Buffon's description of the Pangolin, not apparently quite applicable to this animal, might have been owing to his description being only from the view of a dried preparation, in which the organs of generation would be obliterated, and the dugs shrivelled away so as to be imperceptible; else that elegant philosopher could not have asserted that, "tous les animaux qua"drupedes, qui sont couverts d'ecailles, font ovipares."

358 ON THE DESSECTION OF THE PANGOLIN.

Excuse my prolixity, which is only in me the necessary attendant of my superficial knowledge of things. In ingenuousness, however, I hope that I am not inferior to any man: and I am proud to subscribe myself,

Sir,

Your most obedient and humble servant,

ADAM BURT.

Gya, September 14, 1789.

A Letter from Doctor Anderson to Sir William, Jones,

DEAR SIR,

THE male Lac insect having hitherto escaped the observation of naturalists, I send the enclosed description, made by Mr. William Roxburgh, surgeon on this establishment, and botanist to the Honourable Company, in hopes you will give it a place in the publication of your Society, as Mr. Roxburgh's discovery will bring Lac a genus into the class Hemiptera of Linnæus.

I am, with esteem,

Dear Sir,

Your very obedient servant,

JAMES ANDERSON.

Fort St. George, January 2, 1790.

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XXIV.

ON THE LACSHA, OR LAC INSECT.

BY MR. WILLIAM ROXBURGH.

COME pieces of very fresh-looking lac adhering to small branches of mimosa cinerea, were brought me from the mountains on the 20th of last month. I kept them carefully, and to-day, the 4th of December, fourteen days from the time they came from the hills, myriads of exceedingly minute animals were observed creeping about the lac and branches it adhered to, and more still issuing from small holes over the surface of the cells: other small and perforated excrescences were observed with a glass amongst the perforations, from which the minute insects issued, regularly two to each hole, and crowned with some very fine white hairs. When the hairs were rubbed off, two white spots appeared. The animals, when single, ran about pretty briskly; but in general they were so numerous as to be crowded over one another. The body is oblong, tapering most towards the tail, below plain, above convex, with a double, or flat margin: laterally on the back part of the thorax are two small tubercles, which may be the eyes: the body behind the thorax is crossed with twelve rings; legs six; feelers (antennæ) half the length of the body, jointed, hairy, each ending in two hairs as long as the antennæ; rump, a white point between two terminal hairs, which are as long as the body of the animal; the mouth I could not see. On opening the cells, the substance that they were formed of cannot be better described, with respect to appearance, than by saying it is like the transparent amber that beads are made of: the external covering of the cells may be about half a line thick, is remarkably strong and able to resist injuries; the partitions are much thinner; the cells are in general

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irregular squares, pentagons, and hexagons, about an eighth of an inch in diameter, and \(\frac{1}{4} \) deep; they have no communication with each other: all these I opened during the time the animals were issuing, contained in one-half a small bag filled with a thick red jellylike liquor, replete with what I take to be eggs; these bags, or utriculi, adhere to the bottom of the cells, and have each two necks, which pass through perforations in the external coat of the cells, forming the fore-mentioned excrescences, and ending in some very fine hairs. The other half of the cells have a distinct opening, and contain a white substance, like some few filaments of cotton rolled together, and numbers of the insects themselves ready to make their exit. Several of the same insects I observed to have drawn up their legs, and to lie flat; they did not move on being touched, nor did they show any signs of life with the greatest irritation.

December 5. The same minute hexapedes continue issuing from their cells in numbers; they are more lively, of a deepened red colour, and fewer of the motionless sort. To-day I saw the mouth; it is a flattened point, about the middle of the breast, which the little animal projects on being compressed.

December 6. The male insects I have found to-day. A few of them are constantly running among the females most actively: as yet they are scarce more, I imagine, than one to 5000 females, but twice their size. The head is obtuse; eyes black, very large; antennæ clavated, feathered, about \(\frac{2}{3}\) the length of the body; below the middle an articulation, such as those in the legs; colour between the eyes a beautiful shining green; neck very short; body oval, brown; abdomen oblong, the length of body and head; legs six; wings membranaceous, four, longer than the body, fixed to the

broader for two-thirds of their length, then rounded; the anterior pair is twice the size of the posterior; a strong fibre runs along their anterior margins; they lie flat, like the wings of a common fly, when it walks or rests; no hairs from the rump; it springs most actively to a considerable distance on being touched; mouth in the under part of the head; maxillæ transverse. To-day the female insects continue issuing in great numbers, and move about as on the 4th.

December 7. The small red insects still more numerous, and move about as before: winged insects, still very few, continue active. There have been fresh leaves and bits of the branches of both mimosa cinerea and corinda put into the wide mouthed bottle with them: they walk over them indifferently, without showing any preference, nor inclination to work nor copulate. I opened a cell whence I thought the winged flies had come, and found several, eight or ten, more in it, struggling to shake off their incumbrances: they were in one of those utriculi mentioned on the 4th, which ends in two mouths, shut up with fine white hairs, but one of them was open for the exit of the flies; the other would no doubt have opened in due time: this utriculus I found now perfectly dry, and divided into cells by exceeding thin partitions. imagine, before any of the flies made their escape, it might have contained about twenty. In these minute cells with the living flies, or whence they had made their escape, were small dry dark coloured compressed grains, which may be the dried excrements of the flies.

Note by the President.

THE Hindus have six names for Lac; but they generally call it Lacsha, from the multitude of small insects, who, as they believe, discharge it from their

stomachs, and at length destroy the tree on which they form their colonies. A fine *Pippala* near *Crishnanagar*, is now almost wholly destroyed by them.

XXV.

THE SEVENTH

ANNIVERSARY DISCOURSE,

DELIVERED 25 FEBRUARY, 1790.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

Gentlemen,

LTHOUGH we are at this moment considerably nearer to the frontier of China than to the farthest limit of the British dominions in Hindustan, yet the first step that we should take in the philosophical journey, which I propose for your entertainment at the present meeting, will carry us to the utmost verge of the habitable globe known to the best geographers of Old Greece and Egypt; beyond the boundary of whose knowledge we shall discern from the heights of the northern mountains an empire nearly equal in surface to a square of fifteen degrees; an empire, of which I do not mean to assign the precise limits, but which we may consider, for the purpose of this dissertation, as embraced on two sides by Tartary and India, while the ocean separates its other sides from various Asiatic isles of great importance in the commercial system of Europe. Annexed to that immense tract of land is the peninsula of Corea, which a vast oval bason divides from Nifon, or Japan, a celebrated and imperial island, bearing in arts and in arms, in advantage of situation, but not in felicity of government, a pre-eminence among eastern kingdoms analogous to that of Britain among the nations of the west. So many climates are included in so prodigious an area, that while the principal emporium of China lies nearly under the tropic, its metropolis enjoys the temperature of Samarkand: such too is the diversity of soil in its fifteen provinces, that, while some of them are exquisitely fertile, richly cultivated, and extremely populous, others are barren and rocky, dry and unfruitful, with plains as wild or mountains as rugged as any in Scythia, and those either wholly deserted, or peopled by savage hordes, who, if they be not still independent, have been very lately subdued by the perfidy, rather than the valour, of a monarch, who has perpetuated his own breach of faith in a Chinese poem, of which I have seen a translation.

The word China, concerning which I shall offer some new remarks, is well known to the people whom we call the Chinese; but they never apply it (I speak of the learned among them) to themselves or to their country. Themselves, according to Father Visdelou, they describe as the people of Hun, or of some other illustrious family, by the memory of whose actions they flatter their national pride; and their country they call Chum-cue, or the Central Kingdom, representing it in their symbolical characters by a parallelogram exactly bissected. At other times they distinguish it by the words Tien-hia, or What is under Heaven; meaning all that is valuable on earth. Since they never name themselves with moderation, they would have no right to complain, if they knew that European authors have ever spoken of them in the extremes of applause or of censure. By some they have been extolled as the oldest and the wisest, as the most learned and most ingenious of nations; whilst others have derided their pretensions to antiquity, condemned their government as abominable, and arraigned their manners as inhuman, without allowing them an element of science, or a single art for which they have not been indebted to some more ancient and more civilized race of men. The truth perhaps lies, where we usually find it,

between the extremes; but it is not my design to accuse or to defend the Chinese, to depress or to aggrandize them: I shall confine myself to the discussion of a question connected with my former discourses, and far less easy to be solved than any hitherto started: Whence came the singular people, who long had governed China, before they were conquered by the " Tartars?" On this problem (the solution of which has no concern, indeed, with our political or commercial interests, but a very material connection, if I mistake not, with interests of a higher nature) four! opinions have been advanced, and all rather peremptorily asserted than supported by argument and evidence. By a few writers it has been urged, that the Chinese are an original race, who have dwelt for ages, if not from eternity, in the land which they now possess; by others, and chiefly by the missionaries, it is insisted that they sprang from the same stock with the Hebrews and Arabs; a third assertion is that of the Arabs themselves and of M. Pauw, who hold it indubitable, that they were originally Tartars descending in wild clans from the steeps of Imaus; and a fourth, at least as dogmatically pronounced as any of the preceding, is that of the Brahmens, who decide, without allowing any appeal from their decision, that the Chinas (for so they are named in Sanscrit) were Hindus of the Cshatriya, or military class, who, abandoning the privileges of their tribe, rambled in different bodies to the northeast of Bengal; and, forgetting by degrees the rites and religion of their ancestors, established separate principalities, which were afterwards united in the plains and valleys, which are now possessed by them. If any one of the three last opinions be just, the first of them must necessarily be relinquished; but of those three, the first cannot possibly be sustained, because it rests on no firmer support than a foolish remark, whether true or false, that Sem in Chinese means life and progreation; and because a tea-plant is not more different

from a palm than a Chinese from an Arab. They are men, indeed, as the tea and the palm are vegetables; but human sagacity could not, I believe, discover any other trace of resemblance between them. One of the Arabs, indeed (an account of whose voyage to India and China has been translated by Renaudot) thought the Chinese not handsomer (according to his ideas of beauty) than the Hindus; but even more like his own countrymen in features, habiliments, carriage, manners, and ceremonies: and this may be true, without proving an actual resemblance between the Chinese and Arabs, except in dress and complexion. The next opinion is more connected with that of the Brahmens than M. Pauw, probably, imagined; for, though he tells us expressly that by Scythians he meant the Turks, or Tartars, yet the Dragon on the standard, and some other peculiarities, from which he would infer a clear affinity between the old Tartars and the Chinese, belonged indubitably to those Scythians who are known to have been Goths; and the Goths had manifestly a common lineage with the Hindus, if his own argument, in the preface to his Researches on the Similarity of Language be, as all men agree that it is, irrefragable. That the Chinese were anciently of a Tartarian stock, is a proposition which I cannot otherwise disprove for the present, than by insisting on the total dissimilarity of the two races in manners and arts, particularly in the fine arts of imagination, which the Tartars, by their own account, never cultivated; but, if we show strong grounds for believing that the first Chinese were actually of an Indian race, it will follow that M. Pauw and the Arabs are mistaken. It is to the discussion of this new and, in my opinion, very interesting point, that I shall confine the remainder of my discoursé.

In the Sanscrit Institutes of civil and religious duties, revealed, as the *Hindus* believe, by Menu, the son of Brahma, we find the following curious passage:

Many families of the military class having gra-46 dually abandoned the ordinances of the Veda, and " the company of Brahmens, lived in a state of degra-"dation; as the people of Pundraca and Odra, those " of Dravira and Camboja, the Yavanas and Sacas, the Paradas and Pahlavas, the Chinas, and some other nations." A full comment on his text would here be superfluous; but, since the testimony of the Indian author, who, though certainly not a divine personage, was as certainly a very ancient lawyer, moralist, and historian, is direct and positive, disinterested and unsuspected, it would, I think, decide the question before us, if we could be sure that the word China signified a Chinese, as all the Pandits, whom I have separately consulted, assert with one voice. They assure me, that the Chinas of Menu settled in a fine country to the north-east of Gaur, and to the east of Camarup and Nepal; that they have long been, and still are, famed as ingenious artificers; and that they had themselves seen old Chinese idols, which bore a manifest relation to the primitive religion of India before Buddha's appearance in it. A well-informed Pandit showed me a Sanscrit book in Cashmirian letters, which, he said, was revealed by Siva himself, and entitled Sactisangama: he read to me a whole chapter of it on the heterodox opinions of the Chinas, who were divided, says the author, into near two hundred clans. I then laid before him a map of Asia; and, when I pointed to Cashmir, his own country, he instantly placed his finger on the north-western provinces of China, where the Chinas, he said, first established themselves; but he added, that Mahachina, which was also mentioned in his book, extended to the eastern and southern oceans. I believe, nevertheless, that the Chinese empire, as we now call it, was not formed when the laws of Menu were collected; and for this belief, so repugnant to the general opinion, I am bound to offer my reasons. If the outline of history and chronology for the last two thousand years be correctly traced (and we must

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be hardy sceptics to doubt it) the poems of Calidas were composed before the beginning of our era. Now it is clear, from internal and external evidence, that the Ramayan and Mahabharat were considerably older than the productions of that poet; and it appears from the style and metre of the Dherma Sastra, revealed by Menu, that it was reduced to writing long before the age of Valmic or Vyasa, the second of whom names it with applause. We shall not, therefore, be thought extravagant if we place the compiler of those laws between a thousand and fifteen hundred years before Christ; especially as Buddha, whose age is pretty well ascertained, is not mentioned in them; but, in the twelfth century before our era, the Chinese empire was at least in its cradle. This fact it is necessary to prove; and my first witness is Confucius himself. I know to what keen satire I shall expose myself by citing that philosopher, after the bitter sarcasms of M. Pauw against him and against the translators of his mutilated, but valuable works; yet I quote without scruple the book entitled Lun Yu, of which I possess the original with a verbal translation, and which I know to be sufficiently authentic for my present purpose. In the second part of it Con fu-tsu declares, that "Altho' he, like other men, could relate, as mere lessons of morality, the histories of the first and second im-" perial houses, yet, for want of evidence, he could " give no certain account of them." Now, if the Chinese themselves do not even pretend that any historical monument existed in the age of Confucius, preceding the rise of their third dynasty, about eleven hundred years before the Christian epoch, we may justly conclude that the reign of Vuvam was in the infancy of their empire, which hardly grew to maturity till some ages after that prince; and it has been asserted by very learned Europeans, that even of the third dynasty, which he has the fame of having raised, no unsuspected memorial can now be produced. It was not till the eighth century before the birth of our

Saviour, that a small kingdom was erected in the province of Shen-si, the capital of which stood nearly in the thirty-fifth degree of northern latitude, and about five degrees to the west of Si-gan: both the country and its metropolis were called Chin; and the dominion of its princes was gradually extended to the east and west. A king of Chin, who makes a figure in the Shahnamah among the allies of Afrasiyab, was, I presume, a sovereign of the country just mentioned; and the river of Chin, which the poet frequently names as the limit of his eastern geography, seems to have been the Yellow River, which the Chinese introduce at the beginning of their fabulous annals. I should be tempted to expatiate on so curious a subject, but the present occasion allows nothing superfluous, and permits me only to add, that Mangukhan died in the middle of the thirteenth century, before the city of Chin, which was afterwards taken by Kublai, and that the poets of Iran perpetually allude to the districts around it which they celebrate, with Chegil and Khoten, for a number of musk animals roving on their hills. The territory of Chin, so called by the old Hindus, by the Persians, and by the Chinese (while the Greeks and Arabs were obliged by their defective articulation to miscall it Sin) gave its name to a race of emperors, whose tyranny made their memory so unpopular, that the modern inhabitants of China hold the word in abhorrence, and speak of themselves as the people of a milder and more virtuous dynasty; but it is highly probable that the whole nation descended from the Chinas of Menu, and, mixing with the Tartars (by whom the plains of Honan and the more southern provinces were thinly inhabited) formed by degrees the race of men whom we now see in possession of the noblest empire in Asia.

In support of an opinion, which I offer as the result of long and anxious inquiries, I should regularly Vol. II. B b

proceed to examine the language and letters, religion and philosophy of the present Chinese, and subjoin some remarks on their ancient monuments, on their sciences, and on their arts, both liberal and mechanicel; but their spoken language not having been preserved by the usual symbols of articulate sounds, must have been for many ages in a continual flux; their letters, if we may so call them, are merely the symbols of ideas; their popular religion was imported from India in an age comparatively modern; and their philosophy seems yet in so rude a state as hardly to deserve the appellation; they have no ancient monuments, from which their origin can be traced even by plausible conjecture; their sciences are wholly exotic; and their mechanical arts have nothing in them characteristic of a particular family; nothing which any set of men, in a country so highly favoured by nature, might not have discovered and improved. They have indeed both national music and national poetry, and both of them beatifully pathetic; but of painting, sculpture, or architecture, as arts of imagination, they seem (like other Asiatics) to have no idea. Instead, therefore, of enlarging separately on each of those heads, I shall briefly inquire, how far the literature and religious practices of China confirm or oppose the proposition which I have advanced.

The declared and fixed opinion of M. De Guignes, on the subject before us, is nearly connected with that of the Brahmans: he maintains, that the Chinese were emigrants from Egypt; and the Egyptians, or Ethiopians (for they were clearly the same people) had indubitably a common origin with the old natives of India, as the affinity of their languages and of their institutions, both religious and political, fully evince; but that China was peopled a few centuries before our era by a colony from the banks of the Nile, tho' neither Persians nor Arabs, Tartars nor Hindus, ever heard of such an emigration, is a paradox, which the bare authority

even of so learned a man cannot support; and, since reason grounded on facts can alone decide such a question, we have a right to demand clearer evidence and stronger arguments than any that he has yet adduced. hieroglyphics of Egypt bear, indeed, a strong resemblance to the mythological sculptures and paintings of India, but seem wholly dissimilar to the symbolical system of the Chinese, which might easily have been invented (as they assert) by an individual, and might very naturally have been contrived by the first Chinas, or outcast Hindus, who either never knew, or had forgotten, the alphabetical characters of their wiser ancestors. As to the table and bust of Isis, they seem to be given up as modern forgeries; but, if they were indisputably genuine, they would be nothing to the purpose; for the letters on the bust appear to have been designed as alphabetical; and the fabricator of them (if they really were fabricated in Europe) was uncommonly happy, since two or three of them are exactly the same with those on a metal pillar yet standing in the north of India. In Egypt, if we can rely on the testimony of the Greeks, who studied no language but their own, there were two sets of alphabetical characters; the one popular, like the various letters used in our Indian provinces; and the other sacerdotal, like the Devanagari, especially that form of it which we see in the Veda; besides which they had two sorts of sacred sculpture; the one simple, like the figures of Buddha and the three Ramas; and the other allegorical, like the images of Ganesa, or Divine Wisdom, and Isani, or Nature, with all their emblematical accompaniments; but the real character of the Chinese appears wholly distinct from any Egyptians writing, either mysterious or popular: and, as to the fancy of M. de Guignes, that the complicated symbols of China were at first no more than Phenician monograms, let us hope that he has abandoned so wild a conceit, which he started probably with no other view than to display his ingenuity and learning.

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We have ocular proof that the few radical characters of the Chinese were originally (like our astronomical and chymical symbols) the pictures or outlines of visible objects, or figurative signs for simple ideas, which they have multiplied by the most ingenious combinations and the liveliest metaphors; but, as the system is peculiar, I believe, to themselves and the Japanese, it would be idly ostentatious to enlarge on. it at present; and, for the reasons already intimated, it neither corroborates nor weakens the opinion which I endeavour to support. The same may as truly be said of their spoken language; for, independently of its constant fluctuation during a series of ages, it has the peculiarity of excluding four or five sounds which other nations articulate, and is clipped into monosyllables, even when the ideas expressed by them, and the written symbols for those ideas, are very complex. This has arisen, I suppose, from the singular habits of the people; for, though their common tongue be so musically accented as to form a kind of recitative, yet it wants those grammatical accents, without which all human tongues would appear monosyllabic. Thus Amita, with an accent on the first syllable, means, in the Sunscrit language, immeasurable; and the natives of Bengal pronounce it Omito; but when the religion of Buddha, the son of Maya, was carried hence into China, the people of that country, unable to pronounce the name of their new God, called him Foe, the son of Mo-ye, and divided his epithet Amita into three syllables O-mi-to, annexing to them certain ideas of their own, and expressing them in writing by three distinct symbols. We may judge from this instance, whether a comparison of their spoken tongue with the dialects of other nations can lead to any certain conclusion as to their origin; yet the instance which I have given, supplies me with an argument from analogy, which I produce as conjectural only, but which appears more and more plausible the oftener I

consider it. The Buddha of the Hindus is unquestionably the Foe of China; but the great progenitor of the Chinese is also named by them Fo-hi, where the second monosyllable signifies, it seems, a victim. Now the ancestor of that rullitary tribe, whom the Hindus call the Chandravansa, or Children of the Moon, was, according to their Puranus or legends, Buddha, or the genius of the planet Mercury, from whom, in the fifth degree, descended a prince named Druhya; whom his father Yayati sent in exile to the east of Hindustan, with this imprecation, "May thy progeny be " ignorant of the Veda." The name of the banished prince could not be pronounced by the modern Chinese: and, though I dare not conjecture that the last syllable of it has been changed into Yao, I may nevertheless observe that Yao was the fifth in descent from Fo hi, or at least the fifth mortal in the first imperial dynasty; that all Chinese history before him is considered by the Chinese themselves as poetical or fabulous; that his father Ti-co, like the Indian king Yayati, was the first prince who married several women; and that Fo-hi, the head of their race, appeared, say the Chinese, in a province of the west, and held his court in the territory of Chin, where the rovers, mentioned by the Indian legislator, are supposed to have settled. Another circumstance in the parallel is very remarkable: - According to Father De Premare, in his tract on Chinese Mythology, the mother of Fo-hi was the Daughter of Heaven, surnamed Flower-loving; and as the nymph was walking alone on the bank of a river with a similar name, she found herself on a sudden encircled by a rainbow; soon after which she became pregnant, and at the end of twelve years was delivered. of a son radiant as herself, who, among other titles, had that of Sui, or Star of the Year, Now, in the mythological system of the Hindus, the nymph Rohini, who presides over the fourth lunar mansion, was the favourite mistress of Soma, or the Moon, among

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whose numerous epithets we find Cumudanayaca, of Delighting in a species of water-flower that blossoms at night; and their offspring was Budha, regent of a planet, and called also, from the names of his parents Rauhineya, or Saumya. It is true that the learned missionary explains the word Sui by Jupiter; but an exact resemblance between two such fables could not have been expected; and it is sufficient for my purpose that they seem to have a family-likeness. Budha, say the Indians, married Ila, whose father was preserved in a miraculous ark from an universal deluge. Now, although I cannot insist with confidence, that the rainbow in the Chinese fable alludes to the Mosaic narrative of the flood, nor build any solid argument on the divine personage Niu-va, of whose character, and even of whose sex, the historians of China speak very doubtfully, I may, nevertheless, assure you, after full inquiry and consideration, that the Chinese, like the Hindus, believe this earth to have been wholly covered with water, which, in works of undisputed authenticity, they describe as flowing abundantly, then subsiding, and separating the higher from the lower age of mankind; that the division of time, from which their poetical history begins, just preceded the appearance of Fo-hi on the mountains of Chin; but that the great inundation in the reign of Yao was either confined to the lowlands of his kingdom, if the whole account of it be not a fable, or, if it contain any allusion to the flood of Noah, has been ignorantly misplaced by the Chinese annalists.

