ASIATICK RESEARCHES:
OR
TRANSACTIONS OF THE SOCIETY;
INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,
FOR ENQUIRING INTO THE HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES, THE ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE,
VOLUME THE EIGHTH.
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M.DCCC.V.
DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER, FOR PLACING THE TABLES AND PLATES.

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TRANSACTIONS
OF THE
ASIATICK SOCIETY.

I.

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

By Francis Balfour, Esq. M. D.*

Whilst the interesting and successful researches of the Asiatick Society are exciting the curiosity and expectation of the learned in every quarter of the world, it is natural for those who are prosecuting discoveries in medicine and meteorology to look towards India, for some information respecting the nature and peculiarities

* Mr. Balfour is the author of the Paper in the Second Volume of the Asiatick Researches, entitled "A Treatise on the introduction of the Arabic into the Persian, and language of Hindoostan."
of the climate in which we live. Possessing, as we do, the peculiar advantages of a tropical situation, with a more extensive field, and greater convenience for making observations than any European nation ever enjoyed before, it is an expectation which they have reason to entertain, and which, on that account, and many other considerations, we ought, if possible, to gratify.

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

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

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

The plague, putrid sore-throats, epidemic catarrhs, dysenteries, pleurisy, peripneumonies, cholics, cholera morbus, acute liver, the small-pox, measles, erysipelas, elephantiasis, rheumatism, gout, tooth-achs, ophthalmias, megrims, obstructions of the liver and spleen, diarrhoeas, consumptions, spitting of blood, and haemorrhoids; many species of hypochondriasis, infancy, epilepsy, tetanus and asthma; the state of teething in children, all local inflammations, external and internal, accompanied with fever of any kind, and all sores and ulcers, especially of the legs in warm climates. In short all diseases attended with periodical exacerbations of fever however obscure, &c. &c.

With whatever success, therefore, I may have acquitted myself in my researches respecting the class of fevers, it will appear from this explanation, that the object, at least, cannot, with truth, be represented as unimportant and useless. It cannot be unimportant and useless to investigate the nature of a class of diseases, by which the whole of the human race is sorely afflicted; and ultimately three-fourths of mankind are carried to the grave.

II. Of the effects of Sol-Lunar Influence in Fevers, denominated Continued, Remitting and Intermittting.

A collection of all the observations I have made on this subject.
would be much too voluminous for a place amongst the researches of the Society. For my present object, it will be sufficient to state, as briefly as possible, the general conclusions that I have been led to draw from a view of the whole; and they are those that follow.

1st. OF THE PAROXYSMS OF FEVERS.

In Bengal there is no room to doubt that the human frame is affected by the influence connected with the relative situations of the sun and moon. In certain states of health and vigor, this influence has not power to shew itself by any obvious effects; and in such cases its existence is often not acknowledged. But in certain states of debility and disease it is able to manifest itself by exciting febrile paroxysms: and the propensity or aptitude of the constitution, to be affected with febrile paroxysms in such cases, may be denominated the paroxysmal disposition.

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

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

The constitutions that prevail in different kinds of fever discover obvious peculiarities with respect to the progress and maturation of the critical disposition. But that which is most important, and most material for the object of the present explanation, is a peculiarity that shews itself in the critical disposition of the common typhus. In cases of this fever, which is that which prevails in crowded cities, and in jails, ships and hospitals in all countries at all seasons, and is by far the most common, it is well established by experience, that the fever being once commenced, the paroxysms are very rarely disposed to cease in less than four days, and seldom so soon; and are not in general inclined to continue more than twenty-one.

The laws that regulate the progress and maturation of the critical disposition, in that constitution which prevails in remitting and intermitting fevers, which are generally attended with large secretions of bile, and are the endemic fever of warm climates, have not been as yet ascertained by any precise rules respecting their duration. But it appears to me that, whenever there are free discharges of bile, there is always a greater tendency towards a crisis or solution of the fever, than when there appears but little or none, which is generally the case during the height of the typhus; and until some approach towards a crisis either perfect or imperfect has taken place: and the peculiar paroxysmal, as well as the critical disposition in the typhus and in remitting and intermitting fevers, giving occasion to forms of different type and duration, may perhaps be connected with different states of the liver peculiar to each.
2d. Of the Types of Fevers.

Of Perfect Types.

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

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

Of Imperfect Types.

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

By the discovery of this simple and universal principle, we are able to unfold the whole mystery of types; and to explain all the diversities that have appeared under the distinctions of continued, remitting, and intermitting fevers. Fevers hitherto denominated continued fevers, and supposed from the obscurity of their remissions to have none,

* I express myself in this manner for the sake of brevity, meaning that the paroxysms occur in coincidence with the positions of the sun and moon that occasions the tides. The tides, it is well known, do not coincide with these exactly; but follow them a considerable time after.
are all of them to be considered as nothing else than fevers of a perfect type, in which two daily remissions may always be discovered, by attending to the remissions of sol-lunar influence, especially those of the morning; and fevers having paroxysms every twelve hours with obvious remissions, whether denominated continued or remitting fevers, are also evidently fevers of a perfect type.

Fever in which the paroxysms do not succeed each other in twelve hours (and which have been hitherto denominated intermittent fevers when the remissions were complete, and remitting fevers when they were not) all belong to the class of imperfect types.

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

3d. OF THE DURATIONS AND CRISSES OF FEVERS.

OF THE DURATIONS AND CRISSES OF FEVERS OF A PERFECT TYPE.

Febrile paroxysms shew themselves more frequently during the period of the spring tides than at any other time, and as these advance become more violent and obstinate; and on the other hand, tend no less invariably to subside and terminate during the neaps.

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

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

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

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

Of the Durations and Crises of Fevers of an Imperfect Type.

For the same reason I have not attempted to reduce, to a synopsis
or table, the durations and crises of imperfect types; and because I
am perfectly satisfied that the same principles are equally applicable
to explain the whole.

III. The preceding Theory extended to the whole Class of

Fibrile Diseases.

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

1st. That the paroxysms of fevers are produced by the action of
sol-lunar influence.

2dly. That there is, however, a certain state of the human consti-
tution, denominated the paroxysmal disposition, required to concur with
the exacerbations of fol-lunar power in exciting and reiterating paroxysms, in such a manner as to form fevers.

This is the course of the disease there takes place in the constitution at certain states, denominated the critical disposition, which tending gradually to maturity, at length concurs with certain remissions of fol-lunar power in producing a crisis; by which salutary change the tendency to paroxysm is diminished or removed, so as to bring fevers to an end after certain intervals of time.

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

* In several of the cases of the plague, recorded by Dr. Patrick Russel, the febrile paroxysms returned obviously every twelve hours in coincidence with the periods of the tides; and his predecessor and relation, the author of the Natural History of Aleppo, says positively that the generality of fevers there, and indeed almost all acute diseases, are subject to exacerbations once or twice in twenty-four hours." Vide Doctor Millar's observations on the prevailing Diseases of Great Britain, page 203.
feated by the action of sol-lunar power; and in such a manner as to produce the great variety of febrile forms that daily appear.

The exacerbation and remission of febrile paroxysm in coincidence with the rising and falling of sol-lunar power constitutes the general and distinguishing character of fever or febrile disease; and although the lowest degree of this power acting on paroxysmal dispositions in a high state of propensity, may happen to produce febrile paroxysms at an unusual period, such instances, though apparently exceptions, are no argument against the truth or principles of the general law: but are consistent with it in every respect.

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

THEOREM.
The fluctuating force of sol-lunar influence coinciding and co-operating in all its various stages and degrees, with the various modifications of the paroxysmal disposition, excites febrile paroxysms to attack on all the days of the neaps and springs, and supports and reiterates them, according to various types, until the commencement of different neaps; at which junctures the maturity of the critical disposition happening to concur with the periodical decline of sol-lunar influence, these paroxysms then subside and come to a termination or crisis: and thus form different successions of paroxysms constituting fevers of various length or duration.
It has been observed, respecting the various forms of durations, that some are apt to occur more frequently than others. To search for a solution of this question amidst the chaos of the incorrect and mutilated history that has been accumulated on the subject of fevers, would be unsatisfactory and useless. It will be far more profitable to observe their course with attention in future, when the laws that direct it are explained and understood, and I have no doubt that any physician who will carefully attend to the diurnal and nocturnal returns of the tides, and will constantly hold before him the prevailing tendency of fevers to appear at the commencement, and during the period of the springs, and on the other hand their prevailing tendency to subside and terminate at the commencement and during the period of the neaps, together with the observations that have been made respecting the propensity of the paroxysmal, and the maturity of the critical disposition, will soon obtain more information respecting the phenomena of fevers; and be able to form more just and certain judgments and prognostics respecting every event, than if he were to study the history of medicine, as it is now written, for a thousand years. In short there is no revolution or change in the course of fevers that may not be explained by these general principles, in a manner that is consistent with the laws of the human constitution, and those of the great system of revolving bodies, which unite together in producing them.

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

The periodical fluctuation in the state and appearance of eruptions, sores, and ulcers in this country, being always connected with the periodical changes of a concomitant fever, an attention to these will be no less instructive than to those of the urine; and if the periodical changes of each were regularly and accurately delineated and expressed in colours with a pencil, by a judicious and careful observer, they would form a record in medicine and surgery of a new kind; which I have no doubt, would place the whole of this doctrine upon the basis of ocular demonstration; and afford to the most incredulous and inattentive perfect conviction of its truth.

IV. Deviations from the prevailing tendencies of Fevers during the periods of the Springs and Neaps.

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

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

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

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

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

From these observations I was induced many years ago to advance, that the power of sol-lunar influence was considerably greater during the equinoctial periods than during the intervals either before or after
them. It has therefore lately afforded me considerable satisfaction to discover in De La Lande's astronomy, that De La Place has determined, from a very large collection of observations made by De La Lande himself, that the tides at Brest, about the time of the equinoxes, rise at a medium two feet higher than at the time of the solstices*. This discovery is agreeable to the general law of attraction; and it is not to be supposed that the influence of the sun and moon under the tropics, acts with a force inferior to that which produces this difference in the height of the tides on the northern shores of Europe.

How far sol-lunar influence affects the fevers of the higher latitudes of the globe, is a question that does not come within the scope of this inquiry. The annexed table, however, extracted from Dr. Currie, of Liverpool's medical reports on the effects of the water, &c. page 230, points so strongly to this subject; and is so immediately connected with the present article, that I could not resist the temptation of giving it a place; conceiving that it may become a stronger inducement to observation than any admonition or exhortation that I could offer.

Dr. Currie's table was formed by him to shew the number of typhus fevers admitted into the Liverpool dispensary in the course of seventeen years; and the admissions in that space of time amounted to no less than 48,867.

The great majority of patients admitted in the months of the spring and autumn, which I have denominated the equinoctial periods, con-

pared with those admitted in the months of summer and winter, which I have called the inter-equinoctial intervals, cannot fail to attract the notice of every observer.

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

For the mean of the equinoctial period, 12,980
For the mean of the inter-equinoctial intervals, 11,232
For the common mean of those periods and intervals, 12,091
For the rise of the equinoctial mean, above the common mean, 889, say $850 = \frac{4}{11}$
For the fall of the inter-equinoctial mean, below the common mean, 859, say $850 = \frac{4}{11}$

Those facts expressed in other terms amount to these:

1st. That whilst the temperature of the season in the spring was passing from cold to hot the number of typhus fevers rose about $\frac{4}{11}$ above the common standard.

2dly. That whilst the temperature of the season in the autumn was passing from hot to cold, the number of typhus fevers rose in like manner about $\frac{4}{11}$ above the common standard.

3dly. That during the months of summer, when the heat of the season is greatest, the number of typhus fevers fell beneath the common standard about $\frac{4}{11}$; and

4thly. That during the months of winter, when the heat of the season is least, the number of typhus fevers fell in like manner below the common standard in the same proportion, about $\frac{4}{11}$. 
That the number of fevers should increase equally during the transition from cold to hot, as from hot to cold, and under the two opposite extremes of permanent heat and permanent cold, should equally diminish, are facts that are no doubt curious. At present, however, I mean only to suggest, that, if the theory of sol-lunar influence should ever be admitted in Europe, those phenomena, apparently so very repugnant, may all be reconciled and referred to one common cause, without involving the smallest inconsistency or contradiction.

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

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

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

### CORRESPONDENTS.

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<tr>
<td>Lieutenant John Towers</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Chitterpore</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lieutenant Robert Dee</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Juanpore</td>
<td>400</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lieutenant Thos. Broughan</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sylhet</td>
<td>150</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. W. Davidson, Assistant Surgeon</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Tipperah</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. John Corse</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor J. Campbell, Assistant</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor Alexander Campbell, Surgeon</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. John Miller</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Buxar</td>
<td>343</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. W. F. Gardner, Surgeon</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Berhampore</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. W. Boyd, Surgeon</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Cooch-Behar</td>
<td>270</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. W. Allison, Assistant Surgeon</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Jessore</td>
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<td>Major Dunn</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Dinapore</td>
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<td>Captain N. Macleod</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. T. Henckell</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>530</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. James McDougall, Assistant Surgeon</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mr. John Hannah</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr. Robert Bruce, Surgeon</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The information sent to me by those gentlemen, was all of it received in the space of a few months, in consequence of a circular letter, requesting observations on this subject, and on any side of the question, from those who might be inclined to give it. Several of those gentlemen I had never seen in my life; and with many I had the honor only of a slight acquaintance. Had I continued longer to collect testimonies, I am confident, that notwithstanding the diffidence and reluctance with which people commit themselves upon a topic of this kind, that I might have obtained in direct proof of fol-lunar influence, a much larger body of evidence than is to be found in any single record in direct proof of the tides of the sea.

The order for printing and circulating my treatise on fol-lunar influ-
ence, along with my correspondence on this subject, at the expense of government, is contained in the following letter.

TO DOCTOR FRANCIS BALFOUR.

SIR,

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

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

CALCUTTA,

COUNCIL CHAMBER,

the 7th April, 1794.

(Signed) C. SHAKESPEAR,

Sub-Secretary.

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

"BOMBAY, 6th May, 1801.

"The influence of the moon on the human body, has been observed
in this part of India by every medical practitioner. It is universally acknowledged by the doctors of all colours, of all castes, and of all countries. The people are taught to believe it in their infancy; and as they grow up, they acknowledge it from experience. I suppose that in the northern latitudes this power of the moon is far less sensible than in India; and perhaps less so in Bengal than in our neighbourhood. We here universally think that the state of weakly and diseased bodies, is much influenced by the motions of the moon. Many people know the very day on which their intermittent will make their appearance; and every full and change increases the number of the patients of every practitioner. It is no argument against this influence, that diseases appear during every day of the month. The human body is subject to alterations from a thousand external circumstances, and from many affections of the mind. These lay the foundation of disease at every period; but they do not overthrow the evidence of lunar influence; although they are apt to mislead with regard to effects that depend on that alone. That the human body is affected in a remarkable manner by the changes of the moon, I am perfectly convinced, although I cannot constantly pretend to see the operation of the general law; nor to account at all times for its perturbation; and agree in thinking that an attention to the power of the moon is highly necessary to the medical practitioner in India.*

* Having neglected to apply to the author of this letter for his permission to give his name to the public; and being very unwilling to deprive the doctrine of lunar influence of the support, which it cannot fail to derive from such an evidence; I will now venture to discover, that he is no other than Doctor Helenus Scott, of Bombay. From the information of Doctor Hutton, who resided many years as Surgeon at Penang; and of Mr. James Lumsdaine, Surgeon for a number of years at Fort Marlborough, I have now, also, the satisfaction to know, that solar-lunar influence shews its effects in a very conspicuous manner in the prevailing diseases of those Islands; and that an attention to its laws, is of great importance on conducting their cure,
VII. Of Securing and Extending our knowledge of Sol-Lunar Influence.

As those discoveries regarding the effects of sol-lunar influence lead unavoidably to new ideas respecting the nature and cure of fevers, it has become an object of real importance: first, to secure the knowledge we have already obtained of this principle; that it may not succumb to any illiberal attempt to suppress or smother it, by representing it as insignificant and useless; or by ascribing to it, the wild and groundless delusions of astrology; secondly, to render the road to future observation and further discovery more easy and accessible, by removing the almost insurmountable obstacles that present themselves, in the intricacy and labor of astronomical investigations; and thirdly, to render our knowledge of it so precise and well defined, that it may assume the form and attributes of real science, by furnishing precepts for the purpose of applying it to the improvement of useful arts.

1/2. To place this theory on a firm and secure foundation, I shall follow the example of the learned Abbe Mann, in his observations on the flux and reflux of the atmosphere*: and shall assume it as a principle requiring no further demonstration than what it has already received from astronomy, that the influence of that attraction, which regulates the motions of the planetary system, is continually and without ceasing exerting itself, in a proportionable degree, on every particle of this globe; and that it cannot be otherwise.

The existence of sol-lunar influence being demonstrated by astronomy, its action on the human frame is no longer a matter of doubt;

and the only question that we have to consider is, not whether that power does actually exist, but whether it manifests itself by the signs of any obvious effect or change in the human constitution.

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

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

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

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

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* Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 343.
† Vide the Transactions of the Royal Society, Vol.
‡ Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 399.
§ Doctor Moseley's Treatise on the Diseases of the West Indies, and Le P. Cotte.

6. At Reglia, by M. Changeux, vide Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 518, at Padua; by Mr. Toaldo and his Nephew, vide Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 516, &c. &c.
atmospheric air, and the mode of their combination, who will presume to limit or define its connection with sol-lunar influence? Who will be so hardy and so regardless of his own reputation as to pronounce without proof, that this influence has no power to produce any change whatever in the nature of this compounded fluid; in the smallest degree connected with useful knowledge; or necessary in any respect to be known?

2dly. For the purpose of removing the obstacles that arise from the intricacy and labor of astronomical investigations, in which those who are employed in the study and practice of medicine can have no leisure to engage, it will be sufficient to present a plain and simple idea of this power, with the common changes to which it is liable, abstracted from all the complicated circumstances by which those changes are produced. The consideration of which, though indispensably necessary for the nicer purposes of astronomy, are by no means required for those of medicine and meteorology.

It was determined by De La Place*, in 1790, that the force of the moon to excite those perturbations that manifest themselves on the surface of our globe, by the elevation of the tides, is three, and that of the sun one. Assuming this as a foundation, we have only to conceive that those two quantities of power, sometimes afflicting and sometimes counteracting each other according to the varying positions in which they are placed, produce the corresponding changes that are observed in the paroxysms of fevers; remembering, at the same time, that those are occasionally subject to certain perturbations of inferior

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consequence, from the attractions of the planets. To conceive this, is all that is required.

3dly. To render our knowledge of this principle sufficiently perfect, by giving it all the advantages of numerical precision, without which no physical principle can ever acquire the form and efficiency of science, it is necessary, that all the various degrees of increase or decrease that sol-lunar influence is liable to undergo, at various hours of the day, and night, should be accurately ascertained, and expressed in numbers.

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

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

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

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

In concluding this paper, I hope it will not be deemed disrespectful, if to prevent future mistakes, I should take this opportunity of declaring explicitly my own sentiments respecting the result and success of these investigations.

"Having discovered the laws of febrile paroxysms, and having marked their course and periods in a manner that was never explained or done before, I conceive that I have been able to unfold a history and theory of fevers entirely new; consistent with itself in every part, and with the other appearances of nature; perfectly conformable to the laws discovered by the immortal Newton; and capable of producing important improvements in medicine and meteorology."

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

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLES.

Of all the phenomena that occur in the contemplation of animal nature, it will be readily acknowledged, that the paroxysms of fevers are the most interesting to mankind. The history of every age declares the dreadful desolations they have made in every country; and by far the greatest portion of the human race continues to be kept away by this terrible disease.
The cause, however, that produces these remarkable effects, and determines the paroxysms of fevers to appear in different cases in various order and succession, constituting fevers of different types; and that again, which determines different types to come to an end after certain intervals of time, forming these into fevers of different durations, are questions which have hitherto defied the research of physicians; and cannot be explained, except by the laws of sol-lunar influence.

\[ \text{TABLE I.} \]

**EXPLAINS THE TYPES OF FEVERS.**

The different types that occur in fevers are formed by febrile paroxysms continuing to return in succession for a certain number of days, at an interval of 12, 24, and 48 hours; or some other larger multiple of 12 hours, and almost invariably in coincidence with the period of the tides. The types of fevers, therefore, are formed by the action of sol-lunar influence producing paroxysms in coincidence with the periods of the tides, at the intervals I have described: and differ from each other, only in so far as their paroxysms return in succession at intervals formed by different multiples of 12 hours.

To convey a general idea of this discovery, I have constructed Table I, observing that it applies to explain all the types that I have ever met with in India; and agrees perfectly with the types that are described by other authors. The first of these examples, from the perfect coincidence of its paroxysms with the period of the tides, I ha
called a *perfect type*; and all the others, from their imperfect coincidence with those periods, *imperfect types*. But as the paroxysms of the imperfect types, after the commencement of the neaps are generally disposed to become less distinct in their form, and therefore not so easily reducible to the figure of a diagram, I have confined my representation of types to the period of the springs, when the paroxysms of fevers happen towards the middle of the day and night; and are most regular and distinct.

1st. *Days* are represented by the divisions of the horizontal lines of the table.

2ndly. The paroxysms of fevers are represented by dots placed above and below these lines.

3dly. Single dots above the line represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the day, and are pointed out by the letter *d* (for diurnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

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

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

6thly. The different successions of dots on the different horizontal lines of the table, proceeding from the beginning of the line on the left to its termination on the right, exhibit examples of various successions of paroxysms, constituting specimens of different febrile types that occur daily in the course of nature.
TABLE II.

EXPLAINS THE DURATIONS AND CRISES OF FEVERS.

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

1st. Days are represented by the divisions of the horizontal lines of this table.

2dly. The paroxysms of fevers, are represented by dotts placed above and below these lines.

3dly. Single dotts above the lines represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the day, and are pointed out by the letter d (for diurnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

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

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

6thly. The succeSSIONS of dotts on the different horizontal lines of the table proceeding from the beginning of the line on the left to their termination on the right, represent the different succeSSIONS of paroxysms that occur in fevers of a perfect type, (or what are commonly called con-
tinued fevers,) which ceasing on the commencement of the neaps, constitute different durations of perfect types; and those will serve also to give an idea of the variety that may be produced in a similar manner in the duration of types that are imperfect; commonly called remitting and intermitting fevers.

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

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

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

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

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

The elevation however of the January and February admissions above the lines in which they stood in the original Table, makes a small alteration in each of the annual amounts; but as that does not alter the sum total; nor affect in the smallest degree the present question, it is of no consequence.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paroxysms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**N.B.**

The 2d is the Double Paroxysm in Bengal. The 3d is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 4th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 5th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 6th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 7th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 8th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 9th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong. The 10th is the Double Paroxysm in Chittagong.

**TABLE I.**

Illustrates the Formation of the different Types of Fevers, by the succession of their Paroxysms at various intervals, in coincidence with the Periods of the Tides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Paroxysm Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Type formed by a Dural and Notchul Paroxysm returning every 6th day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Type formed by a Dural and Notchul Paroxysm returning every 6th day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Type formed by a Dural and Notchul Paroxysm returning every 6th day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Type formed by a Dural and Notchul Paroxysm returning every 6th day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In which the interval between each Paroxysm is 12 hours.

| Interval (in hours) | 12 hours | 24 hours | 36 hours | 48 hours |

and called a Period of Fever.
**Table III.**

Demonstrates the **periodical increase and decrease** of fevers, in coincidence with the equinoctial periods and interequinoctial intervals, at Liverpool in England.

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1780</td>
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<td>173</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>129</td>
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<td>133</td>
<td>130</td>
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Because mine is the humblest of all tongues, that of a man born late in the world.
Extract from a Journal, during the late Campaign in Egypt.

By Captain C. B. Burr.

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

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

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

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

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

Leaning over the temple, I discovered on the fillet, a Greek inscription in a state of great preservation, which I transcribed, and afterwards revised from below; unfortunately the information it conveys is trifling, and the obliteration of a part prevents its being of that utility I had at first anticipated,
Though we had ascended by the stairs, the mound of ruins on one side presented a more ready descent; and industriously profiting of the moment, we lost no time in completing our observations.

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

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

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

I shall dismiss this subject, by observing, that, though the contem-
plation of these surprising monuments of the genius of the antient
Egyptians creates a high idea of their civilization, and respect for
their antiquity, and progress in arts; it is obvious they are greatly in-
debted to a beneficent providence, which by placing them in a tempe-
ration, where the frequent and sudden transitions of climate seldom if
ever occur, has given to their works, a permanence, they could never
have derived from the combined power and art of man; though it
must be allowed, that notwithstanding the apparent aridity of the at-
mosphere, owing to the almost perpetual absence of rain, the exhal-
ations, \* from the circumjacent inundation, are so great as to occasion,
at one period of the year, a humidity little inferior to that which would
proceed from actual immersion; and which in their consequences
would equally affect that brilliancy of colouring, which has stamped a
characteristic pre-eminence on these chef d'ouvrés.

\* It is an opinion in Egypt, that the fall of these deews, not only averts the plague, but cures those
who are afflicted with it.

N. B. Somers, in vol. III, of his Travels in Egypt, gives very correct delineations of some of
the most remarkable sculptures of this temple.
To ROBERT HOME, Esq.

Secretary to the Asiatick Society.

SIR,

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

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

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

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

I am, SIR,

DACCA,

the 4th January, 1803.

Your obedient Servant,

J. D. PATERSO.

F 2
III.

OF THE ORIGIN OF THE HINDU RELIGION.

BY J. D. PATTERSON, ESQ.

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

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

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

In order to impress on the minds of men a sense of their total and absolute dependance on him, by whom they live, and from whom they have their being, they invented the hieroglyphical figures of Brahma ——— Vishnu ——— Si'va.

As emblematical of Creation ——— Preservation ——— Destruction.

These they referred to Matter ——— Space ——— Time.

And painted them Red ——— Blue ——— White.

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

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

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

The annihilation of the sect and worship of Brahma, as the Iswara or supreme lord, is allegorically described in the Cātāchand of the Scanda Purāṇ, where the three powers are mentioned as contending for precedence. Vishnu, at last, acknowledges the superiority of Śiva, but Brahma, on account of his presumptuous obstinacy, and pride, had one of his heads cut off by Śiva, and his puja abolished.

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

Of the Vahans, or Vehicles of the Gods.

When the symbolical worship was introduced, the vehicles of the new deities were necessarily allegorical: the Vahans of the three supreme personified attributes were purity, truth, and justice; the first was typified by the Swan, which, clothed with unspotted whiteness, swims amidst the waters, as it were distinct from, and unfilled by them, as the truly pure mind remains untainted amidst the surrounding temptations of the world,
Garuḍa and Aruṇa are two brothers, the one remarkable for his strength and swiftness, the other (Aruṇa) is described as imperfect, and on account of his defects, destined to act as charioteer to the Sun. Aruṇa is the dawn, the morning twilight, which precedes the Sun: Garuḍa is perfect light, the dazzling full blaze of day, the type of truth, the celestial Vāhan of Vishnu.

Justice typified in the sacred bull, is the Vāhan of Śiva. The Bull, whose body is Paramēśvara; and whose every joint is a virtue; whose three horns are the three Vedas; whose tail, ends where Adhvēma, or injustice begins.

Of Osiris, Horus, Typhon, and Brahma, Vishnu, and Śiva.

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

The Sun is one of the forms of Heri or Vishnu; Osiris and Horus are both supposed to have been the Sun. The Indian expedition of Osiris coincides with the adventures of Ram, one of the incarnations of Vishnu. The four months sleep of Horus tallies with the four months sleep of Vishnu.

The sacred Bull, the vehicle of Siva, was the emblem of justice, and peculiarly sacred to him amongst the Indians; and the living animal itself was venerated at Memphis and Thebes, under the names of Apis and Mnevis. The Phallos of Osiris was an object of worship.
and it is known to be the hieroglyphic of Síva; and lastly, Osiris, like Brahman, is described as a great lawgiver.

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

The word Surá in Sanscrit signifies both wine and true wealth; hence in the first Chand of the Rámáyán of Valmíc, it is expressly said, that the Dévatás, having received the Surá, acquired the title of Suras, and the Dailyas that of Asura, from not having received it. The Véda is represented as that wine, and true wealth; and the Dévatás as enjoying it in a superior degree, being termed Suras: the prince, or supreme leader of the Suras, became in the Grecian Deity (by a confined translation of the word) the god of wine and drunkards.

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

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

The crescent of Śīva may have suggested the horns of Bacchus; and his army of Satyrs, and victories in India, shew the resemblance of this part of his character to Vishnu as Ra'ma, who, with his army of monikes, overran the peninsula of India.

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

*Rhaecum retorisstli Leonis*

*Unguibus horribilique Mala.*

The Hindu sacrifices to Durga' and Ca'li' resemble those of Bacchus. When the stroke is given, which severs the head of the victim from its body, the cymbals strike up, the Sanch or Buccinum is blown, and the whole assembly, shouting, besmear their faces with the blood; they roll themselves in it, and, dancing like demoniacs, accompany their
dances with obscene songs and gestures. The Abbé Pluche mentions the same particulars of the assailants in the sacrifices of Bacchus. The winnowing fan, the

_Mystica vannus iacchi_,
is always used in the rites of _Ca'L, Ca'Lé_, and _Durga_; but the Hindus at present affix no other idea of mystery to it, than its being an appendage to husbandry; they use it as a tray, on which they place, before the image of the Deity, the _Sesamum_ or _Til_, the _Mundir_ with its lamp, and all the other articles used in the ceremony. A tray could serve the purpose; but on all solemnities the rituals prescribe exclusively the use of this van or fan, which they call _Surp_.

**OF VISHNU, AS THE CREATIVE POWER.**

The _Vaishnavas_, in order to appropriate the creative principle to Vishnu, make Brahna, whom they acknowledge as the immediate agent of creation, to derive his origin from a _Lotos_, which sprang out of the navel of Vishnu, whilst sleeping upon the vast abyss of primeval waters; thus Vishnu becomes superior to Brahna as being the cause first, of his existence; and secondly, of all created things through his agency. The _Argha_ is a vessel of copper used by the _Brahmens_ in their _puja_; its shape is intended to represent the universal Mother, but in the centre of it is an oval rising embossed, and by this the _Vaishnavas_ assert, is meant the navel of Vishnu, from which all things originally sprang; and by the mystic union of these two principles of production, it is intended to describe them as identically one. The _Saivas_ however insist, that this Omphalic rising is meant as the emblem of the _Ling_; hence Siva's title of _Arghana'th_, and in the _Agama_, _Argha-X'sa_, both meaning the Lord of the sacred Vessel _Argba_.