The importation of a new religion into *China* in the first century of our era, must lead us to suppose that the former system, whatever it was, had been found inadequate to the purpose of restraining the great body of the people from those offences against conscience and virtue, which the civil power could not reach; and it is hardly possible that, without such restrictions, any government could long have subsisted with felicity; for no

government can long subsist without equal justice, and justice cannot be administered without the sanctions of religion. Of the religious opinions entertained by Confucius and his followers, we may glean a general notion from the fragments of their works translated by Couplet. They professed a firm belief in the Supreme God, and gave a demonstration of his being and of his providence from the exquisite beauty and perfection of the celestial bodies, and the wonderful order of nature in the whole fabric of the visible world. From this belief they deduced a system of ethics, which the philosopher sums up in a few words at the close of the Lun-yu: "He," says Confucius, "who will be fully " persuaded that the Lord of Heaven governs the " universe, who shall in all things chuse moderation, " who shall perfectly know his own species, and so act "among them that his life and manners may con-" form to his knowledge of God and man, may be " truly said to discharge all the duties of a sage, and " to be far exalted above the common herd of the "human race." But such a religion and such morality could never have been general; and we find that the people of China had an ancient system of ceremonies and superstitions, which the government and the philosophers appear to have encouraged, and which has an apparent affinity with some parts of the oldest Indian worship. They believed in the agency of genii, or tutelary spirits, presiding over the stars and the clouds, over lakes and rivers, mountains, valleys, and woods, over certain regions and towns, over all the elements (of which, like the Hindus, they reckoned five) and particularly over fire, the most brilliant of them. To those deities they offered victims on high places a and the following passage from the Shi-cin, or Book of Odes, is very much in the style of the Brahmans: " Even they, who perform a sacrifice with due reve-" rence, cannot perfectly assure themselves that the di-" vine spirits accept their oblations; and far less can "they, who adore the Gods with languor and oscitancy,

" clearly perceive their sacred illapses." These are imperfect traces indeed, but they are traces of an affinity between the religion of Menu and that of the Chinas. whom he names among the apostates from it. M. Le Gentil observed, he says, a strong resemblance between the funeral rites of the Chinese and the Sraddha of the Hindus; and M. Bailly, after a learned investigation. concludes, that " Even the puerile and absurd stories of the Chinese fabulists, contain a remnant of an-" cient Indian history, with a faint sketch of the first "Hindu ages." As the Bauddhas, indeed, were Hindus, it may naturally be imagined that they carried into China many ceremonies practised in their own country; but the Bauddhas positively forbade the immolation of cattle; yet we know that various animals, even bulls and men, were anciently sacrificed by the Chinese; besides which we discover many singular marks of relation between them and the old Hindus: as in the remarkable period of four hundred and thirtytree thousand, and the cycle of sixty years; in the predilection for the mystical number nine; in many similar fasts and great festivals, especially at the solstices and equinoxes; in the just-mentioned obsequies consisting of rice and fruits offered to the manes of their ancestors; in the dread of dying childless, lest such offerings should be intermitted; and, perhaps, in their common abhorrence of red objects, which the Indians carried so far, that Menu himself, where he allows a Brahmen to trade, if he cannot otherwise support life, absolutely forbids "his trafficking in any sort " of red cloths, whether linen or woollen, or made " of woven bark." All the circumstances, which have been mentioned under the two heads of Literature and Religion, seem collectively to prove (as far as such a question admits proof) that the Chinese and Hindus were originally the same people; but having been separated near four thousand years, have retained few strong features of their ancient consanguinity, especially as the Hindus have preserved their old language and

ritual, while the *Chinese* very soon lost both; and the *Hindus* have constantly intermarried among themselves, while the *Chinese*, by a mixture of *Tartarian* blood from the time of their first establishment, have at length formed a race distinct in appearance both from *Indians* and *Tartars*.

A similar diversity has arisen, I believe, from similar causes, between the people of China and Japan; on the second of which nations we have now, or soon shall have, as correct and as ample instruction as can possibly be obtained without a perfect acquaintance with the Chinese characters. Kampfer has taken from M. Titsingh the honour of being the first; and he from Kampfer that of being the only European who, by a long residence in Japan, and a familiar intercourse with the principal natives of it, has been able to collect authentic materials for the natural and civil history of a country secluded (as the Romans used to say of our own island) from the rest of the world. The works of those illustrious travellers will confirm and embellish each other; and when M. Titsingh shall have acquired a knowledge of Chinese, to which a part of his leisure in Java will be devoted, his precious collection of books in that language, on the laws and revolutions, the natural productions, the arts, manufactures, and sciences of Japan, will be in his hands an inexhaustible mine of new and important. information. Both he and his predecessor assert with confidence, and, I doubt not, with truth, that the Japanese would resent, as an insult on their dignity, the bare suggestion of their descent from the Chinese, whom they surpass in several of the mechanical arts, and, what is of greater consequence, in military spirit; but they do not, I understand, mean to deny that they are a branch of the same ancient stem with the people of China; and, were that fact ever so warmly contested by them, it might be proved by an invincible argument, if the preceding part of this discourse, on the origin of the Chinese, be thought to contain just reasoning. In the first place, it seems inconceivable that the Japanese, who never appear to have been conquerors or conquered, should have adopted the whole system of Chinese literature with all its inconveniences and intricacies, if an immemorial connexion had not subsisted between the two nations, or, in other words, if the bold and ingenious race who peopled Japan in the middle of the thirteenth century before Christ, and, about six hundred years afterwards established their monarchy, had not carried with them the letters and learning which they and the Chinese had possessed in common; but my principal argument is, that the Hindu or Egyptian idolatry has prevailed in Japan from the earliest ages; and among the idols worshipped, according to Kampfer, in that country before the innovations of Sacya or Buddha, whom the Japanese also called Amida, we find many of those which we see every day in the temples of Bengal; particularly the goddess with many arms, representing the powers of nature; in Egypt named Isis, and here Isani or Isi; whose image, as it is exhibited by the German traveller, all the Brahmans to whom I showed it, immediately recognized with a mixture of pleasure and enthusiasm. -It is very true that the Chinese differ widely from the natives of Japan in their vernacular dialects, in external manners, and perhaps in the strength of their mental faculties; but as wide a difference is observable among all the nations of the Gothic family; and we might account even for a greater dissimilarity, by considering the number of ages during which the several swarms have been separated from the great Indian hive, to which they primarily belonged. modern Japanese gave Kampfer the idea of polished Tartars; and it is reasonable to believe, that the people of Japan, who were originally Hindus of the martial class, and advanced farther eastward than the Chinas, have, like them, insensibly changed their features and characters by intermarriages with various Tartarian tribes, whom they found loosely scattered over their isles, or who afterwards fixed their abode in them.

Having now shown in five discourses, that the Arabs and Tartars were originally distinct races, while the Hindus, Chinese, and Japanese proceeded from another ancient stem, and that all the three stems may be traced to Iran, as to a common centre, from which it is highly probable that they diverged in various directions about four thousand years ago, I may seem to have accomplished my design of investigating the origin of the Asiatic nations; but the questions which I undertook to discuss, are not yet ripe for a strict analytical argument; and it will first be necessary to examine with scrupulous attention all the detached or insulated races of men, who either inhabit the borders of India, Arabia, Tartary, Persia, and China, or are interspersed in the mountainous and uncultivated parts of those extensive regions. To this examination I shall, at our next annual meeting, allot an entire discourse; and if, after all our inquiries, no more than three primitive races can be found, it will be a subsequent consideration whether those three stocks had one common root; and, if they had, by what means that root was preserved amid the violent shocks which our whole globe appears evidently to have sustained.

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XXVI.

THE TRANSLATION OF AN INSCRIPTION IN THE MAGA LANGUAGE,

Engraved on a Silver Plate, found in a Cave near Islamabad.

COMMUNICATED BY JOHN SHORE, ESQ.

N the 14th of Magha 904, Chandi Lah Raja*, by the advice of Bowangari Rauli, who was the director of his studies and devotions, and in conformity to the sentiments of twenty-eight other Raulis. formed the design of establishing a place of religious worship; for which purpose a cave was dug, and paved with bricks, three cubits in depth, and three cubits also in diameter; in which were deposited one hundred and twenty brazen images of small dimensions, denominated Tahmudas; also, twenty brazen images larger than the former, denominated Languda; there was likewise a large image of stone call Langudagari, with a vessel of brass, in which were deposited two of the bones of T'hacur. On a silver plate were inscribed the Hauca, or the mandates of the deity; with that also styled Taumah Chucksowna Tahma, to the study of which twenty-eight Raulis devote their time and attention; who, having celebrated the present work of devotion with festivals and rejoicings, erected over the cave a place of religious worship for the Magas, in honour of the deity.

God sent into the world Buddha Avatar to instruct and direct the steps of angels and of men; of whose birth and origin the following is a relation:—When Buddha Avatar descended from the region of souls, in

^{*} Perhaps Sandilyah.

the month of Magh, and entered the body of Mahamara, the wife of Sootah Dannah, Raja of Cailas, her womb suddenly assumed the appearance of clear transparent crystal, in which Buddha appeared, beautiful as a flower, kneeling and reclining on his hands. After ten months and ten days of her pregnancy had elapsed. Mahamaya solicited permission from her husband, the Raja, to visit her father: in conformity to which the roads were directed to be repaired and made clear for her journey; fruit-trees were planted, water-vessels placed on the road-side, and great illuminations prepared for the occasion. Mahamaya then commenced her journey, and arrived at a garden adjoining to the road, where inclination led her to walk and gather flowers. At this time, being suddenly attacked with the pains of child-birth, she laid hold on the trees for support, which declined their boughs at the instant, for the purpose of concealing her person, while she was delivered of the child; at which juncture Brahma himself attended with a golden yessel in his hand, on which he laid the child, and delivered it to Indra, by whom it was committed to the charge of a female attendant; upon which the child, alighting from her arms, walked seven paces, whence it was taken up by Mahamaya and carried to her house, and, on the ensuing morning, news were circulated of a child being born in the Raja's family. At this time Tapaswi Muni, who, residing in the woods, devoted his time to the worship of the deity, learned by inspiration that Buddha was come to life in the Raja's palace: he flew through the air to the Raja's residence, where, sitting on a throne, he said, "I have repaired " hither for the purpose of visiting the child." Buddha was accordingly brought into his presence. The Muni observed two feet fixed on his head, and, divining something both of good and bad import, began to weep and laugh alternately. The Raja then questioned him with regard to his present impulse, to whom he answered, " I must not reside in the same place

"with Buddha when he shall arrive at the rank of "Avatar; this is the cause of my present affliction; but I am even now affected with gladness by his presence, as I am hereby absolved from all my transgressions." The Muni then departed; and, after five days had elapsed, he assembled four Pandits for the purpose of calculating the destiny of the child; three of whom divined, that, as he had marks on his hands resembling a wheel, he would at length become a Raja Chacraverti: another divined, that he would arrive at the dignity of Avatar.

The boy was now named Sacya, and had attained the age of sixteen years; at which period it happened that the Raja Chuhidan had a daughter named Vasutara, whom he had engaged not to give in marriage to any one, till such time as a suitor should be found who could brace a certain bow in his possession, which hitherto many Rajas had attempted to accomplish without effect. Sacya now succeeded in the attempt, and accordingly obtained the Raja's daughter in marriage, with whom he repaired to his own place of residence.

One day as certain mysteries were revealed to him, he formed the design of relinquishing his dominion; at which time a son was born in his house, whose name was Raghu. Sacya then left his palace with only one attendant and a horse, and, having crossed the river Ganga, arrived at Balucali, where, having directed his servant to leave him and carry away his horse, he laid aside his armour.

When the world was created, there appeared five flowers, which Brahma deposited in a place of safety; three of them were afterwards delivered to the three Theurs, and one was presented to Sacya, who

discovered, that it contained some pieces of wearingapparel, in which he clothed himself, and adopted the manners and life of a mendicant. A traveller one day passed by him with eight bundles of grass on his shoulders, and addressed him, saying, "A long period of time has elapsed since I have seen the T'hacur; but now since I have the happiness to meet him, I beg to present him an offering, consisting of these bundles of grass." Sacya accordingly accepted of the grass, and reposed on it. that time there suddenly appeared a golden temple, containing a chair of wrought gold; and the height of the temple was thirty cubits, upon which Brahma alighted, and held a canopy over the head of Sacya: at the same time Indra descended, with a large fan in his hand, and Naga, the Raja of serpents, with shoes in his hand, together with the four tutelar deities of the four corners of the universe; who all attended to do him service and reverence. At this time likewise the chief of Asurs with his forces arrived, riding on an elephant, to give battle to Sacya; upon which Brahma, Indra, and the other deities deserted him and vanished. Sacya, observing that he was left alone, invoked the assistance of the earth; who, attending at his summons, brought an inundation over all the ground, whereby the Asur and his forces were vanquished, and compelled to retire.

At this time five holy scriptures descended from above, and Sacya was dignified with the title of Buddha Avatar. The scriptures confer powers of knowledge and retrospection, the ability of accomplishing the impulses of the heart, and of carrying into effect the words of the mouth. Sacya resided here, without breaking his fast, twenty-one days, and then returned to his own country, where he presides over Rajas, governing them with care and equity.

Whoever reads the Caric, his body, apparel, and the place of his devotions must be purified; he shall be thereby delivered from the evil machinations of demons and of his enemies; and the ways of redemption shall be open to him. Buddha Avatar instructed a certain Rauli, by name Anguli Mala, in the writings of the Caric, saying, "whoever shall read and study them, his soul shall not undergo a transmigration:" and the scriptures were thence called Anguli Mala. There were likewise five other books of the Caric, denominated Vachanam, which if any one peruse, he shall therefore be exempted from poverty and the machinations of his enemies; he shall also be exalted to dignity and honours, and the length of his days shall be protracted. The study of the Caric heals afflictions and pains of the body; and whoever shall have faith therein, Heaven and bliss shall be the reward of his piety.

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SANTA PROMICES

XXVII.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE ESSAY. ON INDIAN CHRONOLOGY.

BY THE PRESIDENT.

OUR ingenious associate Mr. Samuel Davis (whom I name with respect and applause, and who will soon, I trust, convince M. Bailly that it is very possible for an European to translate and explain the Surya Siddhanta) favoured me lately with a copy, taken by his Pandit, of the original passage, mentioned in his paper on the Astronomical Computations of the Hindus concerning the places of the colures in the time of Varaha, compared with their position in the age of a certain Muni, or ancient Indian philosopher; and the passage appears to afford evidence of two actual observations, which will ascertain the chronology of the Hindus, if not by rigorous demonstration, at least by a near approach to it.

The copy of the Varahisanhita, from which the three pages received by me had been transcribed, is unhappily so incorrect (if the transcript itself was not hastily made) that every line of it must be disfigured by some gross error; and my Pandit, who examined the passage carefully at his own house, gave it up as inexplicable; so that, if I had not studied the system of Sanscrit prosody, I should have laid it aside in despair: but though it was written as prose, without any sort of distinction or punctuation, yet, when I read it aloud, my ear caught, in some sentences, the cadence of verse, and of a particular metre, called Arya, which is regulated (not by the number of syllables, like other Indian measures, but) by the proportion of

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times, or syllabic moments, in the four divisions of which every stanza consists. By numbering those moments and fixing their proportion, I was enabled to restore the text of Varaha, with the perfect assent of the learned Brahmen who attends me; and, with his assistance, I also corrected the comment, written by Bhattotpala, who, it seems, was a son of the author, together with three curious passages, which are cited in it. Another Pandit afterwards brought me a copy of the whole original work, which confirmed my conjectural emendations, except in two immaterial syllables, and except that the first of the six couplets in the text is quoted in the commentary from a different work, entitled Panchasiddhantica, five of them were composed by Varaha himself; and the third chapter of his treatise begins with them.

Before I produce the original verses, it may be useful to give you an idea of the Arya measure; which will appear more distinctly in Latin than in any modern language of Europe:

Tigridas, apros, thoas, tyrannos, pessima monstra, venemur: Dic hinnulus, dic lepus male quid egerint graminivori.

The couplet might be so arranged as to begin and end with the cadence of an hexameter and pentameter, six moments being interposed in the middle of the long, and seven in that of the short hemistich:

Thoas, apros, tigridas nos venemur, pejoresque tyrannos: Dic tibi cerva, lepus tibi die male quid egerit herbivorus.

Since the Arya measure, however, may be almost infinitely varied, the couplet would have a form completely Roman, if the proportion of syallabic instants.

in the long and short verses, were twenty-four to twenty, instead of thirty to twenty seven:

Venor apros tigridasque, et, pessima monstra, tyrannos: Cerva mali quid agunt herbivorusque lepus?

I now exhibit the five stanzas of Varaha in European characters, with an etching of the two first, which are the most important, in the original Devanagari:

Asleshardhaddacshinamuttaramayananraverdhanisht'hadyan Nunan cadachidasidyenoctan purva sastreshu. Sampratamayanan savituh carcatacadyan mrigaditaschanyat: Uctabhave vicritih pratyacshapericshanair vyactih. Durast'hachihnavedyadudaye'stamaye'piva sahasransoh, Ch'hayapravesanirgamachihnairva mandale mahati. Aprapya macaramarco vinivritto hanti saparan yamyan, Carcatacamasanprapto vinivrittaschottaran saindrin. Uttaramayanamatitya vyavrittah cshemasasya vriddhicarah, Pracritist'haschapyevan vicritigatir bhayacridushnansuh.

Of the five couplets thus exhibited, the following translation is most scrupulously literal:

[&]quot; Certainly the southern solstice was once in the " middle of Aslesha; the northern in the first degree of

[&]quot; Dhanisht'ha, by what is recorded in former Sustras.

[&]quot; At present, one solstice is in the first degree of Car-

cata, and the other in the first of Macara. That which is recorded not appearing, a change must

"have happened; and the proof arises from ocular demonstrations; that is, by observing the remote object and its marks at the rising or setting of the sun, or by the marks in a large graduated circle, of the shadow's ingress and egress. The sun, by turning back without having reached Macara, destroys the south and the west; by turning back without having reached Carcata, the north and east. By returning when he has just passed the winter solstitial point, he makes wealth secure and grain abundant, since he moves thus according to nature; but the sun, by moving unnaturally, excites terror."

Now the Hindu astronomers agree, that the 1st of January 1790, was in the year 4891 of the Caliyuga, or their fourth period; at the beginning of which, they say, the equinoctial points were in the first degrees of Mesha and Tula; but they are also of opinion; that the vernal equinox oscillates from the third of Mina to the twenty-seventh of Mesha, and back again in 7200 years, which they divide into four padas, and consequently that it moves in the two intermediate padas from the first to the twenty-seventh of Mesha and back again in 3600 years; the colure cutting their ecliptic in the first of Mesha, which coincides with the first of Aswin, at the beginning of every such oscillatory period. Varaha, surnamed Mihira, or the Sun, from his knowledge of astronomy, and usually distinguished by the title of Acharya, or teacher of the Veda, lived, confessedly, when the Caliyuga was far advanced; and, since by actual observation he found the solstitial points in the first degrees of Carcata and Macara, the equinoctial points were at the same time in the first of Mesha and Tula; he lived, therefore, in the year 3600 of the fourth Indian period, or 1291 years before the 1st of January 1790, that is, about the year 499 of our era. This date corresponds with the

avanansa, or precession, calculated by the rule of the Surya Sildhanta; for 19° 21' 54" would be the precession of the equinox in 1291 years, according to the Hindu computation of 54" annually, which gives us the original of the Indian Zodiac nearly; but, by Newton's demonstrations, which agree as well with the phenomena as the varying density of our earth will admit, the equinox recedes about 50" every year, and has receded 17° 55' 50" since the time of Varaha; which gives us more nearly in our own sphere the first degree of Mesha in that of the Hindus. By the observation recorded in older Sastras, the equinox had gone back 23° 20'; or about 1680 years had intervened between the age of the Muni and that of the modern astronomer: the former observation, therefore, must have been made about 2971 years before the 1st of January 1790; that is, 1181 before Christ.

We come now to the commentary, which contains information of the greatest importance. By former Sastras are meant, says Bhattotpala, the books of Parasara and of other Munis; and he then cites from the Parasari Sinhita the following passage, which is in modulated prose, and in a style much resembling that of the Vedas:

Sravishtadyat paushnardhantan charah sisiro; vasantah paushnardhat rohinyantan; saumyadyadasleshardhantan grishmah; pravri dasleshardhat hastantan; chitradyat jyesht'hardhantan sarat; hemanto jyesht'hardhat vaishnavantan.

[&]quot;The season of Sisira is from the first of Dhas" nisht'ha to the middle of Revati; that of Vasanta

[&]quot; from the middle of Revati to the end of Rohini; that of Grishma from the beginning of Mrigasiras

[&]quot; to the middle of Aslesha; that of Versha from

the middle of Aslesha to the end of Hasta; that

" of Sarad from the first of Chitra to the middle of " Jyeshi'ha; that of Hemanta from the middle of " Jyeshi'ha to the end of Sravana."

This account of the six Indian seasons, each of which is co-extensive with two signs, or four lunar stations and a half, places the solstinal points, as Varaha has asserted, in the first degree of Dhanisht'ha, and the middle, or 6° 40', of Aslesha, while the equinoctial points were in the tenth degree of Bharani and 3° 20' of Visac'ha; but, in the time of Varaha, the solstitial colure passed through the tenth degree of Punarvasu and 3° 20' of Uttarashara, while the equinoctial colure cut the Hindu ecliptic in the first of Aswini and 6° 40' of Chitra, or the Yoga and only star of that mansion, which, by the way, is indubitably the Spike of the Virgin, from the known longitude of which all other points in the Indian Zodiac may be computed. It cannot escape notice, that Parasara does not use in this passage the phrase at present, which occurs in the text of Varaha; so that the places of the colures might have been ascertained before his time, and a considerable change might have happened in their true position without any change in the phrases by which the seasons were distinguished, as our popular language in astronomy remains unaltered, though the Zodiacal asterisms are now removed a whole sign from the places where they have left their names. It is manisest, nevertheless, that Parasara must have written within twelve centuries before the beginning of our era; and that single fact, as we shall presently show, leads to very momentous consequences in regard to the system of Indian history and literature.

On the comparison which might easily be made between the colures of Parasar and those ascribed by

Eudoxus to Chiron, the supposed assistant and instructor of the Argonauts, I shall say very little; because the whole Argonautic story (which neither was, according to Herodotus, nor, indeed, could have been originally Grecian) appears, even when stripped of its poetical and fabulous ornaments, extremely 'disputable; and whether it was founded on a league of the Helladian princes and states for the purpose of checking, on a favourable opportunity, the overgrown power of Egypt, or with a view to secure the commerce of the Euxine and appropriate the wealth of Colchis; or, as I am disposed to believe, on an emigration from Africa and Asia of that adventurous race, who had first been established in Chaldea; whatever, in short, gave rise to the fable, which the old poets have so richly embellished, and the old historians have so inconsiderately adopted, it seems to me very clear, even on the principles of Newton, and on the same authorities to which he refers, that the voyage of the Argonauts must have preceded the year in which his calculations led him to place it. Battus built Cyrene, says our great philosopher, on the scite of Irasa, the city of Antaus, in the year 633 before Christ; yet he soon afterwards calls Euripylus, with whom the Argonauts had a conference, king of Cyrene; and in both passages he cites Pindar, whom I acknowledge to have been the most learned, as well as the sublimest of poets. Now, if I understand Pindar (which I will not assert, and I neither possess nor remember at present the Scholia, which I formerly perused) the fourth Pythian Ode begins with a short panegyric on Arcesilas of Cyrene; "where," says the bard, "the priestess, who sat near the golden " eagles of Jove, prophesied of old, when Apollo was " not absent from his mansion, that Battus, the colo-" nizer of fruitful Lybia, having just left the sacred " isle (Thera) should build a city excelling in cars, " on the splendid breast of earth, and, with the se-" venteenth generation, should refer to himself the "Therean prediction of Medea which that princess of " the Colchians, that impetuous daughter of Æetes,

" breathed from her immortal mouth, and thus deli-" vered to the half-divine mariners of the warrior " Jason." From this introduction to the noblest and most animated of the Argonautic poems, it appears that fiften complete generations had intervened between the voyage of Jason and the emigration of Battus; so that, considering three generations as equal to an hundred, or an hundred and twenty years, which Newton admits to be the Grecian mode of computing them, we must also place that voyage at least five or six hundred years before the time fixed by Newton himself, according to his own computation, for the building of Cyrene; that is, eleven or twelve hundred and thirty-three years before Christ: an age very near on a medium to that of Parasara. If the poet means afterwards to say, as I understand him, that Arcesilas, his contemporary, was the eighth in descent from Battus; we shall nearly draw the same conclusion, without having recourse to the unnatural reckoning of thirtythree or forty years to a generation; for Pindar was forty years old when the Persians, having crossed the Hellespont, were nobly resisted at Thermopylæ, and gloriously defeated at Salamis. He was boin, therefore, about the sixty-fifth Olympiad, or five hundred and twenty years before our era; so that, by allowing more naturally fix or seven hundred years to twentythree generations, we may at a medium place the voyage of Juson about one thousand one hundred and seventy years before our Saviour, or about forty-five years before the beginning of the Newtonian chronology.

The description of the old colures by Eudoxus, if we implicitly rely on his testimony and on that of Hipparchus, who was, indisputably, a great astronomer for the age in which he lived, affords, I allow, sufficient evidence of some rude observation about 937 years before the Christian epoch; and, if the cardinal points had receded from those colures 36° 29'

10" at the beginning of the year 1690, and 37° 52' 30" on the first of January in the present year, they must have gone back 3° 23' 20" between the observation implied by Parasara and that recorded by Eudoxus; or, in other words, 244 years must have elapsed between the two observations. But this disquisition having little relation to our principal subject. I proceed to the last couplets of our Indian astronomer Varaha Mihira, which, although merely astrological, and consequently absurd, will give occasion to remarks of no small importance. They imply, that when the solstices are not in the first degrees of *Carcata* and Macara, the motion of the sun is contrary to nature: and being caused, as the commentator intimates, by some utpata, or preternatural agency, must necessarily be productive of misfortune; and this vain idea seems to indicate a very superficial knowledge even of the system which Varaha undertook to explain; but he might have adopted it solely as a religious tenet, on the authority of Garga, a priest of eminent sanctity, who expresses the same wild notion in the following couplet:

Yada nivertate'praptah sravishtamuttarayane, Asleshan dacshine'praptastadavidyanmahadbhayan.

"When the sun returns, not having reached Dha"nisht'ha in the northern solstice, or not having
reached Aslesha in the southern, then let a man
"feel great apprehension of danger,"

Parasara himself entertained a similar opinion, that any irregularity in the solstices would indicate approaching calamity: Yadaprapto vaishnavantum, says he, udanmarge prepadyate dacshine aslesham va mahabhayava; that is, "When, having reached the end of Sravana, in the northern path, or half of Aslesha in the southern, he still advances, it is a cause of great fear." This notion, possibly, had

its rise before the regular precession of the cardinal points had been observed; but we may also remark, that some of the lunar mansions were considered as inauspicious, and others as fortunate; thus Menu, the first Indian lawgiver, ordains, that certain rites shall be performed under the influence of a happy Nacshatra; and, where he forbids any female name to be taken from a constellation, the most learned commentator gives Ardra and Revati as examples of ill-omened names, appearing by design to skip over others that must first have occurred to him. Whether Dhanisht'ha and Aslesha were inauspicious or prosperous, I have not learned; but, whatever might be the ground of Varaha's astrological rule, we may collect from his astronomy, which was grounded on observation, that the solstice had receded at least 23° 20' between his time and that of Parasara; for, though it refers its position to the signs, instead of the lunar mansions, yet all the Pandits with whom I have conversed on the subject, unanimously assert, that the first degrees of Mesha and Aswini are coincident. Since the two ancient sages name only the lunar asterisms, it is probable, that the solar division of the Zodiac into twelve signs was not generally used in their days; and we know from the comment on the Surva Siddhanta, that the lunar month, by which all religious ceremonies are still regulated, was in use before the solar. When M. Bailly asks "Why the " Hindus established the beginning of the precession, according to their ideas of it, in the year of Christ " 409?" to which his calculations also had led him, we answer, Because in that year the vernal equinox was found by observation in the origin of their ecliptic; and since they were of opinion that it must have had the same position in the first year of the Caliyuga, they were induced by their erroneous theory to fix the beginning of their fourth period 3600 years before the time of Varaha, and to account for Parasara's observation, by supposing an utpata, or prodigy.

To what purpose, it may be asked, have we ascertained the age of Munis? Who was Parasara? Who was Garga? With whom were they contemporary, or with whose age may theirs be compared? What light will these inquiries throw on the history of India or of mankind? I am happy in being able to answer those questions with confidence and precision.

All the Brahmens agree, that only one Parasara is named in their sacred records; that he composed the astronomical book before cited, and a law-tract, which is now in my possession; that he was the grandson of Vasishi'ha, another astronomer and legislator, whose works are still extant, and who was the preceptor of Rama, king of Ayodhya; that he was the father of Vyasa, by whom the Vedas were arranged in the form which they now bear, and whom Crishna himself names with exalted praise in the Gita; so that, by the admission of the Pandits themselves, we find only three generations between two of the Ramas, whom they consider as incarnate portions of the divinity; and Parasara might have lived till the beginning of the Caliyuga, which the mistaken doctrine of an oscillation in the cardinal points has compelled the Hindus to place 1920 years too early. This error, added to their fanciful arrangement of the four ages, has been the source of many absurdities; for they insist that Valmic, whom they cannot but allow to have been contemporary with Ramachandra, lived in the age of Vyasa, who consulted him on the composition of the Mahabharat, and who was personally known to Bala... rama, the brother of Crishna. When a very learned Brahmen had repeated to me an agreeable story of a conversation between Valmic and Vyasa, I expressed my surprize at an interview between two bards, whose ages were separated by a period of 864,000 years: but he soon reconciled himself to so monstrous an anachronism, by observing that the longevity of the

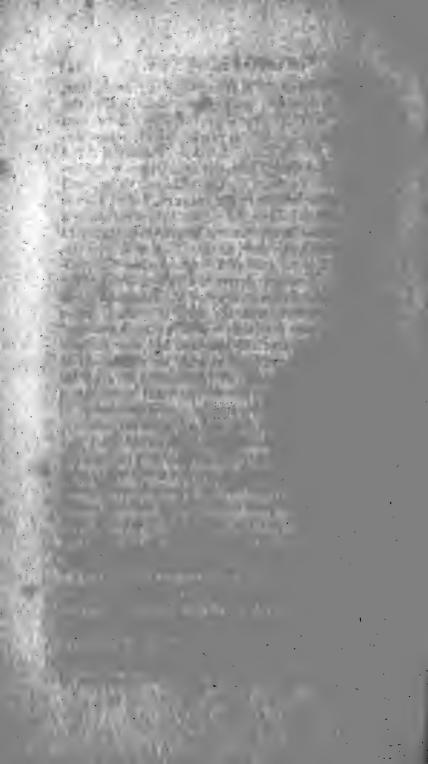
Munis was preternatural, and that no limit could be set to Divine power. By the same recourse to miracles or to prophesy, he would have answered another objection equally fatal to his chronological system. It is agreed by all, that the lawyer Yagyawalcya was an attendant on the court of Janaca, whose daughter Sita was the constant but unfortunate wife of the great Rama, the hero of Valmic's poem; but that lawyer himself, at the very opening of his work, which now lies before me, names both Parasara and Vyasa among twenty authors, whose tracts form the body of original Indian law. By the way, since Vasisht'ha is more than once named in the Manavisankita, we may be certain that the laws ascribed to Menu, in whatever age they might have been first promulgated, could not have received the form in which we now see them, above three thousand years ago. The ageand functions of Garga lead to consequences yet more interesting: he was confessedly the purchita, or officiating priest, of Crishna himself, who, when only a herdsman's boy at Mat'hara, revealed his divine character to Garga, by running to him with more than mortal benignity on his countenance, when the priest had invoked Narayan. His daughter was eminent for her piety and her learning, and the Brahmens admit, without considering the consequence of their admission, that she is thus addressed in the Veda itself: Yata urdhwan no va samopi, Gargi, esha adityo dyamurdhanan tapati, dya va bhumin tapati, bhumya subhran tapati, locan tapati, antaran tapatyanantaran tapati; or, "That Sun, O daughter of " Garga, than which nothing is higher, to which no-"thing is equal, enlightens the summit of the sky; with the sky enlightens the earth; with the earth enlightens the lower worlds; enlightens the higher worlds, enlightens other worlds; it enlightens the " breast, enlightens all besides the breast." - From these facts, which the Brahmans cannot deny, and from

these concessions, which they unanimously make, we may reasonably infer that, if Vyasa was not the composer of the Vedas, he added at least something of his own to the scattered fragments of a more ancient work, or perhaps to the loose traditions which he had collected; but whatever be the comparative antiquity of the Hindu scriptures, we may safely conclude that the Mosaic and Indian chronologies are perfectly consistent; that Menu, son of Brahma was the Adima, or first created mortal, and consequently our Adam; that Menu, child of the Sun, was preserved with seven others in a bahitra, or capacious ark, from an universal deluge, and must therefore be our Noah; that Hiranyacasipu, the giant with a golden axe, and Vali, or Bali, were impious and arrogant monarchs, and most probably our Nimrod and Belus; that the three Ramas, two of whom were invincible warriors, and the third not only valiant in war but the patron of agriculture and wine, which derives an epithet from his name, were different representations of the Grecian Bacchus, and either the Rama of scripture, or his colony personified, or the Sun first adored by his idolatrous family; that a considerable emigration from Chaldea into Greece, Italy, and India, happened about twelve centuries before the birth of our Saviour; that Sacya, or Sisak, about two hundred years after Vyasa, either in person or by a colony from Egypt, imported into this country the mild heresy of the ancient Bauddhas; and that the dawn of true Indian history appears only three or four. centuries before the Christian era, the preceding ages being clouded by allegory or fable.

As a specimen of that fabling and allegorizing spirit which has ever induced the *Brahmens* to disguise their whole system of history, philosophy, and religion, I produce a passage from the *Bhagavat*, which, however strange and ridiculous, is very curious in itself, and closely connected with the subject of this essay.

It is taken from the fifth Scandha, or section, which is written in modulated prose. "There are some," says the Indian author, "who, for the purpose of me-"ditating intensely on the holy son of Vasudeva, ima-" gine you celestial sphere to represent the figure of " that aquatic animal which we call Sisumara: its head being turned downwards, and its body bent in a circle, they conceive Dhruva, or the pole-star, to " be fixed on the point of its tail; on the middle " part of the tail they see four stars, Prejapati, Agni, "Indra, Dherma, and on its base two others, Dhatri " and Vidhatri: on its rump are the Septarshis, or " seven stars of the Sacata, or Wain; on its back " the path of the Sun, called Ajavit'hi, or the Series " of Kids; on its belly the Ganga of the sky: Punar-" vasu and Pushya gleam respectively on its right and " left haunches; Ardra and Aslesha on its right and left " feet, or fins; Abhijit and Uttarashad'ha in its right " and left nostrils; Sravana and Purvashad ha in its " right and left eyes; Dhanishi'ha and Mula on its " right and left ears. Eight constellations, belonging " to the summer solstice, Magha, Purvap'halguni, " Uttarap'halguni, Hasta, Chitra, Swati, Visac'ha, " Anuradha, may be conceived in the ribs of its left side; and as many asterisms, connected with the win-" ter solstice, Mrigasiras, Rohini, Crittica, Bharani, As-" wini, Revati, Uttarabhadrapada, Purvabhadrapada, " may be imagined on the ribs of its right side in an " inverse order. Let Satabhisha and Jyesht'ha be placed " on its right and left shoulders. In its upper jaw is " Agastya, in its lower Yama; in its mouth the pla-" net Mangala; in its part of generation, Sanais-" chara; on its hump, Vrihaspati; in its breaft, the Sun; in its heart, Narayan; in its front, the Moon; " in its navel, Usanas; on its two nipples, the two As-" winas; in its ascending and descending breaths, " Budha; on its throat, Ruhu; in all its limbs, Cetus, or comets; and in its hair, or bristles, the whole

" multitude of stars." It is necessary to remark, that, although the sisumara be generally described as the sea-hog or porpoise, which we frequently have seen playing in the Ganges, yet susmar, which seems derived from the Sanscrit, means in Persian a large lizard. The passage just exhibited may nevertheless relate to an animal of the cetaceous order, and possibly to the dolphin of the antients. Before I leave the sphere of the Hindus, I cannot help mentioning a singular fact: - In the Sanscrit language Ricsha means a constellation and a bear, so that Maharcsha may denote either a great bear or a great asterism. Etymologists may, perhaps, derive the Megas arctos of the Greeks from an Indian compound ill understood; but I will only observe, with the wild American, that a bear with a very long tail could never have occurred to the imagination of any one who had seen the animal. I may be permitted to add, on the subject of the Indian Zodiac, that, if I have erred in a former essay, where the longitude of the lunar mansions is computed from the first star in our constellation of the Ram, I have been led into an error by the very learned and ingenious M. Bailly, who relied, I presume, on the authority of M. Le Gentil. The origin of the Hindu Zodiac, according to the Surya Siddhanta, must be nearly v_{19}° 21' 54", in our sphere, and the longitude of *Chitra*, or the Spike, must of course be 199° 21' 54" from the vernal equinox; but since it is difficult by that computation to arrange the twenty-seven mansions and their several stars, as they are delineated and enumerated in the Retnamala, I must for the present suppose with M. Bailly, that the Zodiac of the Hindus had two origins, one constant and the other variable; and a farther inquiry into the subject must be reserved for a season of retirement and leisure.





JATAMANSI,
orIndian Spikenard.



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XXVIII.

ON THE SPIKENARD OF THE ANTIENTS.

BY THE PRESIDENT:

TT is painful to meet perpetually with words that convey no distinct ideas; and a natural desire of avoiding that pain excites us often to make inquiries, the result of which can have no other use than to give us clear conceptions. Ignorance is to the mind what extreme darkness is to the nerves: both cause an uneasy sensation; and we naturally love knowledge as we love light, even when we have no design of applying either to a purpose essentially useful. intended as an apology for the pains which have been taken to procure a determinate answer to a question of no apparent utility, but which ought to be readily answered in India: "What is Indian Spikenard?" All agree that it is an odoriferous plant, the best sort of which, according to Ptolemy, grew about Rangamritica or Rangamati, and on the borders of the country now called Butan. It is mentioned by Dioscorides, whose work I have not in my possession; but his description of it must be very imperfect, ince neither Linnaus nor any of his disciples pretend to class it with certainty; and, in the latest botanical work that we have received from Europe, it is marked as unknown. I had no doubt, before I was personally acquainted with Koenig, that he had ascertained it; but he assured me that he knew not what the Greek writers meant by the nard of India; he had found, indeed, and described a sixth species of the nardus, which is called Indian in the Supplement

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to Linneus; but the nardus is a grass which, though it bear a spike, no man ever supposed to be the true Spikenard, which the great botanical philosopher himself was inclined to think a species of Andropogon, and places in his Materia Medica, but with an expression of doubt, among his polygamous plants. Since the death of Koenig I have consulted every botanist and physician with whom I was acquainted, on the subject before us; but all have confessed without reserve, though not without some regret, that they were ignorant what was meant by the Indian Spikenard.

In order to procure information from the learned natives, it was necessary to know the name of the plant in some Asiatic language. The very word nard occurs in the Song of Solomon; but 'the name and the thing were both exotic: the Hebrew lexicographers imagine both to be Indian; but the word is in truth Persian, and occurs in the following distich of an old poet:

An chu bikhest, in chu nardest, an chu shakest, in chu bar, An chu bikhi payidarest, in chu nardi payidar.

It is not easy to determine in this couplet, whether nard means the stem, or, as Anju explains it, the pith; but it is manifestly a part of a vegetable, and neither the root, the fruit, nor the branch, which are all separately named. The Arabs have borrowed the word nard but in the sense, as we learn from the Kamis, of a compound medicinal unguent. Whatever it signified in old Persian, the Arabic word sumbul, which, like sumbalah, means an ear or spike, has long been substituted for it; and there can be no doubt that, by the sumbul of India the Muselmans understand the same plant with the nard of Ptolemy and the Nardestachys, or Spikenard, of Galen; who, by the way,

was deceived by the dry specimens which he had seen, and mistook them for roots.