**Vishnu** is represented in the tenth *Avatār* as the destroying power; thus ascribing to him, the attribute of *Sīva*.

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

**Of Sīva, as the Creative Power and Bhavāνī.**

Of **Cā'L**—*and*—**Cā'Li'**.

*When* the personified attributes of the Deity ceased to be considered as mere hieroglyphics; *when* mankind began to view them in the light of distinct persons, and, attaching themselves to the worship of one, or of the other, exclusively, arranged themselves into sects; the worshippers of *Sīva* introduced the doctrines of the eternity of matter. In order to reconcile the apparent contradiction of assigning the attribute of creation to the principle of destruction, they asserted, that the dissolution and destruction of bodies was not real with respect to matter, which was indestructible itself, although its modifications were in a constant succession of mutation; that the power, which continually operates these changes, must necessarily unite in itself the attributes of creation and apparent destruction: that this power, and matter, are two, distinct, and coexistent principles
in nature; the one agent, the other patient; the one male, the other female; and that creation was the effect of the mystic union of these principles.

The hieroglyphic of this union was worshipped under a variety of names, Bhava and Bhava'ni, Mahade'va and Maha'Maya, &c. Thus the attribute of creation was usurped from Brahma, by the followers of Siva, to adorn and characterize their favourite Deity.

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

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

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

It was then, that a gloomy superstition arose, which spread its baneful influence, with rapidity amongst mankind; which degraded the Deity into an implacable tyrant; which filled its votaries with imaginary terrors; which prescribed dreadful rites; and exacted penances, mortifications, and expiatory sacrifices. In short, it was the worship of Ca'L and Ca'Ls, introduced by the sect of S'iva, which caused a total separation of the sect of Vishnu, and introduced those religious wars,
Of the Origin of

which, in distant ages, seem to have distracted mankind; and of which traces are, even at this day, to be found.

With a view to unite the three great attributes of creation, preservation, and destruction, in one symbol, the Śaivās personified the abstract idea of time (Cāl), which may, figuratively, be said, to create, preserve, and destroy. They therefore distinguished artificial time, and eternity, with peculiar emblems, in which, the attribute of destruction, the characteristic of Śiva, evidently predominates. The personified Śaṭī, or energy, of each of these allegorical personages, was decorated with corresponding emblems. The contemplation of the distinctions of day, and night; of the light, and dark divisions of the month; of the six months' night, and six months' day of the Gods (occasioned by the apparent obliquity of the Sun's path); and lastly, the contrast of the visible creation, with eternal night, suggested the idea of painting. Cāl, white; and Cāḷī, black.

To Śiva, they have given three eyes; probably, to denote his view of the three divisions of time: the past, the present, and the future. A crescent on his forehead portrays the measure of time by the phases of the Moon. A serpent forms a necklace to denote the measure of time by years. A second necklace, formed of human skulls, marks the lapse and revolution of ages, and the extinction and succession of the generations of mankind. He holds a trident in one hand, to shew, that the three great attributes are in him assembled, and united. In the other hand, is a kind of rattle, called damaru, shaped like an hour-glass. I am inclined to think, it was really, at first, intended as such; since it agrees with the character of the Deity; and a sand gheri is mentioned, in the Śāstra, as one of the modes of measuring time, and of ascertaining the length of a gheri.
In the hieroglyphic of the Mahā Pralaya, (or grand consummation of all things, when time itself shall be no more,) he is represented as trodden under foot by Mahā Ca'li, or Eternity.

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

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

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

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

Mahā Ca'li, as represented in the caverns of Elephanta, had eight arms. In one hand, he holds a human figure; in another, a sword, or sacrificial ax; in a third hand, he holds a basin of blood; and with a fourth,
he rings over it the sacrificial bell; two other arms are broken off; but with the two remaining, he is drawing behind him a veil, which extinguishes the Sun, and involves the whole Universe in one undistinguished ruin. One of the titles of this tremendous Deity is \textit{Bhairava}, the horrific, but his principal designation is \textit{Cal Agni Rudra}.

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

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

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

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

In fact, foreign nations could only copy the outward signs and ceremonies: they could not be admitted beyond the threshold of the temple: the adytum was impenetrable to them. Cāl and Ca'li' assumed various names: Cāl became Cronos, MoloCh, Saturn, Dis, Pluto, and Typhon; Ca'li' became Hecate, Proserpine and Diana, who was worshipped with bloody sacrifices at Tauris. It was to the barbarians, that the Greeks
were referred by their own writers, to learn and understand the names and origin of their Deities.

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

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

For instance S'ancara (which signifies the benefactor,) is a title of one of those forms of Siva or cal. To him the gratitude of the Saivas attributed the blessings which are derived from the waters of the Ganges, which rolls its fertilizing stream through various countries, bestowing life and happiness on millions of created beings.

They therefore adorned the image of cal, with emblems applicable to the mountain, whence that stupendous river flows.

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

He has likewise the title of Giri Yśwara, or lord of mountains; and this union of the attributes of Sīva, with those of the mountain, is more distinctly pointed out in his marriage with Parvati, a derivative from parvat, a mountain.

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

On Jagannath, &c.

The temple of Jagannath is a famous resort for pilgrims of all sects, for it is revered by all, it is a converging point where all the contending parties unite in harmony with each other. What is the secret spring of
this concurrence of sentiment in sects, otherwise so irreconcilable to each other? What is intended by a representation, so extraordinary, of the Deity of the place: a figure, that resembles nothing in the heavens above, or the earth beneath, or in the waters under the earth.

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

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

The Pranava, or mystical character which represents the name of the Deity, is thus expressed ꞌ戡. By making a cypher thereof in this manner ꞌ叁叁, filling them up, and giving a body to the central and connecting part of the cypher, you have

From this cypher, they have made three distinct Idols: probably, to prevent the original allusion from being too obvious to the multitude. Subhadra's place is, however, always between the other two, for she represents the connecting participle of the cypher: the propriety of her being so situated is therefore evident; and, as the actual connection is dissolved, by the separation of the figures into distinct idols, we see the reason of her being represented without arms.
Crishna, as Parameswara, is Jagannath, or Lord of the Universe; his half-brother is Balrama, (a terrestrial appearance of Siva); and Subhadra is a form of Devi.

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

Jagannath and Balrama have both the same form, to shew their identity, and their faces, have the respective colours of Vishnu and Siva. Considered in this point of view, this temple may be considered as the rallying point for the three great sects. It is upon this principle, that Jagannath, and Balrama appear sometimes with the attributes of Ganesha to shew, that it is one, and the same, Deity, who is worshipped, under so many names and forms.

On Crishna.

When the Vaishnavas separated themselves from the Saivas, they introduced a new symbol of the Sun under the name of Crishna, as a contrast to the horrid rites of Caiy which had so disgusted them.
Crisnna, being an incarnation of Vishnu, is depicted with the same characterisick complexion of dark azure to identify the Deity in the symbol.

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

The twelve signs are represented as twelve beautiful Nymphs, the Sun's apparent passage from one to the other is described as the roving of the inconstant Crishna. This was probably the ground-work of Jayadeva's elegant poem, the Gita Gôvinda. It is evidently intended by the circular dance exhibited in the Râsijâtra. On a moveable circle, twelve Crishnas are placed alternately with twelve Go'pis, hand in hand forming a circle; the God is thus multiplied to attach him to each respectively, to denote the Sun's passage through all the signs; and, by the rotary motion of the machine, the revolution of the year is pointed out.

Crisnna obtains a victory on the banks of the Tumunâ over the great serpent Câllya Nâga, which had poisoned the air, and destroyed the herds in that region.

This allegory may be explained upon the same principle as the exposition given of the destruction of the serpent Python by the arrows of Apollo. It is the Sun, which, by the powerful action of its beams, purifies the air and disperses the noxious vapours of the atmosphere.
Both in the Padma and Garuda, we find the serpent Câliya, whom Krishna flew in his childhood, amongst the Deities "worshipped on this day; as the Pythian snake, according to Clemens, was adored with "Apollo at Delphi."

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

The identity of the Apollo Nomios and Krishna is obvious: both are inventors of the flute; and Krishna is disappointed by Tulasi in the same manner as Apollo was deluded by Daphne, each nymph being changed to a tree; hence the Tulasi is sacred to Krishna, as the Laurus was to Apollo.

The story of Naâreda, visiting the numerous chambers of Krishna’s freglieio, and finding Krishna every where, appears to allude to the universality of the Sun’s appearance at the time of the Equinoxes, there being then no part of the Earth where he is not visible in the course of the twenty-four hours.

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

Many of the playful adventures of Krishna’s childhood are possibly mere poetical embellishments to complete the picture.
Perhaps the character of Crishna should be regarded in a two-fold light; in one as the symbol of the Sun, in the other as an allegorical representation of the rise and progress of the doctrines of the persecuted Vaishnavas, from the infancy of the sect till its full establishment. Cansa is represented as a S'ailva; he appears to have persecuted the sect of Vishnu: but that oppressed sect seems to have multiplied under persecution, till the increase of their power enabled them to overthrow their oppressors; and, finally, to establish the doctrines of Vishnu upon the ruins of the religion of Siva.

Of C'artice'ya, the supposed Mars of India.

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

The Hindus divide the year into six Ritus or seasons, in each of which the Sun appears with a different aspect; the six faces of C'artice'ya are intended to express this variety of aspect. There are six stars in the lunar constellation Criticá; and, as he derives his name from that Nacshatra, those stars are represented as his nurses, one for each month. Probably the symbol was invented either when the Sun was itself in that lunar constellation, or in the month C'artica when the Moon was full in
Critica. His arrows and missile weapons represent his rays; the Apollo of the Greeks had also his bow and quiver of arrows. The worship of Cartercia takes place on the last day of Cartica, as preparatory to military expeditions, which ought to commence according to Menu in the month Agrabáyana, the Sun being more propitious at that period for such undertakings.

The setting Sun seems followed by the host of Heaven, but how can this be expressed in a single hieroglyphical figure? It was done by giving him a peacock for his Vában, or vehicle, in which the tail of this beautiful bird, studded with eyes and expanded behind the God, pourtrays the firmament spangled with stars. The Egyptians sometimes represented the Sun in the character of a warrior, and he is said to have been addressed as such in the mysteries. But Cartercia is not now considered by the Hindus as the Sun; to account for this, I suppose, that whenever any new sect arose amongst the Hindus in former ages, the leaders invented new symbols exclusively peculiar to themselves, with a view to render their separation from the parent stock more complete, and to mark their worship with distinguishing characters. This practice would give rise to various and different representations of the same object; and, in course of time, as the heat of religious animosities cooled, these various symbols would come to be considered as separate Divinities, and be all blended in one mass of superstitition. Thus the Sun, under the name of Cartercia, becomes the god of war; and, under the name of Crishna, the shepherd god of Matsúr and Vrindávana. The Sun is now separately worshipped under the names of Súrya and Aditya.
OF THE ORIGIN OF

OF INDRA, THE EMBLEM OF THE VISIBLE HEAVENS.

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

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

I consider this fable, as an instance of the foregoing observation: for Indra is a personification of the atmosphere, and visible Heavens; and of course, the eyes, with which he is covered, describe the stars. The rain-bow is the bow of Indra. The water spout is the trunk of his elephant; thunder, lightning and rain, and every phenomenon of the atmosphere, belong to his department; and like the Jupiter of the Greeks and Romans, he has his Heaven, a mansion of sensual delights, and enjoyment.

OF JUPITER AND EUROPA, AND JUPITER AND LEDA.

The Hindus have eight representations of female figures, which, except in sex, exactly resemble the Deity, of which each is a Sakti, or power,
with the same attributes and vehicle: Ma'he'swari is the Sakti of Mahe'sa, or Siva; Brahma or Brahma'ni, of Brahma'; Na'rayani', of Nara'yena; Aindri, of Indra; Gauma'ri, of Ca'rtice'ya; Va'ra'hi, of Vishnu, in the Varaha Avatār; Narasimhi, of Vishnu, in the Narasinha Avatār; and Apara'jita', a form of Bhava'ni', the female principle: this last may be the aphrodite of the Greeks. It is probable, that the representation of Ma'he'swari, or a female Siva, riding on a white bull, may have given rise to the story of Europa's rape: and the representation of Brahma, or the female Brahma', with the swan, may, in like manner, have occasioned the fable of Jupiter and Leda. These explanations were perhaps invented by the Greeks to account for symbols, of the meaning of which they were ignorant.

ANNA PERENNA.

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

According to some authors, she was the daughter of Belus, and sister of Dido, who fled to Battus, king of the isle of Malta, after the death of her sister, when Hierbas, king of the Getulè, attempted to take Carthage. Not finding herself safe with Battus, on account of the threats of Hierbas, she fled to Laurentum in Italy, where Æneas was settled: he met her on the banks of the Numicus, and received her into his palace, treating her with the respect due to her quality. Lavinia considered her as a rival, and fought her destruction, but Anna, being
admonished of this in a dream, fled to the river Numicius, whereof she was made a Nymph, as she told those who sought for her, and ordered them to call her in future Anna Perenna, because she should for ever remain under those waters.

placidi sum Nympha Numici:

Amne perenne latens Anna Perenna vocor.


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

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

Amidst so many conjectures, perhaps we may at this distance of time discover the mystery at Benares, in Anna Pūrṇā Devī, the Hindu Goddess of Abundance, whose name is derived from Anna (food), and Pū-
1st (abundant); let us regularly weigh each conjecture mentioned by Ovid, rejecting only the local story of the deified sister of Dido, and we shall find none that is inapplicable to the Hindu goddess. 1st. The Diana of the Romans was represented with a crescent on her forehead; it was her characteristic mark. The Hindu goddess, as being the consort of Siva or Cakravartin, is decorated in like manner; this may account for her being considered as the Moon. 2ndly. The attributes of Themis, whether she is considered as Ceres, which was the supposition of Clemens of Alexandria, in his description of her obscene mysteries; or, as the goddess of justice, piety and virtue, as described by Diodorus Siculus, are equally applicable to Anna Purana Devi; the conformity of her name and office to the attributes of Ceres is strikingly apparent. But, if Themis is justice, piety and virtue personified, the character will equally suit the consort of the god of justice, Vrishaka Iswara, and the lord of the sacred bull Dherma Raja. 3rdly. That she was Io, the daughter of Inachus, under the form of a cow, is a supposition which will not be found inapplicable to Anna Purana Devi, when it is known that the Earth, symbolized as the cow of plenty, is one of the forms of the Hindu goddess. 4thly. That she was the daughter of Atlas, Maha who was beloved by Jupiter, is a conjecture for which a foundation may be traced in the Hindu goddess. Might not the name of Maya or Maha Maya (the beloved consort of Siva) have given rise to this conjecture; the Hindu term being applied to signify the mother, the great mother? 5thly. The image of Anna Purana is represented sitting on a throne giving food with a golden ladle to an infant Siva, who stretches out his little hand to receive it. Is not the resemblance particularly striking between this representation, and the character of Amalthea, who nursed Jupiter, when an infant? Lastly, the tradition of her being the old woman of Bovilla, which Ovid himself seems inclined to adopt, is equally applicable to Anna.
Pu'rna De'vi, who, according to the Puranas, under the form of an old woman, miraculously fed Vyasa Muni, and his ten thousand pupils, when reduced to the extremities of distress and famine by the anger of S'iva, because Vyasa had presumed to prefer Vishnu to him.

It may not therefore be an unfounded conjecture, that the comfort of S'iva is the point in which all these opinions meet, and that they were founded on confined and confused traditions of the goddess of abundance.

DESCRIPTION of ANNA PU'RNA' DE'VI', FROM THE ANNADA' CRIPA'.

She is of a ruddy complexion, her robe of various dies, a crescent on her forehead, she gives subsistence; she is bent by the weight of her full breasts; Bhava or S'iva (as a child) is playing before her with a crescent on his forehead, she looks at him with pleasure, and seated (on a throne) relieves his hunger; all good is united in her, her names are Annada', Anna Pu'rna' De'vi', Bhava'ni' and Bhaga'vati'.

EXTRACTS.

Sunt quibus haec luna est, quia mensibus impleat annum: 657
Pars Themin, Inachiam pars putat esse bovem.
Invenies, qui te Nymphen Atlantida dicant;
Teque Jovi primos, Anna, dedisse cibos. 660
Haec quoque, quam referam, nostras pervenit ad aures
Fama: nec a verâ dissiit illa fide.
Plebs vetus, et nullis etiamnum tuta tribunis,
Fugit; and in facri vertice montis abit.
Jam quoque, quem secum tulerant, defecerat illos 665
THE HINDU RELIGION.

Victus, et humanis ulibus apta Ceres.
Orta suburbanis quaedam fuit Anna Bovillis
Pauper, sed mundae sedulitatis, anus.
Ilia, levi mtrâ canos redimita capillos,
Fingebat tremulâ rusticâ liba manu.
Atque ita per populum fumantia mane solebat
Dividere. Hac populo copia grata fuit.
Pace domi factâ signum posuere Perennae,
Quod inibi defectis illa tulisset opem.

OF THE FOUR MONTHS SLEEP OF HORUS AND VISHNU.

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

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

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

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

On the eleventh day of the enlightened half of the lunar month Asārḥ, Vishnu begins his repose on the serpent Sēsha. On the same day of the bright half of the lunar month Bbādra, he turns on his side; and on this day the Hindus celebrate the Jal Yātrā, or the retiring of the waters. On the eleventh day of the bright half of the lunar month Cārtica, he is awakened and arises from his sleep of four months.

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

The water, rising till it covers the winding mazes of the river's course, is personified by Vishnu sleeping upon the serpent Sēsha, whose hundred heads are the numerous channels which discharge the waters into the sea. As long as it continues to rise, he sleeps on one side. When the inundation, having risen to its height, begins to subside, he turns on the other side. When the waters have run off, and the winding banks of the river are
completely cleared of the swollen waters of the inundation, he is said to have arisen from his sleep, being invoked, and awakened with this *Mantra* or incantation.

"The clouds are dispersed, the full moon will appear in perfect brightness, and I come in hope of acquiring purity, to offer the fresh flowers of the season; awake from thy long slumber, awake Lord of all Worlds."

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

**Of the Durga Puja.**

The Abbé Pluche mentions an *Egyptian* hieroglyphic from the *Ishac* table. Horus, armed with an arrow, is slaying a river horse, or Hippopotamos, which is surrounded with the leaves of the Lotos, and other aquatic plants. He says, "By this monster, which dwells in the Nile, and comes out of it to lay waste and devour whatever it meets with, we can understand nothing but the inundation." Horus is the same with Heri or Vishnu. If the *Saiyas* admitted in this country a similar victory over the inundation, they would substitute S'iva, or his consolation, for the *Vaisnava* symbol Horus.

The sphinx, an emblem of the Sun's passage through Leo and Virgo, would suggest the idea of decorating Ca'li', like the armed Pallas, as Virgo, attended by her Sinb or Lion, who is S'iva himself in that form; and they ascribe to her a victory over the monster Mahish Asura.
OF THE ORIGIN OF

a giant, with the head of a buffalo: this animal delights in water; and, when he comes out of it, is as destructive by laying waste and devouring the harvest, as the *Hippopotamus*; the latter animal not being a native of Hinduistan, it was natural to supply its place with one which had similar characteristics. If the Hindu religion was brought from Egypt into India, the importers of it would see the same phenomenon of the annual rising of the river; but they would observe, that in this country it was accompanied with heavy rains, thunder, lightning and storms of wind, an apparent war of the elements. Hence the buffalo-headed symbol of the inundation was erected into a giant at the head of a vast army, warring against the Gods: the novelty of these phenomena to the first comers would suggest to them this poetical personification. The title borne by Ca'li in this character is *Durga*, or rather *Durgati Nasini*, the remover of difficulties; as she is a form of Ca'li, she has the same bloody rites.

The Abbé mentions the *Canopus*, as a jar or pitcher of water, intended to make the people acquainted with the exact progress and increase of the inundation: he adds, that they used to mark these jars with the figure \( \times \) or a small cross \( \times \) to express the increase and swelling of the river. *Canob* is the Egyptian word, which is rendered *Canopos* by the Greeks; the information, with this seems intended to convey, was so particularly necessary to the Egyptians, that it is no wonder, it should in course of time cease to be considered as a mere sign, and acquire a place amongst the Deities themselves. The word *Canob* by the analogy of the Sanscrit language becomes *Cumbh*, which signifies a jar or vase: it gives name, in the Hindu Zodiac, to the sign Aquarius. This *Cumbh*, *Ghala*, or jar, is the principal object in the celebration of the Hindu worship. It is considered as almost the Deity itself.
It cannot be dispensed with; while the image of Durga may be omitted entirely. The Vaishnavas use the sacred jar, which they mark with several crosses in this manner \[\text{figure} \] . The Saivas mark the jar with a double triangle, thus \[\text{figure} \] : one triangle signifies Siva, uniting in himself the three great attributes; the other triangle is his comfort with the same character and attributes. The worshippers of the Saiva or female principle mark the jar with this figure \[\text{figure} \]. These marks are called jñātra: they are in fact hieroglyphic characters; and there is a vast variety of them. The above are only mentioned here, because of their use in this Pujā, and as they distinguish three principal sects of the Hindus.

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

On the Hūli of the Hindus, and the Hilaria of the Romans.

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

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

**Of the Vástu Pu'ja of the Hindus, and the Vesta of the Romans.**

On the last day of Pauṣṭa, the Hindus make sweetmeats, with Til, or Sesamum: it is therefore called Tilasaścārānt. It is the day, when landholders worship the Earth and Fire. The sect of Sīva sacrifice a sheep to the Earth; and the Vaiṣṇavas offer up their bloodless oblations to fire. The ceremony is called the Vástu Pujā. Vástu is the habitable Earth. A great Rája was called Vástu Purush; the expression is used by a raiat.
to his zamindar, as a title of the highest respect. I think, that, in the
name of the ceremony and in the objects of worship, may be traced the
Goddess Vesta of the Romans: the Goddess of Nature, under whose
name they worshipped the Earth and Fire.

THE FABLE OF BIR BHADR INVENTED BY THE S'AIVAS TO EXALT
THEIR OPINIONS AND SECT.

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

Dacsha celebrated a yajnya, to which he invited all the Devatas, except
his son-in-law S'iva. His consort the Goddess, being hurt at this exclusion,
went into the assembly, and remonstrated, but in vain; she expired
with vexation upon the spot. S'iva, upon hearing this, throws his Jetá,
or plaited hair, upon the ground, and from that produces Bir Bhadr,
a furious being armed with a trident, who immediately attacks, and
disperses the whole assembly; puts a stop to the sacrifice; and cuts off the
head of Dacsha. S'iva took up the body of his deceased consort, and
placing it upon his head, in a fit of madness, danced up and down the
Earth, threatening all things with destruction. Vishnu, at the request of
the other Devatas, with his Chabera, cut the body of Satí, into fifty-one
pieces, which S'iva, in his frantic dancing, scattered in different parts of
the Earth. Each place, where a part fell, became a place of worship, dedi-
cated to the female Power: and, the frenzy of S'iva subsiding, he ordained,
that the Linga should likewise be worshipped, at each of those places; and Dacsha, on condition of embracing the doctrine of Siva, was restored to life, degraded with the head of a goat, instead of his own. I should imagine, that the furious Bir Bhadra produced by Siva was a vast body of fanatics, raised by the Brahmen of that sect, who might, at that time, have been both popular, and powerful; probably, this was a vast body of fanatic Sannyasis, interested in the dispute by personal motives, as well as instigated by their Brahmen.

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

On the Veneration paid to Kine.

This superstition appears to me to have arisen from the humanity of the first legislators, to prevent the horrid practices which were prevalent in the ancient world, and which exist to this day in Abyssinia: I mean the savage custom of devouring the flesh of the living animal, torn from it while roaring with anguish and expiring in protracted agony.

To eradicate a practice so detestable and dreadfully cruel, they might
consider difficult, if not impossible in the then existing state of society, without interweaving the preservation of so useful an animal, with the indispensible duties of religion. They therefore rendered it sacred.

The Bull was made the emblem of Justice, the vehicle of Siva; and the Cow, a form of Bhavani, and the emblem of the Earth. A mere civil institute, might have been deemed inadequate to work the intended reform. But an indispensible duty, enforced by all the sacred obligations of religion, was thought more likely to produce the effect; as having more hold upon the human mind: especially when that religion was promulgated as the immediate revelation of the Deity.

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

When these animals were thus exalted, the slaughter of them was considered as a sacrilege: it was a natural consequence. But superstition did not stop there; the dung came to be considered as pure; the Hindus use it diluted with water, and mixed with earth, to purify their shops and houses: the spot, on which they eat, is plastered with this composition; and the idols are purified by a mixture of the dung, urine, milk, curds, and butter of the animal; nay, a small quantity of the urine is daily sprinkled by some; every part of the animal is dedicated to some divinity with appropriate invocations; and what originated in policy, has ended in gross superstition. The horrid repasts of the antient world are frequently alluded to. It is said of Orpheus, Caedibus et visa sado deterruit: notwithstanding which, the Grecians are reproached by Julius Firmicus with perpetrating these horrid repasts, as part of the ceremony in the Dionysiacs—Vivum lanians


dentibus taurum, crudeles epulas annuis commemorationibus excitantes;—and again—Ilic, in orgiiis Bacchi, inter ebrias puellas et vincentos senes, cum Scelerum Pompa procederet, alter, nigro amītū teter; alter, ofsenso angue terribili; alter, cruentus ore, dum viva Pecoris membra discerpit. Jul. Firmic. De errore profanarum Religionum. This horrid custom was very antient; and I suppose, with Mr. Bruce, that the prohibitions in Deuteronomy were particularly levelled at this execrable practice; and this evidence, I think, strongly corroborates my supposition. The Egyptians seem to have extended this policy to sheep and goats: for the ram was worshipped at the vernal equinox, and the goat was worshipped at Memphis.

REMARKS ON THE FOREGOING ESSAY.

BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, ESQ.

Several points, relative to the religious ceremonies of the Hindus, and their mythology, which the preceding Essay has touched upon, seem to require elucidation, independently of the purpose, for which they have been there mentioned. The following remarks are therefore subjoined, with a view of adding some information on those subjects.

P. 68. The eight Saṅgis, or energies of as many Deities, are also called Māris or mothers. They are named Braḥma, &c. because they issued from the bodies of Braḥma and the other gods respectively.

* Raya muguta on the Amerāḍa.
In some places, they are thus enumerated: **Brahmi**, **Mahe'swari**, **Aintri**, **Varahi**, **Vaishnavi**, **Cauvari**, **Chaumunda**, and **Charchica**. However, some authorities reduce the number to seven, omitting Chaumunda and Charchica; but inserting Cauveri.

Prayers are addressed to the Matris on various occasions; especially in the Cauchas, or defensive incantations. I shall cite two by way of example; and subjoin extracts from the Mircahye ya pura, descriptive of these goddesses.

"**May Brahma'ni**, conferring the benefit of all benedictions, protect me on the east; and **Na'rayani**, on the south-east, for the sake of realising every wish; **Mahe'swari** too, on the south, rendering everything auspicious; **Chaumunda**, on the south-east, discomfiting all enemies; and, on the west, **Cauvari**, armed with her lance and slayer of foes: on the north-west, **Aparajita**, the beauteous giver of Victory; on the north, **Varahi**, granter of boons; and on the north-east, **Na'rasinhri**, the banisher of terror. May these mothers, being eight Deities and active powers, defend me."

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

In the Devi mabatmya, the assembling of the Matris to combat the demons is thus described. "The energy of each god, exactly like him, with the same form, the same decoration, and the same vehicle, came to fight against the demons. The Sacti of Brahma', girt with a white cord and bearing a hollow gourd, arrived on a car yoked with swans; her title is
Brahma'ni. Mahe'swari' came riding on a bull, and bearing a trident, with a vast serpent for a ring, and a crescent for a gem. Cauma'ri' bearing a lance in her hand, and riding on a peacock, being Ambicâ in the form of Ca'rticâ'ya, came to make war on the children of Diti. The Sâhi named Vaishn'avi' also arrived, sitting on an eagle, and bearing a conch, a discus, a club, a bow, and a sword, in her several hands. The energy of Hari, who assumed the unrivalled form of the holy boar, likewise came there, assuming the body of Va'rahî'. Na'rasinhi' too arrived there embodied in a form precisely similar to that of Nrisinha', with an erect mane, reaching to the host of stars. Aindri' came, bearing the thunderbolt in her hand, and riding on the king of elephants, and in every respect like Indra, with a hundred eyes. Lastly, came the dreadful energy named Chandica', who sprung from the body of Devi', horrible, howling like a hundred shakals: she, surnamed, Apa'ra'jita', the unconquered goddess, thus addressed Isâ'na, whose head is encircled with his dusky braided locks.'

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

In the Uttara Calpa of the same Purâña, the Mâtri's are thus described. 'Cha'mund'a' standing on a corpse, Va'ra'hi' sitting on a buffalo, Aindrî mounted on an elephant, Vaishn'avi' borne by an eagle, Mahe'swari' riding on a bull, Cauma'ri' conveyed by a peacock, Bra'hami' carried by a swan, and Apa'ra'jita' revered by the universe, are all Mâtri's endowed with every faculty.'

It may be proper to notice, that Cha'mund'a, Charchica', and Chandica', are all forms of Parvati'. According to one legend,
CHAMUNDA sprang from the frown of PARVATI, to slay the demons CHANDA and MUNDA. According to another, the mild portion of PARVATI issued from her side, leaving the wrathful portion, which constitutes CALI or the black goddess.

CAUVERI is the energy of CUVERA, the deformed god of riches. NARAYANI, mentioned by Mr. Paterson, and also in the prayers or incantations above cited, is the same with VAISHNAVI.