A singular description of the sumbul by Abulfazl, who frequently mentions it as an ingredient in Indian perfumes, had for some time almost convinced me that the true Spikenard was the Cetaca, or Pandanus of our botanists: his words are, Sumbul panj berg dared, ceh dirazii an dah angoshtestu pahnai, seh, or, "The sumbul has five leaves, ten fingers long, and "three broad." Now I well knew that the minister of Acbar was not a botanist, and might easily have mistaken a thyrsus for a single flower: I had seen no blossom, or assemblage of blossoms, of such dimensions, except the male Cetaca; and, though the Persian writer describes the female as a different plant, by the vulgar name Cyora, yet such a mistake might naturally have been expected in such a work: but what most confirmed my opinion, was the exquisite fragrance of the Cetaca-flower, which to my sense far surpassed the richest perfumes of Europe or Asia. Scarce a doubt remained, when I met with a description of the Cetaca by Forskohl, whose words are so perfectly applicable to the general idea which we are apt to form of Spikenard, that I give you a literal translation of them: -" The Pandanus is an incomparable " plant, and cultivated for its odour, which it breathes so richly, that one or two Spikes, in a situation rather humid, would be sufficient to diffuse an odo-" riferous air for a long time through a spacious apartment; so that the natives in general are not " solicitous about the living plants, but purchase the " spikes at a great price." I learned also, that a fragrant essential oil was extracted from the flowers; and I procured from Banares a large phial of it, which was adulterated with sandal; but the very adulteration convinced me, that the genuine essence must be valuable, from the great number of thyrsi that must be

required in preparing a small quantity of it. Thus had I nearly persuaded myself, that the true nard was to be found on the banks of the Ganges, where the Hindu women roll up its flowers in their long black hair after bathing in the holy river; and I imagined, that the precious alabaster-box mentioned in the scripture, and the small onyx, in exchange for which the poet offers to entertain his friend with a cask of old wine, contained an essence of the same kind, though differing in its degree of purity with the nard which I had procured; but an Arab of Mecca, who saw in my study some flowers of the Cetaca, informed me that the plant was extremely common in Arabia, where it was named Cadhi; and several Mahomedans of rank and learning have since assured me, that the true name of the Indian Sumbul was not Cetaca, but Jatamansi. This was important information: finding, therefore, that the Pandanus was not peculiar to Hindustan, and considering that the Sumbul of Abulfazl differed from it in the precise number of leaves on the thyrsus, in the colour, and in the season of flowering, though the length and breadth corresponded very nearly, I abandoned my first opinion, and began to inquire eagerly for the Jatamansi, which grew, I was told, in the garden of a learned and ingenious friend, and fortunately was then in blossom. A fresh plant was very soon brought to me. It appeared on inspection to be a most elegant Cypirus with a polished three-sided culm, an umbella with three or four ensiform leaflets minutely serrated, naked proliferous peduncles, crowded spikes, expanded daggers; and its branchy root had a pungent taste with a faint aromatic odour; but no part of it bore the least resemblance to the drug known in Europe by the appellation of Spikenard; and a Muselman physician from Dehli assured me positively, that the plant was not Jatamansi, but Sud, as it is named in Arabic, which the author of the Tohfatu'l Mumenin particularly distinguishes from the Indian Sumbul. He produced on

the next day an extract from the Dictionary of Natural History, to which he had referred; and I present you with a translation of all that is material in it.

cc 1. Sud has a roundish olive-shaped root, exter-" nally black, but white internally, and so fragrant as " to have obtained in Persia the name of Subterranean " Musk: its leaf has some resemblance to that of a " leek, but is longer and narrower, strong, somewhat 46 rough at the edges, and tapering to a point. 2. Sumbul means a spike or ear, and was called nard by There are three sorts of Sumbul or " the Greeks. " Nardin; but, when the word stands alone, it means " the Sumbul of India, which is an herb without flower or fruit (he speaks of the drug only) like the tail of an ermine, or of a small weasel, but not quite so " thick, and about the length of a finger. It is darkish, inclining to yellow, and very fragrant; it is " brought from Hindustan; and its medicinal virtue " lasts three years." It was easy to procure the dry Jatamansi, which corresponded perfectly with the description of the Sumbul; and, though a native Muselman afterwards gave me a Persian paper, written by himself, in which he represents the Sumbul of India, the Sweet Sumbul, and the Jatamansi as three different plants, yet the authority of the Tohfatu'l Mumenin is decisive that the Sweet Sumbul is only another denomination of nard; and the physician who produced that authority, brought, as a specimen of Sumbul, the very same drug which my Pandit, who is also a physician, brought as a specimen of the Jatamansi. A Brahmen of eminent learning gave me a parcel of the same sort, and told me that it was used in their sacrifices; that, when fresh, it was exquisitely sweet, and added much to the scent of rich essences, in which it was a principal ingredient; that the merchants brought it from the mountainous country to the north-east of Bengal; that it was the entire plant. Dd4

not a part of it, and received its Sanscrit names from its resemblance to locks of hair; as it is called Spikenard, I suppose, from its resemblance to a spike when it is dried, and not from the configuration of its flowers, which the Greeks, probably, never examined. The Persian author describes the whole plant as resembling the tail of an ermine; and the Jatamansi, which is manifestly the Spikenard of our druggists, has precisely that form, consisting of withered stalks and ribs of leaves, cohering in a bundle of yellowish brown capillary fibres, and constituting a spike about the size of a small finger. We may, on the whole, be assured, that the nardus of Ptolemy, the Indian Sumbul of the Persians and Arabs, the Jatamansi of the Hindus, and the Spikenard of our shops, are one and the same plant; but to what class and genus it belongs in the Linnean system, can only be ascertained by an inspection of the fresh blossoms. Dr. Patrick Russel, who always communicates with obliging facility his extensive and accurate knowledge, informed me by letter, that "Spikenard is carried over the desert" (from I ndia, I presume) " to Aleppo, where it is used in substance, mixed with other perfumes, " and worn in small bags, or in the form of essence, " and kept in little boxes or phials, like atar of roses." He is persuaded, and so am I, that the Indian nard of the antients and that of our shops, is one and the same vegetable.

Though diligent researches have been made at my request on the borders of Bengal and Behar, yet the Jatamansi has not been found growing in any part of the British territories. Mr. Saunders, who met with it in Butan, where, as he was informed, it is very common, and whence it is brought in a dry state to Rangpur, has no hesitation in pronouncing it a species of the Baccharis; and, since it is not possible that he could mistake the natural order and

I had no doubt that the Jatamansi was composit and corymbiferous with stamens connected by the anthers, and with female prolific florets, intermixed with hermaphrodites. The word Spike was not used by the antients with botanical precision, and the Stachys itself is verticillated with only two species out of fifteen, that could justify its generic appellation. I therefore concluded that the true Spikenard was a Baccharis, and that, while the philosopher had been searching for it to no purpose,

Trod on it daily with his clouted shoon;

for the Baccharis, it seems, as well as the Conyza, is called by our gardeners, Ploughman's Spikenard. I suspected, nevertheless, that the plant which Mr. Saunders described was not Jatamansi; because I knew that the people of Butan had no such name for it, but distinguished it by very different names in different parts of their hilly country: I knew also that the Butias, who set a greater value on the drug than it seems, as a prefume, to merit, were extremely reserved in giving information concerning it, and might be tempted, by the narrow spirit of monopoly, to mislead an inquirer for the fresh plant. The friendly zeal of Mr. Purling will probably procure it in a state of vegetation; for, when he had the kindness, at my desire, to make inquiries for it among the Butan merchants, they assured him, that the living plants could not be obtained without an order from their sovereign the Devaroja, to whom he immediately dispatched a messenger with an earnest request, that eight or ten of the growing plants might be sent to him at Rangpur. Should the Devaraja comply with that request, and should the vegetable flourish in the plain of Bengal, we shall have ocular proof of its class, order, genus, and species; and if it prove the same with the

Jatamansi of Nepal, which I now must introduce to your acquaintance, the question with which I began this essay will be satisfactorily answered.

Having traced the Indian Spikenard, by the name of Jatamansi, to the mountains of Nepal, I requested my friend Mr. Law, who then resided at Gaya, to procure some of the recent plants by the means of the Nepalese pilgrims; who, being orthodox Hindus, and possessing many rare books in the Sanscrit language, were more likely than the Butias to know the true Jatamansi, by which name they generally distinguish it. Many young plants were accordingly sent to Gaya, with a Persian letter specifically naming them, and apparently written by a man of rank and literature; so that no suspicion of deception or of error can be justly entertained. By a mistake of the gardener they were all planted at Gaya, where they have blossomed, and at first seemed to flourish. I must therefore, describe the Jatamansi from the report of Mr. Burt, who favoured me with a drawing of it, and in whose accuracy we may perfectly confide; but, before I produce the description, I must endeavour to remove a prejudice, in regard to the natural order of the Spikenard, which they, who are addicted to swear by every word of their master Linnæus, will hardly abandon, and which I, who love truth better than him, have abandoned with some reluctance. Nard has been generally supposed to be a grass; and the word stachys or spike, which agrees with the habit of that natural order, gave rise, perhaps, to the supposition. There is a plant in Java, which most travellers and some physicians call spikenard; and the Governor of Chinsura, who is kindly endeavouring to procure it thence in a state fit for examination, writes me word, that a "Dutch author pronounces it a grass like the Cypirus, but insists that what we call the spike is the fibrous of part above the root, as long as a man's little finger,

of a brownish hue inclining to red or yellow, rather " fragrant, and with a pungent, but aromatic scent." This is too slovenly a description to have been written by a botanist; yet I believe the latter part of it to be tolerably correct, and should imagine that the plant was the same with our Jatamansi, if it were not commonly asserted that the Javan spikenard was used as a condiment; and if a well informed man, who had seen it in the island, had not assured me that it was a sort of *Pimento*, and consequently a species of *Myrtle*, and of the order now called Hesperian. The resemblance before mentioned between the Indian sumbul and the Arabian Sud, or Cypirus, had led me to suspect that the true nard was a grass, or a reed; and, as this country abounds in odoriferous grasses, I began to collect them from all quarters. Colonel Kyd obligingly sent me two plants with sweet-smelling roots; and, as they were known to the Pandits, I soon found their names in a Sanscrit dictionary: one of them is called gandhasat'hi, and used by the Hindus to scent the red powder of Sapan, or Bakkam-wood, which they scatter in the festival of the vernal season; the other has many names, and, among them, nagaramastac and gonarda; the second of which means rustling in the water; for all the Pandits insist that nard is never used as a noun in Sanscrit, and signifies, as the root of a verb, to sound, or to rustle. Soon after, Mr. Burrow brought me, from the banks of the Ganges near Heridwar, a very fragrant grass, which in some places covers whole acres, and diffuses, when crushed, so strong an odour, that a person, he says, might easily have smelt it, as Alexander is reported to have smelt the nard of Gedrosia from the back of an elephant: its blossoms were not preserved, and it cannot, therefore, be described. From Mr. Blane of Lucnow, I received a fresh plant, which has not flowered at Calcutta; but I rely implicity on his authority, and have no doubt that it is a species of Andropogon: it has

rather a rank aromatic odour, and, from the virtue ascribed to it of curing intermittent fevers, is known by the Sanscrit name of jwarancusa, which literally means a fever-hook, and alludes to the iron-hook with which the elephants are managed. Lastly, Dr. Anderson of Madras, who delights in useful pursuits and in assisting the pursuits of others, favoured me with a complete specimen of the Andropogon Nardus, one of the most common grasses on the coast, and flourishing most luxuriantly on the mountains, never eaten by cattle, but extremely grateful to bees, and containing an essential oil, which, he understands, is extracted from it in many parts of Hindustan, and used as an atar, or perfume. He adds a very curious philological remark, that, in the Tamul dictionary, most words beginning with nar have some relation to fragrance; as narukeradu to yield an odour; nartum pillu, lemon-grass; nartei, citron; narta manum, the wild orange-tree; narum panei, the Indian Jasmin; narum alleri, a strong smelling flower; and nartu, which is put for nard in the Tamul version of our Scriptures; so that not only the nard of the Hebrews and Greeks, but even the copia narium of Horace, may be derived from an Indian root. To this I can only say, that I have not met with any such root in Sanscrit, the oldest polished language of India; and that in Persian, which has a manifest affinity with it, nar means a pomegranate, and nargil (a word originally Sanscrit) a cocoanut; neither of which has any remarkable fragrance.

Such is the evidence in support of the opinion given by the great Swedish naturalist, that the true nard was a gramineous plant, and a species of Andropogon; but since no grass, that I have yet seen, bears any resemblance to the Jatamansi, which I conceive to be the nardus of the antients, I beg leave to express my dissent, with some confidence as a philologer, though with humble diffidence as a student in botany. I am not, indeed, of opinion that the nardum of the Romans was merely the essential oil of the plant from which it was denominated, but am strongly inclined to believe that it was a generic word, meaning what we now call atar, and either the atar of roses from Cashmir and Persia, that of Cetaca, or Pandanus, from the western coast of India, or that of Aguru, or aloe-wood. from Asam or Cochinchina, the process of obtaining which is described by Abulfazl, or the mixed perfume, called abir, of which the principal ingredients were yellow sandal, violets, orange-flowers, wood of aloes, rose-water, musk, and true Spikenard: all those essences and compositions were costly; and, most of them being sold by the Indians to the Persians and Arabs, from whom, in the time of Octavius, they were received by the Syrians and Romans, they must have been extremely dear at Jerusalem and at Rome. There might also have been a pure nardine oil, as Atheneus calls it; but nardum probably meant (and Koenig was of the same opinion) an Indian essence in general, taking its name from that ingredient which had, or was commonly thought to have, the most exquisite scent. But I have been drawn by a pleasing subject to a greater length than I expected, and proceed to the promised description of the true nard or Jatamansi, which, by the way, has other names in the Amarcosh, the smoothest of which are jatila and lomasa, both derived from words meaning hair. Mr. Burt, after a modest apology for his imperfect acquaintance with the language of botanists, has favoured me with an account of the plant, on the correctness of which I have a perfect reliance, and from which I collect the following natural characters:

AGGREGATE.

Cal. Scarce any. Margin hardly discernible. Cor. One petal. Tube somewhat gibbous. Bor-

der five cleft.

Stam. Three anthers.

Pist. Germ beneath. One style erect.

Seed solitary, crowned with a pappus.

Root fibrous.

Leaves hearted, fourfold; radical leaves petioled.

It appears, therefore, to be the Protean plant, Valerian, a sister of the Mountain and Celtic Nard, and of a species which I should describe in the Linnæan style, Valeriana Jatamansi floribus triandris, foliis cordatis quaternis, radicalibus petiolatis. The radical leaves, rising from the ground and enfolding the young stem, are plucked up with a part of the root, and, being dried in the sun, or by an artificial heat, are sold as a drug, which from its appearance has been called spikenard; though, as the Persian writer observes, it might be compared more properly to the tail of an ermine. When nothing remains but the dry fibres of the leaves, which retain their original form, they have some resemblance to a lock of hair, from which the Sanscrit name, it seems, is derived. Two mercantile agents from Butan on the part of the Devaraja were examined, at my request, by Mr. Harrington, and informed him that the drug, which the Bengalese called Jatamansi, "grew erect above the surface of the ground, resembling in colour an ear of green wheat; that, when recent, it had a faint " odour, which was greatly increased by the simple " process of drying it; that it abounded on the hills, " and even on the plains, of Butan, where it was collected and prepared for medicinal purposes." What its virtues are, experience alone can ascertain; but, as far as botanical analogy can justify a conjecture, we may suppose them to be antispasmodic; and, in our provinces, especially in Behar, the plant will probably flourish; so that we may always procure it in a state fit for experiment. On the description of the Indian Spikenard, compared with the drawing, I must observe, that, though all the leaves, as delineated, may not appear of the same shape, yet all of

them are not fully expanded. Mr. Burt assures me that the four radical leaves are hearted and petioled; and it is most probable, that the cauline and floral leaves would have a similar form in their state of perfect expansion; but, unfortunately, the plants at Gaya are now shrivelled; and they who seek farther information, must wait with patience until new stems and leaves shall spring from the roots, or other plants shall be brought from Nepal and Butan. On the proposed inquiry into the virtues of this celebrated plant, I must be permitted to say, that, although many botanists may have wasted their time in enumerating the qualities of vegetables, without having ascertained them by repeated and satisfactory experiments, and although mere botany goes no farther than technical arrangement and description, yet it seems indubitable that the great end and aim of a botanical philosopher is to discover and prove the several uses of the vegetable system; and, while he admits with Hippocrates the fallaciousness of experience, to rely on experiment alone as the basis of his knowledge.

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APPENDIX.

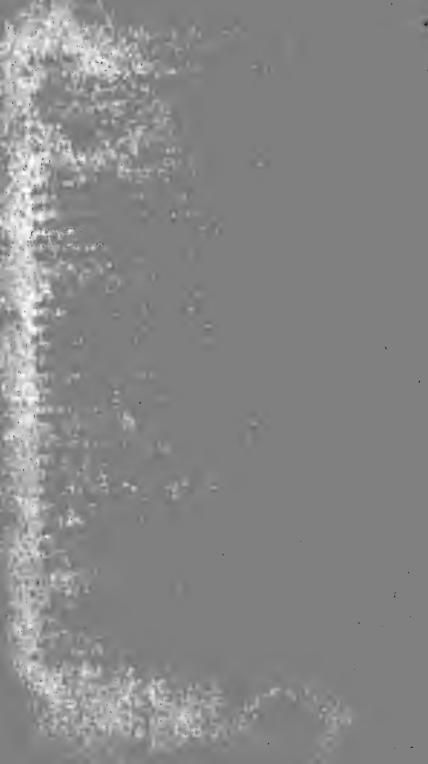
A

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY,

KEPT AT CALCUTTA,

By HENRY TRAIL, Esq.

From 1st February 1784, to 31st Decem. 1785.



REMARKS.

In the following Diary of the Weather, begun the 1st of February 1784, every change in the air was marked down with the greatest precision three times every day, and always nearly at the same hours, viz. at sun-rifing at three, or half past three o'clock in the afternoon, and at eleven o'clock at night.

While the wind continued southerly, the Thermometer was placed in a Verandah open to the Esplanade, where there was at all times a free circulation of air; and when the wind became northerly, the instrument was removed to the opposite side of the house, and equally exposed, as in the preceding part of the year.

The Barometer continued always in the same place.

The Hygrometer made use of, was a bit of fine sponge, suspended in a scale (on the end of a steel-yard) first prepared for more easily imbibing the moisture, by dipping it in a solution of Salt of Tartar, afterwards drying it well, and bringing it to an equilibrium by a weight in the opposite scale, at a time when the atmosphere appeared to have the least degree of moisture.

A semicircular scale at the top, divided from 0 to 90° on each side, with the needle of the yard, pointed out the quantity of moisture gained or lost daily; but in the following Diary the degrees of moisture have seldom been taken down.

Every fall of rain was likewise taken, and the quantity in cubic inches daily noted down.

The winds were also observed, and the figures 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, denote the force thereof.

Here it may be remarked, that at sun-rising, there is seldom or ever any wind; but no sooner is the air a little rarefied by its rays, than a little breeze begins, and this generally increases till about noon, when again it begins to lose its force, and dies away, from the same cause.

In order to ascertain the influence of the Moon upon the weather, the mean temperature, as well as the weight of the atmosphere of each quarter, is accurately marked down by taking in the three days preceding, and the three days after the change with the intermediate day. From these, the density is discovered, by the following rule given by Dr. Bradely, viz.

A, altitude of barometer; B, altitude of thermometer; D, density.

$$\frac{A}{B \times 350} = D - \text{or density.}$$

N. B. In this, the mean morning density is only taken. However, the mean density for the whole may be found by the same rule.

January 1, 1785. From an examination of one year's observations on the influence of the Moon on the mercury in the Barometer, it does not appear that there is any certain rule to be laid down regarding it. However, it may be affirmed that the direc-

tion of the winds has more effect upon it, as we never fail to see the mercury highest when the wind blows from the NW; in a lesser degree from the N, and lowest of all when it proceeds from the SE quarters.

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A DESCRIPTION OF SMALL PROPERTY OF STOLEN

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A General State of the Weather for February 1783.

M. N. E	75° 86 76 76 742-3d Mean temperature.	
	reatest alitude of the Thermometer, east ditto,	Jear, 2 days. Joudy, 26 do. Vo of days on which it rained, 8 do. Mantity of rain, 4-2 Inch

times several days succeeding without any sun; the air also damp and cold. Frequently thunder, and on the 8th there was a fall of hail in the afternoon, accompanied with thunder. This month the wind very variable, and the atmosphere for the most part cloudy, and some-

The mornings generally foggy.

Calcutta, February 1784.

REMARKS.	Sunday. Heavy, with a great appearance of rain.	ditto.	ditto.	A thick fog all day.	Some hail in the afternoon, with thunder.	A great appearance of rain, very dark.	ditto, a few drops of rain,	ditto.	ditto.	luch indiner this mothing, with a nearly shorter		A form drone of rain.		Very gloomy, and a great appearance of rain, very	כוספל ווס מוני מון מולי	· · · ditto.	Clear at intervals.	Verw thick.	Thunder, very moist and wet.	Very chilly.	Mean state of the atmosphere.
Appearance of the air.		ditto,			i	ditto, A		ditto.	1	-	Clear,			Ŧ	ditto.	1.5:		ditto,	1		Cloudy.
Wind.	00	0 0		7	63 H	e 1 11	H F	٠ ،	2 61	H .	0	H lo) 61	н :	0 0	0	I	0 0	o +	- 21	
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Rain Inch.		۰			H			7	H.	o c		٠					0.5	4	-	:	1
Mean morning densi- ty of each quarter of the Moon.				Full Moon 70 3-7ths		THE CO. PRINCE	Section 10	THE STREET WHEN	L. Q. 71 6 7ths 4					New Moon 70 3-7ths	Tanger I	The state of the s			F. O. 6" 2-"ths		
	72	69	72	7. 4.	75	75	757	200	75 \	75	77	727	44	24	73	247	73	89	60	11/	
Therniometer. M. N. E.	77.	74	77	80	8 80	8 8	77	29	0 0	0 0	0 %	92	22	77	25	2 4	92	70	74	28.0	
The M.	188	67	000	72	71	74	71	73	74	20	70		90		20	2 4	71	-	67	69	
Days.	- 6	m	4 r	000	F-00	e 6	H H	12	13	15.	17	- 00 - H	61	212	2.2	64 c	1 4	56	22	2 2	

A General State of the Weather for March.

. 79 I-3d Mean temperalure.	Name and
M N. E. 66 75 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77	
Greatest altitude of Thermometer, Least ditto, Mean ditto,	Clear, 16 days. Cloudy, 15 do. Rain, 3 do. Quantity of do. 1-8 inch.

The wind almost continually southerly, and strong blasts towards the end of the month; the weather throughout clear and serene, and heavy dews at night; which indeed must always be the case when they are preceded by a clear warm sun. In blowing weather dews-are seldom seen, the moisture as it falls being dispelled by the wind.

The heat of the earth this month about mid-day, about 120°.

Calcutta, March 1784.

REMARKS.	-	Monday.	Thunder, early this morning.	Great appearance of rain.	The west her wery fine and div.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto. The morning foggy.	Very close and sultry.	ditto.	The wind high.	ditto, thunder,		MOIST. ditto.	Very thick.	The wind boisterous,	ditto. ditto.	
Appearance of the	air.	Clear, ditto,	Gloudy,	Cloudy,	Clear,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	Cloudy,	ditto,	Clear,	Cloudy, ditto.	Clear,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	Clear,
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	5				S-7ths				ths		j		9 3-7cns		Si		2-7ths	
Mean morning heat	at each quarter of				Full Moon 72 5-7ths	1			7. C. 73 6-7ths				New twoon 79 3-7ths		81		F. Q. 80 2-7ths	
	E. the Moon.	71 71	700		_	74	757	720	80 (L. C. 73 %)		ω ω ———	82	83 (New IMOON 7	4 %		80	81 F. C. 80 :	8 8 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
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A General State of the Weather for April.

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1	6	87	16
1 1	98	71	83
	Thermometer,		# 1
	Greatest altitude of the Thermometer	east ditto, -	Mean ditto,
	S	ĭ	M

n temperature,

Clear, 14 days.
Cloudy, 16 do.
Rain, 6 do.
Quantity of do. 3-1 inch.

mid-day, 126°. Blowing and heavy weather in general, and frequent thunder-storms about the The prevailing wind this month, as well as the former, south; the mean heat of the earth at end, although many of the nights were close and sultry.

noon or evening, and come from the NW, and are attended with loud peals and heavy falls of rain. Before these storms begin, the clouds become very dark and low; and the winds being The thunder-storms that generally prevail at this time of the year, always happen in the afterthus confined between the clouds and earth, must of course, be greatly augmented. Calcutta, April 1784.

REMARKS.		Thursday.	Disagrecable blowing weather.	ditto.	dillo,	diffo	-			Transfer de la constante de la	The high very close.	Hard blowing weather with much dust.	2	A Larrest thingles from in the arrestore	A neavy thunder-storm in the evening.	High wind.	Very close.	Strong wind.	ditto.	Close and suring.		With rain and thunder.	ditto, from N.W.	ditto, diffo.	High wind.	Mean state of the atmosphere.
Appearance of the		Clear,	Cloudy,	ditto,	difto,	Cloudy,	Clear,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	dirto	ditto	Cloudy,	ditto,	diffe.	ditto	Clear	ditto,	ditto,	Hazy,	ditto.	Cloudy,	ditto,	ditto,	dirto,	Cloudy,
d.	Force,	H.	2 4	· ~	3	4	اء ئد	H .	0	0 (0 0	» c	, m	£0.	4 .	1 ~	0	3	3	0	w, c	o 4	. 4	61	0 "	4
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Mean morning heat	the Moon.					Full M. 82 6-7ths					,	L. Q. 84 3-7ths					New M Sr 2-2ths	2007 6 10 111 1101					> F. Q. 83 2-7ths <			
eter.	E.	85.	808	200	980	200	0 00	000	87	200	200	v ≈	00	86	80	8	00	86	85	×27 0	0 00	84	85	98	× ×	86
	z	800	10	89	600	× (6.0	92	46	97	95	93	16	96	\$ 8 8	82	06	91	92	93	35	80	200	90	× ×	10
rmon			_					0 -4		201	0	200	2	~	4.0	4	- ~	, 67	8	~	W =	+ 4	- 0	-	10 =	×22
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A General State of the Weather for May.

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mi	1	88	74	84
ż	1	93	82	80
Ŋ.	1	85	75	00
		Greatest altitude of the Thermometer,	Least ditto,	Mean ditto.

3ds Mean tempgrature

Clear, 7 days.
Cloudy, 24 do.
Rain, 14 do.
Quantity of do. 9-6 inches.

The wind southerly, with a few pretty violent storms from the NW, at the beginning of the month, while the latter part was close, gloomy, and warm; but in general, the whole month was exceedingly cloudy, and scarcely a single day of bright sun-shine. The rains began on the 22d, and from that day to the end, the nights were very close and sultry, and the air very damp.

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REMARKS.		Saturday, a violent storm.	ditto	And close.	No sun all day.	A alimedes server in the evening	The contract of the contract o	Figh Wind at times.	ditto.		Very thick and dark.		Section of the sectio	the thermal state of the country		No wind.		Thunder in the evening.	The weather very close and still.	ditto.	dirto.	A	At intervals.	Very still.	Thunder in the evening.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto	ditto.	dirto	A corner appropriate of rain	The minter appropriate or carrie	Life migues very summy.	diffo.	I hunder. do.	Mean state of the atmosphere.
Appearance of the	air.	Cloudy,	diffe	Harr	dies.	ditto	ditto	ditto	Clear,	Hazu.	Clouder	diet.	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	Clear,	ditto.	ditto	ditto	dirro	ditto,	Cloudy,	Clear,	.Cloudy,	ditto	ditto.	ditto	dirto	dirio,	dieno,	dillo,	ditto	ditto	ditto,	Cloudy.
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.uin.		ri	.,	9			0,5		-		*	4.0		ò	2.			0.0			ì	ĺ	i		90	7	+ .		0.0	1.0	0.2		4.0	ر	0.2	2 "
Mean morning heat	the Moon.					Full Moon 79 6-7ths <					Y			VI.ast Quarter 70 6-7ths 4	Turit Carrent 19 cm							New Moon 82 6-7ths									>F. O. 81 0-7ths					
eter.	EI .	82	747	79	84	84	200	200	200	000	87	87	78	84	000	200	50	100	000	000	07	87	000	88	000	500	03	10 C	200	*	83	83	84	8	98	
Thermometer.	Z	98	00	e2 00	87	89	00	00	0	26	06	90	89	00	8	000	n o	0	90	16	16	06	000	1 0	73	16	060	68	92	98	82	86	80	80	0	
9	M	82	12	75	28	82	18	8	10	20	83	84	8	75	11	- 1	60	000	000	10	83	84		2	21.05	22 05	\$ ¢	200	33	84	8	80	8	× 5	00	1

A General State of the Weather for June.

	84 90 86 77 80 78 83 Mean temperature.		
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7	000	-	
M. N. E.	44.7.7.	-	
	Greatest altitude of the Thermometer, Least do. Wean do	Clear, I days, Cloudy, 29 do.	Rain, 14 Ocanity of do. 17-4 inches.

The wind, this month, inclining sometimes to the E of S. The atmosphere exceedingly moist and wet, and much rain from the 10th to 17th, the sky mostly clouded throughout, and very little variation in the temperature of the air. Calcutta, June 1794.

					-	211212					733	7
BEWARKS		Turenar, thunder	A gentle shower. Close,	Several showers.	No sun all day. Incessant rain all day. Ditto.	Thunder in the evening. No sun all day. Ditto.	Ditto. Ditto. Sun very faint.	Very thick, and no sun. The night very close. Ditto.	Ditto. Ditto. Ditto.	' Ditto.	Thunder. High wind.	Mean flate of the atmosphere.
Appearance of	the air.	Cloudy.	ditto, ditto,	dirto,	ditto,	ditto, ditto, Hazy, Cloudy,	Hazy, ditto,	ditto, ditto, ditto,	ditto, ditto, ditto, Cloudy,	Hazy, Cloudy,	ditto, Clear,	Cloudy,
Winds.	Points Force.	S I	I Var. O	NE	о н к	W. 2 Var. 1	о н н э	SE I SE	var. o		var. I	SASE I
- :-	Kain.	1.2	0.2	1.65	. 1.1. 9.4.	0 0 0 4 0 4 4 7 700	e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e				2:1	17.4
Mean heat of each	quarter of the Moon.		Full M. 88 3-7ths		L. Q. 80 1-7th		New M. 81 1-7th		F. Q. 82			
neter	<u></u> 변	84 84	\$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$	× × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × ×	2 8 8 8 8	8 8 8 8 8	0 00 00 i	20000	∞ ∞ ∞ ∞ ~ 4 ~ 4	8 8	81 83	× 3
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Da	ays.	H 4	₩ 4 W	2 roo 0	2014	E 4 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	18 19	0 # 7 1 7	4 4 4 9 6 4 70 6	1 2 2 1 2 2 2	29	mean

A General State of the Weather for July.

-	83 Mean temperate
(ii)	3 33.00
ż	82.77
M. N. E	4 7 H
時間はいただけい	Greatest altitude of the Thermometer, Least ditto, Mean ditto, Clear, Clear, Cloudy, Rain, Rain, Quantity of ditto, 15 inches.

Wre.

humid, and very little sun-shine. The mean temperature exactly the same as last month, and The prevailing wind SE, and the atmosphere, as the former month, exceedingly thick and very little variation between the heat at mid-day and that of the morning and evening. During the rains the wind is often variable, but commonly it comes round to the eastward, when there falls much rain.

1784.
July
Jalcutta,

•		, but the nights															rain at Chunar,	v among the na-	,												-
	REMARKS.	The wind firong in the morning, but the mights				The night very bright.	ditto, thunder	ditto.	Much lightning in the evening.	1	Several fmall showers.			Rained all day.		Small rain, very dark.	On the 7th there had been no rain at Chunar,	many persons sick, but chiefly among the na-	tives.			Much thunder and lightning.		Thursday	I number.			High winds.	Thunder.	Rain all the day.	Mean state of the atmosphere
Appearance of the	air.	Clear, Cloudv.	ditto,	ditto,	Hazy,	dirto.	ditto	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	d'tto,	ditto	difto,	ditto,	ditto	ditto	difto	djtto,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto	ditto	ditto,	ditto,	4110	dirto,	ditto,	ditto,	ditto,	ditro,	Cloudy
ds	Force.	8.	1 61	6	61	H (0 0		-	н	=	63	H	H	0	=	61	н	m	H	н	0	н 1	- ·	4	H 1	-	m	-	-	-
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Mean morning heat	the Moon.	Тник врлу.	Full Moon 82.					200	L. C. 32 2-7103							New M. 79 5-7ths							F. Q. 70 6-7ths								
eter.	ы. 	84 48	× 000	***	000	4.50	8	× ×	500	23	700	400	700	0.2	61 0	200	70	200	200	000	0 1	79				200		_	79	78	83
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Lhe	Z.	833	83	000	\$ ×	÷ ~~	200	27	27 00 0	× 0	200	03	10	23	20	70	6/	55	0 !	77	60	3 0	7.5	200	×	2.00		03		73	×
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1	Voi	. II											F	f																}	100

A General State of the Weather for August.

		M.	Z	щi	
bermometer,	bermometer, Greatest altitude, Least do.	830	80	84° 80	82° 2-3ds Mean tempera-
Barometer	Mean do. Greatest do.	81	85	82 29.76	ture
	Least do.	29.57	29.56	29.61	Mean state of the atmo-
	Greatest variation, Mean density.	.18	.19	.688	686 density.
Hygrometer,	Greatest moisture,	50°		45°	· ,
	Ditto drought, Mean drought and moist,	3 r5.	ng pi	2d I 5m	~
	Clear, 5	days.			
	, 23				

bright and fine: frequently thunder, and on the 22d, an exceeding loud peal early in the morning. The quantity of rain that fell this month was very considerable, and every thing The air still very moist and very little sun-shine, although the nights in general were very Quantity do. 16-9 inches. imbibing the moisture to the highest degree.

The Barometer is almost invariably higher at night than in the morning, and lowest always at mid-day. The air being much loaded with moisture the whole of this month, the variation of the mercury was very insensible. The same causes kept the Thermometer nearly stationary Calcutta, August 1784.

			010	dirro	ditto	Clear.	Cloudy.	ditto.	ditto.	Clear,	ditto;	ditto.	Cloudy.	ditto.	ditto.	Clear.	Hazy.	Cloudy	dirto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	dirto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditta	Cloudy.							
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and	-	ż	C	0	Н	0	M	н	0	H	C	-	Pre	ы	0	hed	0	H	H	0	н	[m]	0	67	0	0	0	17	4	64	*	1	7	E
Wind and Force.		Point.	\ v			SE	凹	SE		S				SE			s	E S					21/2		S	SE	E)	SE			SW	SW	s	16.9 S&SW
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Barometer.		ż	2064	69.	.63	.64	.63	.70	.70	.72	.70	.73	.72	.72	.72	.73	.72	09:	.56	.56	69.	.75	.63	.64	19.	.59	-64	95.	.59	•64	.68	99.	69.	29.66 29.70
1		M.	30.64	09.	.7.	99.	-64	.70	.75	.74	.70	73	.72	.70	.72	.73	.74	.70	9.	.58	59.	-74	.72	.65	.67	-64	.64	99.	9.	•59	.64	99.	99.	29.62
Mean density of	cach quarter	of the Moon.	FM	SUNDAY.				-	L. C. ~	687							MM	689	600	_				F. Q.	689				-	1	F.M.	889		
Tor.	:	<u>1</u>	000	20	83	83 7	83	83	83	4%	83	83	83	0	83	81	81	82	000	S S	000	H 00 :	 	83	83	84	***	% 1.	د اق	83	80	3	83	82
hermometer	-	ż	'	98	98	88		-			-	_						84			000	4%	2,7	9	7	87	9	% 22	84	~ 2 ~	87	20	- 1	-
hern	1	ž	•	000	81	82		20			-	_				H 00		79	_	_	77	28	79	ر د د	27	82	23	81	000	80	% 100	No.	000	81 82
-	ske	a	-	1 19	~	4	. 67	00	7	00	6	10	11	12	13	14	10	91	17	00 H	61	C	12	77	23	24	25	56	27	00 e4	58	30	31	mean

A General State of the Weather for September.

•		M.	N.	ப் ,		
Termometer,	Thermometer, Greatest altitude,	840	006	058		
	Least do.	20.08	27.8	8 1 2 4 3 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	>825 mean temperature.	
Barometer,	Greatest do. in.	29.95	29.90	29.97	Mean state of the atmo-	
	Mean do.	29.81	29.80	29.83	sphere 29.81.	
	Greatest variation, Mean density,	.693	685	.692	.690 density.	
Hygremeter;	Greatest moisture,	000	009	009		
	Mean density and moisture,	4d 24m	Ad 24m lod 14m 5d 15m	sd Ism		
	Clear, 10	10 Days.				
		do.				
	Oughting do TI-	Tr. 2 inches.				

The wind generally S and SE, much lightning in the evenings, but not attended either with rain or thunder. The air still damp and cloudy, although the Barometer stood considerably higher than the preceding month.

It is worthy of observation, that upon the rains going off, the water falls in larger drops than at any other period of the season, and probably this may be occasioned from the height it has to fall: and in proof of this, the opposite stations of the Barometer need only be consulted, where it appears that the weight of the atmosphere was greatly increased about the last period of the rains.

												A.	rr	Ŀ	N.	DI	X	•													4
		Cloudy.	Clear.	Cloudy	Hazy.	ditto.	Cloudy.	Clear.	ditto.	difto.	ditto.	ditte.	Cloudy &c	Heavy	ditto,	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditte.	ditto.	Clear.	Cloudy.	Clear.	ditto.	ditto.
		н	С	0	-	0	н	ı	н	0	63	1-4	0) -	- 1	1	н	I	н	H	×	0	0	0	0	н	H	-	н	0
Wind and Force.	ż	п	ы	H	-	H	H	-	—	61	-	2	н	-	e 1=		н	н	1	7	0	I	C	н	H	H	н	61	61	H	-
ind at	Z.	0	0	0	н	-	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	-		-	н	н	0	H	-	н	×	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
*	Point.	s.	SE.	SW.				S	S	SW	SE	NE		2	12	SE						SE	E)	SE	S	SE	SE	vare	s	SE	
Rair	1			2.0				_					0.6	7		0.7	0.3	1.5	6.0	1.2	1.1	0.3	1.1	0.1				9.1			
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	ė								10	v	20	2 5	200		0 1	2 0											v	1 6	·	20	15
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ter.	_	1 12	7	-	00	00	14	22		7 0	1 .	100	0 0	2	520	0 00	0 00	10	77	- 68	89	89	00	88	84	48	24	- 48	1 2	200	87
Barometer.	ż	29.7	.00	00				-	_	_		. `			•						_	•									_
E B	Z.	20.72	.79	8.	8.	.74	. 1.	120	~ ×	1	1.0	. 4	0 0	0	.77	.72	000	.0.2	.79	8.		.02	20.	40.	20.	000	8	0	8	84	.89
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Mean density at each	quarter of the Moon.	WEDNESDAY						L.O.	169				,			V Mew IM.	16.						First C.	698.					Full M.	100	
	ri ri	82	84	32	20	83	200	200	500	200	40	500	500	40	23	200	2 ×	100	, % , %	78	70	38,	,00	80	80	000	000	1 0	00,7	84	83
Thermometer.	z	<u> </u>	80	-	200	200	000	000		000	600	3 6	200	10	200	40	2 0	8	2 0	77	80	80	80	83	200	+ 1	000	3 00	200	000	80
Fhern	Z.	1 00	-	000	000	000	×	7 0	100	10	700	7 0	40	40		2 1	12	12	7.7	26	78	78	70	700			-		202	_	20
Day		1		, ,	2 4	+ 4	2	9 8	10		5	2 :	-	12	13	41	24	1 0	-00	10	0	2.1	22	25	0 4	+ "	1 6	2 6	1 6	2 2	30

A General State of the Weather for October.

		M.	ż	.51
Thermometer,	Greatest altitude, Least do.	83	90	85 76 822 Mean temperate
Barometer,	in.	30.04 30.00 30.02 29.74 29.77 29.76	30.00	30.00 30.02 Mean state of the al
	Mean do. Greatest variation, Mean density,	0.30	686	
Mygrometer,	Greatest moisture, Ditto drought, Mean moist and drought	30 30 5d 7m	25 50 30d 1m	12

(mo-

The air very clear and clastic, and heavy dews at night. The Barometer very high, and the wind W and NW.

Cloudy, 12 do. Rain, 3 days. Quantity of do. 0-8 inches. About the middle of the month the mornings became a little foggy, which indicates the approach, or beginning, of the cold season: the atmosphere thin and dry, and cleared of its vapours; of course the mercury rose in the Barometer.

As the difference between the day and the night heat begins now to be greater than in any of the eight preceding months, the fogs we have at this season of the year are by that means formed. Calcutta, October 1784.

											n.	rr	E	N.	נעו	l X					•											
		Cloudy	ditto.	ditto.	ditto:	ditto.	Clear;	dirto.	Cloudy	Clear,	ditto,	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	Cloudy	ditto.	ditto.	dirto.	ditto.	ditto;	Clear,	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.
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Force	ż	"	~	H	2	3	н	1	H	H	н	н	7	н	-	H	-	-	н	ы	H	н	H	61	~	-	н	—	=	1-4	2	_
Wind and Force.	M. /	0	н	0	0	С	0	C	0	I	0	0	0	0	н	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ı	3	н	н	н	ı	0	0	0
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Barometer.	ż	20.02	000	200	.77	20	.78	77.	.77	53.	.87	96.	46.	20.	, ×	.02	.93	30.	22.97	86.	86.	96.	66.	£6. ·	68.	80,000	06.	68.	+6.	30.	29.95	30.
ñ	. M.	1 20.01	.94	000	.80	.78	94.	.74	.07	00	2000	20.03	20.08	66	.03	.02	16.	-94	16.	30.02	40.	29.68	30.	29.95	800	1 -92	.93	26.	94	66.	86.	30.
Mean density at	each quarter of the Moon.		FRIDAY.					<i>'</i> ∃``	269						New Moon	606	240					ş	2	202					Enil Moon	TOOL TIP	5~1	
Thermometer.	. N. E.	10	83	2 0	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	_		200		0 0	000	0	0 00	000	000	00	000	88 83	87	000	38		87	_	_	34 79	83	98	86 80		08 38	8 80
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A General State of the Weather for November.

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Thermometer,	Thermometer, Greatest altitude,	1	98	So	
	Least do.	712	70 803	75%	} 70 Mean teinp
Barometer,	Greatest do. in.	30 12	30.05	30.08	_
	Least do.	30.00	29.63	30.02	mosphere.
	Greatest variation,	00.52	00.52 00.17	20.16	762 density.
Hyprometer	Mean density, Greatest moisture,	40	260°		_
0	Ditto diought,	45.	45, 755, 50	50	
	Mean moist and drought,	Jon roc	12m 35a	107 1111	,

erature. ate of at

The NW winds prevailed this month; but nothing remarkable in the change of the atmosphere, although there were several appearances of rain in the course of it. The air more elastic than any of the former months, also more serene and dry. The foggy mornings still kelp off. Quantity of do. 0-9 inches.

2.3 days. 7 do. 1 do.

Cloudy,

after sun-rising; it being often near one-tenth of an inch higher about nine o'clock dann at six, or sun-rise. May not this be owing to the load of vapour condensed and kept near the surface of In clear dry weather there is always a very sensible change on the Baro neter two or three hours the earth from the coldness of the night, which, as it is gradually rarefied by the hort of the sun, must increase the weight and spring of the atmosphere, and produce this variation? For bence, the Barometer is always higher in the evening before these watery particles fall than in the morning when the air is replete. Calcutta, November 1784.

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A General State of the Weather for December 1784.

Thermometer, Greatest altitude, Barometer, Greatest altitude, Barometer, Greatest do. Barometer, Greatest do. Nean do. Greatest variation, Mean moist and drought, Edy Social Soc	Ε,		30.07 Mean state of the at- mosphere.	38 d. J.717 M. D.	
turude, o. o. o. o. o. aniation, sity, sty, Clear, st and drought, Cloudy, St do. Cloudy, Rain, I to do. Onantity of do.ocy in	z	79 68 74	30.02 30.02 30.09 00.15	.709 48 d.	/s• nch.
	M		100		Clear, 26 day Cloudy, 5 do. Rain, I do. Ouanrity of do. 0.05 ii

which always brings on cloudy thick weather. The whole month remarkably dry, and the at-The winds were constantly NW, except a few days, when it was inclined a little to the E, mosphere of such a density as greatly to exceed any of the former. At this season of the year there is generally a thick disagreeable fog in the mornings and evenings: however, this month, on the contrary, has been very clear and serene, and but seldom thick fogs at either of these

Calcutta, December 1784.

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A General State of the Weather for January 1785.

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"ber mometer,	Greatest altitude,	70	78	74	M. h.
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	Mean do.	. 19	72	66 2-3ds	
Sarometer,	Greatest do.	30.17	30,14	30.17	
	Least do.	29.98	29 97	30.03	Mean state of the atmo-
	Mean do.	30.08	30.07	30.00	sphere 20.08.
•	Greatest variation.	61.00	61.00	00.14	
	Mean density,	.732		.723	
Tyg rometer,	Moisture and drought.	30 d.	50 d.	40 d.	722 M. D.
	Clear, 29 days.				,

The atmosphere very dry and elastic.

The winds variable; but from the middle of the month were almost constantly from the SW and S, and often pretty strong.

sensible change took place, both with regard to the warmth and serenity of the weather. Frequent The mercury in the Barometer stood very high till about the end of the month, when a very heavy dews about the same time.

The mornings always very foggy.

The medium heat of the sun at mid-day (the instrument being exposed five minutes) was 90°.

Calcutta, January 1785.

			Clear.	ditto.	ditto.	itto.	ditto.	tto.	tto.	ditto.	itto.	tto.	tio.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	tto.	tto.	tro.	ditto.	tto.	itto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	dit.o.	Cloudy.	C'tto.
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A General State of the Weather for February 1785.