P. 69. ANNA-PURNA DEVI, or the goddess who fills with food, is the beneficent form of BHAVANI; and very similar to LACSHMI or the goddess of abundance, though not the same Deity. She is described, and her worship is inculcated, in some of the Tantras; but not in the Puranas, so far as I can learn; and the legends, concerning her, are not numerous. She has a temple at Benares, situated near that of Visweswara.

In addition to Mr. Paterson's quotations, it may be observed, that SILIUS ITALICUS (Punic. 8, v. 28, 184) makes the nymph, who was worshipped in Italy, to have been ANNA, the sister of DIDO; and MACROBIUS says (Sat. 1, c. 12), sacrifices, both public and private, were offered by the Romans to ANNA PERENNA; ut annure, perennareque, commodè hceat.

Perhaps ANNA-PURNA may bear affinity to ANNONA. Certainly this term, either in its literal sense, or as a personification (SPENCE's Polymetis. dial. 10), is nearer to the Sanscrit anna, food; than to its supposed root annus, a year.

P. 74. THE Jalayatra, here mentioned, is not universally or generally celebrated; and accordingly it is not noticed in various treatises on the
calendar of Hindu feasts and holidays. The Vishnu d'hermóitara, cited in the Madana vatna, does indeed direct, that, on this day (11th Bbádra in the bright fortnight), a jar of water, with certain other specified articles, be given to a priest; and the Bhatviṣhya requires, that Janardana, or Vishnu, be worshipped with appropriate prayers; but the ceremony, to which Mr. Paterson alludes, must be a different one; and, if I am rightly informed, a festival, which bears the designation mentioned by him (Jala yátrā), is celebrated at the temple of Jagannath, and perhaps at some other places.

P. 77. At most festivals, no less than at that of Durga, a jar of water is placed, and consecrated by prayers, invoking the presence of the deity or deities who are on that occasion worshipped; adding also invocations to Gangá and the other holy rivers. When the celebration of the festival is completed, the holy water, contained in the jar, is employed by the priests to sprinkle or to bathe the person, who commands and defrays the celebration.

Various yantras, or mystical figures and marks, are appropriated to the several Deities, and to the different titles of each Deity. Such figures are usually delineated on the spot, where a consecrated jar is to be placed. These yantras, which are supposed by superstitious Hindus to possess occult powers, are taught in great detail by the Tantras or Agama śástras; but seem to be unknown to the Vedas and Puránas.

P. 78. The Holicá is said, in some Purána, to have been instituted by the king Ambarísha (the great grandson of Bhagíratíha), according to instructions from Náreṇā, for the purpose of counteracting a female demon named D'hun'd'há, whose practice it was to destroy children. In
its origin, this festival does not seem to have had any connexion with the
erial equinox, nor with the close of the year; but with the close of win-
ter and the beginning of Vasant, or the Indian spring. However, it now
corresponds with the end of the lunar year, and the approach of the
equinox.

P. 79. The Tila J∗antrt, or day on which the sun passes from Dha-
*

The Vasyu puj, as an annual ceremony, is peculiar to D'bac and dis-

The word Vasyu signifies, not the habitable earth in
genral, but the site of a house or other edifices in particular.
IV.

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

By Francis Balfour, Esq.

INTRODUCTION.

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

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

To the logical system of this wonderful genius, modern philosophers of distinguished eminence, and amongst these, Lord Kames, have not hesitated to impute the blame of retarding the progress of science and improvement in Europe for two thousand years, by holding the reasoning faculty constrained and cramped by the fetters of syllogism.
From some of the extracts contained in this paper, it will appear, first, that the mode of reasoning by Induction, illustrated and improved by the great Lord Verulam, in his Organum Novum; and generally considered as the cause of the rapid progress of science in later times, was perfectly known to Aristotle, and was distinctly delineated by him, as a method of investigation that leads to certainty or truth; and secondly, that Aristotle was likewise perfectly acquainted, not merely with the form of Induction, but with the proper materials to be employed in carrying it on—Facts and Experiments.

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

* Vide the Section of Induction.
† Vide the Section of the matter of Syllogism.
‡ On the 6th of July 1803, when this paper was delivered to the Asiatick Society, I had heard of Dr. Gillies's admirable exposition of the ethics and politics of Aristotle; but had never been fortunate enough to meet with it, or to know anything of his sentiments on this question, until the 12th of November, when the accidental sale of a private library gave me an opportunity of purchasing it. From the perusal of this wonderful book, I have now the satisfaction to discover, that the conjectures which I had been led to draw from these scanty materials, are completely confirmed by the opinion of an author, who is probably better qualified than any preceding commentator on Aristotle's works to decide on this subject.—Vide Gillies's Aristotle, Vol. I, page 68, 76, 78, 79, &c.
The discussion of these points, being in some degree curious, and not altogether unconnected with the pursuit of Oriental literature, may not be unacceptable to this Society. But taken in another view, I conceive that they may become in some respect useful. A scientific analysis of the reasoning faculty, delineating all its powers and operations, and affixing to each an appropriated form of expression, gives, naturally, to those who acquire it, a mode of thinking that is accurate and profound; and establishes amongst the learned a peculiar style, more precise and enlightened than that which is employed by the multitude in the common transactions of life.

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

يابا أول در تعريف مشتغل برجمارفصل است
فصل أول در نتائج
فصل دوم در مفهوم
فصل سوم در كلبايات حمص
فصل قها رم در تعرفات

يابا دوم در حجيت مشتغل برجمارفصل است
فصل أول در تصيه
فصل دوم در تياس
فصل سوم در استقرا
فصل قها در تبديل
فصل نينج در تفسير مقاس بحسباء 108
In the Name of God, the Compassionate, the Merciful!

EXTRACTS FROM THE TEHZEEBUL MANTIK.

THE CONTENTS.

PART I. Of Definition.

Sect. I. Of Expression.

II. Of Ideas formed by the Intellect.
III. Of the Five Universal Ideas called Predicables.
IV. Of different kinds of Definitions.

PART II. Of Demonstration.

Sect. I. Of Propositions.

II. Of Syllogism.
III. Of Induction.
IV. Of Analogy.
V. Of the division of Syllogisms according to their Matter.
فصل در مقدمه

مقدمه در لغت بیشتر کرده شده و در استدلال مقدمه ان جنرال است که مبسوط است "بر اواخر در هر عالم بطوری بناي وشناساي، ولذا هماده اهل تصانیف ور ان جا ریشد که پیش از اواخر در فصلی جدا می‌آورد و از اواخر مقدمه در جنرال سه چیز می‌کورینشود رسم العالم يعني تعریف عالم غایت العالم يعني تاییده عالم موضوع العالم يعني انچه دران علم از موارد ذاتی از اواخر کنند چنانچه بدن انسان در علم طب و کلیه و علم در علم نیست معرف

و باخت در علم منطق

پس بدانیکه عالم يعني صورت حاصل در عقل از دیوای بیرون نیست انقطحصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصول صورت شی است در عقل با حصل
THE PREFACE.

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

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

Perception is either the idea of a single object, such as the idea of Zeid; or of several objects, such as the idea of Zeid and Omar. Or it may be the idea of an object standing in a relation that is imperfect; for example, the slave of Zeid; or in a relation that is perfect, in which case it must not be connected with a predicate, but without one, such as the ereb, (i.e.) beat thou. It may also be in construction with a predicate, provided that it imply no conclusion; as in the idea of conjecture and doubt.
الاختلاف بين اعتقاداً واحداً بأي شيء يعكس ارتباطه.

ونقسام ميشون اين هرم الصورة يعني بالبداية تيبام ليل

بطرف ضوئوري يعني بهذي وابتناء بالنظرية نظرية يس جبار

تساه حاص الميشون تصور بديهي تصور نظرية يعين

معلوم تصورى و

مجهول تصورى

تقديم بديهي وتصديق نظرية يعين

معلوم تصديقي و

مجهول تصديقي

أما معلوم تصورى جناحه تصور حرارت وبرود

ومجهول تصورى جناحه تصور حقيقة ملك وجن

ومعلوم تصديقي جناحه تصديق ابتدائي كإدانتا روش است

ومجهول تصديقي جناحه ابتدائي كحاكم جاهل است وصانع

موجود است

وتنذر إشاعباً الصلاح ملاحظة معتقد است براي تكسيم مجهول

يعني ملاحظة معلوم تصورى است ومعلوم تصديقي براي أكتماله

مجهول تصورى ومجهول تصديقي كأثري واقعي ميشون دزنلر

ماذكور خطا
INTELLECT or judgment consists in giving assent to some proposition, such as "Zeid is standing," or "Zeid is not standing."

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

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

1. The known demonstrable.
2. The unknown demonstrable.

The idea of heat and cold, is an example of the known perceptible.

The idea of angels and genii, is an example of the unknown perceptible.

The proposition that the sun shines, is an example of the known demonstrable; and

The proposition that the world was created, and that there is a Creator, is an example of the unknown demonstrable.

In the language of logicians, examination or inspection is the contemplation of the thing known to obtain a knowledge of the thing unknown; that is to say, the contemplation of the known perceptible, and the known demonstrable to obtain a knowledge of the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable; and as mistakes often happen in this investigation,
يس تأكيد است ازتخاذك يعني تأهيله كلي كنهاة مدار دهين را
ازخطا درنکرو وان تاون منطق است

پس ازین تهیه رسم العلم يعني علم منطق تأهيله كلي است كه
در اینه میدارد دهین را ازخطا درنک مغروم شد

و تکر در اصطلاح ايشان ترتيب دادن امری چندر معلوم است
تا پرساند بطرف مجهول وضهناغايت علم نیازاها ومستکلف کردن

باثری مناد موضوع العلم وان معلوم تصوري است وسعلا تصديقي
با است حيضيت كه موصول است بطرف مجهول تصوري و مجهول
تصديقي أول را معرف كويند واثني را حجابا اما معرف چنین چه
تصور حیوان ناطق كه موصول است بطرف انسان وحجب چنانچه
العالم متفق و كل تغيير حادث كه موصول است بطرف تصديق
اينهي يعني كه عالم حادث است

باب اول در تعریف
فصل اول در دلائل

دلتا در اصطلاح ايشان بودن شي است باين حيضيت
كه واجب شود از علم ان علم ديكر اول را دال كويند واثني را
مدلول ونال اکرلگذاست دلائل لغطي كوبيند أكرغيرلگذاست
دلالت غير لغطي وحجيله بر شش تسم منقسم ميشود دلالت
لغطي وضعي
there is indispensibly required some general rule to preserve the mind from falling into an error in the process of thinking. This rule is logic.

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

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

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

**PART I. OF DEFINITION.**

**SECT. I. OF EXPRESSION.**

Expression in the technical language of logicians, is the existence of a thing in such general use, that there necessarily or irresistibly arises from the knowledge of that thing the knowledge of another thing. The first they call the Sign, the second the thing signified. If the sign be a word, they call it verbal expression; and if not a word, they call it expression not verbal; and these two together comprehend fix different distinctions: 1. Assigned expression verbal; 2. Assigned expression not verbal; 3. Natural expression.
دلالات غير لغطوي و ضعي دلالات لغطوي طبيعي دلالات غير لغطوي طبيعي دلالات غير لغطوي عقلية

وضعية عقلية دلالات غير لغطوي عقلية ما دلالات غير لغطوي و دلالات عقلية دلالات غير لغطوي عقلية دلالات غير لغطوي عقلية دلالات غير لغطوي عقلية

دور وقوع مكمل دلالات غير لغطوي طبيعي دلالات عقلية سريعة نبض

نحو عقلية عقلية دلالات عقلية دلالات عقلية

كما مس不出 است ذي ديار بوجود لانظ و دلالات غير لغطوي

و ولذوا من ازها وحلوله دلالاتها معصم دلالات لغطوي وضعية

است ولين ورس الوانه است مطابقت تفضيل والتزام تزامن دلالات

بوضوحه يعني مصداص خود ازه حال مايرون نيس تيات باز

بوضوحه است دلالات لغطوي أنبرمان برحبوان نيا بر

خارج موضعه است دلالات لغطوي أنبرمان برحبوان نيا بر

خُرجت الكتات وتول مطابقت است و ثاني تفضيل وثالث التزام.
verbal; 4. Natural expression not verbal; 5. Intellectual expression verbal; 6. Intellectual expression not verbal. The word Zeid appropriated to an individual, is an example of assigned expression verbal. The four signs, a line, a knot, a landmark, a signal, are examples of assigned expression not verbal. The exclamation oh! oh! from a pain in the breast, is an example of natural expression verbal. The quickness of the pulse, indicating fever, is an example of natural expression not verbal. The word Diz heard from behind a wall, and implying the existence of a speaker, is an example of intellectual expression verbal; and the sign of smoke, implying the existence of fire, is an example of intellectual expression not verbal.

But of all these different modes of expression, we mean, at present, to consider only that of verbal expression assigned, which is of three kinds; 1. That by conformity; 2. That by implication; and 3. That by association. Thus a verbal expression assigned, may denote its object by corresponding with the whole of its character; as the word insaun, man, denotes a living being endowed with speech. By expressing a portion of its object, as the word insaun (i.e.) man, implies an animal. By acting without or beyond its object, as the word insaun (i.e.) man, implies a being capable of science, and the art of writing. The first is agreement or conformity, the second implication, the third association.
لِيَكِنُّ ذِلْلِي لاَ تُرَادُ التَّنْزِامِيَةُ لَزَوْمِ ضَرْوِ اسْتِدِكَةَ عَقَالَةُ بَاَشَلِ جَنَّانِهَا
تُصَوِّرُ بِصَرَنَّ نسْبَتُ بَأِمِّي يَا عَرْنَا جَنَّانِيَّةَ تُصَوِّرُ جوْدَ نسْبَتُ حَكَامِ.
وَلَا يَكُنِّ ابْنِكَ بَرَاءُ ذِلْلِي تَقْسِيمَ وَالْتَنْزَامِ ضَرْوِ رَاسَ ذِلْلِي
مَطَابِقَتُ بِرَوْقَ مَطَابِقَ كَهَوَا ابْنِهَا حَنَّا بَيْتُ رَسُولِهِ، يَنْسُيِّي بَيْتُ جَانِبِهَا،
ذِلْلِيَّ تَقْسِيمَ وَالْتَنْزَامِ ضَرْوِ رَاسَ ذِلْلِي مَطَابِقَتُ ضَرْوِ رَاسَ ذِلْلِي وَجَاَ نِيَّةَ
ذِلْلِيَّ مَطَابِقَتُ أَسْتِ تَقْسِيمَ وَالْتَنْزَامِ ضَرْوِ رَاسَ ذِلْلِي وَلِغَفَالَةَ بِالْمَطَابِقَت
أَكَرَّ جَدَارَ وَجَزَائِرَ دَايَمَتْ بَيْنَ جَزَائِرَ مَعْنَى يَسِيّرَ لَغَظَّ مَرْكَبَ أَسْتِ
مَرْكَبَ يَا تَأَمَّسْ أَسْتِ بَعْنِي مَخَاطِبَ رَا صَحِبَ وَسَكُوتُ مَيّ تَتَشَدِّد
يَا نَاقِصَ وَتَأَمَّسْ بِرَدَّ كُونَهَا أَسْتِ خَيْرِ جَنَّانِهَا زَيدُ نَأْيَامَ وَاَنْتِشاً جَنَّانِهَا
اضْرِبَ وَمَرْكَبٌ نَاَيَّرَ بُسَّنَغَ كُونَهَا أَسْتِ تَرْكِيبٌ إِثْرَاءً فَي جَنَّانِهَا
غَلَامُ زَيْدٌ وَتَرْكِيبٌ توْقِيـيْ جَنَّانِهِ رَجَلٌ فَاتِلَ وَتَرْكِيبٌ
تَتَرْكِيبٌ جَنَّانِهِ الرَّجَلُ وَفِي الْحَرَامِ وَتَرْكِيبٌ تَعْدَادٍ جَنَّانِهِ
خَيْهَةٌ عَشُرَ وَتَرْكِيبٌ امْتَزَاجٌ جَنَّانِهِ بَعْلِبَكَ كَدُ رَأِسُ نَامَ
بِتَّ وَبَالْشَاهِ إِسْتِ وَبَعْدُ أَزِانَ الشَّهْرِيَّ بَدْيَنَ اسْمُ مَسْهُومٍ شَهْدٍ
But in the case of expression by association, the association must either be intellectual—inferred, as for example the idea of light associated with one that is blind; or founded on real knowledge such as the idea of generosity connected with a Prince.

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

If the terms of the conformable expression consist of parts, and these parts be conformable to portions of the sense, then that term is a compounded word; and the compound is either perfect, giving to the hearer complete satisfaction; or imperfect. Perfect compounds are of two kinds, viz. predicative such as "Zeid is standing;" or insaun, such as ezreb, beat thou. Imperfect compounds are of five kinds, 1st, The composition of relation such as "the slave of Zeid;" 2d, The composition of qualification, such as "an excellent man;" 3d, The composition of confirmation, Such as "the man in the house;" 4th, The composition of numbers, such as Hemfeh Usher; and 5th, The composition of habit, use, custom, such as "Balbec," which originally is the name of a devil or king, and has now became the name of a city.
واكر چنین نیست يعني جزولغظ دال بر جزومعینی نیست ان رامقرد
کوی و مغفر بر سه کونه است آرمعینی او مستقل است و هیئیت خون
دلالت میکنند از زمانه از از زمانه تلثه پس ان کلیه نفع است و آكر
چنین نیست بلکه تخص مستقل است پس اسم است و آكر از فردود
ودرون اسم يعني ندلات میکنند بر زمانه و نه مستقل است پس
حرف وادات است

وازان اسم بر پیدا کونه است علم مستواطی مشکل مشترک منتقل
حتی وقت می جاز

چراکه از واحدها بیرن نیست معنی او واحد است یا از اسم یا از اسمه
است که معنی دارد واقع شد هنگام فقط ولی عاجز
ویگهرها
و بیدون تخص مستواطی است کرمساوی باشد افرا دان چنلا نبی
و علم واقع
و مشکل است کرمستفاوت باشد با ولیت و ولیت چنلا نبی وجود
نسبت بواجاب تعالی و هگن
واکر چنین نیست يعني کنیر است پس کر موضع کر شده است برای
هر واحد بر پیدا چنلا نبی فقط عین که موضوع است برای ذات وزر
و جشن و جشن پس مشترک است
واکر بر پیدا نیست بلکه اول برای پیک معنی موضوع شده بعد ازان
But if the terms of conformable expression be not of this description; that is to say, if portions of the expression be not conformable to portions of the sense, it is then called simple or uncompounded, which is of three kinds; 1st, When the sense is affirmative and at the same time expresses in its form one of the three tenses it then constitutes that part of the speech called a verb. 2. If it do not express time, but merely some object, then it is a noun; and 3. If it express neither time nor any particular object, then it is a particle.

The noun is of several kinds; 1st. Appellations or proper names; 2d. Generic names; 3d. Unlimited or ambiguous terms; 4th. Synonymous terms; 5th. Technical terms; 6th. Literal terms; 7th. Metaphorical terms. 1. As a noun may express one or many, it is either singular, or plural. If it express one with an appropriation to a particular individual, then it is a proper name, such as the names Zeid and Omar, &c. 2. If it express one, without any appropriation to a particular individual, and all the individuals be equal or alike, then it is a generic name, such as a sheep, a goat, &c. 3. If it be variable with respect to priority or excellence as the word nature or existence with regard to the Creator and his creatures, then it is variable or ambiguous; 4. If the noun is common to many objects, and is appropriated to each of these alike, as the word Aeen which signifies self, gold, fountain, and the eye; then it is synonymous or equivocal; 5. But if it be not uniformly so, but being first used in one sense,
بطرف معني ديك منقول كشفهم دران مشور كرديته ان را منقول
كويند ونسبت كرد ميشون بطرف ناقل واكر ناقل أوحرف عام استه
منقول عرفي كويند وأكر خاص است اصطلاحي كويند وأكر شرع
است منقول شرعي كويند كأكر كحين نبست بلغه دره دومعني
مستعمل است نسبت باول حقيقت است ونسبت بنائي شج زاست

چنابه لغظاسد كه نسبت لحيوان صايل يعني شير حقيقة است
ونسبت برجل سجاج مجاز است

فصول دوم در رانست مغوم
بدانكه عرض منطقي مقصود بالذات از مغوم است بحث ازلاث
واغاظه حض بالعرض بولدك اين واستفاده ناذ استغادة اقتصاده است
پس بدانكه مغوم اكر زديك بتجوز عقل مهتنع با شد صدق
ای بن كثير بين پس جري است جناب لد زين وأكر جين نبست
بعني نرديك بتجوز عقل صدق بن بنكر پين مهتنع نبست پس
قل است كرچه مهتنع باشند موجود ان فرامنجان اشرک بالبي با
ميهك معدوم الوجود باشد جنابه عنقنا يا يانچه شده باشد واحد نفط
مع انكان الأغير جناب لله يامع امتناع الخير جناب لله واجب الوجود
and afterwards converted to another, becomes current in its new acceptation, it is then metaphorical, and takes its character from the person who employs it. If the speaker be an illiterate common person, it is called a vulgar phrase; if he be a man of science, it is called a technical term; and if he belong to the law, it is called a law phrase. But if this be not the case, and a word be used indiscriminately in both ways, the first directly applicable to its original object, and the second to that to which it is transferred; such as the word lion, it constitutes when signifying a fierce animal, the literal or 6th species of Noun, and when used to denote a hero, the 7th species, or figurative.

Sect. II. Of Ideas formed by the Intellect.

Be it known that the object of the logicians considered strictly is the thing comprehended by the understanding. Our discussion respecting expression and language was necessary to our design merely because this is the instrument or means by which that is conveyed or understood. Know then that an idea, which in the conception of the understanding, is not, true or applicable to the whole of the individuals of a class, is a particular idea; and that an idea that is applicable to the whole without restriction is an universal idea, even although it should exclude the existence of other constituent parts, for example "an equal to God," or though it should express a being having no existence, such as the Unca; or if there should be found a single being with the mere probability of another, such as the Sun; or with the impossibility of another, such as the Creator.
یاکتزمریا ناشنا می‌زاده‌ان، مع التناهی چنانچه سبعه‌پیانه و عدم تناهی

مواد باری

چون در بین کلی و جزیی تفرتی حاصل شدی وضع حالا بدانی دوام

نکلی که از زین‌های نسبت محتقق می‌شود تبابی تساوی به‌هم

خصوص مطلق علوم خصوص من وجه

تبایی ان است که از هردو چنبد تفگری کلی باشد چنانچه انسان

و حکم‌رکه یک جاماتا نیلی لاید این نسبترا در اصفال ایشان تبابی

کویند و هرود گلی را باهم متسابین

و تساری ان است که در چنبد لوجه صدیق کلی باشد چنانچه انسان

وناقلی که چاکه انسان است ناقلی است و چاکه ناقلی است انسان

نیمی انسان این نسبترا تساری کویند و هرود گلی را باهم متساوی

و عم خصوص مطلق ان است که چنبدی چنبدی انسان و جابیه انسان است

وازجانب دیکرنه چنانچه انسان و حیوان جابیه انسان است حیوان

الهمه خواهد بود و جابیه حیوان است انسان ضرور نیست این

نسبترا از خصوص مطلق کویند و هرود گلی را باهم خاص مطلق

و عم خصوص من وجه ان است که در هردو از زین‌های جاناب صدیق

کلی نباشد چنانچه حیوان و اسود در بعضی محل حیوان است
or where several individuals are included with a limitation, such as the wisdom of God.

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

1. The relation of contrariety or disagreement is that in which there is a general repugnance on both sides as between man and stone; which do not reciprocate or correspond in any point, this relation logicians call contrariety, and the two general ideas with regard to each other contraries.

2. The relation of agreement is that in which there is a perfect reciprocity and agreement, for example "man" and "an animal endowed with speech." For where there is a man, there also is an animal endowed with speech. This is called the relation of agreement; and the general terms are called correspondent or reciprocal.

3. In the relation called Amom Chisfoos Mutlick, the sense of the general idea is corresponding or reciprocal only in one way; and not in the other; for example "man," "and living animal," where there is a man there is of course a living animal. But the reverse of this is not necessary. This relation is called Amom Chisfoos Mutlick, and both terms opposed to each other Amom Chisfoos Mutlick.

4. And the relation of Amom Chisfoos min wajih is that in which there is no reciprocation between the terms in any way; such as "animal" and "blackness." For sometimes there is an animal without blackness, and
لا يوجد نص يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
sometimes blackness without an animal. This is called *Amom Chisoo* 

min vojeb, and the terms in relation to each other *Amom Chisoo* min vojeb.

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

Let it also be remembered that sometimes the term *Fuzzi* is used for 

Achuz a portion, that is to say that whatever is ranked under a general 
idea is called *Fuzzi*. But the first, viz. *Achuz*, is called a real portion, 
and the second *Fuzzi izausi*, that is a related part. According to this rule, 
therefore, man with regard to animal is a related part; and animal is a 
part with regard to *Jism naumi* or body defined; and body defined is a 
related part with regard to body in general, accordingly whatever is arranged 
under a general idea may be called *Fuzzi izausi*, or a related part.
فصل سوم در دانستن کلیات جسم

و کلیات هیویکی پیچ کرده‌اند. جنس نوع نعمت خاصه عنصر عالم‌گرایه‌ی

هور مفهوم کلیه‌ی به همست از دو جاح بیرون نیست. داخل ماهیت

است. با خارج ماهیت آرزو و دو جاح ماهیت نیز از دو جاح بیرون نیست.

تنهای ماهیت افزود است. با خارج ماهیت. آرزو ماهیت افزود است.

خدا است. چنان‌چه انسان که تنهای ماهیت زید و چرخه و غیره. افزود است. پس از آن‌ها کوئنند آرزو ماهیت افزود است. خدا نیست بلکه

جروح ماهیت است. ان درمی‌آرزو حال بیرون نیست. جامع است. جمع مسترکت مختلف حقائق را یا جامع نیست. اکثر مجمع است.

چنان‌چه حیوان که جامع است درمیان انسان و فرس و بقر که باهم

اختلاف حقائق اند پس از آن‌ها چنین کوئنند لیکن در ویکتا

فرز نازک. این حیوان است که دریک محل جنس تواند

بود و دریک محل نوع و تنبیه سوال کند در حقائق انسان

و فرس و درگویان این حیوان واقع شود پس در مرز جنس

است. چراکه انگاج مفهوم حیوان نسبت به انسان جنرال‌ماهیت است.

و هم مجمع است درمیان انسان و فرس که باهم مطلق حقائق

اند و تنبیه سوال کند از حقائق فرس و بقر و غنی و غیره پس
SECT. III. OF THE FIVE UNIVERSALS CALLED PREDICABLES.

The universals or predicables are altogether of five kinds, viz. genus, species, difference, peculiarity, accident. For every universal is reducible to one of two kinds, it is either inherent in the form, or not inherent in the form. If it be inherent in the form, this also is of two kinds. It either includes the whole form or character of the individuals under it; or it is only a part of the form; if it include the whole form of the individuals under it, such as "Man," which includes the whole form of Zeid, Omar, or Beckar, &c. then it is called a species. If it be not the whole form of the individuals but only a portion, this also is of two kinds. It either comprehends the whole of the different individuals, or it does not, if it comprehend the whole like Heywain, animal, which comprehends man, horse, and goat, varying in their character from each other, then they call it a genus, but here there is a nice distinction; for "animal" which is in one place a genus, in another way becomes a species. For example, when it is asked what is the nature of man or horse, and it is answered that they are animals, then, in this case, it is a genus: because here the idea of animal with regard to man is only part of his character, and at the same time comprehends man and horse, which vary in their nature from each other. But when the question is put respecting the nature of horse, goats, and sheep, &c.
اگر صورت نوع است چرا که در انتقال مفهوم حیوان جزو ماهیت نیست و گردیده درست و آگاهی است و اگر ماهیت است با عنوان که جامع نیست و گردیده یا زمان مشترکه متفاوت دانسته را یک
فصل است که در نافذ که به ماهیت نیست و جزو ماهیت انسان است.
لیکن یک اورامیکند و این هر سردا در اصطلاح این یا دیگران داتی کویند و ان چه در راج
ماهیت است اگر نیز از برخال یهیز نیست و مختصر تحقیقات واحد
است یا تحقیص واحده نیست و مختصر تحقیقات واحد
است چنانچه اگر که مختصر تحقیقات انسان است فقط یک
خانه کویند اگر مختصر تحقیقات نیست و چنانچه جرم وصفر پس
آن را ملع بام کوئیند
فصل چهارم در تعریفات
بدانکه غیر از این تصورات دانست معلوم تصویری بود باشد
حیث که موصول است بطرف مجهول تصویری و ان را معرف
کویند پس چون از چرای معرفی که کلیات اند خسیده نارضای
حال و معروف را که مقصود بالذات از چهار ماهیت هر یک است که به می‌شود
in this case animal is a species; for the thing understood by animal is not a part of the character but the whole of the character of horse, goat, and sheep. But if it be a portion of the character in such a manner as not to include the different associates, but to exclude them, then it is a difference, for example nautik, speaking; which is not the whole, but part of the character of man, which they abstract.

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

Sect. IV. Of the different species of Definition.

Let it be remembered, that our object in discussing the subject of ideas was to obtain a knowledge of the known perceptible in such a manner or form as might lead to a knowledge of the perceptible unknown, and this they call maurris, that is, a definition; and, therefore, since its constituent parts, which are the five universal ideas or predicables, have been just now described, a definition, which in reality consists of those, is of course, already explained.
معرفی هر چیزیان است که جهت کرده شده برای اینکه
فایده تصور ان شی حاصل شرایطی که معرفی انسان حیوان ناطق
که وشرط است در معرفی اینکه مساری باشد برای معرفی بعنی
انزى تعیین ان که میشود لازم است که با نسبتی مسارات منتفی
باشد ونیز لازم است که معرفی اجلا بعنی واضح تر و روشن تر باشد
پس تعیین بالا دستم میلیا نیست مثال تعیین انصل حیوان و
باخص نیز روا نسبت مثال تعیین حیوان با نساین جراکه درمان
هر نشست یا محصول مطلوق است مسارات نیست وشرط این است
که مسارات باشد ونیز جایز نیست که تعیین به چیزی که مساری
میلیا بیش در علم و چنان چنان جایز نیست به چیزی که اختم از
معری در حال شرط این شده که معری مساری واجلی

پس چون تعیین معری وشرط این معلوم نه اینکه
معری همچنان کاونه است حذف کردن حد ناصح رسم تام رسم
نافذی اکثر انسان تریب ونصل تریب باشد که تغییر انسان
حیوان ناطق پس حد تام است و اکثر انسان بعید ونصل تریب
The *maurraf* or the *thing defined* is that respecting which every circumstance is collected that can tend to give a proper idea of it, take for example *heiwawun nautik*, a *speaking animal*, as the definition of "*insaun*," that is *Man*; and, in defining, the definition must correspond with the thing defined, that is to say, the description with regard to the thing described must stand in the relation of *mussawawt muttabukuk* real correspondence. It is likewise required that the definition should be more perspicuous, that is, more clear and obvious, and for this reason defining by a term that is more general than the thing defined is not proper; such for example as the description of *Man* by the term *animal*. Neither is it admissible to define by a term that is less general; such as the description of *animal* by the word *Man*; because the relation between *animal* and *man*, is that of *Amom Chusofe Mutluk*, and not that of *Mussawaat* or perfect agreement, which is required, nor is it allowable to define by means of a thing equally known, or less known than the thing defined, because it is required that the description should correspond, and be at the same time more clear.

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

1. *Huddi Taum* or *perfect definition*.
2. *Huddi Naukis* or *imperfect definition*.
3. *Refimi Taum* or *perfect indication* or *designation*.
4. *Refimi Naukis* or *imperfect indication* or *designation*.

1. If the definition consist of the nearest genus and the nearest difference, then it is a perfect definition, such as *Heiwawun Nautik*, the definition of man. 2. If it consist of the remote genus and the nearest difference,
بور واحات البهجة تعيش في
انسان جسم نامي ذاتماً ينطلق من نقطة وعصر الجنس.

تعريف حيوان صاحب ضوء لا يناسبه، عدم وضعه، وضعه ما هو.

تعريف الإنسان جسم نامي صاحب ضوء لا يناسبه، وضعه ما هو.

بعرض عام معمر، عرض غرور، ازعرف، امتياز، وعرف.

أستمر آياً وآياً فابره، ازعرف عام حاسأل نبيشود، وهيش.

رفعت داية شده السن، رفعت السن، خواه حذنات صد باشد، خواه.

نعاص تعريف بلغة ما تعريف لغزلي، وتعريف لغزلي ينست

ك معنى لغزلي ناملوم، ما تعريف لغزلي، ديك براي تفسير وتوصيص

أوردده شد جناغي، كونها، الغضفر، شرارة وهم، تعريف لغزلي، كاهي بلغة عامه، اكتفاه دا.

شيعل الجناح، مسي، كم، بان، سيد كن، رهيب، انا

كل أست، قينين، أكر، رخبت وناصر، ضوء، ناصر، لغزلي، عام، وار، شده،

د.
or the nearest difference alone, then it is an imperfect definition, such as Ḥiṣm Naumi Nautik for man, or Nautik alone. 3. If the description consist of the nearest genus, and the property or peculiarity, such as Ḥieqawun Saahuk, a creature that laughs, for man, it is a perfect mark or designation. 4. And if it consist of the remote genus and peculiarity, or of the peculiarity alone, then it is an imperfect mark or description, such as Ḥiṣm Naumi Saahuk, a piece of laughing substance, or Saahukie, laughing, only, as a designation of man.

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

ویای معدنی از تصدیقات دانستن معلوم تصدیقی است باین
که می‌توانست در همه جهت تصدیقی وان را پایین و حیفت
کوبنده حکم در این ترابه است از قضاپاس اول دانستن قضیه

لازم است

الذین اول تصدیقی و اکذب قضیه در اصطلاح ایشان قول
است باین مرکب است چون مسکون او از تایم افتاده و مسکون
که مسکون دیگر که زیاد تایم بر خلاف انشا باین افریب غرض
که خبر به را در اصطلاح ایشان تصدیقه کوبنده وان قضیه اکثر باشد

حکم در این بیش خبر خویش بایی چیزی برای چیزی چنانچه که نشت یابن
چیزی از چیزی چنانچه یک بیش یاد لس بیاین باین زیاد نبست تایم
پس این قضیه حلاله است لیکن در حق این ایست که اول را جعله
موجبه کوبنده ودینی را جعله سالبه ونام آن از او می‌کرد حکم علیه
موضوع بیاین ایشان حکم گردیده است بر ایشان که از امر کردن
تا در اصطلاح ایشان موضوع کوبنده چنانچه در اصطلاح نیست

مبتدی و حکم به را در اصطلاح ایشان حکم لخواند باین ایشان

حکم که گردیده است بندوچنانچه تایم در زیاد تایم ایپر کوبنده

کوبنده
PART II. OF DEMONSTRATION.

SECTION I. OF PROPOSITIONS.

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

A proposition is a sentence containing either a truth or an untruth; that is to say in the language of logicians, it is a compound or affirmation containing what is true or false; such as ZEID is standing, in contradistinction to an expression such as Azreb which does not convey any assertion. In short the thing predicated is called a proposition, and if that proposition affirm something of another thing, as in the preceding example, or deny any thing of another thing, as in the example ZEID Kauim Naib, ZEID is not standing,” then these are absolute propositions, and the first is called an absolute affirmative, and the second an absolute negative, and the subject of which the affirmation is made, corresponding to muttida in grammar is called Mozooey; as ZEID in the sentence ZEID Kauim: and the thing spoken or proposed respecting the Mozooey is called Mubmoel: such as Kauim he is standing, in the sentence ZEID Kauim,
Extracts from the

چنانچه در اصطلاح نیست خبر
و پیچ دال بر تیزی است انتا رابط کوشیدن چنانچه در اصطلاح
به ضرورت واستعاره کرده انت دیای این لفظه متعین رابط در زیاد
تا و مثل ان مناد در لفظ مذکور نیست و ضروراست که دیای رابط
کلام چیزی می‌باشد یکس لاو زم در این معانی استعاره کرده انت پیچه
هویغی کوینه که دیای رابط کلام هو در این معانی است
و اکر ایفچینی نباشد چنانچه که چکشت پس ان قلمه شرطه
کوینه چنانچه ان کانت الشیس طالعه نالنهاز موجود یعنی اکر
باشهد انتزاب روش ره پس روز موجود است ایفچینی قلمه را قلمه
شرطه و نام داشته می‌شود چگر اول یعنی انکانت الشیس طالعه
در اصطلاح ایشان مقتنی پننانچه در اصطلاح نیست شرط و نام داشته
می‌شود چنین نالنهاز موجود در اصطلاح ایشان تالی چنین
در اصطلاح نیست خبر

بعد از این باد انته قلمه حیله بحلیس موضوع بر کنال قسم
منقسم می‌شود

فصل دوم در بیان قیاس

قیاس قوی است چون بکر چنین داده شده است از قلمه ای ایفچینی
corresponding in the language of syntax to the term *Chabber*.

That which expresses the connection between the subject and predicate is called *Raabit* or copula. In grammar they make use of the word *Hoo* for this connection; and some thing similar being required for connecting the words "*Zeid Kauim*" they have, for this purpose, substituted the pronoun *Hoo*, which is understood without being expressed.

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

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

**Sect. II. Of Syllogisms.**

A *syllogism* is a sentence composed of propositions, and in such a manner,
قول که لازم است برای ذات اوتوپلی درکر داده‌کننده چون از لحاظ تفسیرهای که دانستن جهت موتوف بدان بود فارغ شد اگون در بخش جهت شرع کردن و حیات دانل اورنج از حال جزئی است برای اثبات حال جزئی و این برخی که تهیه است قرار است اما تیاسب ان است که دانل ارد از حال کلی برخال جزئی که این جزئی داخل ان کلیست پس شرک اان حال خواهد بود این ترم دانل معنی یافتن است، دانل العالم منتظری و گیا می‌گیرد خاص خواهد شد که العالم حادث دانالکه تولولت گچ از ذات اوتوپلی درکر لازم می‌باشد اما تیاسب کوئن دانل توحیه نمی‌شد و هر در طرف نتیجه شفه منعومه و هموم نتیجه که ریاس ماذکراند ایما مهد نتیجه خوانند و ترتیب که در میان انها واقع است اما هیئت نامزد فرمایند پس اگر نتیجه ان درون تیاسب به داش و هیئت خون مذاکر است ان قیاسا تیاسب استنفای کوئن دان لرکه مستدل است بور کلیه استنفا و بایعیه ایکن دانل جنایت چه کاکانت مشهد تالعه نالنیار موجود که اندرونتیاس به داش و هیئت مذاکراند و اکرم که اندرونتیاس به داش و هیئت مذاکراند و اکرم
that there necessarily arises from this composition another sentence. Know then that having finished our investigation of propositions on the previous knowledge of which all reasoning or demonstration depends, I shall now consider demonstration:—Demonstration or reasoning is the process of inferring some thing from the state of one thing to prove the state of another; and this is of three kinds, viz. Syllogism, Induction, and Analogy. Syllogism is that in which an inference is drawn from a general rule or class to a subordinate part or individual belonging to that class; which must of course partake of its general nature or character. This species of argument affords certainty or truth. Take for example "The world is changeable, and every thing liable to change was created;" thus they obtain the conclusion that the world did not exist from eternity, that is, was created. Be it then understood that two sentences combined, from the nature of which there necessarily arises a third, constitute what is called Kecause or syllogism: and the third sentence thus obtained is called Neteejeb; that is, the conclusion.

The subject and predicate contained in the conclusion of the syllogism described is called the Masdeb, that is, the matter of the conclusion; and the order in which they are placed constitutes what is called Heiyet, that is, the form or figure. If the matter and figure of the conclusion appear in the premises of the syllogism, then that syllogism is called conditional, because the conditional particle Leiken must be included in it. Take for example "whenever the sun shines day must exist;" but the sun shines, which gives the conclusion—"Then day exists," which is materially and formally contained in the preceding syllogism. But if the conclusion be not materially and formally
چنین نباید یعنی نتیجه درقباس به هیچ خود مذکور نباشد و از قبیل اقترانی کردن خوانشی باشد خوانش شرطی موضوع مطلوب یعنی موضوع نتیجه از قبیل الی نام داشته می‌شود اصغر و حصول نتیجه از تجربه نام داشته می‌شوند اکبر و نتیجه که در ای اصغر است ان‌را اصغری کویند و انتیه در او اکبر است ان‌را اکبری کویند و انتیه دوبلان موضوع و حصول نتیجه مکرر وانع شده است ان‌را حد اوسط و استوکویند
فصل سیو در استقراء

بیداده استقراء پیدا کردند جریانات است برای ثبات کردن حکم برکلی بیداده همکی اجتهاد و دلیل بررسه کونه است اول قیاس دوم استقراء سیو تئیه اول قبیل سیاوی و الی نام داشته اما استقراء انتست که دلیل ارد ازحل جریانات برای اثبات حکم کلی که برتهامیا ان جریانات ثابت است و این استقراء بر دوکونه قسمت می‌آید استقراء تمام واستقراء ناتص

ابا استقراء تام استقراء که تهامی جریانات ان‌را ملاحله نهوند حکم برکل نبایند چنانچه کل حیوان اماننات و غیرناتئن و کل ناطق حساب و کل غیر ناطق حساب که نتیجه سید هدکل حیوان
expressed in the premises of the syllogism, then it is denominated Ikterauni, that is, simple or categorical: whether it be absolute or conditional.

The subject considered in the conclusion of a simple syllogism is called Afrur, that is, the minor; and the thing predicated of the subject is called Akbar, that is, the major; and the proposition which contains the minor is called Sururi, minor proposition; and the proposition which contains the major, is called Akbur or major proposition; and the term with which the subject and predicate of the conclusion are both compared is called the middle term or Huddi Ost, or Ost, &c. &c. &c.

N. B. From the various modes in which the middle term may be placed, there arises a division of syllogism into four different forms or figures, or Asfkaul; which are again subdivided and branched out into a great many subordinates.

Sect. III. Of Induction.

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

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

It is perfect induction when the general rule is obtained from an examination of all the parts. For example, all animals are either endowed with speech, or not endowed with speech. But those endowed and those not endowed are both sentient, therefore all animals are sentient. This is an example
حساس انرا استقرا تام کویند واین قسم استقرا مغید یقعین است
اما استقرا ناقص اکندا کرچیرنات انرا اتفعج نبایند و بعد ازان
حکم بر کل ان جزینیت نیا ییند چنالقیه کویند کل حیوان متنکر ک
چکه الا استقلعندالمضغ یعني هرهیوان که هسته متنکر ک دندان
زرین اوندردیک حاییدن چرکه انسان و یزس و بقر و غنم و غیران
هه از قسم حیوان نفر کنیم چنین است و انرا استقرا ناقص
کویند چرکه این قسم استقرا مغید یقعین نییشون واحتیال است
که بعضی از اینها چنان باشند که چکه استقلعندالمضغ حکمت
ننها ییند چنالقیه این معنی مصوب عش در تیساخ یعني نهک
بین اینها که تیساس و استقرا استی بیان ان کذشت

باتی ماند تبیین
فصل چهارم در تبیین
و تبیین بیان مشاکن جزی است برای جزی ذیکر درعلت
وموجب حکم تالیه نایب شود نسبت ان حکم در اوجانان چه کویند
نپیذ یعني غوره حرام است و علت حرمت در چرخدرکست و سکر
در غوره هم مروره است پس نایب شد که غوره نیز حرام باشد
چهه در طریق ان دوران و ترکید است
of perfect Induction, which produces certainty.

It is imperfect induction when a number of individuals of a class being overlooked or excluded, a general rule is thus established respecting the whole. For instance, if it should be assumed that all animals move the under jaw in eating, because this is the case with man, horse, goats and sheep, this would be an example of imperfect induction, which does not afford certainty: because it is possible that some animals may not move the under jaw in eating, as it is reported of the Tumsukh or Nebung, the crocodile.

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

**Sect. IV. Of Analogy.**

Analogy is the unfolding of an affinity or resemblance between two subordinate parts of the same class, differing in their nature and properties, so as to establish a general law and axiom respecting both, take for example the general rule that "grapes are prohibited because wine is," which conclusion is obtained thus. The cause of the prohibition of wine is intoxication; but intoxication exists also in the grape; therefore it is proved that the grape likewise is prohibited. The instruments of this process are analysis and selection, &c. &c.
نصل بنجم، در تفسیر قیاس نسبت ماده
بدانیکتا، س ماده ماده صورت دو تسم است، از ایران و استنباس
چنانچه کدش هیچ‌چیزی بر ماده معنی با اعتبار راجینبرنگ
کونه میشود، اول بهره‌انی در جدایی سبیم خطابی، جهان شعری
بنجم، سفستی
و تیاس بهره‌انی مربوط میشود، بریتیقانت می‌یعنی بدهیات و اصول ان
شش است فلولیات و اولیات نارا کویند که نقطه ملاحظه موضوع و
مکه، و نسبت کافی باشد، برای حکم چنانچه کل اعظمه، می‌لجر
لوم مشاهدات و مشاهدات نارا کویند که دران حکم کرد، شده
باشد بوسیله حس اکریس، ظاهر باید از اکریس حسیات، کویند چنانچه
الشمس مشیبا و اثر حکمت اکریس باطل، باشند اکریس جدیدان
کویند چنانچه، لنابودات و عطاش
و سبب تجربات است و تجربات اکریس کویند که دران حکم
عقل بنجم ارتجیب، چنانچه، السفیونیا، مسیل
چهارہ منوئلت و منوئلات اکریس کویند که دران حکم
کرده عقل
بواسطة استیعاب از جهان علیه، حال دانه از اول از اول اکریه چنانچه
مشیب علیه السلام و عمیق، علیه السلام، نبی خدا است.
Sect. V. Syllogism divided according to their Matter.

Let it be observed that as syllogisms have been divided according to their figure or form into absolute and conditional, so are they likewise distinguished according to their matter or constituent parts, into five different classes, viz. the demonstrative, the casuistical, the rhetorical, the poetical, the sophistical.

1. The demonstrative are composed of truths, that is to say, perceptions, the different species of which are six.

1. Intuitive or self evident truths; to obtain which the bare inspection of the subject and predicate, and the relation in which they stand to each other is sufficient: for example "a whole is larger than a part."

2. Evidences, obtained by means of sensation which are called Hißhaut if they be external, such as "the sun shines, the fire burns;" and Jüdinaut, if they be internal, as for example "hunger and thirst."

3. Experiences, which are the conclusions formed by the understanding from repeated trials, as for example "that Scammony is a Cathartic."

4. Traditions, which are the conclusions which the understanding forms from the reports of a number of people; and which cannot be supposed to be false, such as the mission of the prophet Mahommed, and Jesus Christ.
The difficulty of glutinous materials are considered, to the anger of the Court of the "Eastern" and "Western" Mamluks. It appears to be a question of being and existing, or non-existing, and the problem is raised as to whether the materials are sufficiently exchanged to consider the motives.

III. The relations which are complicated.

1. Of the relations which are complicated, or others which have been described elsewhere.

2. Of the relations of political principles, or the independence of some. The problem is raised as to what are the right and proper views.

4. The problem, which is complicated by the rights of the example.
V. The sophistical, are composed,

1. Of vague language without specifying any precise object, such as the vague expression "The person to whom we allude."

2. Quibbles, which though absolutely false, exhibit some appearance of truth; as if I should say that "the figure of the horse which is painted on the wall is a horse;" that "every horse neighs;" and consequently that "the figure on the wall must also neigh."

BY BRIGADE MAJOR WILLIAM LAMBTON.

In a former Paper which I had the honor to communicate to the Astronomical Society, I gave a short sketch of an intended plan for establishing a series of connecting points commencing from the Greenwich Observatory, and extending south to the Pole: but that Paper was only meant to convey a general idea of the principles on which the work was to be conducted, a more consummated and scientific report, it was thought, would be more to the purpose when I had the means of putting the plan in execution, and detailing the particulars. Since that time I have received a most complete apparatus which has enabled me to proceed on the scale I originally proposed, and what is more essential, to the bringing of that work, being the measurement of an arc on the meridian, from which is deduced the length of a degree in the latitude at 53° 54', which is nearly the middle of the sea.

The instruments here mentioned are their own, from which the measurements have been obtained, and the base has the foundation in the earth, a matter that can be seen on the Sea Coast, an account of which it has been published.
V.

An Account of the Measurement of an Arc on the meridian on the Coast of Coromandel, and the length of a degree deduced therefrom in the latitude 12° 32'.

By Brigade Major William Lambton.

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

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

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

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

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

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

All the other particulars respecting this measurement are nearly the
fame as that in the Mysoor country, a full account of which has been published in a former volume of the Asiatick Researches. Some little alterations have been made in the coffers; that is, they were all of the same length, and the whole together about ninety-six feet, so as to give room for the pickets with the brass register heads. Their sides continued to the ends, and their depth on each side was the same, for the purpose of being turned every day that they might not fall into a curve by their own weight, and that of the chain. I also used tripods with elevating screws in the center, for supporting the coffers, making no other use of pickets than for the drawing and weight posts, and for carrying the register heads. The top of each fland on tripod was a thick circular piece of wood fixed firmly to the end of the elevating screw, and a flap of board was fastened across the circular top, screwed into the center, and allowed to turn round. When the ends of two coffers were placed on the top piece, this flap of board was admitted into the under part of each, and prevented their sliding off, a precaution that was very necessary on account of the high winds.

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

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

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

I marked out the foundation of the building, so that the picket might be as nearly in the center of it as possible. The earth was dug about a foot deep reserving space round the center untouched. After the foundation was brought to a level with a surface, the first tier of stones was laid, being one foot in height. The inner part was then filled up with stones and mortar, taking particular care at the same time that the center was not touched. The next tier of stones was then laid, which was six feet square and one foot high. This also was filled in with great care, and some cement and bricks put gradually round the picket. After that the last tier was laid which was four feet square and also one foot high. When these
stones were firmly fixed: small silken threads were drawn across each other in the diagonals of the square. A plummet (pointed) was then suspended from the point of intersection of those threads, and they were so moved that the point of the plummet coincided with the center of the nail in the picket. The position of these threads being determined, marks were inferred in the stone. The cavity was then filled up, and a square thick stone was fixed in the middle of the mass, having a circular place of about four inches diameter, sunk half an inch deep, and whose center was marked by a point. This point, by moving the stone, and again applying the silken threads was brought to coincide with the point of intersection, and then it was firmly fixed and pointed.

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

Such has been the mode of defining the extremities of the line. The buildings are well built of stone and some brick, and will remain for years, if not injured by acts of violence. They are intended to receive an instrument on the top and the points of reference if it should even be thought necessary to have recourse to them.
EXPANSION OF THE CHAINS AND THEIR COMPARATIVE LENGTHS.

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

April 10, at six P.M. the temperature by a mean of five thermometers was 85°,6.

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

April 10, at six A.M. the temperature by a mean of five thermometers was 79°.

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

May 23. After the bafe was completed, the temperature by a mean of five thermometers, was 86°.

By a mean of five comparisons, the old chain exceeded the new one, 10,65 divisions.

24. The temperature by a mean of five thermometers was 84°.

And a mean of six comparisons, gave the excess of the old chain above the new one, 11,08 do.

25. The temperature was 87°.

And a mean of two comparisons, gave 11,00 do.

Mean 10,86 do.
Hence it appears, that at the conclusion of the base, the old chain was longer than the new one, 11 divisions of the micrometer very nearly, so that it had increased from being in use, 2 divisions, or $\frac{3}{4}$ inches.

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

As I had reserved the new chain for a standard, and knowing the temperature at which it had been measured off in London, I considered it an object to determine its rate of expansion and contraction compared with the thermometers which had been in use in measuring the base, since these were but common ones, and might probably differ from those made use of by General Roy and others, who had determined the expansion of metals by the pyrometer; and I was further induced to do this, from seeing the great variation among them, when the degree of heat became above one hundred, which it generally was in the coffers every day before I left off. To avoid those irregularities arising from the expansions being checked by the resistance from the pressure on the coffers, I chose the times of sunrise, and from one to two o'clock P. M. for making the observations. Sunrise in India is generally the coolest time of the twenty-four hours, and the chain had during the night, on account of the uniform state of temperature, full time to free itself from any resistance. At the hottest part of the day likewise there is a considerable time when the thermometers are nearly stationary, which will afford time for the resistance in the coffers to be overcome, and it is necessary to pay particular attention to this circumstance, for the chain will be perceived to lengthen often for every half hour after the thermometers are at their highest.
I had made a great many experiments prior to the measurement, but found great irregularity, partly from not attending sufficiently to the above circumstance, and partly from the unsteadiness of the drawing post, notwithstanding it was driven deep into very hard ground, and secured, as I thought, by having large stones pressed close on each side of it. To remedy this latter inconvenience, I had a staple driven into a brick wall, into which the iron was fixed with the adjusting screw for the chain, after which I perceived a perfect coincidence with the arrow and mark on the brass head, except what arose from the trifling expansion and contraction of the iron which held the chain. I then began a new course of experiments on both the chains, and the results were as follows:

**Experiments for determining the expansion of the new Chain.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Temperature</th>
<th>Change in Temperature</th>
<th>Noon divisions</th>
<th>Total expansion and contraction</th>
<th>Total due to 1°</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 4</td>
<td>2 P.M.</td>
<td>116.4</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0 rife.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
<td></td>
<td>Weather clear and windy during the whole of these experiments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2 P.M.</td>
<td>133.8</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0 rife.</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1 P.M.</td>
<td>119.1</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0 rife.</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2 P.M.</td>
<td>121.9</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.0734</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: 0.0742
Experiments for determining the expansion of the old Chain.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Mean of Thermometers</th>
<th>Change of Temperature</th>
<th>No. divisions</th>
<th>Total expansion and contraction</th>
<th>Total due to 1°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 8</td>
<td>0 rise</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>201894</td>
<td>0.00749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>P.M.</td>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>192280</td>
<td>0.00766</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>P.M.</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>187473</td>
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<tr>
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<td>42</td>
<td>201804</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
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<td>108.4</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>182666</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0 rise</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>201894</td>
<td>0.00721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 P.M.</td>
<td>111.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>221122</td>
<td>0.00706</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 0.00737.

It appears from these results, that the expansion due to 1° of the thermometer, is less than what has been allowed by experiments made in England, but this might arise from the thermometers, as they were such as could be purchased in the shops, and therefore most probably not of the best kind. Great care however was taken to watch the moment when they stood the highest, and though they varied from one another considerably at that time, yet that variation was generally the same in equal temperatures.

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

On the top of the race stand, the under part of the flag on the beach was observed to be depressed 9° 30′; and at the beach, the top of the race stand was elevated 7° 15′. When the instrument was on the platform of the race stand, the axis of the telescope was on a level with the top of the railing, which was observed from the beach. But at the beach the axis of the telescope was four feet below the part of the flag which had been observed.

The horizontal distance from the station on the stand to that on the beach is 19208 feet. Then as 19208 : 4: Rad : tan. 49°, which must therefore be added to the observed depression of the flag—Hence 9° 30′ + 49° = 10° 13′ is the depression of the axis of the telescope on the beach, observed from the race stand.

Now the station on the beach is nearly at right-angles to the meridian, therefore by allowing 60957 fathoms, to the degree, 19208 feet will give

T 2
an arc of 3° 9' very nearly, which is the contained arc. And the difference between the depression and elevation being 2° 58', we have 3° 9' - 2° 58' = 5° 5 for the terrestrial refraction. Hence, since the observed elevation of the land, plus half, the contained arc would give the angle subtended by the perpendicular height of the land above the telescope at the beach, were there no refraction, we shall have 7° 15' + 5° 5 = 8° 44' for the true angle subtended by the perpendicular height which being taken as tangent, to the horizontal distance and Radius, we have R : tan. 8° 44' :: 19203 : 48,797 feet the height required. But the axis of the telescope on the beach was determined by levelling down to the water, to be 111,166 feet above the sea. Which added to the above, give 69,963 feet for the perpendicular height of the top of the land above the level of the sea.

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

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

TABLE. Containing the particulars of the measurement of a base line near St. Thomas's Mount, commencing in latitude 13° 00', 29° 59' N. and
extending 40606.4418 feet South Westerly making an angle with the meridian 0° 10' 36". The first column contains the number of hypothenuse or measured distances. The second the length of each in feet. The third the angles of elevation and depression (which each hypothenuse makes with the horizon). The fourth the quantities to be subtracted from the respective hypothenuse to reduce it to the horizon. The fifth the perpendicular ascents and descents to each hypothenuse. The sixth the commencement in inches of every hypothenuse above or below the termination of the one preceding; and the seventh contains the mean temperature during the respective measurement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of the hypoth.</th>
<th>Length of each feet.</th>
<th>Angles of elevations and depressions.</th>
<th>Deductions from each hypothen.</th>
<th>Perpendicular.</th>
<th>Commencement from the last.</th>
<th>Commencement of Thermometers.</th>
<th>REMARKS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>0 19 40</td>
<td>00984</td>
<td>3.4325</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>Commenced the 30th April 1802.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>0 26 00</td>
<td>01430</td>
<td>3.7815</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>0 26 30</td>
<td>06237</td>
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<td>2.37</td>
<td>94.5</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>84</td>
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</tr>
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<td>7.37</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90.4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>95.3</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>82.2</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>400</td>
<td>do.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>93.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>300</td>
<td>do.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0 20 30</td>
<td>00534</td>
<td>1.7890</td>
<td>8.25</td>
<td>93.3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Level.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3 02 30</td>
<td>14088</td>
<td>5,3062</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Level.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.5</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>105.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
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<td>do.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>83.4</td>
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</tr>
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<td>No. of the hypotenuse</td>
<td>Length of each in feet</td>
<td>Angles of elevations and depressions</td>
<td>Perpendicular.</td>
<td>Commencement from the last.</td>
<td>Remarks.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Deductions from each hypotenuse: Ascents</td>
<td>Defecents</td>
<td>above Inches</td>
<td>below Inches</td>
<td>Means of Thermometer</td>
<td></td>
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<td>89,2</td>
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<td>5,25</td>
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<td>21</td>
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<td>10,12</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
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<td>4,75</td>
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<td>27</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>93,5</td>
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<td>28</td>
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<td></td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>do.</td>
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<td>11,37</td>
<td>88,9</td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
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<td>86,7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>90,6</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Level.</td>
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<td>1,8</td>
<td>96,9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
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<td>41</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
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<td>do.</td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>46</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td></td>
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## Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel

<table>
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<th>No. of the hypot.</th>
<th>Length of each feet.</th>
<th>Angles of elevations and depressions from each hypoten.</th>
<th>Perpendicular.</th>
<th>Commencement from the last Inches</th>
<th>Mean of 5 Therm.</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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<td>°</td>
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<td>931</td>
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<td>40000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,23593</td>
<td>9,8053</td>
<td>25,1908</td>
<td>181,16</td>
<td>272,06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

North above the south extremity 22.96 feet in perpendicular height.

At the commencement, the old chain (with which the measurement was made) exceeded the new one by nine divisions of the micrometer, equal to $0.0413$ feet. Therefore $\frac{9}{14} \times 400 = 0.0413 \times 400$ will be the measures in lengths of the new chain, equal $40001, 4420$.

At the conclusion, the old chain exceeded the new one by eleven divisions, consequently it had increased by wear two divisions of the micrometer $= 0.0008$ feet. Hence $\frac{1}{5000} \times 400 = 0.00016$ feet, is the correction for the wear, which add $+0, 1600$.

Whence the apparent length of the base, will be $400,016020$ lengths of the new chain, $40001, 6020$.

The sum of all the corrections in column fourth for obtaining the horizontal distances, is $0.2359$ feet, which must therefore be deducted, $-0.2359$.

And this will give the apparent horizontal length of the base, in terms of the new chain $400,013661$ lengths, or $40001,3661$.