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	7c Mean tenmerature		30.02 Mean state of the atmosphere.	902-	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	969	30.15	29.96 30.04 0.19	.708 22 d.	
Z.	86	30.17	30.01	.698 28 d.	
M.	74	30.14	30.02	.713	17 days, 11 do. 4 ditto. 2-9 inches.
	Greatest altitude, Least do.	Mean do. Greatest do.	Mean do. Greatest variation,	Mean density, Moisture and drought,	Clear, Cloudy, Rain, Quantity do.
	T'bermometer,	Barometer,		Hygrometer,	

Thunder five times. Mean heat of the sun at mid-day, the Thermometer being exposed five minutes 56°.

The beginning of this month the air was very moist, which is generally the case when the wind comes from the S and SE.

On the contrary, the NW winds which prevailed, renders it very dry and elastic, and has always a very great effect in raising the mercury in the barometer. During the whole of this month the mornings were extremely thick and foggy: on the 1st, 8th, and 12th, moderate storms from the NW.

Calcutta, February 1784.

			Cloudy.	dirro.	Clear	The state	Cloudy.	Clear.	Cloudy.	Clear.	ditto.	Cloudy.	Clear,	ditto.	Cloudy,	ditto.	Clear.	ditto.	Cloudy.	Clear.	Cloudy.	ditto.	Clear.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	Cloudy.	Clear,	ditto.	ditto,
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A General State of the Weather for March 1785.

nometer;	Greatest altitude, Least ditto, Mem do Greatest do, Least do, Mean do, Greatest variation, Men do, Greatest variation,	80° 63 75. 29.85 29.85	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	E. 30 13 29.86 29.97	29.95	i .
6.7	d drought,	0.0	36 d.	.700 18 d.	869.	

Clear, 20 days.
Cloudy, 11 do.
Rain, 3 do.
Quantity do. 0-5, inches

Thunder five times. Mean heat of the sun 100°.

Several mornings about the beginning were very foggy and damp, and continued so; but in a There were two or three thunder-storms this month; but gentle, and attended with little rain. lesser degree nearly throughout the month. Heavy dews from the 15th.

The barometer continued low, which may proceed from the high winds that prevailed, as well as from the extreme rarefaction of the atmosphere at this season of the year. We had often the appearance of rain (as must always be the case) while the wind comes from the south quarter, and bringing with it so much vapour, Calcutta, March 1785.

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Vol. II.

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A General State of the Weather for April 1785.

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ż	16	29.92 29.68 29.68	.684 20 d	
M.	69	29.97	.695 20 m.	17 days.
	ltitude		Greatest variation, Mean density, Moisture and drought,	Clear,
	Greatest altitude.	Greatest do. Least do. Mean do.	Greatest variat Mean density, Moisture and d	

the variation that appeared on the mercury before and after the thunder-storms was very great, The quantity of rain that fell on the sixteenth and seventeenth was very considerable; and Cloudy, 13 do. Rain, 6 do. Quantity do. 8 inches. sometimes oo', 30 in the space of a few minutes.

Thunder six times. Mean heat of the sun 108° to 110°.

The temperature of the air throughout this month was less warm and sultry than it is genenumber. The air rather moist, and little or no variation in the winds, they being always directly rally found at this time of the year; as also, the storms that came from the NW were fewer in

Calcutta, April 1785.

												P	1 P	P	E	N	D	I	Κ.															4
			Clear.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	dirro.	Cloudy	· tong	Cicar.	Cloudy.	ditto.	dirto.	Sier C	ditto.	0110	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	Clear.	Cloudy.	Clear.	Cloudy.	Clear.	Cloudy.	Clear.	ditto	Cloudy.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.
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	-	ಷ																				•94										.7.		
Barometer.	7	ż																						.79	000	-84	- 00	.75	.76	.77	.68	.75	.70	.00
-	1	IM:	6 20.00	8.	82	83	0	0.03	10.	98*	∞° ∞°	.82	200	200	000	ر .02	.82	.87	06.	26.	98.	.82	٠.92	8.	× ×	8	000	× 8°	77	.76	.72	.70	94.	.82
Mean density at	each quarter	or the Moon.		•	2/1	269.						N W	IN. IM.	460.						- E) ₈ 09.	262						F. M.	.694					
eter.	1	н <u>і</u>	800	80	82	82	0	200	500	0.2	81	84	84	0	500	50	84	82	00	74	75	80	8,	81	80	80	83	000	00	00	82	200	200	
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·s/	(BC	I	H	63	•	0.4		24	>	-	∞	0	CI		1 1	12	13	14	15	16	37	- SE	10	10	2 I	22	64	4	ei ei	190	27	00	0	200

A General State of the Weather for May 1785.

Thunder fourteen times. Mean heat of the sun 110° to 111°.

The air this month has been drier than that of the preceding; but the winds being more from the SE quarter, is the reason of the mercury being so low: much close and sultry weather about the middle. The variation on the Barometer much greater than usual. Calcutta, May 1785.

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A General State of the Weather for June 1785.

		M.	રં	भ	_
Thermoneter,	Thermoneter, Greatest altitude, Leaft do.	48 79	90	85	82.2
Barometer,	Greatest do.		29.68	-82	, ,
	Mean do.	29.44	29.40	29.47	\$ 29.58
Hygrometer,	Mean density, Mean moisture,	.687 com	9 0	.585 40 m	189.
	Clear,	4. days.			
	Rain, Thunder,	24 times.			
	Caulifity: 14111,	z4-4 inches.			

Mean licat of the Sun 106°.

The quantity of rain this month has been uncommonly great: and scarce a day has passed without some falling; the weather of course disagreeable and unhealthy.

The mercury in the Barometer very low, which seldom fails to be the case while the winds come from the SE and E quarters.

APPENDIX.

Calcutta, June 1785.

															E N																	•	4
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Winds.		Z.		prof		þe	H	ы	H	H											H	7				Н	H	_		-		_	
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	Rain.		0.2			0.7		0.1	1.0	0.5	2.7	1.5	1.0			0.2	2.9	1.7	1.4	2.9	1.3	0.2	0.3	z	5.9	I *0	Z	1 °0	1°0	9.0		8.0	
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2	. Ivi	۵.																															
		mi mi	26.65	.68	.70	.72	.64	19:	69.	89.	.70	89.	.70	.70	.58	.50	.47	.57	.65	99.	9,	.62	09.	.57	.59	.58	.57	•55	.54	.50	84.	.49	1 4 20
Barometer.	-	ż	29.54	19.	.67	99.	.62	.55	.61	-60	.65	49.	49.	89.	89.	.46	•	4.	SS	.02	.50	.54	.54	.55	•55	.52	.52	.52	84.	.45	44.	.45	1 72 0
Barc		M.	19.62	.63	89.	.70	.70	,29	•59	.64	89.	.57	.67	.70	.62	.50	44.	.48	-54	0.0	.58	.57	.57	.57	55	.50	•53	.52	.47	35.	.48	.46	- 9 - 4 1 7 - 5 - 1 - 5 - 5
Mean density at each quarter of	the Moon.		-						N.M.	.687							~ C F	100	1000	ر				F.M.	.687		,			~ i'o'	199.	٠	
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	(sc		H	11	3	4	5	Q	2	0,0	6.	OF	II	12	£ 3	14	15	10	17	×	61	0	21	22	23	44	3	56	27	00 61	29	30	ATS MADOW

A General State of the Weather for July 1785.

		M.	ż	ध्यं		
Thermometer,	Thermometer, Greatest altitude, Least do.	840	89	80	823	
Barometer,	Mean do. Greatest do. Least do.	29.73	29.67	29.73	\$ 29.59	
Hygrometer.	Mean do. Greatest variation, Mean density, Mean moisture.	29.59 29.59 .686	29.56 .22 .681		.684	
	Clear, 4 days. Cloudy, 27 do.	,	3			
		hes.				

Mean heat of exposed air 100°.

The weather this, as the preceding month, very relaxing and disagreeable, although the quantity of rain only about one half. The low state of the mercury is undoubtedly affected by the easterly winds, as is no less the animal spirits.

Calcuttu, July 1785.

Ther	Thermometer	101	Mean density of	g _	Barometer.	r.	-		1ygro	Hygrometer.				Wine	Wind and Force.	Force	.•	
	1		each quarter				N.	_ •	-	ż		2		_			:	_
M.	ż	ъ.	of the Moon.	M.	z	当	-j	Ė	d.	m.	d.	III	Kain.	Points.	N.	ž.	2	
İź	36	2.0		20.47	29.46	1	,	40		20		40	1.0	SE	0	0	0	Cloudy
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50	500	1 0		950	. 5.4		Ī	9		40		0	2.6	S	С	н	0	ditto.
000	400	100		000	. 4.2.			09		. O.		9	0.3	S	0	С	0	d'tto.
200	000	100	N. M.	54	77.	_		09		9		9	2.6	SE	0	0	~	ditto.
100	000	× ×	684.	44.	.47			09		09		09	0.1	SW	0	7	e1	ditto.
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0 0	200	200		000	.59			9		09		09	•	S	Н	н	H	ditto.
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000	200	- C		89.	99.			09		30		40	×		0	0	H	ditto.
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~ ×	500	2 2		5.5	7.			20,20		40		50	0,1	SE	-	-	3	ditto.
100	50	0,0	020	.62	5,			02		20		30		SW	7	7	2	ditto.
800	0 ×	500		.67	9.			20,		30		40	0 3	s	61	-	2	ditto.
200	ς α	500		.62	.57			20,		20		30	0.2	S	н	н	4	Clear
2 0	200	- ×		.52	.49			20		30		40	5.0	SW	-	4	3	Cloudy
3 00	2 2	5 %		47	50			05		20		40	9.0	SE	ĭ	0	С	ditto.
000	+ 6	, ×			45.			20		30		40	9.0	SW	0	0	-	ditto.
2000	200	2 000		.57	.55	.63		50		30		40		s	0	-	H	dirto.
	÷ 20	2.0	< F. M. <	9.	.62			50		40		40	0.1	SE	0	0	0	.l.tto.
0	200	2 20	678	99.	.64			59		40		30	0.1		-	-	0	ditto.
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000	200	+ 5		20	.62			IO		0.1		20		S	0	0	٥	Cloudy
+0		- ×		.67	.60			30		0		0	0.3	SE	0	61	H	ditto.
100	200	100	> Last Quarter <	.64	00			40		0		50			0	-	0	Clear
40	× 2	2	732.	09.	35.			40		20		20	0,1		0	_	0	Cloud
000	98	84		٠٤٠	.46			40		IO		20	0.1		-	0	-	ditto.
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A. General State of the Weather for August 1785.

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Thermometer,	Thermometer, Greatest altitude,	22	68	.98-	
	Least do.	7.0	80	. 80	82 2-2ds.
	Mean do.	100	845	824	
Barometer,	Greatest do	29.78	29.72	29	
	Least do.	20.50	29.49	29.57	9,00
	Mean do.	29.62	29.59	29.64	20.62
	Greatest variation,	28	. 22	.21	,
	Mean density,	.687	682	.686	109:
Hygrometer,	Moisture,	ui os .	30 in	40 m	5000
	Clear, 2 days				
	Cloudy, 28 do.				
	Thunder, 16 times				
	Outprity of do nes inch	5			

The heat of the sun at mid-day 100°.

Much cloudy weather, but seldom any very heavy falls of rain, and the quantity altogether but moderate. The river very full; and accounts of heavy rains up the country.

The Barometer remarkably low the whole month: a proof of there being still much water in the clouds.

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			Cloudy.	Cloudy.	of the	6, 10.	difto.	ditto.	24.1	01110	diffo.	dirto.	ditto.	Class	Clear	Cloudy.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto	1,000	ditto.	ditto.	d:110.	Clear	Cloudy	diffo.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto	direc	die.	d. ro.	Lioudy.
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Wind and Force.	12	2	н.		- 1	-	-	-	, ,	-	H	0	-		0	H	0	Н	-		-	-	-	-	-	pesq	H	H	Н	H	0	0	c	-	, ,	o 	_	14
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	۶	<u>i</u>	29.58	60.	.63	99.	19	7	000	\$9.	74	26	2/-	.70	.62	.64	19		10.	.57	.57	.62	.64	.63	99.	.67	-64	99.	.70	.72	.7	î	- 1			.7	9.	1006
Barometer.	-	ż	29.50										+/-								_			200	_				.62	_	_		2	_	_	_		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
Bar	-	Ä	22.53	95.	05.	200	7	.59	95.	000	200	50.	-74	.74	99	29	00.	°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°°	.50	.53	25.	0	62	09	~	200	1 62	19	2	000			.73	24.	.74	.70	.67	-
Moan dencity of	Arcan uchanty or	of the Moon.					N. M.	685	,								. F.	.989							F. M.	L 687						,	<i>!!!</i>	069				
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Thermometer	THOUSE.	zi —	1 %	8	300	40	22	83	0	500	24	82	000	_					_				_	-		_	× ×			× ×	85	84	84	00	ox	000	400	103
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	·s.	Da	1	4 0	4	n	4	V	04	0	-	00	-	n !	0	1	12	13	7 2		2	ì	17	I	61	12	7	12	4	13	4	ci	61		4 4	N	3	3

General State of the Weather for September 1785.

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	82 2-3ds.		.686		
_	~~	ئے۔			
ធាំ	2000	29.87	29.75 25 m 25 m	- 	
z	8890	29.82	29.00 .23 20 m .682		
M.	840	29.83	45 m -21		o. shes.
1				8 days, 22 do. 13 times.	16 ditto.
	Greatest altitude, Least do.	Greatest do. Least do.	Greatest variation, Moisture Density,	Clear, Cloudy, Thunder,	Rain, Quantify do.
		\$ 6 A S	AZO		
	Thermometers	Barometer,	Hygremeter,		

Mean heat of the sun at mid-day 110°.

The Barometer higher than the former month: about the middle and end, great quantities of By account from Berhampore, the quantity of rain there must have been very considerable, and many parts above, the whole country being under water, and the river swelling prodigiously. This month very unhealthy and many people dying.

Calcutta, September 1785.

- 1			_	recan action of	20	Dalonker		2			2	2			WIE	Wind and Force.	r orc	•	
Se(5	17	 	each quarter	24	7	į.	id.				1	1	Rain.	Doint	1 1/4	2	4	
				or the Moon.	IM.	N	i	q.	ë	Ġ.	Ë	ġ.	Ë		Louis	· AT·		i	
н	200		82		29.65	29.64	29.74		40		20		20		NE	14	41	4	Cloud
-	80		3.	1	02.	.60	.77		30		20		20	0.2		-	Н	H	ditto.
0	0			N. W.	-	7.7	×		. 03		20		000	3		-	-	-	Clear
_	2	_	53	692	5/.	+	200		1		1	Ī	2		1		1		
	10	-	35	,	77	73	00:		40		IO		50	,	Į,	0	×	0	ditto.
	82		2 > 8		.78	26	*84		30	IO		10				0	н	0	ditto.
	83		200	7	-80	74	000		30	03		0	0			0	-	0	ditto.
	84	<u></u>	× × × ×		94.	.73	.77		30	20		Io		,		н	0	0	ditto.
20	82		200			.73	80		30	CI		IO				н	H	၁	ditto.
.0	84		85	*	08.	24.	\$8.		20	OI		C	0			0	H	0	Cloudy
-	83		83		.83	.82	.87		20		OI	0	0			0	н	0	ditto.
H	8		82.) L	×	.77	8.		40		20		30	0.5	(m)	С	H	0	dirto.
_	200		83	889	76.	.68	.73		40		20		20	0,3		н	0	-	ditto.
	82		22		68	.63	.70		40		20		20	0.0		0	0	-	ditto.
14	82		. 28	, `	99°	.62	69.		40		20	-	20		NE	0	H	0	Clear.
5	81.		84. 8		19.64	09.	.68		40		30		20		,	0	н	0	Cloudy
16	81		83.		99.	.64	.72		40		30	-	20	4.0	田	4	-	C	Clear
17	81		81	i.	10 3	99.	.73		50		40		20	0.8	NE.	7	-	H	Cloud
_	80	20	82	F. M.	89.	-64	.70		5		01/		40	0.3		7	-	41	ditto.
19	18		81	000	.62	.59	99°		20		0		20	0.3	SE	7	-	H	ditto.
	30	_	80 %		.62	99.	.70		50	′	40		50	T.4		н	.0	н	ditto.
	80		% I 8		89.	•72	.78		50		40	•	50	0.5		Г	4	¢1	ditto.
22	80	/	81	.;	.78	77	080		50		.30		0	1.0		67	4	7	ditto.
	81		85 7		٠٠ . 78	.73	.74		0+		40		20		M	H	H	С	ditto.
77	84		× ×	LO.	.72	99.	.70		20		01		10			0	0	0	Clear.
	00		82	989	99.	.62	.70		20		0		IO			0	0	0	Cloud
,	× 1		80		99.	+9-	.72		20		20	,	IO	I.3	SE	-	7	64	ditto.
27	80		81		99.	.63	89.		30		.20		20	1.7		н	н	61	ditto.
28	80		80		79.	9.	.67		50		50	-	30	9.0	,	H	41	61	ditto.
29	80		81		99.	99.	.72		50		50		50	3.5		7	4	80	ditto.
30	8		83 7		-0/-	.73	.78		50	_	50	_	20	0 2		0	4	⊢	ditto.

A General State of the Weather for October 1785.

	· 1	M.	z	मं	
ТЪегтотетег,	Greatest altitude, Least do.	84,	8 8 8 9	29.	.83
Barometer,	Greatest do. Least do.	29.98	29.96	29.90	29.91
grometer,	Greatest variation, Mean density,	5 d.	24 d.	7 d.	ر بر ، وه.
	Clear, Cloudy, Thunder, ai n,	2.1 days. To do. 4 times. 7-do. 1-4 inch.			,

The mean heat of the sun at mid-day 110°.

The wind began to set in from the NW about the 12th and 13th.

Calcutta, October 1785.

	I hermometer.	Mean density of		Barometer.	er.	1		1175	1 Stolleton				W	nd an	Wind and Force.	e.	
		- each quarter					IM.		ż	1		Kain.	Daine	3.0	12	(2	
Z	ம்	of the Moon.	M.	z.	म्	ģ.	ij.	9	Ė	ا ق	Ë		r oint.	, Y.	:	i	
	84		1 20.84	2985	29.85		30	20		10			NE	0	0	0	Clear.
	000		000	.82	000		10	40	9.	30		,		0	0	0	ditto.
	× ×		.00	18.	.86	10		30		01				0	0	0	ditto.
	200	N N	.80	∞,	06.	IO		40		OI				0	0	H	ditto.
	_	111111	88	98.	.03		0	-		0				0	0	0	ditto.
		160	0	88	.92		10			.0				0	0	0	ditto.
	_		000	.82	00		0			Ö				,0	0	-	ditto.
	200		000	.82	00.		0	IO		0	IO	1.0	,	4	I	н	Touch
	-		00	8	10.		OI	0			OI	90		I	ы	4	ditto,
	81	- ^	10:		96:		OI	30						н	H	Н	ditto.
		F.O.	90.	06.	*6*		io	20	, '	01		1.0		0	м	0	Clear
	200	وود. ﴿	70.	06.	90.		0	30		10			MN	0	н	н	litto.
	87 85	,	,	.06.	96.		0	5		20		_		0	н	0	ditto.
			20.	000	.93	OI		40		IO				0	н	jest	ditto.
	8 84		. 6.	16.	500		0	40		20				0,	ı,	0	ditto.
	35		.00	.93	96.		С	IO		С				0	н	м	ditto.
		-	76.	.92	.93		IO	5		OI.	•		,	н	·	0	ditto.
	30	F.M.	.93	68.	.93		0	30		20				н	H	0	ditto.
		., 693.	.92	96,	· 94		0	30		20				0	н	prof.	ditto.
	5 83	-	06.	8.	96.	IO	,	50		30				1 /	1	100	ditto.
	86 83		06.	00 00	16.	20		50		30	•			0	н	0	ditto.
			.92	\$8.	68.	10	_	50		20				0	-	н	ditto.
		_	.16.	.87	.93	OI	_	50		30		,	,	0	ч	0	ditto.
		-	- 6.	06.	.95	70		40		100				н	0	0	ditto.
	5 84	?)°;	¥6.	06.	.94		0	.30		20	01			0	=	0	ditto.
	3 79	.090	06.	∞; ∞	06.		0	-			20	020	SW	0	61	61	Clouds
	30		90.	.82	00		30		IO		20	R	NE	0	7	H	ditto.
	2 79		.87	*84	88		30	_	0		Io		1	0	61	н	ditto.
	82 79		80.	.82	.92		30		10		10			0	61	63	ditto.
			06.	-86	.92		30		IO		01	0.3	MN	0	н	0	ditto.
	_		.02	00.	30.		30		_		OI	1.0	NE	0	C	0	ditto.

A General State of the Weather for November 1785.

		M.	z	<u>ਜ</u>	
Ther mometer,	Greatest altitude,	80	85.	82	
	Least do.	. 19	74	71.	-, 75-
	Mean do.	. 73	787	.75	
Barometer,	Greatest do.	30.10	30.08		
	Least do,	29.90	29.82		29.98.
	Mean ditto.	29.99	29.98	30.80	
	Greatest variation,	.20	.26	32	
Hyprometer,		15d.	25 d	- 20d	.705.
3	Mean density.	:700	٠.,	.706	

Clear, 26 days.
Cloudy, 4 do.
Rain, 4 times.
Quantity of do. 0-5 inches.

Mean heat of the sun at mid-day 100.