The mean temperature for the whole base is $90^{\circ} 8$ and the new chain was measured off when the thermometer...
flood at 50° hence to reduce the whole horizontal length to the standard temperature of 62°, the equation will be expressed by 

\[ (50° - 50°) \times 0.0074 \times (62° - 50°) \times 0.01162 \]

\[ \times 400,013661 \text{ feet or } 5,1162 \text{ feet which must be added, } + 5,1162 \]

Hence the whole horizontal distance corrected for 62° will be,

\[ 40006,4823 \]

Which reduced to the level of the sea will be,

\[ 40006,4418 \]

Note, the quantity +0.0074 inches is the expansion of the chain due to 1° of the thermometer as determined by my own experiments detailed in the anned memoir. By General Roy's experiments with the pyrometer it was +0.00763 inches.

The quantity +0.01237 inches is the expansion of 100 feet of brass, due to 1° of the thermometer.

By the experiments I made in the Mysoor the expansion of the old chain was +0.00725 inches due to 1°. By these experiments it is +0.00737 inches, but I give the preference to the latter on account of the chain being fixed to the wall.

The radius of curvature for reducing the base to the level of the sea, is assumed at 3448748 fathoms being the radius to the meridional circle on which one degree is computed to be 60191 in the latitude of 13°.

SECTION II. — OBSERVATIONS FOR DETERMINING THE ANGLE WHICH THE BASE LINE MAKES WITH THE MERIDIAN.

At the North end of the base latitude, 13° 00 29”, 59 N.
September 24th, on the evening the polar star when at its greatest Eastern elongation was observed to make an angle North Easterly with the base line produced, 1° 35′ 08″, 7.
The apparent polar distance of the star at that time was 1° 44′ 40″ 2 with which and the above latitude, the computed azimuth was, 1 47 25, 7.
Therefore the line when produced Northerly will make an angle with the meridian North Easterly.

September 26th, on the evening the angle North Easterly with the base line produced was, 2 35 13, 8.
The apparent polar distance on that day was, 1° 44′ 39″ 8 which will give the azimuth, 1 47 25, 2.
Therefore the angle between the line and meridian will be, 0 12 12, 1.

September 30th, on the evening the angle was observed, 1 35 06, 7.
The apparent polar distance for that day being 1° 44′ 38″ 1 the azimuth will be, 1 47 23, 5.
Hence the angle by this observation is, 0 12 16, 8.

At the South end of the base—Latitude.

October 7th. In the morning, the polar star when at its greatest western elongation, was observed to make an angle North Westerly with the base line produced 1° 59′ 36″, 9.
The apparent polar distance at that time was 1° 44′ 35.7, and this with the above latitude will give the azimuth 1 47 18, 2.
Therefore the angle which this line produced, makes with the meridian North Easterly, 0 12 18, 7.
And the mean of these four is 0 12 16, 15.
The last observation was made under the most favorable circumstances, it being just day light; the flag-staff at the north extremity of the line was observed immediately after the star; and the morning being perfectly clear, no unsteadiness or uncertainty arose from the effects of the vapour, which had occasioned the difference between the angles on the 24th and 26th.

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

SECTION III. COMMENCEMENT OF THE OPERATIONS FROM THE BASE. THE LARGE THEODELITE.

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

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

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

The semicircle of the transit telescope is graduated to 10° of a degree in place of 30°, which was the case with the semicircle described by General Roy, and the micrometer to the horizontal microscope applied to this semicircle, making one revolution in two minutes, and five revolutions for ten minutes on the limb; and the scale of the micrometer being divided into sixty parts, each part is therefore two seconds of the circle.
A number of experiments have been made for determining the error of the semicircle, and to ascertain the place of the fixed wire in the horizontal microscope, so as to divide the error. It has appeared in the event, that the telescope being in its right position, (that is, when the limb and microscope were on the left hand,) and the fixed wire placed at Zero on the semicircle, when the circle or limb of the theodolite was turned 180° in Azimuth, and the telescope turned over, the fixed wire was then distant from Zero on the opposite part of the arc by a mean of a great many observations 2' 57'', the half of which is therefore the error. This half was carefully set off from Zero by the moveable micrometer wire, and the fixed one brought to coincide with it. On the right application of this error, there will be 1' 28'', 5 to add to the elevations and subtract from the depressions. The observations for determining this quantity were repeated at different times, and under the most favorable circumstances; the adjustments of the whole instrument being frequently examined, and the level applied to the telescope, reversed at most of the observations. For the line of collimation, as these corrections depend on having a well-defined object, I fixed a bamboo upwards of a mile distant from the observatory tent, and tied round it several narrow stripes of black silk, one of which was near the horizontal wire when the axis of the telescope intersected the staff after being brought to a level by the bubble. Then the instrument being adjusted, and the telescope directed to the bamboo, being perfectly level, and the wire of the micrometer in the piece brought to the intersection of the cross wires, the angular distance to the mark on the bamboo was measured by the runs of that micrometer, and the wire brought back to the point of intersection of the other wires. The circle was then turned half round and the telescope reversed or put again into the same Ys. The levelling adjustment was then made, and the angular distance from the intersection of the wires to the black mark again taken, half the difference between which
and the former was of course the error of collimation. This error was repeatedly reduced till it became very small, half by the finger screw of the clamp to the semicircle, and half by the adjusting screws to the levelling rods. After that, the remaining error was repeatedly examined and found to be $2'36$ to be subtracted from the elevations and added to the depressions when the telescope is in the ordinary position, or when the semicircle and microscope are on the left hand; but *vice versa* when in the contrary position. These errors of the semicircle and line of collimation being opposite, the result from comparison will be, "That when elevations or depressions are taken with the semicircle, $126'$ must be added to the former, and subtracted from the latter."

And that when the elevations and depressions are taken by the micrometer in the eye piece $2'36$ must be *deducted* from the elevations and added to the depressions.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Micrometer Divisions</th>
<th>No. of seconds</th>
<th>Value of 1 Division</th>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Micrometer Divisions</th>
<th>No. of seconds</th>
<th>Value of 1 Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 26</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>783.5</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>Nov. 26</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>780</td>
<td>0.780</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 26</td>
<td>994</td>
<td>787</td>
<td>0.782</td>
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<td>800</td>
<td>0.800</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 26</td>
<td>994</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>0.777</td>
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<td></td>
<td>787</td>
<td>0.787</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 26</td>
<td>1005</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>0.788</td>
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<td>794</td>
<td>0.794</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 26</td>
<td>1002</td>
<td>794</td>
<td>0.794</td>
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<td>788</td>
<td>0.788</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>782</td>
<td>0.782</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hence one second will be equal 1,282 divisions,
One minute 76.92 ditto,
Ten minutes 769.2 ditto.

SECTION IV.

ANGLES taken with the large theodolite between 27th September 1802, and 13th of April 1803.

AT THE NORTH END OF THE BASE.

Between Mount station,
South end of the base, 91 09 04
Perumbauk hill, 09 47 58.9
Perumbauk hill, Mount station.

Observed Angles. 81 21 05.3
### Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel

#### At the South End of the Base

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>And</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North end of the base,</td>
<td>Mount station,</td>
<td>11° 19' 33.5&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perumbauk hill,</td>
<td>11° 56' 47.3&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mount station,</td>
<td>ditto,</td>
<td>10° 37' 14.8&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### At the Mount Station

| North end of the base,                     | South end of the base,     | 77° 31' 23"    |
| Perumbauk hill,                            |                            | 83° 06' 38.2"  |
| South end of the base,                     | ditto,                     | 10° 35' 12.9"  |
| Perumbauk hill,                            | Mungot station,            | 92° 30' 03.6"  |
|                                            | Mullapode hill,            | 63° 30' 18.2"  |

#### At Perumbauk Hill

| North end of the base,                     | South end of the base,     | 56° 15' 26"    |
| South end of the base,                     | Mount station,             | 10° 32' 16.8"  |
| South end of the base,                     | ditto,                     | 66° 47' 42"    |
| Mungot station,                            | ditto,                     | 36° 58' 15.4"  |
|                                            | Coonoowancum hill,         | 59° 43' 12.9"  |
| Mullapode hill,                            | Coonoowancum hill,         | 42° 52' 13.9"  |
|                                            |                            | 16° 50' 59"    |

#### At Mungot Station

| Perumbauk hill,                            | Coonoowancum hill,         | 88° 03' 47.6"  |
| Mullapode hill,                            | Mullapode hill,            | 79° 08' 56.4"  |
| Mullapode hill,                            | Tandray station,           | 12° 49' 24.2"  |
| Mannoor station,                           | ditto,                     | 7° 25' 54.8"   |
| Mount station,                             | Perumbauk hill,            | 5° 31' 41.7"   |
| Mullapode hill,                            | Munnoor station,           | 4° 14' 29.4"   |
At Mullapode Hill.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>And</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perumbauk hill</td>
<td>Coonoowaucum hill</td>
<td>139° 29' 07.8&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coonoowaucum hill</td>
<td>Munnoor station</td>
<td>81° 21' 03.0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tandray station</td>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>52° 53' 20.0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Munget station</td>
<td>28° 17' 36.7&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At Munnoor Station.

| Munget station           | Coonoowaucum hill  | 100° 27' 11.4"  |
|                         | Mullapode          | 49° 34' 32.4"   |
|                         | Tandray station    | 44° 15' 34.9"   |
| Mullapode hill           | ditto              | 93° 50' 05.9"   |
|                          | Coonoowaucum hill  | 50° 52' 39"     |

At Tandray Station.

| Munget station           | Munnoor station    | 60° 18' 30.7"   |
|                         | Mullapode hill     | 27° 02' 00.1"   |
| Munnoor station          | ditto              | 33° 16' 30.8"   |
| Mullapode hill           | Urrumbaucum hill   | 94° 00' 01.7"   |
|                          | Poonauck hill      | 80° 48' 38.8"   |

At Urrumbaucum Hill.

| Mullapode hill           | Tandray station    | 43° 02' 50"     |
|                         | Poonauck hill      | 111° 52' 28.9"  |

At Poonauck Hill.

<p>| Mullapode hill           | Urrumbaucum hill   | 39° 25' 15.6&quot;   |
|                         | Tandray station    | 27° 13' 47.4&quot;   |
|                         | Maumdoor hill      | 49° 19' 04.6&quot;   |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>At Poonauk Hill</th>
<th>And</th>
<th>At Allacoor Hill</th>
<th>At Paudree Station</th>
<th>At Mullapode Hill</th>
<th>At Maumdoor Hill</th>
<th>At Carrangooley Hill</th>
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<td>Allacoor hill</td>
<td>Padree station</td>
<td>Urrumbaucum hill</td>
<td>Padree station</td>
<td>Urrumbaucum hill</td>
<td>Maumdoor hill</td>
<td>Mullapode hill</td>
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<td>Tundray station</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Permacool hill</td>
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**Observed Angles:**

| 0 | 23 52 57 5 | 32 18 50 7 |
| 91 22 13 | 110 08 22 3 | 64 44 52 6 |
| 71 39 26 3 | 28 42 12 6 | 35 02 19 |
| 42 57 07 9 | 85 17 00 | 45 48 00 5 |
| 72 38 40 | 69 50 21 5 | 44 46 21 6 |

Ditto, Vellangeaud hill, did not move.
### AT WORITY HILL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>Maunder hill</th>
<th>Permaccil hill</th>
<th>Coonum hill</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
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<tr>
<td>Car rangee hill</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>54 36 13.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Permaccil hill</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>109 25 09.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coonum hill</td>
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<td>17 46 10.3</td>
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### AT PERMACOIL HILL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>Carrangoeley hill</th>
<th>Coonum hill</th>
<th>1st flag on red hill</th>
<th>New station on red hill</th>
<th>ditto</th>
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### AT VELLUNGCAUD HILL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>Carrangoeley hill</th>
<th>New station on red hill</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permacoil hill</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>42 01 25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrangoeley hill</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>134 51 00.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>New station on red hill</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>53 43 11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>28 58 23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>98 29 08.8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-</td>
<td>15 57 39.3</td>
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<td>29 29 41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>214 21 15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### AT THE NEW STATION ON RED HILL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>Vellungcaud hill</th>
<th>Mooratan station</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permacoil hill</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>44 15 35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vellungcaud hill</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>99 25 04.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### AT MOORATAN STATION.

| Between | Permacoil hill | Trivandepoorum hill | 1st Coonum hill | 1st flag on red hill | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto |
|---------|---------------|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Chengecaud station | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Permacoil hill | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Trivandepoorum hill | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 1st Coonum hill | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 1st flag on red hill | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ditto | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

| New station on red hill | Permacoil hill | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
|-------------------------|---------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 85 13 36.0 | 64 42 38.5 | 81 48 30 | 54 33 15 | 64 37 21.4 |
### AT THE FIRST FLAG ON RED HILL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Between</th>
<th>And</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coonum hill</td>
<td>Permacoil hill</td>
<td>38° 54' 56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Station near Mooratan</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>76° 26' 03.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### AT COONUM HILL.

| Permacoil hill | Woritty hill | 27° 22' 53.8 |
| 1st flag on red hill | Station near Mooratan | 87° 51' 51.8 |
| Chengcaud station | ditto | 21° 45' 26.9 |
| Chengcaud station | - | 76° 02' 09.3 |

#### AT MYLUM STATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Permacoil hill</th>
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<td>Woritty hill</td>
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<td>46° 21' 11.4</td>
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#### AT CHENGCAUD STATION.

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<td>51° 49' 03.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trivandepoorum hill</td>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>66° 08' 35.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coonum hill</td>
<td>ditto</td>
<td>49° 24' 35.75</td>
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#### AT THE STATION OF OBSERVATION AT TRIVANDEPOORUM HILL.

| moistur station | Chengcaud station | 49° 08' 53.9 |

Referring light near *Trijnum-baicum,*

<table>
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<tr>
<th>February</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>29</th>
<th>43.25</th>
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Referring light near *Trijnum-baicum,*

| February | 7 | 57 | 45.36 |

**W 2**
The angles in general have been taken three and four times, and every time that the object was observed, both microscopes were read off thrice, and two separate field books kept for making out the angles. What are here recorded, are the means taken from the two books. In case a difference in those angles, noticed at the time, left any reason to suspect an error in the instrument, the division between the dots was carefully examined, as well as those to the right and left, and if any error was discovered, allowance was made accordingly.

**SECTION V. TRIANGLES.**

*North End of the Base from the South End of the Base 40006.4.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
<th>Diff. Spher. Excess</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Angles for calculation</th>
<th>Distances in feet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-158</td>
<td>180 00 00</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Mount station from

- North end of the base, 8046.7
- South end of the base, 40966.8

| II. | North end of the base,       | 9 47 58.9     | -.01                |       | 9 47 58.8            |                   |
|     | South end of the base,       | 113 56 47.2   | -.08                |       | 113 56 47.9          |                   |
|     | Perumbauk hill               | 0 0 0         |                     | .07   | 180, 00 00           |                   |
|     |                              |               |                     |       |                       |                   |

Perumbauk hill from

- North end of the base, 439718
- South end of the base, 818903
North End of the Base from Perumbauk Hill 43971,8.

<table>
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<th>Spher. Excess</th>
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<th>Angles for calculation</th>
<th>Distances in feet</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0.08</td>
<td>+0.1</td>
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Mount Station from

|  | North end of the base, | 8046.7 |
|  | Perumbauk hill, | 43495.4 |

South End of the Base from Mount Station 40965.8.

|     | South end of the base, | 102 37 14.8 | -0.06 | 102 37 14.7 |
| IV  | Mount Station, | 10 35 12.9 | -0.02 | 10 35 12.9 |
|     | Perumbauk hill, | 0.0 0.0 0.0 | -0.01 | 66 47 32.4 |
|     |                 | 180 00 00.0 |       | 180 00 00.0 |

Perumbauk from

|  | South end of the base, | 8189.2 |
|  | Mount Station, | 43495.5 |

It appears from examining the above triangles, that there is a difference in the distance from the north end of the base and Mount Station, by the first and second triangles, and also a difference in the distance from the south end of the base to Perumbauk hill. It may be necessary to notice here, that there was great difficulty in taking all these angles, on account of the very thick vapour which constantly floated near the surface of the flat where the base line runs, almost immediately after day-light, to very near the time of sunset. All the angles, and particularly at the north and south end of the base line, have been repeatedly taken, and the only time when the flag-staff
appeared distinctly, was in the morning of the 7th of October, when I observed the polar star at the south end of the base line.

It was discovered, that at Perumbauk hill, there had been an error in reading off the south end of the base, most probably of 10' from the micrometers, as all the angles which had a reference to that point, exceeded, what they ought to have been, by ten or twelve seconds. In consequence of this disagreement, I chose to take the supplemental angle in the second and fourth triangles, after the other angles had been corrected. The distance of the north end of the base from Perumbauk, as determined in the second triangle, being taken as a base in the third tringle, where in the three angles have been observed, to determine the distance from Perumbauk to the Mount, and from the north end of the base to the Mount, it appears that the latter distance comes out within 0.4 of a foot to what had been brought by the first triangle; and that the distance from the south end of the base to Perumbauk hill, derived from the second and fourth triangles, differ only 0.14 of a foot. The distance from the Mount to Perumbauk being that from which all the operations are to commence, I wished to be as particular as possible in determining it, and the results from the third and fourth triangles make it 43495.4 and 43495.5, differing only one-tenth of a foot.

**Mount station from Perumbauk Hill 43495.4.**

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</thead>
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<td>V.</td>
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<td>92 30 03.4</td>
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## Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel

### Perumbauk Hill from Mungot Station 55292.1

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<th>Diff.</th>
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Mullapode hill from:
- Perumbauk hill, 65205.2
- Mungot station, 45169.5

### Perumbauk Hill from Mullapode Hill 65205.2

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Coonoowaucum hill from:
- Perumbauk hill, 105534.6
- Mullapode hill, 47088.5

### Mullapode Hill from Coonoowaucum Hill 47088.5

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Manoor station from:
- Mullapode hill, 44944.4
- Coonoowaucum hill, 60006.6
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Mullapode Hill from Munnoor Station 44944.3.

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Tandray station from \{Mungot hill, Munnoor station, .

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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>47 105.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65 325.4</td>
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</table>

In the quadrilateral formed by Mullapode hill, Mungot hill, Munnoor station, and Tandray station, the side Mullapode and Tandray is common to the tenth and eleventh triangles, the first of which gives it 81731.9 feet, and the latter 81732.7 feet the mean of which is 81732.3 feet which becomes the base for extending the triangles westerly. These results appear to be sufficiently correct, since the bases on which the two triangles have been formed were derived from the different sides of the triangle Perumbauk hill, Mungot hill, and Mullapode hill, viz. one from the side Mullapode hill and Mungot hill, the other from the side Mullapode hill and Perumbauk hill, on which was computed the side Mullapode hill and Coonoowauucum hill, and from that again the side Mullapode hill and Munnoor station, which however come out the same as when obtained from the distance Mullapode hill and Mungot hill.

It will also appear that in the triangle computed on the base Mungot hill and Munnoor station, that each of the sides, Munnoor station and Tandray station, and Mungot, and Tandray become common to the trian-
Measurement of an Arc on the

gles, Mullahode hill, Munnoor and Tandray and Mullahode hill, Munnoor and Tandray, each to each, and that in the first case, there is a difference of \( \frac{3}{10} \) and in the second of \( \frac{6}{5} \) of a foot. These circumstances will, I conceive, prove the operations to be sufficiently satisfactory.

**Mullahode hill from Tandray station 81732.3.**

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**Urrumbaucum from**

| Mullahode hill | -      | -     | 17119444.7 |
| Tandray station| -      | -     | 84587.1    |

**Mullahode hill, Tandray station, Urrumbaucum hill**

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**Poonauck hill from**

| Mullahode hill | -      | -     | 17455557 |
| Tandray station | -      | -     | 167839.7 |

**Poonauck hill from Urrumbaucum hill 9°339.4.**

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**Alicoor hill from**

| Poonauck hill | -      | -     | 58638.4 |
| Urrumbaucum hill | -      | -     | 51436.9 |
### Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel.

#### Poonauk hill from Allicoor hill 5863.4.

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#### Mullapode hill from Urrumbaucum 119444.7.

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#### Mullapode, hill from Poonauk hill 174555.

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<td>Maumdoor,</td>
<td>72 38 40</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>38 38.5</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td>72 38 38.5</td>
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# Measurement of an Arc on the Maumdoor Hill from Mullapode 138685.5

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<th>Diff. Spher. Excess</th>
<th>Error</th>
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<th>Distances in feet</th>
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<td>Maumdoor hill</td>
<td>69 50 21,5</td>
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<td>69 50 19,5</td>
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<td>Mullapode hill</td>
<td>45 48 0,5</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>45 48 58,5</td>
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<td>64 21 44,1</td>
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</table>

Carrangooly hill from

- Maumdoor hill,   -
- Mullapode hill,  -

144405,4

# Carrangooly Hill from Maumdoor Hill 110282,4

<table>
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<tr>
<th>XX.</th>
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<th>Diff. Spher. Excess</th>
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<td>80 37 27</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maumdoor hill</td>
<td>44 46 21,6</td>
<td>-1,7</td>
<td>44 46 20,5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wooritty hill</td>
<td>54 36 13,1</td>
<td>-1,7</td>
<td>54 36 12,5</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>180 00 03</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>+1,5 180</td>
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Wooritty hill from

- Carrangooly hill,   -
- Maumdoor hill,     -

13348,1,5

# Wooritty Hill from Carrangooly Hill 95282,8

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<td>28 33 28,6</td>
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<td>28 33 27,8</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>42 01 25,1</td>
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<td>42 01 24,5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>180 00 3,1</td>
<td>-1,4</td>
<td>+1,7 180</td>
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Permacoil hill from

- Wooritty hill,   -
- Carrangooly hill, -

134236,4
### Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel.

**Carrangooly hill from Permacoil hill 134236.4.**

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<td>36 40 28.2</td>
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<td>28 58 23.4</td>
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<td></td>
<td>28 58 22</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Vellungcaud</td>
<td>114 21 15.4</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
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<td>114 21 12</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>180 00 07.9</td>
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<td>+5.6</td>
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Vellungcaud from

- Carrangooly hill: 71374.2
- Permacoil hill: 88004.7

**Permacoil hill from Vellungcaud hill 88004.7.**

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<td>93 29 08.8</td>
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<td>1.5</td>
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New Station on red hill from

- Permacoil hill: 76334.1
- Vellungcaud hill: 124716.7

**Wooritty hill from Permacoil hill 68041.5.**

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<th>Diff. Spher. Excess</th>
<th>Error</th>
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<th>Coonum hill from</th>
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<td>17 46 10.3</td>
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<td>17 46 09</td>
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<td>134 51 00.6</td>
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<td>27 22 53.3</td>
<td>+3</td>
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<td>27 22 52.5</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>180 00 4.2</td>
<td>+3.7</td>
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<td>180 00 00</td>
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Coonum hill from

- Wooritty hill: 104887.5
- Permacoil hill: 45150.5
### Measurement of an Arc on the Permacoil Hill from Coonum Hill 45°15′.5

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<td>Permacoil hill</td>
<td>53 13 11,8</td>
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<td>XXV</td>
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<td>1st Flag on red hill</td>
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<td>38 54 57</td>
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<td>First Flag on red hill from Permacoil hill</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>71825,8</td>
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<td>57567,7</td>
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### Permacoil Hill from Wooritty Hill 68°04′.5

| XXVI | Permacoill hill     | 102 06 30,9     | -50   |               |       | 102 06 30,9             |                   |
|      | Wooritty hill       | 0 0 0           |       |               |       | 31 32 18,3              |                   |
|      | Mylum Station       | 46 21 11,4      | -13   |               |       | 46 21 11,3              |                   |
|      | Mylum station from Permacoil hill | - |       |       |               | 49184,8         |
|      | Wooritty hill       | -                |       |               |       | 91939,0                 |                   |

### Permacoil Hill from Mylum Station 49°84′.8

| XXVII | Permacoill hill     | 72 26 53,3      | -34   |               |       | 72 26 53                |                   |
|       | Mylum station       | 73 09 50,7      | -34   |               |       | 73 09 50,4              |                   |
|       | Mooratan Station    | 0 0 0           |       |               |       | 180 00 00               |                   |
|       | Mooratan station from Permacoil hill | - |       |       |               | 83351,9         |
|       | Mylum station       | -                |       |               |       | 83030,3                 |                   |
### Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel

#### Coonum hill from first flag on red hill. 57567.7

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<td>First flag on red hill,</td>
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<td>81 48 30</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
<td>56538.5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>{First flag on red hill,</td>
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<td>21559.1</td>
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#### Permacoil Hill from the new station on red hill. 76334.1

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>64 37 19.6</td>
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<td>0.42</td>
<td>+5.18 180 00</td>
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#### Permacoil hill from Mooratan station. 83350.1

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<tr>
<td>Chengeaud station,</td>
<td>51 49 04.4</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>51 49 06.2</td>
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<td>Chengeaud station from {Permacoil hill,</td>
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<td>1.4</td>
<td>-6.6 180 00 00</td>
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### Measurement of an Arc on the

#### Coonum Hill from Mooratan Station 56538.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
<th>Diff.</th>
<th>Spher. Excess</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Angles for Calculation</th>
<th>Distances in feet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coonum Hill</td>
<td>0 0 0</td>
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<td></td>
<td>76 02 09 5</td>
<td>54 33 15</td>
<td>180 00 00 30</td>
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<td>XXXI</td>
<td>Mooratan Station</td>
<td>54 33 15</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td></td>
<td>49 24 35 7</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Chengeaud Station</td>
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Chengeaud station from

- Coonum Hill
- Mooratan Station

#### Mooratan Station from Chengeaud Station 72253.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Observed Angles</th>
<th>Diff.</th>
<th>Spher. Excess</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Angles for Calculation</th>
<th>Distances in feet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XXXII</td>
<td>Mooratan Station</td>
<td>64 42 38.5</td>
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<td>64 42 35</td>
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<td>Chengeaud Station</td>
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<td>-5</td>
<td></td>
<td>66 8 32</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trivandepoorum</td>
<td>49 8 53.9</td>
<td>-4</td>
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<td>49 8 53</td>
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<td></td>
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Trivandepoorum from

- Mooratan Station
- Chengeaud Station

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

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

In converting the sides of the triangles into arcs, the length of a degree has been computed for every ten degrees from the meridian to its perpendicular on an Ellipsoid, whose diameters were in the ratio of one to $\pi$. 
1,0067, which is derived from taking the degree on the meridian in latitude 50° 41' to be 60851, and the degree perpendicular thereto 61182, in the same latitude. These data would give the meridional degree in latitude 13° to be 60191, and the degree perpendicular equal 60957, which however is not the case: but no sensible error will arrive in making those corrections from taking the arcs a few seconds more or less than the truth.

SECTION VI.
Reduction of the distances to the meridian of Trivandrepourum, for determining the length of the terrestrial arc.

The sides of the great triangles, from which the arc is derived, falling very nearly in the same meridian, and not more than 16363.3 feet west from the meridian of Trivandrepourum, the south extremity of the arc, there required no reference to any hypothesis of the earth's figure for getting the exact distance between the parallels, so that the latitude of a point where a great circle falling from the station of observation near Paudree, will cut the meridian of Trivandrepourum at right angles, may be determined with sufficient accuracy by computing spherically, and the distances when reduced to the meridian, (the distance from Trivandrepourum to Coonum hill excepted), may be considered as the chords of arcs on the meridian, and therefore the arcs themselves may be had, by allowing 60494 fathoms to the degree, as had been obtained from the sum of those reduced distances, the sum therefore of all these arcs will make the whole meridional arc, which is a nearer approximation to the truth.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stations at</th>
<th>Stations referred to.</th>
<th>Bearings referred to the meridian of Trivandeporum.</th>
<th>Distances.</th>
<th>Distances from the parallels of the</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Meridian.</td>
<td>Perpendicular.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trivandeporum,</td>
<td>Coonum hill,</td>
<td>5 31 56°, N.W.</td>
<td>125129,1</td>
<td>12059,8 W. 124547,5 N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coonum hill,</td>
<td>Wooritty hill,</td>
<td>0 03 18°, N.W.</td>
<td>104887,5</td>
<td>108,3 W. 104887,4 N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wooritty hill,</td>
<td>Carrangoole,</td>
<td>52 45 21,9</td>
<td>95282,8</td>
<td>75851,5 E. 57666,0 N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maumdoor,</td>
<td>Paudree station,</td>
<td>1 50 57°, N.W.</td>
<td>133481,5</td>
<td>4303,5 W. 133414,5 N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 02 09°, N. E.</td>
<td>211478,1</td>
<td>3824,4 E. 211477,5 N.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE NORTHINGS REDUCED TO ARCS.

Trivandeporum to Coonum hill, - - 124548,77
Coonum hill to Wooritty hill, - - 104887,47
Wooritty hill to Maumdoor hill, - - 133413,15
Maumdoor hill to Paudree station, - - 211478,57

Length of the terrestrial arc, - - 574327,96

Or fathoms, - - 95721,3266

SECTION VII.

Observations by the Zenith Sector for the latitude of Paudree station, and the station near Trivandeporum; and the length of the celestial arc.

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

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

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

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

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

In fixing the instrument for the star, great care was taken to have it placed in the meridian, which was done by a mark at near the distance of a mile, (generally one of my small flags), the poplar star, having been previously observed by the large theodelite for that purpose. The telescope was then moved in the vertical till the wire of the plummet was at the nearest division on either limb to the zenith distance of the star, which could always be nearly known. The micrometer, having been put to zero, was firmly screwed, and the dot on the limb carefully bisected, the instrument was turned half round; the adjustment examined and corrected if necessary. That being done, the degrees and minutes &c. on the arc were noted down as was also the particular division on the micrometer scale, at which the index stood, and the fractional part of a division in case there were any. In this state every thing remained to within fifteen or twenty minutes of the time the star was to pass, when I repaired to the tent, and again examined whether the wire bisected the dot; if it did not, the instrument was again adjusted to the same dot, and the horizontal axis also examined by the upper microscope, all this being done, the sector was placed in the meridian.
When the star entered the field of view, the micrometer was moved gently till the star was near the horizontal wire, but not bisected till it came near the vertical, that the micrometer might not be turned back, but continue moving in the same direction. This I did to avoid any false motion in the micrometer screw, and I was led to this precaution by the repeated experiments I had made in examining the divisions on the arc, for it sometimes happened after moving the arc over one of the divisions till the wire bisected the next dot; and then turning it back again, that the index of the micrometer was not at the same second, but had passed over it perhaps one, and sometimes two seconds; but by moving over the next five minutes in the same direction, the number of revolutions and seconds were always what they ought to be, to some very small fraction. This anomaly however only happened in some situations of the screw, and to avoid any errors arising therefrom, I adopted the above method.

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

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

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

**Observations at the station near Paudree.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day of the month</th>
<th>Mean of the zenith-distance on each arc</th>
<th>Mean of the corrected declinations</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 23d &amp; 24th,</td>
<td>16 06 20,70</td>
<td>16 06 20,69</td>
<td>13 19 48,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24th &amp; 25th,</td>
<td>16 06 20,69</td>
<td>16 06 20,68</td>
<td>13 19 48,23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25th &amp; 26th,</td>
<td>16 06 20,68</td>
<td>16 06 20,61</td>
<td>13 19 48,90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30th &amp; 1st Dec.</td>
<td>16 06 20,61</td>
<td>16 06 20,01</td>
<td>13 19 49,01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec. 1st &amp; 2d,</td>
<td>16 06 20,60</td>
<td>16 06 20,58</td>
<td>13 19 48,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2d &amp; 3d,</td>
<td>16 06 20,58</td>
<td>16 06 20,38</td>
<td>13 19 47,68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12th &amp; 13th,</td>
<td>16 06 20,39</td>
<td>16 06 20,38</td>
<td>13 19 49,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13th &amp; 14th,</td>
<td>16 06 20,36</td>
<td>16 06 20,36</td>
<td>13 19 51,79</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error of col-</td>
<td>16 06 20,71</td>
<td>16 06 19,64</td>
<td>13 19 49,93</td>
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<tr>
<td>lent. applied.</td>
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<td>Mean 13 19 49,018</td>
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</table>

Mean 13 19 49,018
Observations at the station near Trivandeporum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day of the month</th>
<th>Mean of the zenith distance on each arc</th>
<th>Mean of the correct declinations</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February 10th &amp; 11th</td>
<td>4 21 27,14</td>
<td>16 06 18,00</td>
<td>11 44 50,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th &amp; 13th</td>
<td>4 21 24,04</td>
<td>16 06 17,93</td>
<td>11 44 53,89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13th &amp; 14th</td>
<td>4 21 23,04</td>
<td>16 06 17,87</td>
<td>11 44 54,83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14th &amp; 15th</td>
<td>4 21 25,10</td>
<td>16 06 17,83</td>
<td>11 44 52,73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15th &amp; 16th</td>
<td>4 21 26,73</td>
<td>16 06 17,79</td>
<td>11 44 51,06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16th &amp; 17th</td>
<td>4 21 25,60</td>
<td>16 06 17,75</td>
<td>11 44 52,15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24th &amp; 25th</td>
<td>4 21 24,17</td>
<td>16 06 17,44</td>
<td>11 44 53,27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25th &amp; 26th</td>
<td>4 21 25,17</td>
<td>16 06 17,49</td>
<td>11 44 52,23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26th &amp; 27th</td>
<td>4 21 25,04</td>
<td>16 06 17,37</td>
<td>11 44 52,33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean - - - 11 44 52,59

Latitude of the station near Paudree, 13 19 49,02 -
Latitude of the station near Trivandeporum, 11 44 52,59
Difference of latitude, nearly. 1 34 56,43

The latitude of a point where a great circle passing through Paudree station, and cutting the meridian of Trivandeporum at right angles, will be 13° 19' 49,02", from which deduct the latitude of the station at Trivandeporum equal 11° 49' 52,59, will leave 1° 34' 56,43, or 1° 58,233 nearly, by which divide the number of fathoms in the terrestrial arc =95721,3266, &c, we shall have 1" = 60,494 fathoms, nearly, for the degree in the middle of the arc, or latitude 12° 32' nearly.

APPENDIX.

Since the account of the meridional arc was made out, I have completed the measurement of a degree perpendicular to the meridian in latitude 12° 32' nearly, which is derived from a distance of fifty-five miles and
upwards, between Carangooly and Carnatigbur; two stations nearly east and west from each other; and the following triangles have been made use of to obtain that distance.

**Distance, Carangooly from Permacoil 134236.4.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Carangooly,</td>
<td>38 00 53.47</td>
<td>-0.74</td>
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<td>38 00 53</td>
<td>208418.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>XXXIII</td>
<td>Permacoil,</td>
<td>103 08 30.05</td>
<td>-2.64</td>
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<td></td>
<td>103 08 27.5</td>
<td>131808.9</td>
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<td>Maillacherry</td>
<td>38 50 42.41</td>
<td>-1.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>38 50 39.5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Droog,</td>
<td>180 00 05.96</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>+1.88</td>
<td></td>
<td>180 00 00.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Carangooly from Maillacherry Droog 208418.2.**

<table>
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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carangooly,</td>
<td>30 44 38.7</td>
<td>-1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30 44 37.0</td>
<td>291189.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>XXXIV</td>
<td>Maillacherry</td>
<td>105 42 14.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>105 42 09.0</td>
<td>154625.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Droog,</td>
<td>43 33 15.1</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>43 33 14.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carnatigbur,</td>
<td>180 00 08.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>+0.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>180 00 00.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Of the polar star-observations at Carangooly and Curnatighur, and the length of a degree, perpendicular to the meridian, deduced therefrom, for the latitude of 12° 32' nearly.

As the method of determining the difference of longitude of two places, by taking the angle with the meridian and each station reciprocally, requires very great accuracy, I have thought it necessary to give an account of the observations for that purpose, and to state at the same time, the difficulty of taking them, particularly at Curnatighur, whose great height subjected it to a constant haziness, whereby the blue-lights at Carangooly were repeatedly fired without effect, appearing too faint to be seen when the wires of the telescope were illuminated; some nights however were favorable, when the whole of the lights were distinctly seen; but the anxiety, which occurs on such occasions, will sometimes cause irregularities in the angles; a few on that account, when the lights expired before the observations were thought sufficiently satisfactory, have been rejected. Those which appear in the following account, are such as I have deemed good, though there is a greater difference among them than I could have wished. But as I had no positive reason for setting them aside, I have accordingly used them; and have endeavored to lessen the error, by increasing the number of observations, at Carangooly, between the polar star, at its greatest western elongation, and the referring lamp at Sallawauk.
March 20, in the evening, 0 34 48.4
21, - - - 52.9
22, - - - 52.8
23, - - - 48.8
25, - - - 50.2
26, - - - 48.0
27, - - - 46.9
29, - - - 45.4

Between the lamp at Sallawauk and blue light at Curnatighur.
March 30, 84° 38' 24.0 23.55
April 4, - - - 19.2
- - - 20.0
- - - 22.62

Mean 84° 38' 21.87

TABLE. Containing the apparent polar distances of the star, and the apparent azimuths for the nights of observation; and also the angles between the referring lamp and the meridian of Carangooley.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>March 1803</th>
<th>Apparent Polar distance</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Apparent Azimuth</th>
<th>θ' Star and Lamp</th>
<th>θ' Pole and Lamp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1 44 22.32</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 55.32</td>
<td>0 34 48.4</td>
<td>2 21 43.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>1 44 22.62</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 55.63</td>
<td>0 34 52.9</td>
<td>2 21 43.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>1 44 22.88</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 55.90</td>
<td>0 34 52.8</td>
<td>2 21 43.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>1 44 23.16</td>
<td>125° 32' 12° 27'</td>
<td>1 46 56.18</td>
<td>0 34 48.8</td>
<td>2 21 44.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>1 44 23.71</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 56.72</td>
<td>0 34 50.2</td>
<td>2 21 46.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>1 44 24.01</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 57.05</td>
<td>0 34 48.0</td>
<td>2 21 45.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>1 44 24.28</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 57.33</td>
<td>0 34 46.9</td>
<td>2 21 44.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>1 44 24.82</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 46 57.89</td>
<td>0 34 45.4</td>
<td>2 21 43.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean 2 21 45.67

Observed angle between the lamp and Curnatighur, 84° 38' 21.87

Observed angle meridian of Carangooley and ditto, 87° 00' 07.54
Observations at Curnatighur, between the polar star, at its greatest eastern elongation, and the referring lamp at Maudimungalum.

May 14, in the morning, 82 26 25.6
15, 25.2
16, 25.6
20, 28.29
21, 26.1

Between the referring light and the blue lights at Carangooly.

May 18, 8 35 38.26
36.30
40.10
42.0
41.25
38.20
35.57
38.40

Mean 8 35 38.26

TABLE. Containing the apparent polar distances of the star, the apparent azimuths for the time of observation, and also the angles between the referring lamp and the meridian of Curnatighur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>May 1803</th>
<th>Apparent Polar distance</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Apparent Azimuth</th>
<th>Angle Star and Lamp</th>
<th>Angle Pole and Lamp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1 44 36.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 47 10.76</td>
<td>82 26 25.6</td>
<td>84 13 36.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1 44 36.78</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 47 11.15</td>
<td>82 26 25.2</td>
<td>84 13 36.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1 44 36.96</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 47 11.34</td>
<td>82 26 25.6</td>
<td>84 13 36.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1 44 37.58</td>
<td>12° 34' 38'47&quot;</td>
<td>1 47 12.08</td>
<td>82 26 28.29</td>
<td>84 13 40.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>1 44 37.85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 47 12.25</td>
<td>82 26 26.1</td>
<td>84 13 38.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observed angle between the lamp and Carangooly, +8 35 38.26

Observed angle meridian of Curnatighur and Carangooly, 92 49 15.93
If the mean of all the angles be taken, the observed angle at Carangooly, between the meridian and Curnatighur, will be 87° 00' 07.54; and the observed angle at Curnatighur, between that meridian and the station at Carangooly will be 92° 49' 15.93. In order therefore to correct these angles for spherical computation, it will first be necessary to ascertain the distance between the parallels of Carangooly and Curnatighur, so that the one being known, the other may be obtained.

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

Now $GCR$ is a spheroidal triangle, and the chord of the arc $GC$ is given from the thirty-fourth triangle; and since the angle $PGC$ is known, the angle $GCR$ is known, being equal $180° - \text{minus the observed angle at Curnatighur}$, or $87° 10' 44.07$. — And by the same reasoning the angle $GCR$ will be given, being equal the angle $PCR$ ($90°$) minus the observed angle at Carangooly, that is $2° 59' 52.46$. — Hence, by first considering this as a plane triangle, and taking the angle at $R$, the supplement to the other two, the sides $CR$ and $GR$ may
be obtained, and used as arcs for correcting the angles at $C$ and $G$, which will then be $2^\circ 59' 52.2'$ and $87^\circ 10' 43.79'$ respectively, which are the angles made by the chords of the arcs $CG$ and $RG$ at $C$ and $G$. Hence the supplement to these ($89^\circ 49' 24'.01$) will be the angle at $R$ made by the chords of the arcs $RC$ and $RG$. From these data will be had $RC = 290837.8$, and $RG = 15228.74$ feet.

But to find the small space $Rs$ on the meridian of *Curnatighur*, between the perpendicular arc and parallel from *Carangooly*, let the triangle $CRs$ be taken as a plane one. Then if to the corrected angle $CRs$ ($89^\circ 49' 24'.01$) be added the supplement to the spherical excess in the triangle $RCG$ ($0'5$) we shall have $89^\circ 49' 24.51$ for the angle $SRC$. Draw $Rt$ parallel to $sC$ meeting the meridian of *Carangooly*, produced in $r$. Then since the angles $PtR$ and $PsC$ are equal by construction; and the triangles $sCR$, $CRt$ considered as plane ones, the angle $CRt$ is equal half the difference of the angles $PCR$ and $PRC$, that is $\frac{90^\circ - (89^\circ 49' 24'.51)}{2} = 0^\circ 5' 17.74'$. Hence is given the two angles $CRs$, $sCR$, and the side $CR$, by which the small side $Rs$ is had, equal to $448,02$ feet, which deducted from $GR$, gives $Gs = 14780.72$ feet, equal to an arc of $2^\circ 26'.58$ on the meridian, and this is the difference of the latitudes of *Carangooly* and *Curnatighur*. Hence if the latitude of *Carangooly* be $12^\circ 32' 12'.27$, that of *Curnatighur* will be $12^\circ 34' 38.85$, and their respective complements will be $77^\circ 27' 47.73$ and $77^\circ 25' 21'.15$. Hence in the triangle $PCG$, on the spheroid, is given the two sides $PG$ and $PC$, the co-latitudes of $G$ and $C$, and the two observed angles $PCG$ and $PGC$.

* When the polar star observations were made at *Carangooly*, no double azimuths could be taken, and therefore the latitude of the place was necessary to compute the azimuths, in order to get the direction of the meridian. As I wished to deduce the latitude of *Carangooly* from that of the observatory at Madras, the following method was used to obtain it.

Let $P$ be the pole, $PT$ the meridian of *Trivandrepourum*, $O$ the observatory at Madras; and let $C$ be the
Then as the tan. \(77^\circ 26' 34.44\) (half the sum of the sides \(PG\) and \(PC\)) to tan. \(0^\circ 1' 13.29\) (half their difference) so is tan. \(89^\circ 54' 41.73\) (half the sum of the angles), to tan. \(2^\circ 56' 10.23\) (the half difference of the angles). Therefore \(92^\circ 50' 51.06\) and \(86^\circ 58' 31.65\), will be the angles at Carnatigbur and Carangoooly, such as would have been observed on a sphere, the latitudes and longitudes being the same. Then by using these angles, with the sides \(PC\) and \(PG\), and computing spherically, the angle \(CPG\), or difference of longitude, will be \(48' 47.75\) with which and the side \(PC\), or co-latitude of Carangoooly, in the triangle \(PCR\), right angled at \(C\), the side \(CR\) will be had equal \(0^\circ 47' 37.45\).

Now the chord of this arc is the distance \(CR\), equal 290837.8 feet, and therefore the arc itself is 290841 feet nearly. Hence \(47' 37.45 : 290841:: 60': 368355.08\) feet, or 61059.2 fathoms nearly, which is the length of the degree perpendicular to the meridian at Carangoooly.

Station at Carangoooly, that at Trivandroor, \(OM\) an arc of a great circle, perpendicular to \(PT\), falling from the observatory, and \(CM\) another perpendicular arc, from Carangoooly. Then if the ratio of the earth's diameters be taken as \(1:1,03567\), and the degree on the meridian be 60.494 fathoms; by using these data, and computing on the elliptic hypothesis, the degree perpendicular to the meridian \(12^\circ 32'\) would be 60.906 fathoms, which for the present purpose is made use of.

By the triangle, the point \(O\) is east from the meridian of Trivandroor 100561.12 feet, and north from the perpendicular at that station 48035.6 feet. Also \(C\) is east 62600.8 feet, and north 287100.96 feet, from which and applying the above degrees, we shall have the arc \(OM\) \(1^\circ 19' 26.4\); \(Tm=47' 27.56\) and therefore \(Mm=3^\circ 58.84\). Also \(OM=31' 17'.13\); \(Cm=10' 17'.43\), and \(IO=76^\circ 55'.50\) the latitude of the observatory being \(13^\circ 04'.09.53\).

Then in the spherical triangle \(FOM\), right angled at \(M\), we have \(\cos\)

\(OM: \cos F=76^\circ 55'.48.72\), to which add the arc \(Mm\), there will be had \(PM=77^\circ 27'.47.56\), the co-latitude of the point \(M\).

Then again as \(\cos F = \cos Cm: \cos mP = \cos PC=77^\circ 27'.47.773\), therefore the latitude of Carangoooly will be \(13^\circ 32'.15.33\).
POSTSCRIPT.

Since the above has been written, the triangles derived from the side Maumdoor and Poonauk, and brought down westerly as far as Woritty, have been computed, and it appears that the distance between Maumdoor and Woritty, which is common to both series, exceeds the former by 6.9 feet; so that the mean of the two, equal 133485.0 feet, has been taken for obtaining anew both the meridional and perpendicular arcs. The former of which is 574337.04 feet, and the latter 290848.5 feet, whence the degree on the meridian will be had 60495 fathoms nearly, and the degree perpendicular to the meridian at Carangooly 61061 fathoms nearly.

The difference of 6.9 feet is more than what I expected, but it has been occasioned by the great difficulty in getting the angles in the great triangle, Maumdoor, Mullapode, and Poonauk. But as it appears that the side Mullapode and Maumdoor has been in excess, and the side Poonauk and Maumdoor in defect, it must follow that the mean distance of Maumdoor and Woritty, brought out by triangles derived from these two sides, must be very near the truth.

Now this latitude has been made use of to find the latitude of Carnanigbur, and the same process has been followed for finding the length of a degree on the perpendicular in the latitude of Carangooly as is here given; and that degree taken, with the easting of the observatory from the meridian of Carangooly to compute the latitude a second time, which came out 12° 32' 12' 27" and is here applied for recomputing the perpendicular degree: but the difference is too trifling to affect the difference of longitude, and therefore the degree comes out the same.

It is scarcely necessary to notice, that the distance of the observatory from the meridian of Trinco, parrum being so trifling, no spheroidal correction has been thought requisite for obtaining the latitude of the point M, and much less for that of C.
A Sketch of the Triangles from which the Meridional and Perpendicular Axes have been derived.

British Miles.
VI.

On the Hindu Systems of Astronomy, and their connection with History in ancient and modern times.

By J. Bentley, Esq.

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

The Reviewer says—

"Mr. Bentley appears to be a mathematician of considerable industry and merit. In this disquisition he has supplied some instructive observations on the principles of the Hindu astronomy, and on the manner in which their cycles were or might have been formed; he has also exhibited useful formulae, shewing their application in discovering the actual position of the heavenly bodies."
His discussion relative to the antiquity of the Sūrya Siddhānta, involves points of the utmost importance; no less indeed than whether the whole of the Sanskrit literature shall be considered as the spurious production of a recent age, or genuine monuments of primeval times. We shall endeavour to do justice to his formidable attack on the Indian gymnosophists.

The Sūrya Siddhānta is generally believed to be the most ancient astronomical treatises the Hindus have; and according to their notions, was received by divine revelation 2,164,899 years ago. But the mean result of calculations from ten different data afforded by that work and on its own principles of assuming the position of the heavenly bodies to have been accurately observed at the time it was written, gives only 731 for the date of its composition, or the year of our Lord 1068. But independent of all calculations, an astronomical work, entitled the Bhaskaracarya, was composed 700 years ago by Sotonund, who, according to Hindu accounts, was a pupil of Vara'ha Mihiira. The commentary on this treatise declares, that Vara'ha was the author of the Sūrya Siddhānta. Therefore any Hindu work, in which the name of Vara'ha or his system is mentioned, must evidently be modern, and this circumstance alone totally destroys the pretended antiquity of many of the Purans and other books, which, through the artifices of the Brāhma-ncal tribes, have been hitherto deemed the most ancient in existence. Now all the other astronomical works Mr. Benlley has seen, adopt the system in the Sūrya Siddhānta by Vara'ha*

A work ascribed to Parasara, a philosopher, who is supposed to

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* This must be a misrepresentation of the Reviewer, see page 546, 547, of Vol. VI., where I have mentioned and described other systems.

J. B.
have lived before the Vedas were arranged in their present form, exhibits
a still more manifest proof of forgery, since one of the formulæ it exhib-
bits, mentions the era of Saka, which began Anno Domini 78.

After giving this outline, which is very defective in many respects,
the Reviewer commences his attack as follows:

"It would be easy to shew, that the circumstances so forcibly
stated, by no means justify the sweeping inference deduced by our au-
thor... Varahamihira was never considered as an ancient writer, and
is supposed by Sir William Jones to have flourished A.D. 499.
That he was the author of the Sūrya Siddhānta, rests on the single author-
ity of the commentator of the Bhaswottee; a work which seems to have
been composed in Siam; though we greatly wish Mr. Bentley had
imitated Sir William Jones on such occasions by inserting the original
passage. But on what authority does our author assume, that the
Calpa or cycle of Varaha, is that of Varaha Mihira, the modern
astronomer? We find the Hindu cycles always distinguished by the
names of different Deities. There is the Devi Calpa, the Sūrya Cal-
pa; the present is the Vishnu Calpa, and we entertain no doubt that
the Varaha Calpa derived that designation from the Varaha Avat-
tar, or incarnation of Vishnu in the form of a Boar, as is the universal
opinion of the natives. Now the name of Varaha Mihira un-
quickness does not occur in the Purans, or in any work pretending
to antiquity; and we have seen in what light we are to consider the
"Varaha Calpa."

That Varaha Mihira was the author of the Sūrya Siddhānta, does
not rest upon the single authority of the commentator on the Bhaswotai, but
On several undeniable facts,—it is clearly shewn by the other works of Varāha, which bear his name, one of which the Jñāta-cūrṇa, (Jatokarṇo) is compared with the Sūrya Siddhānta at page 573, §. 72. Nay, the very circumstance to which the Reviewer himself alludes above, of Varāha being supposed to have flourished A.D. 499, ought to have led him to the same conclusion. For, why is Varāha supposed to have flourished in A.D. 499? Because he had fixed the vernal equinox to the beginning of Nivini in that year, and settled the rate of precession to be from thence computed at 54' annually: Now, this is absolutely the case in the Sūrya Siddhānta, as well as in all the other works of Varāha; and the same system, motions, and positions of the planets, given by that astronomer in those works which bear his name, are likewise the same in the Sūrya Siddhānta. But independent of all these undeniable facts, there is not a Hindu astronomer, who has the smallest pretension to the knowledge of the history of astronomy in India, that does not know that Varāha was the real author of the Sūrya Siddhānta, and not only of that work, but also of the Brāhma Siddhānta, the Soma Siddhānta, the Vassīta Siddhānta, and the Paulaṣṭya Siddhānta, which are called the five Siddhāntas of Varāha Miḥra; and in allusion to which, one or more single works have been written under the title of "Pancab Siddhānta," as supposed to contain the essential parts of the five Siddhāntas of Varāha.

The Hindus, in general, know very little about the time in which Varāha flourished. Some refer him to the era of Vicramaditya, or fifty-six years before Christ, while others, from the circumstances above-mentioned, refer him to A.D. 499, which shew how little they knew of the real time he lived in, which was between seven and eight hundred years ago.

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

The number of years now elapsed of the first, \[= 1972948905\]
And there are yet to expire, \[= 2347051095\]

The years elapsed of the Calpa of Varaha, \[= 1955884905\]
And there remain yet to expire, \[= 2364115095\]

As to the systems which were in use before the invention of these modern ones, and by which the Hindus regulated their history in ancient times, I shall notice them in their proper place.

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

No astronomical system can possibly have a name before it is invented, and whether such system is called by the name of its inventor, or whether fancy or caprice may call it by the name of any Deity, flower, mountain, or any thing else, still this can make no difference whatever, with respect to the antiquity of the time in which the system was framed. If therefore the time in which any system was framed be known, (either from that of the inventor, or from the positions of the planets or other data, given in such system,) then I say, that any book in which the name of that particular system is mentioned, cannot possibly be older than the time the system was framed and obtained its name.

That system which is contained in the Surya Siddhánta, (though originally invented by Varaha Mihira) is now most certainly called the

* Some writers of romance may have adopted these names as so many systems, but they have nothing to do with real history or astronomy.
Calpa of Varaha, or of the Boar, but whether that system obtained its present name from the inventor, or whether fancy has had any share in it since, still this can make no difference, as it can neither increase nor diminish the antiquity of the system; which from computations founded on undeniable principles, I have shewn and demonstrated to be only between seven and eight hundred years old; and this I maintain to be true, whether Varaha Mihiira was the inventor of the system or not.

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

It was not necessary that the name of Varaha Mihiira, should occur in the Puranas to prove them modern. For setting Varaha and his system altogether out of the question, yet still the names not only of the princes in whose reigns he lived, but also of several others down to the last Mahomedan conquest with the years of each reign, are to be found in some of the Puranas; a most certain proof, that these works are not the genuine monuments of primeval times, as imagined by the Reviewer.

THE Reviewer again says:—

"The mention of the era of Saca in a work attributed to Para'sara is only decisive against the passage, for we are satisfied no work of great antiquity can exist in a country where the art of printing is unknown free from interpretation. The institutes of Timur are now acknowledged
to be genuine and written under the direction of that conqueror, though they are found to contain an account of his own death. Some copyists of the Crīsī Paraśāra were acquainted with an useful formulæ which he injudiciously inserted in what he considered its proper place: did our limits permit we could diligently prove from considerations unconnected with astronomy that the high antiquity attributed to the Hindu records is founded on evidence of a nature almost conclusive.

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

Paraśāra is supposed to have lived near 3000 years ago, and from that time to the era of Saca there were about 1300 years, during which a great number of copies of the Crīsī Parāśāra, might have been written in different parts of India; yet no copy has been ever yet seen, that does not contain the passages alluded to. But independent of this fact, (which is a strong proof of the whole being a modern forgery) the style of Paraśāra, according to Sir William Jones, resembles that of the Vedā; whereas that of the Crīśi Parāśāra, has not the most distain similitude; and according to the information which I received respecting it, was composed
Calpa of Varaha, or of the Boar, but whether that system obtained its present name from the inventor, or whether fancy has had any share in it since, still, this can make no difference, as it can neither increase nor diminish the antiquity of the system; which from computations founded on undeniable principles, I have shewn and demonstrated to be only between seven and eight hundred years old; and this I maintain to be true, whether Varaha Mihira was the inventor of the system or not.

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

It was not necessary that the name of Varaha Mihira, should occur in the Puranas to prove them modern. For setting Varaha and his system altogether out of the question, yet still the names not only of the princes in whose reigns he lived, but also of several others down to the last Mahomedan conquest with the years of each reign, are to be found in some of the Puranas; a most certain proof, that these works are not the genuine monuments of primeval times, as imagined by the Reviewer.

The Reviewer again says:

"The mention of the era of Saca in a work attributed to Para'sara is only decisive against the passage, for we are satisfied no work of great antiquity can exist in a country where the art of printing is unknown free from interpretation. The institutes of Timur are now acknowledged
to be genuine and written under the direction of that conqueror, though they are found to contain an account of his own death. Some copyist of the Cṛṣṭi Parāśana was acquainted with an useful formulae which he injudiciously inserted in what he considered its proper place; did our limits permit we could distinctly prove from considerations unconnected with astronomy that the high antiquity attributed to the Hindu records is founded on evidence of a nature almost conclusive."

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

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

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

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

The Reviewer should only judge for himself,—for, that evidence which
he may think is of a nature almost conclusive, may be no evidence at all
to others. And, I am afraid, that unless his gymnosphi's find a better
advocate in their cause, their pretensions to superior antiquity, to arts,
and to sciences, must soon fall to the ground.

Lastly, the Reviewer says,

"By exhibiting the mean result only, we have given Mr. Bentley's
argument an advantage to which it is not entitled, the individual results
from each of the ten data vary from 300 to 1100 years for the age
of the Sūrya Siddhānta. Hence the only legitimate inference that can
be deduced is either that the heavenly bodies were so inaccurately
observed by the author as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that
the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that
assumed by Mr. Bentley. The first alone is admissible, and in that
we are disposed to acquiesce."
Lest, however, his readers should not be inclined to admit of such a conclusion, he endeavours to throw a suspicion on the whole; thus:

"But when it is recollected how many collations, researches, and ingenious conjectures have been requisite to restore Greek and Roman writers to their pristine sense, some enquiry would be necessary respecting the manuscript used by Mr. Bentley, and the certainty of his comprehending his text which he interprets differently from his instructors. At present Mr. Bentley is involved in the following dilemma, either that the observations of the heavenly bodies contained in the Sūrya Siddhānta are wholly erroneous, or that they were not made at the period he conjectures."

The Reviewer had it fully in his power to have ascertained the fact, whether the copy of the Sūrya Siddhānta in my possession was correct or not, by merely referring to a paper of Mr. Davis, in the second volume of the Asiatick Researches, page 232. He might have calculated the places of the planets from the numbers there exhibited, and compared them with those given by me; which would have shewn him whether I deviated from my instructors or not. If he found that I had committed a material error, or deviated from truth, he would then have been justified in exposing it to the world. On the other hand, if he found that I was right, it would have been equally his duty to have candidly acknowledged it. For, as Pope very justly says, respecting the moral qualities of a good Critic:

'Tis not enough wit, art and learning join;
In all you speak, let truth and candour shine.

It is much to be lamented that the very reverse of this, is but too often the case, and that men suffer their judgment to be biassed by their prejudices.
By exhibiting the mean result of ten different operations, viz. 731 years for the age of the Surya Siddhānta, the Reviewer conceived he did me more justice than I was entitled to, and therefore to counteract it as he thought, instead of giving the whole of the different results from which his readers would be enabled to form a just opinion, he makes choice of the two extreme results as differing most from the mean, and concludes from thence that either the heavenly bodies were so inaccurately observed by the author as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that given by me.

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moon's apogee, gave</td>
<td>605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon's node</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun's apogee,</td>
<td>1105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus</td>
<td>860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon</td>
<td>759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars's aphelion</td>
<td>641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the year</td>
<td>736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean age</td>
<td>731</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
raneous and less to be depended on than others. Had the Edinburgh Reviewer therefore adopted this plan, and rejected the extremes 1105, and 340, as too incorrect, no fault whatever could be found with him for so doing; for, the remaining eight results would still have been more than sufficient, to answer the purpose required.

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

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

The years are obtained by dividing the error in the position of the planet at a certain instant, by the error in the mean annual motion; which by its gradual accumulation, is supposed to have caused the error in position. Therefore, suppose we denote the error in position by \( x \), and that in the mean annual motion by \( y \), and that \( \frac{x}{y} = 1105 \); it is required from thence, to determine the quantities \( x \) and \( y \), which the Edinburgh Reviewer would wish to make his readers believe, must be so extraordinary great, as to leave no basis for calculation; I say it is absolutely impossible, nor does the nature of the case admit of such an unjust inference. For, any two quantities whatever, whether large or small, that
are in the proportion of $1 : 1105$, will give the same quotient. Thus, suppose $x = 1105$ minutes, and $y = 1$ minute, then, $\frac{1105}{1105} = 1105$. Again, suppose $x = 1105$ seconds, and $y = 1$ second, then, $\frac{1105}{1105} = 1105$, as before. Or, suppose $x = 221''$ and $y = 0, 2'$, then, $\frac{221''}{0, 2'} = 1205$, as before. Hence, it evidently follows, that as $1105$, may be deduced from any two quantities however small, that are in the proportion of $1 : 1105$, so may $340$, from any other two quantities whatever, small or large, that are in the proportion of $1 : 340$. It is, therefore, the height of absurdity to pretend to draw any conclusion relative to the supposed quantity of error from the years exhibited; and if we wish to shew the errors, it must be done by a direct computation, and not by ideal notions or sophistry.