1												A	P	PΙ	N	D	13	6														4
	1		C.ear.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto:	d:tto.	ditto,	"Cloudy	dritto.	Cl.ar.	di to.	ditro.	phitto.	ditto.	d.*to.	.03. 33	1110.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	Cloudy	Clear.	ditto	ditto	ditto.	ditto.	ditto.	d'tto.	ditto.	Iditto.
ູ້ ນ	-	<u> </u>	°	c	0	61	Se q	-	Н	3	0	0	0	С	_	· —	0	٥	0	0	H	-	-	0	ind	-	-	-	-	(resp	H	c
Forc		ż	-21	2	7	H	L3	4	j⊷q	et	-	-	1-4		H-1	l-d	ы	Н	_	>-1	0	<u></u>	61	7 .	_	-	H	Н	H	pres.	61	1
d and	1	. IV.	0	U	0	pq .	~7	C	0	(mm)	ĭ	0	2	0	0	O	0	C	0	0	7	н	H	4	Ç	Н	7	I .	H	H	0	С
Wind and Force.	Doing	roint.	MN	٠ ا د د	II Z						Z																	,				
u	is	1			×		ĸ		0 4	. '													0. I									
1.	اند	n.	10	IO		10	20	10		30	30															, '	,		_	_		
	-	-j			_							01	20	50	30	20	30	30	40	30	S.	30	IO.	IO.	0	30	40	40	40	40	40	40.
leter.		ë.					_		30	, c.	01	_											_					_	_		,	-
r vgrometer.	Z.	-	C	I C	C.	-		-				0	0	0	9	0	0	20 .	0.0	.0	C	9	0	0	0	9	0	C	C	20	c	- 0
- 2	-	m.				0	0	30	0	0	0	_	-		7	4	-			7		4	-	-	.4	4	_	-	-	0,1	4)	-
	. 1.	d.	61	2	63	~1	-7	~	-	- 60	_				S	0	30	0	c	0	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	0	40	40	_
1	1	0	9	0	9	7	7	0	7	~	7	~	0	7	61					_		_				_		-		-		V 0
	1	ਹੈ	29.96	30.0	29.96	6.	x.	08.	76.	6.	.97	0,0	1.	40.	.12.	60.	29.98	6	30.00	Ç	o.	Ι.	. 1	†o.	29.97	+6.	6.	86.	30.0	50.	.02	
Barometer.	;	7.	29.90	.93	76.	.87	25.	20.	06.	-06.	.92	40.	30.00	₽ 0*	\$0°	.03	2996	.93	96.	30.02	.03	to.	40.	002	29.94	.93	06.	.92	30.02	00.	29.97	C
-4			29.93	.95	.93	+6.	00.	88.	.93.	.93	06.	+6.	304	OI.	٠ 8	80.	00.	- 29.90	96.	30.02	90.	010	10.	50.	10.	29.98	,93	+6.	3002	50.	50.	£0.
Mean morning	density at each	Marter.		. ~	7)	260.				~ C #	190	200					F. M.	710	,				,	i i	712						
etc	1	4	20:	7 ×	000	7.9	33	6/	000	75	+1	11	77	126	75	7.5	7.5	75	20	76	7.4	75	73	74	7.5	7+	74	72	72	71	71	. 43
Thermometer	2	4	35	50	× 00	×	Z.	82	200	11	70	.79	80	~ ~	79	77	17	77	. 79	39	28	11	77	79	77	77	77	77	7.5	74	74	t
Then	. it	-	3	co	ç ک	79	77	73	78	17	73	73	73	75	74.	72	72	75	73	74	73	71	71	69	71	73	71	71	20	89	62	49
	(sec	i	н	И	3	4	5	9	7	00	6	Io	17	12	13	14	15	16	17	00 H	19	10	2 I	22	23	24	2.7	56	27	200	29	30

Vol. II.

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A General State of the Weather for December 1785.

		W.	z	मं	-	
Therinometers	Greatest altitude, Least do.	70	76	73	ـــــ	ę,
Barometers	Mean do. Greatest do.	30.09	73½ 30.06	30.10	٦ ٦	
	Least do. Mean, do.	30.02	29.98	30.03		30.01~
Hygrometers	Greatest variation, Mean density.	30 d	50 d 50 d	b 04	, ~	914.
	Clear, 31 days.					

The weather throughout the month remarkably clear and pleasant, and much milder than it is usually at this season of the year.

Mean heat of the sun at mid-day about 96°.

													A:	PP	E	NI	DI	X													4	16
		Clear	dies	diese.	4110	diffo.	ditto.	ditto.	11.00	direc.	die io	ditto.	diese.	ditto.	dieto.	ditto.	dieso.	direc.	dir.	direct.	direct.	dirto.	dirto	difto	dirto	11.60	direc	dire.	ditto.	ditto.	chito.	ditto.
		10	C	0	C) -) (- د	. ,		-			-	0	, h	-	0	0	-	-		-		4 (o +	~ C
orce.	ż	1 -	-	. 7		, -					-	-		٠ د	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	н	H	-	-	-				4 6	na (~
and F	M.	-	0	0	C	> >-	. 0	-		· c	0	-		0	0	-		0	0	н	-	0	C	0	c	0	-) -		> 0	0 0
Wind and Force.	Points.	WW	_			-			_																							
•	Rain.	MZ																														
13	Ė	1																														
-	d.	40	40	40	40	40	45			32	40	40	40	40	45	45	40	40	40	30	54	45	30	30	35	40	40	5	20	45	04	. 07
Z	Ė		_						Ī																							
N. N.	-j	50	50	50	50	50	45	45	45	5	45	50	55	55	55	09	55	35	35	40	40	20	04	-040	45	45	50	55	55	55	50	50
-	ii.						_								_	_		_			_		-		_	_				_		_
M.	d.	30	30	30	30	30	2.5	2.5	30	30	35	30	30	30	30	30	30	25	3.5	2 5	50	30	35	35	35	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	E.	29.99	30.00	.02	•03	000	29 99	66.	30.04	50°	40.	or.	80.	.03	600	60.	50.	1.0.	.02	IO.	50°	0.0	03	¿0°	90°	20°	00	00.	10	to.	.07	60.
Barometer.	z	29.97	.95	86.	86.	96.	•95	96.	66.	66.	16.	400	66.	30.05	to.	.03	.02	0 2	0 0	00	29-97	86.	86.	.97	16:	06.	96.	.95	.97	26.	30.04	90.
183	M.	3000	29.99	30.03	40.	10.	29.98	66.	66.	30.06	0.05	50.	80.	60*	90°	10.	80°	,04	.03	00.	29.97	30.05	00.	50.	. 03	to.	000	29.99	86.	66.	30.06	0.7
each quarter	of the Moon.	NI NI	Y INT.	714.	-				. •	- C. C.	720					F. M.	728							range Charles	732.		-			_(N.M.	, 728.
octer.	Ξ.	78 7	72	72 3	72	71	71	11	69	69	69	70	70	70	× 5	99	67]	67	67	89	69	69	60	60	200	67	67	89	63	67	68	67 5
t hermometer.	z	26	75	75	75	75	75	74	7.	74	74	75	75	7	74	71	71	72	73	73	73	73	7.4	73	74	£-	73	72	73	73	73	24
- ne	Z.	89	70	70	69	68	29	29	62	67	67	67	89	99	19.	63	63	63	99	64	63	65	65	00	67	65	64	63	64	64	64	62
she(ıl	-	44		4	v,	0	7	×	6	CI	II	12	13		15	16	17	81	19	0	21	61	13	74	25	26	27	88	29	30	2.5

From the foregoing Diary of the Weather, it may be remarked in regard to the variation of the Barometer, that during the cold season, from November to March, themercury is at its greatest height; and at the lowest during the rainy months of May, June, July, August, and September. The variation of the Thermometer, or the difference between the temperature of mid-day and that of the morning and evening is very trifling, seldom exceeding 3 or 4° during the rains, whereas, during the cold season, the difference is 8 or 10°.

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ABSTRACT of a METEOROLOGICAL REGISTER, kept at Calcutta, 1784.

-		тн	ERM	101	1 E T	ER			ween y heat.		BAROMETER.											Mean state atmo- sphere.			Moisture.			appearance atmosphere			Wind	
MONTH	Lowest.	Mean.	Lowest.	Highest.	Mean.	Lowest.	Highest.	Mean.	Officience beta morn, & mid-day	Lowest.	Highest.	Mean.	Variation.	Lowest.	Highest.	Mean.	Variation.	Lowest.	Highest.	ean.	Variation.	Temperature.	Weight.	Density.	Moisture.	Rainy days.	nant. re	Number clear days.	Cloudy do.	Thunder No. 1	Point.	Force.
April, May, June, July, August, September, October,	75 85 87 77 84 83 76 84 77 83 66 78 89 99 95 7	72 75 83 81 81 81 80 79 71 63 61	75 87 82 80 77 77 76 68 69	86 89 97 93 90 90 89 90 86 78	79 84 91 89 85 85 85 85 85 87 74	68 71 79 74 78 80 78 76 77 65	-6 85 87 88 86 85 84 85 80 73 74	7 3 7 9 8 5 8 4 8 3 8 2 8 1 ½ 2 7 5 6 8 6 6 ½ 7 8 4 4 2	7 9 8 8 4 4 4 5 7	29.57 -72 -74 .60 30.02 29.98	29.75 -95; 30.04 -12, -17 -17	29.67 .81 .92 30.00 .09	.25 .30 .52 .15	.£3 30 00 29.97	.90 30.00 .05	.80 .91 .99 30.07	.22 .23 .17 .14	30.02 .03	•17	30.02	.15 .22 .26 .16	82\frac{1}{3} 82\frac{2}{3} 76 68\frac{2}{3} 66\frac{2}{3}	29.67 .81 .91 30.00	690 692 702 718 722	25 25 24 2	20 23 12 3 I	4.2 1.8 3.1 9.6 17.4 15. 16.9 11.3 .8 .9	3 16 14 7 1 5 10 19 23 26 29	26 15 16 24 29 30 26 20 12 7 5 2	15	S S S S E 3& S E 3& S E S & S E N W N W N W N W S W	I

ABSTRACT of a METEOROLOGICAL REGISTER, kept at Calcutta, 1785.

H Motning. Noon. Evening. 2	H	THERMOMETER.											BAROMETER.										Mean state atmo			Moisture.			appearance atmosphere.			Win	ds.	
Tabularly, $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	ONT	در	1	ean.	Lowest.	1.		Lowest,	1		& mid-	1 2)	nest.	1	Utmost Variation.	Lowest.			12	Lowest,	lighest.	can.	Variation.	G L	Weight.	Density.	istu ŗe.	days.	rain	ber cle lays.		under	Point.	Force,
	February, March, April, May, June, July, August, August, Aeptember, Jetober, November,	68 69 79 79 79 79 79	74 80 83 87 84 84 84 84 84	71 75 79 83 81 81 81 81	75 80 75 87 80 80 80	86 90 91 94 90 89 89	85	74 80 79 80 80 80	85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 85 8	74 76 82 83 82 82 82 83 75	C1/2	.89 .85 .70 .60 .44 .44 .50 .62 .83	.14 .12 29.97 .96 .70 .73 .78 .83 .98 30.10	.02 29.95 .83 .77 .59 .59 .62 .71	.25 .27 .27 .36 .26 .29 .28 .21	.89 .84 .63 .53 .40 .45 .49 .59 .81	.17 .10 29.92 .92 .68 .67 .72 .82 .96 30.08	.01 29.92 .81 .74 .56 .56 .59 .68 .87	.26 .24 .39 .28 .22 .23 .27	29.65 .66 •74 .63 •47 -27 •57 .86 .85	.15 .13 29.9 30.03 29.72 .73 .78 .27 .98 30.12	.04 29.97 .80 .52 .61 .62 .64 .75 .96 30.00	.19 .27 .23 .30 .20 .26 .26 .21 .13	75 79 82½ 86 83 83 83 83 83	.c2 29.95 .83 .77 .58 .59 .62 .71 .91	706 698 692 684 684 685 686		3 6 10 24 24 20	0.5 8.0 6.0 24.4 12.8 9.2 11.7	17 20 17 18 4 4 3 8 21 26	11 13 13 26 27 28	4 56 14 16 15 16	S W S S S E S E S E S E S E	2 1 3 3 2 1 1 1 1 2

A Synopsis of the different Cases that may happen in deducing the Longitude of one Place from another, by Means of Arnold's Chronometers, and of finding the Rates when the Difference of Longitude is given.

BY MR. REUBEN BURROW.

IT was formerly the custom to give rules for calculation, without any investigation of their principles; but the contrary method has so much taken place of late, that those who are not acquainted with the theory of a subject are seldom in a capacity of calculating at all; and those who are acquainted with it, must either lose time by recurring thereto continually, or run the hazard of often making mistakes. Indeed, the use of practical rules is so obvious, that Newton has often given them when he has omitted their demonstrations; and the want of them has been noted by Bacon among the deficiencies of learning. The Hindoos were so particularly attentive in that respect, that they usually gave two rules for the same operation; one couched in the shortest terms possible, and often in verse, for the ease of the memory; and the other more at length, as an explanation. It therefore is much to be wished that authors would revert to the ancient custom so far, as to pay some attention to the reduction of their knowledge to practice; that people may not be under the necessity of investigating rules at the time they want to use them.

The following is one rule, out of a great number, that I drew up for my own use, in determining the

situations of places in India; and I insert it on account of its utility and easiness of application.

Let E=Error of the Watch from mean time at the first place;

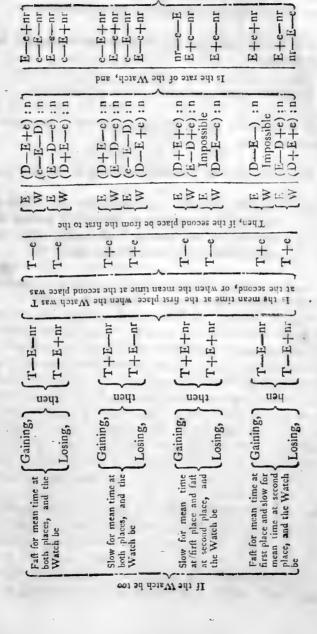
e=Error from mean time at the second place;

T=Time by the Watch at the second place, when the error was e;

D=Difference of Longitude between the places;

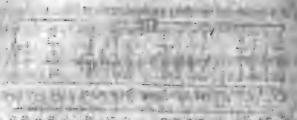
N=Interval of mean time between the observations at the two places (found by taking the interval by the Watch, and correcting it according to the estimated rate, &c.)

r=Rate of the Watch, or what it gains or loses in a day of mean time. Then,



APPENDIX.

Is the difference of Longitude.



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CONCERNING AN OLD BUILDING

In the Hadjipore District, near the Gunduc River, &c.

BY MR. REUBEN BURROW.

THE pyramids of Egypt, as well as those lately discovered in Ireland (and probably too the Tower of Babel) seem to have been intended for nothing more than images of Mahadeo.

Two of the Sakkara pyramids described by Norden, are, like many of the small ones, usually built of mud in the villages of Bengal. One of the pyramids of Dashour, drawn by Pocock, is nearly similar to that I am going to mention, except in the acuteness of the angle. Most of the Pagodas of the Carnatic are either complete or truncated pyramids; and an old stone-building without any cavity, which I saw in Yambeah, near the Catabeda river, on the Arracan coast, differed so little from a pyramid, that I did not suspect it was meant for the image of Seeva, till I was told it by the natives.

The largest building of the kind which I have yet seen in *India*, is about two days journey up the *Gunduc* river, near a place called *Kessereah*: it goes by the name of *Bheem Sain's Dewry*; but seems evidently intended for the well-known image of *Mahadeo*; having originally been a cylinder placed upon the frus-

tum of a cone, for the purpose of being seen at a distance. It is at present very much decayed; and it is not easy to tell whether the upper part of the cylinder has been globular or conical; a considerable quantity of the outside is fallen down, but it still may be seen a good distance up and down the river.

The day I went from the river to view it was so uncommonly hot, that the walk and a fever together obliged me to trust to the measurements of a servant. For want of a better instrument, he took the circumference of the cylindrical part, in length of a spear, and from that as a scale, and a sketch of the building taken at-a distance, I deduced the following dimensions. What dependence there may be on his measures, I cannot determine; but probably they are not very erroneous.

Diameter of the cylindrical part,	64 feet
Height of the cylinder,	65
Height of the conic frustum on which the	
cylinder is placed,	93
Diameter of the cone at the base, - 3	63

Both the cone and the cylinder were of bricks; those of the last were of different sizes, many of them two spans long and one broad; others were of the common size, but thinner; and they were well burnt, though bedded in mortar little better than mud. There did not appear any signs of the cylinder's being hollow: the conical part was overgrown with jungle; but I broke through it in several places, and found it everywhere brick.

I do not recollect whether it be visible from the site of the ancient city where the famous pillar of Singeah stands, or not; but have a faint idea that it

is. What the intention of these extraordinary columns may have been originally, is perhaps not so easy to tell: at first sight it would seem that they were for holding inscriptions, because those of Bettiah, Dehli, and Illahabad, have inscriptions (though in a character that has not been yet decyphered); but the pillar of Singeah seems to have none whatever, for some Branins told me they attended at the time it was dug to the foundation, near twenty feet under ground, by a gentleman of Patna, who had hopes to have found some treasures; and that there were not the least vestige of any inscription upon it. Probably those pillars, Cleopatra's Needle, and the Devil's Bolts, at Boroughbridge, may all have the same religious origin.

Perhaps the connection of time and place may apologize for the diversity of the subject, in mentioning, that while I sat under the shade of a large tree near the pyramid, on account of the sultry hear, some of the people of the adjacent village came and played there with cowries on a diagram, that was formed by placing five points in a circular order, and joining every pair of alternate points by a line, which formed a kind of pentagon; this brought to my recollection a circumstance told me by a gentleman in England,— That an old piece of silver plate had been dug out of the earth with such a figure upon it; the use of it was totally unknown, as well as the age; and I was desired to find what geometrical properties the figure possessed. One, I remember, was, that if any number of points whatever were placed in a circular order, and each two alternate points joined, then the sum of all the salient angles of the figure would be equat to two right angles when the number of points was odd; but equal to four right angles when the number was even. Euclid's properties of the angles of the triangle and trapezium, are particular cases of these; but I had

no suspicion of the real intention of the figure till I saw the use here made of it. It seems, however, an argument in favour of the identity of the Druids and Bramins, as well as another well-known diagram, usually called the Walls of Troy, which was used originally in the Hindoo astrology. These figures, however, appear to have flowed from a much higher source, and to have relation to what Leibnitz had a distant idea of in his Analysis of Situation, Euclid in his Porisms, and Girard perhaps in his Restitution of them. In fact, as the modern Algebraists have the advantage of transferring a great part of their labour from the head to the hands, so there is reason to believe that the Hindoos had mechanical methods of reasoning geometrically, much more extensive than the elementary methods made use of at present; and that even their games were deduced from and intended perhaps to be examples of them: but this deserves to be treated more at length elsewhere.

The same apology may perhaps excuse my mentioning here, that the idea of the Nile's deriving its floods from the melted snows, as well as the Ganges, appears to be rather imaginary: they seem to be caused principally by the rains; for the high hills beyond the Herdwar apparently retain the snow all the year, and therefore the quantity melted could never produce the enormous swell of the Ganges; not to mention that the effect of a thaw seems different from what would arise from the mere difference of heat, and therefore might partly take place in winter and the dry season. That the rains are sufficient for the purpose, without recurring to the hypothesis of melted snows; appears from the following fact: - A little before I observed the aforesaid pyramid, I had been a considerable distance up the Gunduc; the river was low for the time of the year, and the hills that skirt the borders of Nepaul were clear, and apparently not above

fifteen cose distant: soon after, a heavy shower fell upon them for some hours, and the river was in a short time filled to the very banks, and continued so for many days; and large trees were torn up by the roots, and came driving down with such force by the torrent, that my boat was often endangered. Now, on these hills there was actually no snow whatever; and as the rise was obviously caused by the rains, it may reasonably be concluded that the same effect has the same cause in other places.

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OBSERVATIONS ON SOME OF THE ECLIPSES OF JUPITER'S SATELLITES.

BY MR. REUBEN BURROW.

The following in the Ganges and Burrampooter Rivers.

Appar	ent time 1787.	Sat.	Weather.	Im.orEm.	Place of Observation.
Sept.	23 11 41 9	2	Moderate,	Imm.	Bankipore Granary.
Depa	24 15 41 22	3	Ditto,	Imm.	Ditto
08.	11 12 45 14	I	Ditto,	Imm.	Colgong; Cleveland's Bungalo.
00	23 10 26 20	3	Ditto,	Emer.	Mouth of Jellingy.
	25 11 47 39	2	Ditto.	Imm.	Shore of Ganges South of Pubna
	25 16 42 40	T	Ditto.	Imm.	Ditto.
	27 11 13 59	I	Ditto,	Imm.	Cossundah , Nullah.
	30 14 35 16		Ditto,	Emer.	Dacca; Nabob's house.
Nov.	19 8 56 32	3 2	Ditto,	Imm.	Tealcopee, Burrampooter.
	26 11 33 45	2	Ditto,	Imm.	Bakkamar Chorr.
	26 13 13 57	1	Ditto,	Imm.	Ditto.
	28 7.42 52	1.	Ditto,	Imm.	Cazycotta.
Dec.	3 14 10 54	2	Hazv,	Imm.	Goalparah.
	3 15 8 1	1	Moderate,	Imm.	Ditto.
	5 7 51 59	3	Ditte,	Imm.	Ditto.
	5 9 35 26	I	D 0,	Imm.	Ditto.
_	10 16 45 14	2	Very hazy,	Imm.	Budjapore.
	In 16 57 56	I	Moderate,	Imm.	Ditto.
	12 11 26 9:	T	Hazy,	Imm.	Tingarchor.
	12 11 48 40	3	Ditto,	Imm.	Ditto.
	19 15 28 59	I	Ditto,	Emer.	Luckipore.

The following on the Arracan Coast.

Apparent time 1788.	Sat.	Weather.	Im orEm.	Place of Observation.
Feb. 5 10 18 12:	I	Moderate.	Emer.	Cheduba, Flag-staff Point.
12 12 13 54		Alittle hazy,	Emer.	Ditto, Maykawoody Fort.
21 8 39 29			Emer.	Yambeah Ty Fort.
23 10 57 53	2	Ditto,		Ditto, Kyzonemo.
28 10 35 13	1	Ditto.	Emer.	Cheduba : Cedar Point.

The following were observed at Colonel Watson's Docks at Kidderpore, near the Mouth of the Nullah.