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

**TABLE of the errors in the Sūrya Siddhānta, with respect to the places
of the Planets &c. at the undermentioned periods.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planets, &amp;c.</th>
<th>B.C. 3102*</th>
<th>A.C. 499</th>
<th>A.C. 999</th>
<th>A.C. 1499</th>
<th>A.C. 5999</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moon,</td>
<td>5 52 34−</td>
<td>0 20 14−</td>
<td>0 01 02−</td>
<td>0 07 39+</td>
<td>3 43 37+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--- apogee</td>
<td>30 11 25−</td>
<td>4 58 53−</td>
<td>1 21 59−</td>
<td>2 09 56+</td>
<td>27 27 28+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--- node</td>
<td>23 37 31+</td>
<td>3 56 06+</td>
<td>1 12 01+</td>
<td>1 32 04−</td>
<td>21 13 29−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus,</td>
<td>3 42 36−</td>
<td>3 33 41−</td>
<td>0 29 22+</td>
<td>4 32 25+</td>
<td>33 42 20+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars,</td>
<td>12 05 42+</td>
<td>2 22 42+</td>
<td>1 13 08+</td>
<td>0 06 27−</td>
<td>9 39 27−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--- aphel.</td>
<td>9 47 00+</td>
<td>1 30 59+</td>
<td>0 21 55+</td>
<td>0 47 00−</td>
<td>9 03 11−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter,</td>
<td>17 12 36−</td>
<td>1 48 56−</td>
<td>0 24 20+</td>
<td>2 38 36+</td>
<td>18 01 45+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn,</td>
<td>21 25 43+</td>
<td>2 50 09+</td>
<td>0 03 33−</td>
<td>2 54 05−</td>
<td>21 36 57−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun's apogee</td>
<td>3 15 53+</td>
<td>0 05 45−</td>
<td>0 33 45−</td>
<td>1 01 45−</td>
<td>4 23 22−</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* B.C. Before Christ.—A.C. After Christ.

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

With respect to the errors in the places of the planets as computed

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

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

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

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

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

\[
\frac{\text{As the number of years in the cycle assumed,}}{\text{Is to the revolutions of any planet in that cycle;}} \quad \frac{\text{So is the time expired from the epoch assumed,}}{\text{To the planets mean longitude.}}
\]

These are the principles on which the system given in the Sūrya Śidhānta, as far as relates to the planets, is founded, and which I shall now proceed to demonstrate.
According to the Sūrya Siddhānta, the planets are assumed to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries in the Hindu sphere, at the beginning of the Cali Yugs. I shall, therefore, carry back the calculation to that time, in order to shew more clearly, the actual differences between the real mean places of the planets, at that period, and that which was assumed, and the consequent effect thereof on the mean annual motions thence deduced.

The year 4900 of the Cali Yugas ended on the 12th of April 1799, at forty-five minutes forty-four seconds past nine P. M. on the meridian of Lanka; or fifty-one minutes forty seconds past four P. M. on the meridian of Paris. The mean places of the planets at that instant of time were, according to the third edition of Lalande's tables, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European Sphere</th>
<th>Hindu Sphere</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>0° 20' 52&quot; 28.5&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon</td>
<td>3° 22' 55&quot; 09.3&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus</td>
<td>2° 24' 06&quot; 14.0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>3° 04' 50&quot; 40.0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>1° 29' 58&quot; 02.1&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>3° 24' 16&quot; 56.1&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The length of the Hindu year, according to the Sūrya Siddhānta, is 365 days, 6 hours, 12 minutes, 36 seconds, 33 thirds, 36 fourths, in which time the sun is supposed to make one compleat revolution in his orbit.

Note—There being an error in the number of revolutions of Mercury, as given in the Sūrya Siddhānta, it is here omitted.—See Astronomical Researches, volume VI, section 61, page 366.
The mean motions for which, according to La Lande's tables, are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>European sphere.</th>
<th>Hindu sphere.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(r ) (s) (\dot{r})</td>
<td>(r ) (s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun,</td>
<td>1 0 00 00 58,672</td>
<td>1 0 00 00 00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon,</td>
<td>13 4 12 47 39,284</td>
<td>13 4 12 46 40,613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus,</td>
<td>1 7 15 12 22,306</td>
<td>1 7 15 11 23,635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars,</td>
<td>0 6 11 25 17,822</td>
<td>0 6 11 24 19,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter,</td>
<td>0 1 00 21 49,153</td>
<td>0 1 00 20 50,483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn,</td>
<td>0 0 12 14 08,015</td>
<td>0 0 12 13 09,343</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4900 Hindu years, of the above length, are equal to 17,897,67 days, 21 hours, 45 minutes, 44 seconds; or 4900 Julian years, 42 days, 21 hours, 45 minutes, 44 seconds; the mean motion for which, from La Lande's tables, are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>European sphere.</th>
<th>Hindu sphere.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(\dot{r})</td>
<td>(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun,</td>
<td>2 19 51 27,5</td>
<td>0 00 00 00,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon,</td>
<td>5 21 48 12,3</td>
<td>3 01 56 44,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus,</td>
<td>3 20 21 37,0</td>
<td>1 00 30 09,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars,</td>
<td>5 15 55 21,0</td>
<td>2 26 03 53,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter,</td>
<td>3 11 54 08,1</td>
<td>0 22 02 40,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn,</td>
<td>6 14 14 58,1</td>
<td>3 24 23 30,6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European sphere</th>
<th>Hindu sphere</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 01</td>
<td>00 00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 01</td>
<td>00 05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 03</td>
<td>10 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 18</td>
<td>11 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 18</td>
<td>00 53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 10</td>
<td>11 09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whence, it is evident, the planets were not in the position assumed.

Now taking the differences between the positions above found in the Hindu sphere, and that, which is assumed in the Śrīya Siddhānta, noting those which were past the point assumed, with the sign +, and those which fell short of it, with the sign −, we shall have

| Sun,   | 00 00 |
| Moon,  | + 00 05 56 = + 356° |
| Venus, | + 32 43 36 = + 117816° |
| Mars,  | - 12 05 42 = - 43544° |
| Jupiter, | + 17 02 53 = + 61373° |
| Saturn, | - 20 59 03 = - 755413° |

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

- **Sun:** $0^0 00 00 00,000 \times n$
- **Moon:** $1^3 4^1 12^4 46^1 40,613 \times n + 00 05 56$
- **Venus:** $1^7 15^1 11^2 23,635 \times n + 32 143 36$
- **Mars:** $0^6 11^2 24^1 19,150 \times n - 12 05 42$
- **Jupiter:** $0^1 20^2 10^2 50,483 \times n + 17 02 53$
- **Saturn:** $0^0 12^1 13 09,343 \times n - 20 59 03$

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

*Hindu Sphere.*

- **Sun:** $0^0 00 00$
- **Moon:** $1^3 4^1 12^4 46^1 40,613 + \frac{356^9}{n}$
- **Venus:** $1^7 15^1 11^2 23,635 + \frac{17816^9}{n}$
- **Mars:** $0^6 11^2 24^1 19,150 - \frac{43542^9}{n}$
- **Jupiter:** $0^1 20^2 10^2 50,483 + \frac{61373^9}{n}$
- **Saturn:** $0^0 12^1 13 09,343 - \frac{75543^9}{n}$

Hence, it is apparent, that all Hindu books or tables, which assume a mean conjunction of the planets at the beginning of the Cali Yug, must necessarily give the motions of the Moon, Venus, and Jupiter greater, and those of Mars and Saturn less than the Europeans make them.
Let us now put this to the test with respect to the motions in the Sūrya Siddhānta. I have already shewn, that the Sūrya Siddhānta must have been written between seven and eight hundred years ago; we shall therefore call it the end of the year 4100 of the Cālī Yuga, or A. D. 999, which will be near enough our purpose; then \( n \), in the above formulae, becomes 4100.

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

For the Moon, \[ + 8' 50'' = + 530', 0 \]
For Jupiter, \[ + 13' 11.7 = + 791.7 \]
For Saturn, \[ - 31' 48'' = - 1908', 0 \]

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

**Hindu Sphere.**

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sun</strong></td>
<td>06</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moon</strong></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Venus</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mars</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jupiter</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Saturn</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

which quantities being reduced, and compared with the motions given in the Sūrya Siddhānta, we shall have

* See Asiatic Researches, Vol. VI. p. 568, § 64.
From computation, 

By the Sūrya Siddhānta.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I.</th>
<th>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUN</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOON</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4 12 46 40.82</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4 12 46 40.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VENUS</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7 15 11 52.36</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7 15 11 52.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARS</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6 11 24.68 53</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6 11 24.09 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUPITER</td>
<td>9 0 100 21 05.64</td>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>00 21 06.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATURN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 12 12 50.48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 12 12 50.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

In the Sūrya Siddhānta, the least cycle in which the planets are assumed to return to a line of mean conjunction in the beginning of Aries, is 1080000 years. Let the motions above found, therefore, be multiplied by this number, and we shall have

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revolution</th>
<th>S.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUN</td>
<td>1080000 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td>in 1080000 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOON</td>
<td>14438334 0 0 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VENUS</td>
<td>1755593 7 18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARS</td>
<td>574207 1 09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUPITER</td>
<td>91054 8 12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATURN</td>
<td>36642 0 24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Now, taking the nearest entire numbers, except for Mars, which in order to increase its motion a little, take the next greater number, and we shall have

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planet</th>
<th>From Computation</th>
<th>By the Sūrya Sūdānta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>1080000 Revolutions</td>
<td>1080000 Revolutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon</td>
<td>14438334</td>
<td>14438334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus</td>
<td>1755594</td>
<td>1755594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>574208</td>
<td>574208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>91055</td>
<td>91055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>36642</td>
<td>36642</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

If the numbers above found, be multiplied by 4, we shall have the revolutions of the planets in a Māba Yuga, or 4320000 years: and if the revolutions in a Māba Yuga, be multiplied by 1000, we get the revolutions in a Calāpa.

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

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

The revolutions of the Moon in the cycle of 1080000 years = 14438334.
Hence the longitude required. \[ \frac{14438334 \times 4100}{1080000} = 54812 \]

By Lalande's tables, Hindu sphere, 2° 9° 48° 0°

Inequality (see page 216)

\[ - + 8.52 \]

Difference, the former short by

\[ - * 0 0 1 2 \]

Or thus—

2d. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, reckoning the years from the beginning of the Calpa of Varaha.

The years expired of the Calpa of Varaha, at the beginning of the Cali Yug,

\[ = 1955880000 \]

Add

\[ 4100 \]

Total years expired A.D. 999,

\[ = 1955884100 \]

Hence,

\[ \frac{14438334 \times 1955884100}{1080000} = 26147877686 \text{ rev.} 28 \text{°} 9° 48' 00'' \]

the Moon's mean longitude as before.

Or thus—

3d. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, reckoning from the end of the Calpa, as directed in the Graha Yamul.

The years in the whole Calpa,

\[ = 4320000000 \]

The years elapsed, as above,

\[ = 1955884100 \]

Therefore to expire in A.D. 999,

\[ = 2364115900 \]

Hence,

\[ \frac{14438334 \times 2364115900}{1080000} = 31605458313 \text{ revol.} - 9° 20° 12' 00'' \]

which subtracted from twelve signs, leave

\[ = 2° 00 48 00'' \]

the longitude as before.

* The difference of 1° 20' in the moon's place, arises from the rejection of the fraction 6° in forming the number of revolutions—the real quantity being 14438334 rev. cr. 6° instead of which 14438334. was taken as the nearest entire number—fractions not being admitted in the Hindu artificial systems, and the error produced in consequence \[ \frac{4100 \times 6°}{108000} = 1° 20' \] in A.D. 999. In A.D. 1049, the error was nothing; since that time it has increased, and now amounts to upwards of eleven minutes.
My intention in giving these examples is to show, that as the system is entirely artificial, it is immaterial whether we make the calculation from the beginning of the *Calpa*, the end of the *Calpa*, or any other period at which a mean conjunction of the planets in the first point of Aries, is assumed in the system; for the result must ultimately come out the same, either way.

By attending to the principles on which the motions given in the *Sūrya Siddhānta* are founded, it must appear evident, that it could not give the places of the planets sufficiently correct, for any considerable length of time: for, as \( n \), the number of years from the epoch of assumed mean conjunction (in the formula page 215) varies, so must the mean annual motions depending thereon. Therefore, those motions which would have given the positions of the planets sufficiently correct, when the *Sūrya Siddhānta* was written, would not answer at present. This fact, the Hindu astronomers discovered, by some means or other, between two and three hundred years ago;—they found, that in order to have the places of the planets sufficiently accurate, it was necessary to subtract three revolutions from those of Venus; two from those of Jupiter; and to add three revolutions to those of Saturn in 1080000 years.

The works in which these corrections are given, are, the *Siddhānta Rahasia*, dated in 1513 Saca; *Graha Tarangini*, dated 1530; *Siddhānta Munjari*, dated 1531; and several others of modern date now in use.

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

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{Sun, } \quad r. \quad s. \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 00 \quad 00 \quad 00 \\
\text{Moon, } \quad 13 \quad 4 \quad 12 \quad 46 \quad 40,613 + \frac{356.7}{4660} \\
\text{Venus, } \quad 1 \quad 7 \quad 15 \quad 19 \quad 23,635 + \frac{1178,16}{4660} \\
\text{Mars, } \quad 0 \quad 6 \quad 11 \quad 24 \quad 19,150 - \frac{4354,2}{4660} \\
\text{Jupiter, } \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 00 \quad 20 \quad 50,483 + \frac{617,2}{4660} \\
\text{Saturn, } \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 12 \quad 13 \quad 09,343 - \frac{7554,3}{4660}
\end{array}
\]

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

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{From computation. } \\
\text{Modern Hindu tables.}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{Sun, } \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 00 \quad 00 \quad 00,00 \\
\text{Moon, } \quad 13 \quad 4 \quad 12 \quad 46 \quad 40,70 \\
\text{Venus, } \quad 1 \quad 7 \quad 15 \quad 11 \quad 48,92 \\
\text{Mars, } \quad 0 \quad 6 \quad 11 \quad 24 \quad 09,86 \\
\text{Jupiter, } \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 00 \quad 21 \quad 03,65 \\
\text{Saturn, } \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 12 \quad 12 \quad 54,00
\end{array}
\]

The agreement between which, is sufficiently obvious. Let the motions
above found, be now multiplied by 1080000, the number of years in the
assumed cycle, and we shall have.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planet</th>
<th>Revolutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>108,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon</td>
<td>14,438,333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus</td>
<td>17,555,90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>5,742,08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>910,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>366,45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

From computation.  
Modern Hindu tables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planet</th>
<th>From Computation</th>
<th>Modern Hindu Tables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>108000 revol.</td>
<td>108000 revol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon</td>
<td>14438334</td>
<td>14438334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus</td>
<td>1755591</td>
<td>1755591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>574208</td>
<td>574208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>91053</td>
<td>98053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>36645</td>
<td>36645</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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

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

The first system mentioned in this work consisted of 2,400,000 years, which was called the Calpa.—This period was divided into Manvantaras and Yugas, as follow:

- A Satya Yug consisted of 960 years
- A Tretá, 720 years
- A Dwápar, 480 years
- A Cali, 240 years

A Mahá Yug, 2,400 years

= 1 Mahá Yugas, 170,400 years
with a Satya of, 960 years

A Manvantara, 171,360 years

14 Manvantaras, 2,399,040 years
which, with a Satya at beginning, 960 years

Form the whole Calpa, 2,400,000 years

The Calpa is also divided into 1000 Mahá Yugas, of 2,400 years each.
Connected with Ancient and Modern History.

The years expired of the above system at the era of Vicrama’ditya, were 1190627; which being reduced into Manwantaras and Yugs, we shall have

A Satya at the beginning,        = 960
6 Manwantaras compleat,                1028160
67 Mahá Yugs of the 7th Manwantara,       160800
thence to the era of Vicrama’ditya,          707

Total years expired,                  1190627

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

The Satya Yug, or golden age, began B. C. 3164.
The Trétá Yug, or silver age,            2204.
The Dwáapar Yug, or brazen age,           1484.
The Cali Yug, or iron age,                1004.

and ended,                                764.

making in all 2400 years.

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

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

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

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

A Calpa, is called a day of Brahma, which in this system contains, 5000 years
And his night is of the same length, 5000
A day and night therefore, = 10000
30 of such days and nights make a month, = 300000
And 12 such months a year, = 3600000
And 107 such years and eight months make the full period of Brahma's life, = 387600000

The Calpa, or day of Brahma, is divided into Manwantaras and Yugs, in the following manner:

---

* The Treta and Dwápar together make 12000 years, which divided by 30, give 24 years to a reign. It is somewhat remarkable that the principal Eastern nations date the commencement of their empires from nearly the same time. Thus we find the Chinese empire began under the dynasty of Hia, according to Pliny, B.C. 2207.
The kingdom of Egypt, --- 2207.
The kingdom of Assyria, --- 2231.
The empire of India under the solar and lunar lines, --- 2204.
Connected with Ancient and Modern History.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Satya contains,</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Tretá,</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Dwápar,</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Cali,</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Mahá Yug,</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71 Mahá Yugs,</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with a Satya of,</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make a Manwantara of,</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Such Manwantaras,</td>
<td>4998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which with a Satya at beginning,</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make a Calpa or day of BRAHMA,</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The years expired of this system at the beginning of the Satya or golden age of the former system, were, 212560000
Add thence to the Christian era, 3164
Total years expired at the Christian era, 212563164

After 193799286 years, had been expired of BRAHMA's life, he for the first time created the Earth, and ordained that at the end of every Calpa or 5000 years, it should be destroyed and again reproduced.
Therefore, from the years elapsed, 212563164
Take the years at the first creation = 193799286
Remain = 18763878
the years from the first creation to the Christian era—which being divided

* This Yuga of five years is to be met with in many books.

E c 2
by 5000, the quotient will be the number of times the world has been destroyed and created, and the remainder will shew the years expired since the last creation.

Thus, \( \frac{38763878}{5000} = 3752 \) times destroyed and created, and 3878 years, from the last creation to the Christian era.—Now since there are 357 years in each *Manvantara*, we have the date of the commencement of each as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manvantara</th>
<th>B.C. 3878 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The first</td>
<td>3521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The second</td>
<td>3164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The third</td>
<td>2807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fourth</td>
<td>2450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fifth</td>
<td>2093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sixth</td>
<td>1736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The seventh</td>
<td>1379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The eighth</td>
<td>1022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ninth</td>
<td>665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tenth</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The twelfth</td>
<td>A.C. 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The thirteenth</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fourteenth</td>
<td>763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and ended.</td>
<td>1120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Making in all about 5000 years with the Sandhi of two years.

Having thus exhibited the periods of ancient history, according to both systems, the annexed table will now shew at one view the commencement of each period, by which the corresponding times in each system, may be more easily seen and understood.
Connected with Ancient and Modern History. 229

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

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

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

The Hindus place the flood in the Satya or golden age:—on referring to the Manwantaras we find, according to the Márcañḍéya purána, that the flood took place in the fourth Manvantara, and that the fourth Menu, derived his name, Támasa, from the universal darkness which then overspread the earth—therefore the two systems agree in this point.

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

We next come to the sixth Manwantrana, * which by the table began 111 years later than the Trétá or silver age. Among the names we find mentioned in the Puránas in this period are Bhṛigu and Dacsha, who appear to have been cotemporary or nearly so.—For, Yayati the fourth prince in descent from Budha in the Lunar dynasty, according to the Puránas, was married to Dévayáni, the granddaughter of Bhṛigu, by whom he begat two sons, Yadu and Turvasu; and by Sarmishta, the daughter of Vrīshaparvan, the grandson of Dacsha, he begat three sons more, viz. Druhya, Anu and Puru; consequently, Bhṛigu and Dacsha must have lived about the same period, and that Budha, could have been earlier only by a few years, perhaps one or two generations at most. These circumstances, though they may appear at first sight as trivial, involve facts of considerable importance in the Hindu history, while at the same time they prove the truth of the ancient systems.

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

* Before Christ 2093.
That is—"In the early part of the Tretā Yuga, the daughters of Dacshā were born; of these daughters he gave twenty-seven to the Moon."

Dacshā, in some respects bears a strong resemblance to Atlas, who according to heathen mythology, was the father of the Pleiades and Hyades, the Cricht and Robini of Dacshā. Atlas is supposed by some to have been the son of Asia, the daughter of Oceanus:—The Purānas make Dacshā the grandson of the daughter of Oceanus.

We next proceed to the 7th Manwantarā. Among the names given in the Purānas in this period, we find those of Jamadagni, Biswa'mitra, and Bharadwaja, men, who according to the Hindu history, lived towards the close of the Tretā Yuga; for Jamadagni was the father of Parasura'ma, and nephew of Biswa'mitra. Hence, the two systems agree in this point.

The next period we come to, is the Dwāpar Yuga, or brazen age of the first system. This period is rendered famous in the Hindu history by the war that took place towards the close of it, between the sons of Dhrītarashtra and those of Pāndu.

Among the names of men, we find mentioned in Hindu history as living in this period, are those of Parāśara, Vya's his son, Garga, Gā'laya, Aswatthā'man, Causica, Diptima'n, Cripa, Rishyasringa, &c.
was the first of the Lunar line, and from him down to the end of the Dwá-
par or brazen age (being 1200 years) there were about fifty reigns. Now
by referring to the table, we see that the beginning of the Trétá of the
first system, corresponds to the latter part of the fifth Manvantara of the
second; we therefore naturally look into the Puránas under that period,
and there find among other names of persons who then lived, those of
Atri, Sōma, and Budha, which shews the exact agreement between the
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tioned in the Puránas in this period are Bhrígu and Dacsha, who
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fourth prince in descent from Budha in the Lunar dynasty, according
to the Puránas, was married to Devayání, the granddaughter of
Bhrígu, by whom he begat two sons, Yadu and Turvasu; and by
Sarmishta, the daughter of Vrishaparvan, the grandson of
Dacsha, he begat three sons more, viz. Druhya, Anu and Puru;
consequently, Bhrígu and Dacsha must have lived about the same
period, and that Budha, could have been earlier only by a few years,
perhaps one or two generations at most. These circumstances, though
they may appear to some at first sight as trivial, involve facts of
considerable importance in the Hindu history, while at the same time
they prove the truth of the ancient systems.

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

* Before Christ 2023.
That is—"In the early part of the Tréta Yug, the daughters of Dacsha were born; of these daughters he gave twenty-seven to the Moon."

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

We next proceed to the 7th Manvantara. Among the names given in the Puránas in this period, we find those of Jamadagni, Biswa'mitra, and Bharadwaj, men, who according to the Hindu history, lived towards the close of the Tréta Yug; for, Jamadagni was the father of Parasura'Ma, and nephew of Biswa'mitra. Hence, the two systems agree in this point.

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

Among the names of men, we find mentioned in Hindu history as living in this period, are those of Parásara, Vya's his son, Garga, Ga'laya, Asvattha'man, Causica, Diptima'n, Cripa, Ríshyasringa, &c.
By reference to the table, this period corresponds to the eighth Manwan-
tara of the second system, under which we accordingly look in the Purónas,
and find, as might naturally be expected, among others, the following
names, viz. Vya's, Ga' lava, Aswattha'man, Causca D'iptima'n,
Crīpa and Rīshyas'ringa*.

Having thus fully and clearly proved the truth of the ancient systems,
It appears from what is stated in the Párasarí Saññitá, relative to
she commenced the six Hindu seasons, that the solstitial colure,
which will enable us to judge with more certainty of the actual time in which
had passed through the first point of Dhanishthā and the middle of
they lived, as well as of the progress then made in the science of astron-
Ašëśā, while the equinoctial colure, cut the tenth degree of Bharaté and
omy in India.

3° 20' of Víșūčhā.

The same positions of the colures are also given in a little treatise on
The same positions of the colures are also given in a little treatise on
ancient astronomy, annexed to one of the Védás, in the possession of Mr.
astronomy, annexed to one of the Védás, in the possession of Mr.
Colebrooke, which he obligingly lent me, the sixth verse of which runs thus:

* In each Manwan'tara, down to the fourteenth, only a few names are given us in the present Purónas,
which seem to have been extracted from some larger works, that are not now to be found.
That is—"In the beginning of S'rawīšṭ'hā, the Sun and Moon ascend towards the North, and in the middle of Sárpa, or the mansion of the serpent, the Sun goes towards the South; the former, always in Mág, the latter in Srávana."

About the year A. D. 527, the solstitial colure, according to Brahma' Gupta, cut U. Āḍhāra in 3° 20', and Punarvasu in the tenth degree, which made a difference in the positions of the colures, of 23° 20', from the time of Parāśara. For, the longitude of the first point of S'rawīšṭ'hā in the Hindu Sphere is,

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 95.23^\circ 20' \\
\end{align*}
\]

And 3°-20' of U. Āḍhāra, 

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 9.00 00 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Difference or precession to A. D. 527, 

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 23.20 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Which at 50 seconds per annum gives,

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 1680 \text{ years} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Add from A. D. 527, to this time,

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 1277 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Total years since the time of Parāśara, 

\[
\begin{align*}
&= 2957 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Which make about one hundred and fifty years, before the beginning of the Cahi Yug of the first system of the Graba Munjari; or about one hundred and thirty-one years, before the end of the eighth Manvantara of the second system.

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

The number of mean solar days assigned to this cycle of five years was 1830, and the number of lunar days in the same time 1860. Hence

1st, The solar days in a year, \( \frac{1830}{5} = 366 \) days

2d, The lunar days in a year, \( \frac{1860}{5} = 372* \) days

3d, The moon's mean annual motion = \( \frac{67}{5} = 13 \) days in 1 year

4th, The moon's daily motion, \( \frac{67}{1830} = 0.037 \) days, or 0 days, 13 minutes, 10 seconds

5th, The moon's periodical revolution, \( \frac{1832}{67} = 27 \) days, 7 hours, 31 minutes, 20 seconds

6th, The moon's synodical revolution, \( \frac{1830}{62} = 29 \) days, 12 hours, 23 minutes, 13 seconds

It appears also, that the greatest length of the day was thirty-two Dandas, or twelve hours forty-eight minutes; consequently, the latitude of the place of observation must have been about 13° 1/4 North. There is no mention made in this work, nor in that of Paraśara, of the names of the days of the week, or of the twelve signs; which seem to have been introduced into the Hindu astronomy at a much later period.

* Cadmus about fifteen centuries before Christ introduced the Octateris or cycle of eight years into Greece. In this cycle there were ninety-nine lunations of thirty lunar days each. Therefore,

The lunar days in the cycle were, 2970

The lunar days in a year, \( \frac{2970}{8} = 371.25 \) days

The ancient Hindus made it as above, 372 days.

The difference is 1/4 of a lunar day, which being taken from 366 solar days, leave 365 1/4 days for the year of Cadmus——this in eight years makes 2922 solar days——Hence, \( \frac{2922}{59} = 29 \) days, 12 hours, 21 minutes, 49 seconds. The lunation of Cadmus, which is 1 day short of the ancient Hindu lunation.
From the above short sketch, the reader will be able to judge of the progress made in astronomy in India near 3000 years ago. He will perceive that the Hindus at that time, possessed nothing that could be called astronomy, no more than other nations:

The Hindus made the lunation then, \[= 29 - 12 - 23 \ 13 \ \frac{17}{31}\]
The Europeans make it now, \[29 - 12 - 44 \ 3\]
Difference about, \[\ 
\ 
\ 20 \ 49\frac{1}{2}\]
Which in less than 165 years would produce an error of one lunation*.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planets</th>
<th>Apisides</th>
<th>Nodes. retro.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun,</td>
<td>4320000000</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon,</td>
<td>5775330000</td>
<td>488105858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercury,</td>
<td>17936998984</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus,</td>
<td>7022389492</td>
<td>653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars,</td>
<td>2296828522</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter,</td>
<td>364226455</td>
<td>855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn,</td>
<td>146567298</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This makes an error of one day in less than six years, which shews that the Hindus at that period, could not determine the times of conjunctions and oppositions of the Sun and Moon for six years together correctly, much less eclipses; the calculation of which, they must have been then, and for many ages after, totally unacquainted with.
The revolution of the equinoxes, in 4320000000 years, = 199669
Mean solar days, - - - - - - - - 1577916450000
Lunar days or tiths, - - - - - - - - 1602999000000

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

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

A Satya Yugas, - - - - - - - - 1728000 years.
A Trétá of, - - - - - - - - 1296000
A Dwápar of, - - - - - - - - 864000
A Cali of, - - - - - - - - 432000

A Mahá Yugas, - - - - - - - - 4320000

71 Mahá Yugas, - - - - - - - - 306720000
with a Satya of, - - - - - - - - 1728000

A Manwantaras, - - - - - - - - 308448000

14 Manwantaras, - - - - - - - - 4318272000
with a Satya at beginning of, - - - - - - - - 1728000

The modern Calpa, - - - - - - - - 4320000000

* This is the first system, so far as we yet know, in which the names of the days of the week and the twelve signs were introduced. These were probably received from the West, and the first point of Aries was fixed to that point in the Hindu sphere, which corresponded with the instant of the vernal equinox, which, in the time of Brahma Gupta, was the beginning of Aparvini. This position, has therefore a direct reference to the actual time the twelve signs were first introduced, that is to say near 1300 years ago; though hitherto but little, if at all, attended to by writers on the Hindu astronomy, &c.
In order to shew how the Hindu history, according to the two former systems, had been transferred to this, let 1972948905, the years now expired be reduced into Manwantaras and Yugs, and we shall have:

- A Satya at the beginning, \[= 1728000 \text{ years} \]
- 6 Manwantaras compleat, \[= 185688000 \]
- 27 Mahā Yugs of the 7th Manwantara, \[= 16640000 \]
- Satya of the 28th Mahā Yug, \[= 1728000 \]
- Trété of ditto, \[= 1266000 \]
- Dwāpar of ditto, \[= 864000 \]
- Expired of the Cali of ditto, \[= 4905 \]

Total years expired, \[= 1972948905 \]

Hence, it is evident that, we are now in the 4906th year of the Cali Yug, of the twenty-eighth Mahā Yug, of the seventh Manwantara of this new system.