Apparent time 1788	Sat.	Weather.	Im.orEm.	Place of Observation.
March, 15 8 36 36 19 7 54 2 22 10 34 41 31 7 1 24	2 I	Moderate ditto, ditto, ditto,	Emer. Emer. Emer. Emer.	

The following in the Ganges and Rohilcund, &c.

Appai	rent time 1788.	Sat.	Weather.	Im.orEm.	Place of Observation.
	d h ' "				
Oct.	8 14 35 30	3	Moderate,	Emers.	Bankipore.
	29 14 3 4	I	Ditto,	Imm.	Benares Observatory
Nov.	1 15 42 36	2	ditto,	Imm.	Chunar Camp.
	12 17 44 23	1	Hazy,	Imm.	Illahabad Fort.
	14 12 11 29	1	Ditto,	Imm.	Correahcotta.
	20 10 48 28	3 .	Moderate.	Imin.	In the Ganges 3m below Nudjis
	20 14 9 52::	1 3	Ditto,	Emer.	Ghur.
	21 13 58 32.	I	ditto,	Imm.	Janjemow.
	27 14 44 29	3	ditto,	Imm.	Cawnpore; Magazine Gaut.
	28 15 49 22.	E	ditto,	Imm.	Ditto.
	30 10 17 2	1	ditto,	Imm.	Ditto.
Dec.	3 15 2 23	2	ditto,	Imm.	Joognagpore Gaut.
	7 12 6 5		ditto,	Imm.	East of Canouge,00' 2' 29".
	14 13 54 37	1	ditto,	Imm.	Futtyghur Magazine.
	21 9 20 53	2	ditto,	Imm.	Ditto, Dr. Cook's Gaut.
	21 15 44 51	r	ditto,	Imm.	Ditto.
	23 10 12 34	I	ditto,	Imm.	/ Ditto.
	28 17 35 22::	1	Hazy,	Imm.	Cutterah.
	30 12 2 48	I	Moderate,	Imm.	Fereedpore.
	1789.				•
lan.	4 14 26 28	2	Ditto,	Imm.	Nabobgunge.
•	6 13 53 41	1	ditto,	Imm	Pillibeat; Ecd Gah.
	8 8 20 16	1	ditto	Imm.	Shairgorr.
	9 14 10 39	3	ditto,	lmm:	Bowerkah.
	22 14 15 50		ditto,	Emer.	Bhyrah.
	24 8 44 1	I	ditto,	Emer.	Takooradwar.
	20 14 15 36	2.	ditto,	Emer	Nidjibabad.
	29 1617 14	I -	Hazy,	Emer.	Ditto.
Feb.	14 13 22 49		Moderate,	Emer.	Amrooah.
	14 14 23 40		Ditto.	Emer.	Ditto
	16 8 48 8	2	ditto,	Emer.	Hussenpore.
	16 8 51 53		Hazy.	Emer.	Ditto.
	17 6 53 11::	4	Ditto,	Imm.	Seersah.
	17 11 6 44 :		ditto,	Emer.	Ditto.
	23 10 50 I		ditto,	Emer.	Chandowsy.
farch			Vioderate,		Futtyghur, Dr. Cook's Gaut.
	2 14 11 10			Emer.	Ditto.

Apparent time 1789	· Sat.	Weather.	Im.orEm.	Place of Observations.	
March 11 9 22 21	: X	Moderate.	Emers.	Mobarickpore Gaut.	
18 11 23 56		Ditto.	Emer.	Chunar Fort.	
20 9 4 40		Ditto.	Emer.	Benares Observatory.	
27 7 59 16		Di to.	Emer	Bankypore Granary.	
27 11 53 1	2	Ditto.	Emer.	Ditto.	
29 10 31 10	3	Ditto.	linin.	Ditto.	
Apr. 3 9 56 45	1	Ditto.	Emer.	Patna; Chehelsuttoon.	
10 11 59 48		Ver.hazy.	Emer.	Mongeer, Rocky Point.	
19 8 30 56	1	Hazy.	Emer.	Rajmahal.	
26 10 31 22		Moderate.	Emer.	Feavally Dumdumma.	

The following were observed at Russahpugly, near Calcutta.

Appare	ent time 1789	Sat.	Weather.	Im.orEm.	Place of	Observation.
	d 'h ' "		7			
May	12 8 48 50	ī	Moderate.	Emer.		
	19 11 59 15	I	Hazy.	Imm.		
	19 14 5 33	3	Ditto.	Imm.		
	22 11 23 4		Moderate.	Imm.		
	26 13-49 38	I	Ditto.	Imm.		
	1790.	1		. "/		`
an.	2 15 39 32	1	Ditto.	Imm.		
J	18 13 44 51	I	Mift & wind.	Imm.		
	23 10 49 48	2	Ditto.	Imm.		
	24 9 40 57	3	Hazy.	Imm.		
	27 10 8 19		Moderate.	Imm.		
	31 13 36 35	3	Very hazy.	Imm.		
Feb.	1 17 32 48		Hazy.	Imm.		
	3 12 1 30	Ī	Moderate.	Imm.		
	17 10 38 18	2	Ditto.	Emer.		
	19 12 33 56.	1	Ditto.	Emer.		
	26 14 28 38	I	Hazy.	Emer.		
	28 8 57 22	I	Moderate.	Emer.		
March		3	Ditto.	Emer.		
	5 16 24 13	.I	Hazy.	Emer.		
	16 7 18 14	I	Moderate	Emer.		
	23 9.14 25	1	Ditto.	Emer.		
	26 7 36 11	4	Ditto.	Imm.	1	

The two following were at Jowgatta, near Krishnagur.

Apparent time 1790.	Sat.	Weather.	Im.orEm.	Place of Observation.
Apr. 22 10 27 30 22 11 31 10	2 I	Moderate Ditto.	Emer. Emer.	-
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Those to the 31st of March 1788, were observed with a glass made by Watkins, that magnified about 110 times; those from thence to the 12th of May 1790, were observed with one of Ramsden's telescopes of the sort lately made for the navy; and the remainder with a glass made by Dolland, that magnifies about eighty times.

I shall conclude these observations with a remark that highly concerns both the buyers and makers of telescopes; namely, that the parts which compose the object glass of an Achromatic, are generally put together in such a manner that they cannot be taken asunder; and the brass part that they are bedded in, shoots a number of chymical ramifications between the glasses, that in the course of a year renders a telescope of little or no service. This defect the maker may easily remove by making the compound object glass capable of being taken to pieces, or the parts in some other substance not liable to this defect.

A PROOF THAT THE HINDOOS HAD THE BINOMIAL THEOREM.

BY MR. REUBEN BURROW.

HE Islands in the Bay of Bengal are, many of them, covered with shells and marine productions to a great height, and there are beds of large smooth pebbles near the Herdwar, some hundreds of feet above the present level of the Ganges; the sea has therefore gradually been retiring, and consequently the position of the Equator was formerly farther north than it is at present in this part of the earth: and if a few similar observations were made in other countries, it is evident that the ancient situation of the pole upon the surface of the earth might be determined sufficiently near for explaining many difficulties and paradoxes in geographical antiquities. For this purpose also it would be adviseable to have permanent meridian lines drawn in high northern latitudes, to be compared in succeeding ages, and also to have marks cut upon rocks in the sea, to shew the proper level of the water.

In the aforesaid position of the Equator, the sends of Tartary were inhabitable and the Siberian climates temperate; the deserts of the Lesser Bukharia were then part of the seat of the Paradise of Moses; and the four sacred rivers of Eden went through India, China, Siberia, and into the Caspian Sea, respectively. This appears from a Bramin map of the world in the

Sanscrit language, which I met with about two years ago in the higher parts of India, together with a valuable treatise of geography upon the system of Boodh; both of which I communicated, with my idea on the subject, to Mr. Wilford, of the Bengal Engineers; and from him the world may expect shortly to be favoured with the first true representation of Scriptural and Hindoo Geography.

From the aforesaid country the Hindoo religion. probably spread over the whole earth: there are signs of it in every northern country, and in almost every system of worship. In England it is obvious; Stonehenge is evidently one of the temples of Boodh; and the arithmetic, the astronomy, astrology, the holidays, games, names of the stars, and figures of the constellations, the ancient monuments, laws, and even the - languages of the different nations, have the strongest marks of the same original. The worship of the sun and fire, human and animal sacrifices, &c. have apparently once been universal: the religious ceremonies of the papists seem in many parts to be a mere servile copy of those of the Goseigns and Fakeers; the christian ascetics were very little different from their filthy original the Byraggys, &c; even the hell of the northern nations is not at all like the hell of the scripture, except in some few particulars; but it is so striking a likeness of the hell of the Hindoos, that I should not at all be surprised if the story of the soldier that saw it in Saint Patrick's purgatory, described in Matthew Paris's history, should hereafter turn out to be merely a translation from the Sanscrit, with the names changed. The different tenets of Popery and Deism have a great similarity to the two doctrines of Brahma and Boodh; and as the Bramins were the-authors of the Ptolemaic system, so the Boodhists appear to have been the inventors of the ancient Philolaic, or Copernican, as well as of the doctrine of attraction; and

probably too the established religion of the Greeks and the Eleusinian mysteries may only be varieties of the two different sects. That the Druids of Britain were Bramins is beyond the least shadow of a doubt; but that they were all murdered and their sciences lost, is out of the bounds of probability; it is much more likely that they turned Schoolmasters, Freemasons, and Fortune-tellers, and in this way part of their sciences might easily descend to posterity, as we find they have done. An old paper, said to have been found by Locke, bears a considerable degree of internal evidence both of its own antiquity and of this idea; and on this hypothesis it will be easy to account for many difficult matters that perhaps cannot so clearly be done on any other, and particulary of the great similarity between the Hindoo sciences and ours: a comparison between our oldest scientific writers and those of the Hindoos will set the matter beyond dispute; and fortunately the works of Bede carry us twelve hundred years back, which is near enough to the times of the Druids to give hopes of finding there some of their remains. I should have made the comparison myself. but Bede is not an author to be met with in this country; however, I compared an astrolabe in the Nagry character (brought by Dr. Mackinnon from Jynagur) with Chaucer's description, and found them to agree most minutely: even the center pin which Chaucer calls "the horses" has a horse's head upon it in the instrument; therefore if Chaucer's description should happen to be a translation from Bede, it will be a strong argument in favour of the hypothesis, for we then could have nothing from the Arabians. What Bungey and Swisset may contain, will also deserve inquiry; and that the comparison may be the readier made. where the books are procurable, I mean very shortly to publish translations of the Leelavotty and Beej Geneta, or the arithmetic and algebra of the Hindoos.

It is much to be feared, however, that many of the best treatises of the Hindoos are lost, and that many of those that remain are imperfect. By the help of a Pundit I translated part of the Beej Ganeta near six years ago, when no European but myself, I believe, even suspected that the Hindoos had any Algebra; but finding that my copy was imperfect, I deferred completing the translation, in hopes of procuring the remainder. I have since found a small part more, and have seen many copies; but from the plan of the work (which in my opinion is the best way of judging) they still seem to be all imperfect, though the copier generally takes care to put at the end of them that they are complete. I have the same opinion of the Leelavatty, and for the same reason: indeed, it is obvious that there must have been treatises existing where algebra was carried much farther; because many of their rules in astronomy are approximations deduced from infinite series, or at least have every appearance of it; such, for instance, as finding the sine from the arc, and the contrary; and finding the angles of a right angled triangle from the hypothenuse and sides, independent of tables of sines; and several others of a similar nature, much more complicated. I have been informed by one of their Pundits, that, some time ago, there were other treatisés of Algebra besides that just mentioned, and much more difficult, though he had not seen them; and therefore as it is possible they may still be existing, and yet be in danger of perishing very soon, it is much to be wished that people would collect as many of the books of science as possible (their poetry is in no danger) and particularly those of the doctrine of Boodh, which perhaps may be met with towards Thibet. That many of their best books are depraved and lost is evident, because there is not now a single book of geometrical elements to be met with; and yet that they had elements not long ago, and apparently more extensive than those of Euclid, is obvious

from some of their works of no great antiquity; the same remarks are applicable to their cosmographical remains, in some of which there are indications of an astronomy superior to that of the Soorya Siddhant, and such popular treatises.

Till we can therefore find some of their more superior works, it must be rather from the form and construction of their astronomical tables and rules, and the properties implied in their accidental solutions of questions, &c. that we can judge what they formerly knew, than otherwise. That they were acquainted with a differential method similar to Newton's, I shall give many reasons for believing, in a treatise on the principles of the Hindoo astronomy, which I began more than three years ago, but was prevented finishing, by a troublesome and laborious employment that for two years gave me no leisure whatever; and which (though the small time I had to spare since has been employed in writing a comment on the works of Newton, and explaining them to a very ingenious native who is translating them into Arabic) I hope ere long to have an opportunity of completing. At present I shall only give an extract of a paper explaining the construction of some tables, which first led me to the idea of their having a differential method: it is part of one, out of a number of papers that were written in the latter part of the year 1783 and the beginning of 1784, and of which several copies were taken by different people, and some of them sent to England. This particular extract was to investigate the rules at pages 253, 254, and 255 of Mons. Gentil's Voyage, of which the author says, " Je n'ai pu savoir sur quels " principes cette table est fondee," &c. and is as follows:

[&]quot;Now, by proceeding in the manner explained in the aforesaid paper, to calculate the right ascension

"and ascensional difference for *Tirvalour*, and afterwards taking the differences algebraically, and reducing them to puls of a *Gurry*, as in the following table, the principles of the method will be evident.

1	0	bl. Ascens	. 1	Fine day COL			Do. reduc-	Do. far-1
s				First diff. of Obl. Ascension.			ed to Puls	4 6
	R. A	. Asc. I	Diff.	Ascension.			of a Gurry.	duced.
-	0 / 0 /			0	, 0			
		,		Ĭ				
0	0	0-0	0					
1	27	54-2	19	27	54-2	19	279-23	256
2	57	49-4	13	29	55—I	54	299-19	280
3	90	0-4	59	32	11-0		322- 8	314
4	122	11-4	13	32	11+0	46	322+ 8	330
5	152	6-2	19	29	55 + 1	54	299+19	318
6	180	0+0	C	27	54 + 2	19	279+23	302
7	200	54+2	19	27	54+2	19	2.79+23	302
8	237	49 + 4	13	29	57 + 1	54	299+19	318
9	270	0+4	59	32	11+5	46	322 + 8	330
10	302	11 + 4	13	32	11-0	46	322- 8	314
II	332	6+2	19	29	55-1	54	299-19	280
12	360	0+0.	. 0	27	54-2	19	279-23	256

"The fifth and sixth columns sufficiently explain "the tables in page 253 and 254 of M. Gentil; but there remains a part more difficult, namely, why in calculating the Bauja," or the doubles of the first differences of the ascensional difference " 200 of the length of the shadow is taken for the first; 4 of the first term for the second, and 1 of the first term for the third." "The primary reason of taking differences here, seems to be that the chords may be nearly equal to the arcs, and

" that, by adding of the differences, the arcs them-" selves may be found nearly; the reason will appear " from the following investigation. Let N be the equa-" torial shadow of the Bramins in Bingles, then 720 the " length of the Gnomen, or twelve Ongles, will be to N " the shadow, as radius to the tangent of the latitude; " and radius to the tangent of the latitude as the tangent " of the declination to the sine of the ascensional dif-" ference; consequently 720 is to N as the tangent of " declination to the sine of the ascensional difference. " Now if the declinations for one, two, and three sines " be substituted in the last proportion, we get the sines " of the three ascensional differences in terms of N " and known quantities; and, if these values be sub-" stituted in the Newtonian form for finding the arc " from the sine, we get the arcs in parts of the radius; " and if each of these be multiplied by 3600 and " divided by 6,28318, the values comes out in puls of a Gurry if N be in Bingles, but in parts of a "Gurry if N be in Ongles; and by taking the doubles. we get the values nearly as follows:

Values.
| 0,00000 N | 0,33056 N = 1-3 N nearly, 0,59928 N | 0,26872 N = 4-5 of 1-3 N nearly, 0,70866 N | 0,10932 N = 1-3 N nearly, Bramins.

"Now, because the values in the first column are doubles of the ascensional differences for one, two, and three sines, their halves are the ascensional differences in parts of a Gurry, supposing N to be in Ongles; and if each of these halves be multiplied by sixty, the products, namely, 9,9168 N, 17,9784 N, and 21,2580 N will be the same in puls of a Gurry; and if to get each of these nearly in round numbers, the whole be multiplied by three, and afterwards divided by three, the three products

"will be 29,75 N, 53,94 N, and 63,77 N, which are nearly equal to thirty N; fifty-four N, and sixty-four N respectively; and hence the foundation of the Bramin rule is evident, which directs to multiply the equatorial shadow by thirty, fifty-four, and sixty-four respectively; and to divide the products by three for the Chorardo in puls: and these parts answer to one, two, and three signs of longitude from the true equinox; and therefore the Ayanongsh, or Bramin precession of the equinox, must be added to find the intermediate Chorardo by proportion."

Though the agreement of this investigation with the Bramin results, is no proof that the Hindus had either the differential method, or Algebra, it gave me at the time a strong suspicion of both; and yet, for want of knowing the name that Algebra went by in Sanscrit, I was near two years before I found a treatise on it, and even then I should not have known what to enquire for, if it had not come into my mind to ask how they investigated their rules. Of the differential method, I have yet met with no regular treatise, but have no doubt whatever that there were such, for the reasons I before hinted at; and I hope others will be more fortunate in their enquiries after it than myself.

With respect to the Binomial Theorem, the application of it to fractional indices will perhaps remain for ever the exclusive property of Newton; but the following question and its solution evidently shew that the Hindoos understood it in whole numbers to the full as well as Briggs, and much better than Pascal. Dr. Hutton, in a valuable edition of Sherwin's tables, has lately done justice to Briggs; but Mr. Whitchell, who some years before pointed out Briggs as the undoubted inventor of the differential

method, said he had found some indications of the Binomial Theorem in much older authors. The method however by which that great man investigated the powers independent of each other, is exactly the same as that in the following translation from the Saiscrit.

"A Raja's palace had eight doors; now these doors may either be opened by one at a time, or by two at a time, or by three at a time, and so on through the whole, till at last all are opened together. It is required to tell the numbers of times that this can be done?

"Set down the number of the doors, and proceed in order, gradually decreasing by one to unity, and then in a contrary order, as follows:

8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

"Divide the first number eight by the unit beneath it, and the quotient eight shews the number of " times that the doors can be opened by one at a " time. Multiply this last eight by the next term seven. " and divide the product by the two beneath it, and the result twenty eight is the number of times that "two different doors may be opened; multiply the last found twenty-eight by the next figure six, and "divide the product by the three beneath it, and the "quotient fifty-six shews the number of times that three different doors may be opened. Again, this " fifty-six multiplied by the next five, and divided by "the four beneath it, is seventy, the number of times that four different doors may be opened. In the same manner fifty-six is the number of fives that can be opened: twenty-eight the number of times " that six can be opened: eight the number of times

"that seven can be opened; and lastly, one is the number of times the whole may be opened together; and the sum of all the different times is 255."

The demonstration is evident to mathematicians: for as the second term's coefficient in a general equation shews the sum of the roots, therefore, in the n power of 1 + 1 where every root is unity, the coefficient shews the different ones that can be taken in n things: also, because the third term's coefficient is the sum of the products of all the different twos of the roots, therefore when each root is unity the products of each two roots will be unity, and therefore the number of units, or the coefficient itself, shews the number of different twos that can be taken in n things. Again, because the fourth term is the sum of the products of the different threes that can be taken among the roots, therefore, when each root is unity, the product of each three will be unity, and therefore every unit in the fourth will shew a product of three different roots, and consequently the coefficient itself shews all the different threes that can be taken in n things; and so for the rest. I should not have added this, but that I do not know well where to refer to it.

P. S. There is an observation, perhaps worth remarking, with respect to the change of the poles; namely, that the small rock-oyfters are generally all dead within about a foot above high water-mark; now possibly naturalists may be able to tell the age of such shells nearly by their appearance; and if so, a pretty good estimate may be formed of the rate of alteration of the level of the sea in such places where they are; for I made some astronomical observations on a rock in the sea near an island about seven miles to the south of the island of *Cheduba*, on the *Aracan* coast, whose top was eighteen feet above high water-mark, and the whole rock covered with those shells fast grown to it, but all of

them dead, except those which were a foot above the high water-mark of that day, which was February 2, 1788. The shells were evidently altered a little in proportion to their height above the water, but by no means so much as to induce one to believe that the rock had been many years out of it. All the adiacent islands and the coast shewed similar appearances. and therefore it was evidently no partial elevation by subterranean fires, or any thing of that sort; this is also apparent from the island of Cheduba itself, in which there is a regular succession of sea-beaches and shells more and more decayed to a great height. By a kind of vague estimation from the trees and the coasts and shells, &c. (on which however there is not the least dependence) I supposed that the sea might be subsiding at the rate of about three inches in a year.

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ADDITIONS.

Page 154. Note. The gunja, I find, is the Abrus of our botanists; and I venture to describe it from the wild plant compared with a beautiful drawing of the flower magnified, with which I was favoured by Dr. Anderson.

CLASS XVII. Order IV.

Cal. Perianth funnel-shaped, indented above.
Cor. Cymbiform; Awning roundish, pointed, nerved.

Wings lanced, shorter than the awning. Keel rather longer than the wings.

Stam. Filaments nine, some shorter; united in two sets at the top of a divided, bent, awl-shaped body.

Pist. Germ inserted in the calyx. Style very minute at the bottom of the divided body. Stigma, to the naked eye, obtuse; in the microscope, feathered.

Per. A legume. Seeds, spheroidal; black or white, or scarlet with black tips.

Leaves pinnated; some with, some without, an odd leaflet.

Page 361. See the Plate Fig. 1. The female insect in its larva state. 2. The egg, which produces the male. 3. The male insect. 4. The head with jointed antennæ. 5. The wings on one side. The preceding figures are much magnified, but in just proportion. 6. A piece of Lac, of its natural size. 7. The inside of the external coat of the cells. 8. One of the utriculi. The two last figures are a little magnified.