Now, if we transfer the names &c. in the four ages of the first system of the Graha Munjari, to the Satya, Trété, Dwāpar and Cali abovementioned, and those in the Manwantaras of the second system, to the Manwantara of the same name in this; then we shall have the periods of Hindu history according to modern notions, founded on the system of Brahma' Gupta.

In the first place, by transferring the names &c. in the Dwāpar Yug of the first system, to the period of the same name in the new system, Parāśara, Vyā's and others, who lived near three thousand years ago, are thrown back into antiquity about 5000 years; and the same persons who lived in the eighth Manwantara, of the second system, by the transfer,
will appear as yet to come; for we are now only in the seventh of the new. Secondly, Budha, the son of Suma, the first of the lunar line who began his reign about the beginning of the Treta of the first system, or 2504 B.C. will, by the transfer, be placed at the distance of 3027102 years, before the Christian era;—Thirdly, in the Treta and Dwapar of the first system, there were (taken together) 1200 years, during which about fifty princes in the lunar line had reigned in succession, but the Treta and Dwapar of the new system contain 3024000 years, which divided among fifty, give 60480 years to a reign;—Fourthly, Budha, the son of Soma, lived towards the close of the fifth Manvantara of the second system, which being transferred to the new, his name will appear at two distinct periods of time, immensely distant from each other, viz. in the fifth Manvantara, and again in the Treta Yug, of the twenty-eighth Mahayug, of the seventh Manvantara, being an interval, at the least, of 426816000 years;—Fifthly, the mothers of the children of Yaya'ti (see page 230) who lived in the sixth Manvantara of the second system, by being transferred to the sixth Manvantara in the new, are thrown back several millions of years before their children, and Dacsha and Bharigu, by the same transfer, are thrown back, from their cotemporaries, many millions of years. Lastly, Swayambhuva, the Adam of the Hindus, who, according to the second system lived 3878 years before Christ, is placed by the transfer 1972947101 years, before that epoch. These are a few of the inconsistencies introduced by the adoption of the new system of Brahma Gupta, the rest may be easily conceived.

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

The enormous length of the periods in the new system, required that the life of man should be proportionably extended, which was accordingly assumed: In order to account for the same Rishis being mentioned in different periods, immensely distant from each other, they are asserted not only to have existed at all times, but to be still living. But as all men were not Rishis, and as there were twenty-seven Mahā Yugas from the beginning of the seventh Mahā Yuga to the commencement of the twenty-eighth Mahā Yuga, or 43,200,000 years, during which there is no shadow of history; to account for this, they therefore pretend, that at the end of every Mahā Yuga, or 43,200,000 years, the same names, persons, &c. again occur, as in the preceding period; so that by having the names &c. for one Mahā Yuga, or set of four ages, we have them for all the rest.

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

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

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

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

---

* The author of this system, as well as the time in which he lived is well known to the learned, and subject to no doubt. Those who wish to see the age of the system determined from computation, may consult *Vol. VI, Asiatic Researches*, page 579—581.
none of the modern Romances, commonly called the Puránas, at least in the form they now stand, are older than 684 years; the time when the fourteenth Manvantara of the second system of the Graha Munjari ended; but that some of them are the compilations of still later times.

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

With respect to the firm belief or universal opinion of the Hindus, we know too well the fallacy of it, and that it is not in the smallest degree to be relied on. We know that it is the universal opinion of the Hindus, that Paraśara, Vyaśa, Garca and others, lived near 5000 years ago. But we know, to a certainty, from the positions of the colures in the time of Paraśara, &c. that such opinion is totally false, and that it arose from the transfer of the names of men living in the Dwápar Yuga of the first system of the Graha Munjari, to the period of the same name in the modern system of Brahma Gupta; and that a similar transfer of the names in the eighth, ninth, tenth, &c. Manvantaras of the second system, to the periods of the same name in the new, gave rise to the pretended prophetic effusion in the modern Puránas, &c.

Moreover, we know, that it is the general opinion of the Hindus that Varāha Mihiira not only lived about the year A.D. 499, but also at the era of Vicrama ditya, or fifty-six years before Christ, which opinion we know to be inconsistent with truth and contrary to the course of nature. Varāha Mihiira, in his rule for calculating the precession of the equinoxes, given in his work entitled the játacárnava, says,—
That is, "From the year of Saca take 421:—having put the remainder down in two places, let one of them be divided by ten, and the quotient taken from the other, the residue is the precession in minutes."

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

That is, "Dhanvantari, Cshapanaca, Amarasinha, Sanu, Be'ta'labhatta, Ghatacarpura, Calida's, the celebrated Varāha Mihiira and Bararuchi, were the nine gems in the council of Raja Vicrama."
Upon shewing the above verse to an intelligent pandit, he smiled and said with a degree of candour I did not expect, that the inference, with respect to time, usually drawn from it, was not just; for that there had been several princes of the name of Vicrama or Vicrama'ditya. That, exclusive of the one from whom the epoch is reckoned, there was another in the time of Salyahan; a third who had succeeded Raja Bhoja; and a fourth lineally descended from the latter, now living at a place called Bhóipoor beyond Patna:—that, beside these, there were many others, who had sprung up at different periods in the same family, but that the particular prince in whose time Varahā Mihira and the others above named, flourished, was the immediate successor of Raja Bhoja. For, that they were first in the council of Rajah Bhoja, and afterwards in that of Vicrama'ditya his successor. This simple explanation of the pandit, was a compleat solution of the mystery on which the pretended antiquity of the works of Varahā, Amarasìna, Ga'îda's, Bararuchi, &c. were founded, and which led many into an error that they were written before the Christian era, though in reality little more than seven hundred years old.

Raja Bhoja, according to the Ayeen Akkör, began his reign about the year 1153 of Salyahan.—This however must be incorrect, for it seems, that according to Hindu accounts and others, he began his reign about 210 years, before the death of Raja Pithaura, who fell in battle with the Mahomedans, A. H. 588, or A. D. 1192. And as Raja Bhoja, is said to have reigned 100 years, he must consequently have ascended the throne A. D. 982, and died A. D. 1082: which agrees exactly with the time in which we know Varahā Mihira must have flourished, according to the positions of the planets &c. given by him in his works, as well as from the date of the Bhásvati, composed in A. D. 1099 by one
of his pupils. Raja Bhoja according to the Agni Purana, was succeeded
by Raja Vicrama.

Bhararuchi, one of the nine abovementioned, was the author of a pop-
ular Work, entitled Sīhāśana devadrīṁṣati relating to Raja Bhoja. The
names of Cālidā’s, Bhararuchi, &c. are to be met with in the Bhoja
Champu as also in the Bhoja Prabandha, from which last mentioned work
the following passage is taken:

तंवीद्धाने द्विजा उचः । कालिदास अस्मार्क
समगु वेदविद्यो भोनः किमापि नार्पयति ।

"The Brāhmens seeing him (i.e. Cālidā’s) said—O Cālidā’s,
Bhoja does not give us, who are learned in all the Vedas, any thing."

Several other passages might be quoted from the Bhoja Prabandha, to
shew that Cālidā’s, Bhararuchi, and a great many other learned men
whose names are therein mentioned, lived at the court of Bhoja. The
Bhoja Prabandha, is said to have been written by Raja Bullalasa Sena.

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

A great deal more might be said, respecting the history and astro-
nomy of the Hindus; but having already extended this paper, to a much
greater length than I originally intended, I shall now take leave of the
subject.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>From Year to Year</th>
<th>B.C.</th>
<th>ACCORDING TO THE SECOND SYSTEM—See page 333.</th>
<th>B.C.</th>
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<tr>
<td>I. The Satya Yuga, or Golden Age</td>
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<td>1. The 4th Millennium. Sattvagrha and Satyavrata, his wife,</td>
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<td>the four sons—Prajapati, and Uttama, the</td>
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<td>sons of Prajapati, and Uttama, their</td>
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<td>daughter—Arya, Devayana, and Pratima.</td>
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<td>II. The Treta Yuga, or Silver Age</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>2. The 3rd Millennium. Ayas,</td>
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<td>III. The Dvapara Yuga, or Brass Age</td>
<td>2804</td>
<td>3. The 2nd Millennium. Varaha, the son of</td>
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<td>Prajapati, and</td>
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<td>IV. The Kali Yuga, or Iron Age</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>4. The 1st Millennium. Krita,</td>
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**Remarks:**

The periods of Hindu history, exhibited in the above Table, are usually laid down according to the data in the Grhya Munjari. The four ages belonging to the fifth millennium appear to have been adopted to very early times, and to have continued for several nations down to the fourth period. All beyond the second period at five ages, appear to be wholly fabulous.

At or about the commencement of the second period, we find several Empires and Kingdoms began, such as:

- The Vedic Empire under the solar and lunar lines of Priyamvada, B.C. 3104.
- The Ashvins under the dynasty of Ayas, B.C. 3000.
- The kingdom of Ayas about the same time, B.C. 2804.

Towards the close of the 4th period, the Hindu form to have adopted the second system, and transferred their history to the corresponding periods; hence, we meet with the names of Brahma, &c., in the 5th millennium of Dasharopa, B.C. 600, of Jamradon, &c., in the 7th; and of Vedas, Chatur, &c., in the 8th; whereas these periods correspond with the former in respect to time, though under different names, as may be easily seen from the Table. These dasas' dates must carry conviction to the mind of every unblinded perform, of the truth of the above ancient systems; and of the impudence of the systems of Brahman Gópta, exhibited in their place in modern times. But however strange and incoherent, the Hindu history now appears to be, in consequence of transferring the above names to the modern periods of the system of Brahman Gópta, yet, from the force of prejudice, and a partiality for whatever appears strange or marvellous in preference to simple truth, we see it finds advocates even among those whom we would naturally expect to have known better.
VII.

An ESSAY on the SACRED ISLES in the West, with other Essays connected with that Work.

BY CAPTAIN F. WILFORD.

INTRODUCTION.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Many of the legends were very correct, except in the name of the country, which he generally altered into that of either Egypt, or Szwetam.

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

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

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

To conceal his impositions of the third class, which is the most numerous, he had the patience to write two voluminous sections, supposed to belong, one to the Scanda-purāṇa and the other to the Brabmāṇḍa, in which he connected all the legends together, in the usual style of the Purāṇas. These two sections, as he wrote them, consist of no less than 12,000 Slocas or lines, the title of which he borrowed. The real sections, are so very scarce, that they are generally supposed to be lost and probably are so; unless they are to be found in the library of the Rajah of Jayanagar. Other impostors have had recourse to the Scanda, Brabmāṇḍa, and Padma-purāṇas, a great part of which is not at present to be found, and for that reason, these are called the Purāṇas of thieves or impostors: though the genuineness of such parts, as are in common use, has never been questioned.

Some persons attempted by such means, to deceive the famous Jayasinha, and the late Ticat-Raya, prime minister of the Nabob of Oude. They were discovered, lost their places and appointments, and were disgraced.

My chief pandit certainly had no idea, in the first instance, that he should be driven to such extremities. I used (as already remarked) to translate the extracts which he made for me, by way of exercise; and never thought at that time, of comparing them with the originals: first, because I had no
reason to doubt their authenticity; and secondly, because it would have been soon enough to make the collation, when I had determined upon publishing any part of them.

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

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

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

Dacsha and Brahma in a human shape; Carddama, or Capila, or Cabil, (the name of Cain among Muslemans), was Śiva; and the benevolent Ruchi, was Vishnu: one of Ruchi’s titles is Śarma and Sama; Śiva is called Ha and Ham in the objective case; and Brahma, or Dacsha, is declared to be Praja’pati, nearly synonymous with Jyā’pati.

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

The rest of the legend, about the intoxication of Noah, is from what my pandit picked up in conversation with me.
One of the sons of Noah is called Ila-pati, synonymous with Jyapaati, the lord of the earth, the same with Praja-pati, or the lord of mankind. Indeed the denomination of Praja-pati is originally no more, than Japati with the ussarga, or indeclinable particle pra, used intensively. Jaab is the principle of life in a living being; hence a man is called Pra-já, from his superiority above the rest of the animal creation. Besides it is very common in India to prefix the particle pra to proper names of holy men, and more particularly so among the Baud-dhists. Thus they say Pra-Swana, the venerable Swana. Pra-áryya-sira the venerable sira of the Aryan, Pra-Iswara, &c. In the same manner, Praja'pati signifies the venerable Ja'pati the chief of the animated creation. This will not seem in the least surprising, when we reflect that the Hindus never admit of any legend without disfiguring it so, as to make it their own. Besides we see the enmity between Brahma' and Siva, remaining still in their human shapes: for Cördameswara killed his brother Dacsua.

It is acknowledged both by Hindus and the western mythologists, that at every renovation of the world, the same events take place, the same heroes reappear upon the scene: and of course S'ama, Cama, Harsha, or Pra-Ja'pati are born again to every Menu.

Ila or Ila', called also Id'a', and Ir'a', was the son of Noah; and Ila'-pati is synonymous with Jyapaati; and implicitly so with Ja'pati. This Ila is called Ilus in the theogony of Orpheus; and Ghilsa in Persian romances, which literally answers to Ila'-pati. He is perhaps the same with the eldest Ilus of Homer.

The next legend is that of Semiramis, which the pandit has most shame-
fully disfigured. She is well known in India under the name of S'ami-devi, and she is the goddess of the element of fire, so inimical to the vegetable kingdom, the S'th'dawaras, or immoveable beings; and of course to their chief Vishnu in the character of the A'swatt'ba tree, which is declared to be the first, the chief of trees, and of course S'th'dawarpati or Staurobates.

S'ami and the A'swatt'ba tree have each two countenances, one is that of a tree of the same name, the other is that of a human being. In this, which is their original character, S'ami is the name with Urvasi, who married Pururava, the grandson of Noah, exactly in the same degree of descent with the founder of Ninive. The same is called also Aila in the Pur'anas, and Lailan-shah by Persian romancers, Ninus by the Greeks, and in the Tamuli dialect he is also called Nilan. Their amours and their quarrels, and ultimately their reconciliation are the subject of a beautiful drama. Her charms certainly affected the conquest of Lailan's heart: they quarrelled, and she disappeared in a most wonderful manner: but Lailan, with powerful spells, forced her back. Semiramis first conquered Staurobates, but was conquered by him at last.

S'ami and Pururava were changed into two trees, without losing their human countenances, the S'ami and the A'swatt'ha, the S'th'awarpati, and S'ami-devi remains dallying in the tree of the same name; hence she is really S'ami-rama, though that denomination be never used.

Her history is to be found in the Gan'es'a, Vishnu, and Bhagavar Pur'anas, and also in the Maha Bh'arata, but it is incomplete in each.
Sacred Isles in the West, &c.

and the whole must be brought together and compared with the account given of her in the above Nataca, or dramatic poem.

It is my intention to resume her history in the course of this work, and in the meantime I shall observe, that she was born at Tibotra (or Trihotra) to the west of Deblis, acknowledged to be the same place, which is now called Tehora or Tehora, and Tahora in the Peutingerian tables, near the river Sutluj. Tibotra is also supposed to be the same with Tri-gorta, a place often mentioned in Hindu books.

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

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

The misfortune which befell Mahâ-deva is well known; but the discription of the sacred Linga is represented in the Puranâs, in a different light. It was divided into twelve parts, besides many splinters. These twelve Lingas preside over the twelve months of the year. I was concerned for a long time, that I could not discover the least vestiges of the legends concerning Perseus, Andromeda, and Pegasus, nor even the names of the principal characters: but these I have lately found in the Yantra-nâja and other books, with a most ample account of the thir-
PERSEUS is called there PRETAS'IRA, or the man with the Larva's head, and the same situation is assigned to him in the heavens. He is also called S'AILA-MUC'HA (or having a stony face or head) alluding to the head of MEDUSA, which turned the beholders into stone. PEGASUS is also mentioned there under the name of SAMU'DRA-PACSHI, or the bird of the ocean. He is likewise called SAMU'DRA-PADA, because his hindparts and feet are concealed in the ocean. The lesser horse is called Hayagriva: but the legends of all these are still wanting, except the last, which will appear in the course of this work. ANDROMEDA is called VEJA'RA, and is represented with her head shaven, and her hands bound in fetters. CASSIOPEIA is called LEBANA, and CEPHEUS NRI'PA or NR'I-RUPA, and Persian authors say, he is the same with CAI-CAOUS. He is slightly mentioned in other Hindu books as a great king. He was the father of the CEPHENES, and Cephisene was their native country; in Sanscrit CAPIŚAYA. CAPESA is CEPHEUS, and CAPIŚA is the patronymic appellation of his descendants, called also SIBLUCAS.

My essays on the chronology of the Hindus and mount CAUCASUS are almost entirely free from the forgeries which I have stated, because my chief pandit had little to do with them. I recollect only three instances in which he interfered; and in them the legends were, as usual, disfigured by him. They are legends respecting PROMETHEUS and the Eagle; with some particulars relating to BAMIYAN and the Lipari islands. Garuda's den is well known to this day, to pilgrims, and the Hindus of these parts. The place is called SIBIR in Major Rennell's maps, for Shabar: and it is not far from BAMIYAN. There GARUDA used to devour all the SHABARAS who
panied by, and in the Purāṇa, all savage tribes are thus called. Amongst others were some servants of Mahā-Deva whom he devoured; this drew upon him the resentment of that irascible deity, whose servants are called Pramathas: hence probably the ground work of the fable of Prometheus and the Eagle. All the rest is an improvement, from what the Pandit gathered out of our conversations on the subject of ancient mythology. His account of Bāmiyan from the Buddha-dharma-charitra must be rejected till its genuineness be ascertained. There is such a book at Benares, but all my endeavours to procure it have been fruitless. In this legend he has certainly adopted admirably the manner, style, and notions of the followers of Buddhā, and the idiom of the language of their books. I have seen the original legend from which he framed his own, about the islands of Lipari, but it has not the least relation to these islands, and belongs to some place in the mountains to the north of India.

In like manner many of the legends cited in my essay on Egypt, though they have a striking affinity with those of that country, are not expressly said to belong either to that, or to any particular country, being related in general terms. In these cases, my Pandit inserted the name of Egypt, and if the name of any other country was mentioned, he erased it, and put that of Egypt in its place. Yet the similarity between these legends, and many more which are quoted in the course of this work, and the authenticity of which may be depended upon, with those of the Egyptians and other mythologists is so striking, as to evince their original identity: for so near a coincidence, in my humble opinion, could not have been merely accidental. It evinces also some remote communication at least, if not some affinity, at an early period, between the nations among which we find these legends equally current.
In the Hindu books we read of some princes, who raised mountains of gold, silver, and precious stones; some three, others only one: but whether this be applicable to Egypt does not appear, rather the contrary. It was however a practice formerly, and, if restricted to a single pyramid, it was intended for the mountain of God, the holy mount Meru. If three pyramids were constructed, they were intended to represent the three peaks of Meru. There is a beautiful pyramid at Sarnâth near Benares, built by a king of Gaur, or Bengal. It is conical, and of earth, with a coating of bricks, and is about seventy feet high. In the inscription found there some years ago, it is declared to be intended as a representation of Meru, which is represented of a conical figure by the Hindus, but like a square pyramid by the followers of Boddita. The tower, or pyramid of Babel, was of a square form, with seven stages or steps like Meru.

The recession of the sea from the valley of Egypt is nowhere mentioned; but the same miracle is recorded as performed by several holy men, particularly on the western shores of India. Indeed whenever the Hindus write treat of the accession of lands, which were formerly occupied by the sea, they never fail to attribute it to the prayers of some holy personage.

In the course of my correspondence with the venerable Sir William Jones, the first President of the Asiatic Society, and my patron in Oriental literature, I mentioned the discoveries, which I thought I had made, and particularly respecting Ethiopia and Egypt. He expressed his surprise; but could not be brought to believe an early, or even any communication whatsoever, between the inhabitants of those countries and the Hindus. As I was just entering upon my studies, and literary enquiries at that time, he wrote me candidly that he was afraid I had been misled by enthusiasm, and cautioned me not to trust to the verbal accounts
of the Brahmins: but requested that I would, for his satisfaction, send to him the necessary written documents from the Purâṇas. I complied with his request most cheerfully; and sent him all my vouchers as correct as possible. After perusing them, he wrote to me nearly in the following words, the purport of which I recollect perfectly, but lament that his letter being mislaid, I cannot produce it.

"Having read the numerous passages you adduce in support of your assertions, in their original language, in the extracts you have sent me, both alone and with a pandit, I am fully satisfied that there existed an early communication between the Hindus, and the inhabitants of Ethiopia and Egypt."

He then informed me that his collection of the Purâṇas being incomplete, he had not been able to compare all the extracts which I had sent to him concerning Ethiopia and Egypt; but that he had found several of the most essential, such as the legends about Nîrât and the Paṛli, and that he could bear testimony to their general accuracy. Besides, Nîrât and his being appointed guardian of the south-west quarter of the old continent being well known to learned pandits, they had pointed out to him several passages in other Purâṇas and Sanscrit books, relating to Nîrât, Sānpa, &c., so that he was fully convinced of their genuineness and antiquity, and as for the others of less importance, he did not entertain the least doubt about their being equally genuine. He added, that learned pandits were, besides, well acquainted with the general outlines of most of the other legends I had produced; and concluded by saying, that he intended to make some remarks on my essay on Egypt, in which he would express his conviction in those terms.
In the remarks, which Sir William Jones did afterward subjoin to my essay, and which were published with it in the third volume of the transactions of the Asiatick Society, he could not have intended a stronger public testimonial, than that which he had communicated to me privately. But as the terms of one passage, relative to the Sanscrit papers, which I transmitted to him, as taken from the Purânas and other books, might be understood to imply a more general collation of my extracts with the original works, then had taken place, or could have been meant, I have thought it incumbent on me to add the preceding explanation of the real circumstances.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Introduction.

Essay I. On the geographical systems of the Hindus.
   — II. Geographical and historical sketches on Anu-Gangam, or the Gangetic provinces.
   — III. Chronology of the kings of Magadha, emperors of India.
   — IV. On Vicrama'ditya and S'aliva'hana, with their respective eras.
   — V. The rise, progress and decline of the Christian religion in India.
   — VI. The Sacred Isles in the West.
PART THE FIRST.

CHAPTER THE FIRST.

OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL SYSTEMS OF THE HINDUS.

SECTION I.

GENERAL IDEAS OF THESE SYSTEMS.

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

The Hindus give various names to geographical tracts, such as Bhûvana-Čôsa, or treasure of terrestrial mansions; Ćhêtra-Samâsa, or combination
of countries; Bhúvana-Ságara, or ocean of mansions, or habitable places. Such a geographical treatise is cited by Signor Bayer, under the corrupted appellation of Puevana-Saccaram. Another treatise in my possession is called Trailóya-darpaña, and was given to me by the late Mr. Reuben Burrow, who procured it near Hardewár. Its name signifies the mirror of the three worlds, meaning heaven, earth, and hell, and answers exactly to the treatise ascribed to Saint Patrick, and called Dissertatio de Tribus Locis, or habitaculii. It was written some hundred years ago, and the copy I have is of the year 1718 of Vicrama'ditya. In several Puráñas, there is a section expressly on the subject of geography, and for that reason called Bhúvana-Cóṣa. It is also denominated Bhú-c'banāla, or section of the earth. Except the sections contained in the Puráñas, geographical tracts are in general written in the spoken dialects, and are extremely scarce, as they are disconcerted by the sacerdotal class, as are historical books. This they have often acknowledged to me, saying, they have the Puráñas; what do they want more? Besides, as they are written in the vulgar dialects, they are the works of persons not sufficiently learned and informed, and very apt, as I am told, to hazard occasionally a few heretical notions. They are not, however, so strict in the Dekhin, and the Western parts of India: there, I am credibly informed, they have treatises expressly on the subject both of history and geography.

There are two geographical tracts in Sanscrit: the first, called Vicrama-pratidéśa vyavast'ba, is attributed to Vicrama'ditya, probably the one of that name, who lived, as we shall see hereafter, in the fifth century, and it is said to consist of eighteen, or twenty thousand śločas or lines: the second, called Munja-pratideśa-vyavast'ba, is attributed to king Munja, the uncle of the famous Bho'ja, who lived in the latter end of the tenth century. It is nearly the same with the former, including some amendments and
additions. These two geographical treatises cannot but be curious and interesting; but unfortunately, they are not to be found in this part of India. They are however pretty common in the Western parts of it, and particularly so in Gurjarat, where they have been seen by several respectable pandits of that country. The Träi-Lócyā-darpaka, which I mentioned before, is according to the system of the followers of Budḍha, and is written in an uncouth dialect of the inland parts of India, with a strange mixture of Sanscrit words and phrases.

The Cṣētra-Samāśa is another geographical tract by the Jainas, which I lately procured. It is written in Prācīt, asserted by some to be the same with the Bāli or Māgadhi dialect, but probably somewhat different from that used in the Burman empire, Siam and Ceylon. The Bāli or Māgadhi, was the language used at the court of the emperors of India, kings of Magadha or Bāhar, and called also Bāli-putra, because they were descended from the famous Bāli, or Nanda; and their kingdom is denominated after them Polī by the Chinese. This last is accompanied by a copious commentary, with several fanciful delineations of the world, and of Mount Meru.

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

The Prāṭat-Cat'hā is a collection of historical anecdotes, sometimes very interesting, and consists of 22,000 ślokas.

In the spoken dialects, there is the romance of Prīthus-rāva, containing an account of his wars with Sultan Ghori; part of it is in my pos-
session. It is exactly in the style of our old romances in Europe, with nearly the same proportion of historical truth.

In several of the Purâṇas there is an account of the principal events, which were to take place during the Cālī-yug. These come down as late as the eighth and ninth centuries, except in the Agni and the Bhavīṣṭya Purâṇas, in which there is an account written as usual in a prophetical style, of the principal events, which were to take place, as late as the twelfth century. In the time of Acbar, a supplement was added, down to Huma'yun, as is obvious from the lists of the kings of Mālwa in the second volume of the Ayn-Acheri. Since that time another supplement has been added, down to the beginning of the eighteenth century.

It is universally acknowledged, that the court of the kings of Magadha, now the province of Babar, was once, one of the most brilliant that ever existed, and that learning was promoted there, through its various branches. Their vernacular language was cultivated, and many valuable treatises were written in it, in order to diffuse knowledge among all classes of men. This, I am informed, was carried so far as to incur the resentment of the whole sacerdotal class, who unanimously declared, that Magadha could no longer be considered as a proper country for the twice-born to live in, without losing the fruit of their good works, and greatly impairing their energy in the paths of righteousness.

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

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

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

On the higher parts, and in the center of the Earth, the Hindus place a mountain standing like a column 84000 Yojans high, 32000 broad at the top, and 16000 at the bottom. It is circular, and in the shape of an inverted cone. This idea prevailed once in the West: for, when Cleanthes asserted that the Earth was in the shape of a cone, this, in my opinion, is to be understood only of this mountain called Mēru in India. Anaximenes said that this column was plain, and of stone: exactly like the Mēru-pargwette (parwata) of the inhabitants of Ceylon, according

* Plutarch de placit. philosoph.
to Mr. Joinville, in the seventh volume of the Asiatick Researches
Tibis mountain, says he, is entirely of stone, 68000 feet high, and
60,000 in circumference, and of the same size from the top to the bottom.
The divines of Tibet say, it is square, and like an inverted pyramid.

Some of the followers of Budd'ha* in India insist, that it is like a drum
with a swell in the middle, like drums in India; and formerly, in the
West, Leucippus had said the same thing; and the Baud'his in
India give that shape also to islands. This figure is given as an emblem
of the reunion of the original powers of nature. Meru is the sacred and
primeval Linga: and the Earth beneath is the mysterious Yoni expanded,
and open like the Padma or Lotos. The convexity in the center is the
Os. Tinea, or navel of Vishnu: and they often represent the physiological
mysteries of their religion, by the emblem of the Lotos; where the whole
flower signifies both the Earth, and the two principles of its fecundation:
the germ is both Meru and the Linga: the petals and filaments are the
mountains, which encircle Meru, and are also the type of the Yoni: the
four leaves of the calyx, are the four vast regions toward the cardinal
points: and the leaves of the plant, are the different islands in the ocean
around Jambu: and the whole floats upon the waters like a boat. The
Hindus do not say, like the Chaldeans, that the Earth has the shape of a
boat, which is only the type of it. It is their opinion, I do not know on
what authority, that at the time of the flood, the two principles of genera-
tion assumed the shape of a boat with its mast, in order to preserve man-
kind. Enthusiasts among the Hindus see these two principles every
where, in the clefts of rocks, commissures of branches, peaks among
mountains, &c. The Earth is typified by a boat, the Argba of the Hindus,
the Cymbium of the Egyptians, are also emblems of the Earth, and of the
mysterious Yoni. The Argba, or Cymbium, signifies a vesel, cup or dish,

* Traditio derpana.
in which fruits and flowers are offered to the Deities, and ought, to be in
the shape of a boat; though we see many that are oval, circular, or square.
Is'wara is called Argha-māth'ā, or the lord of the boat-shaped vessel*.)
and Osiris, according to Plutarch, was commander of the Argo, and
was represented by the Egyptians in a boat carried on the shoulders of a
great many men, who, I think, might be called with propriety Argonauts.
The ship, worshipped by the Suevi, according to Tacitus, was the
Argba, or Argo, and the type of the mysterious Yôni. The Argha, with
the Linga of stone, is found all over India as an object of worship. It is
strewed with flowers, and water is poured on the Linga. The rim repre-
sents the Yôni, and the sôla navicularis, and instead of the Linga, Is'wara
might be represented standing in the middle, as they used to do in
Egypt.

II. The Hindus have peculiar names for the four cardinal points, de-

erived from their respective situation, with regard to a man looking toward

the rising sun, which is the most proper time to worship him. The East

from that circumstance is called Para, and Pûrva, or before: the West

Apara, and Paśchima, or before. The South being then to the right, is
called Dacsbina, and the North Vâma, or the left.

From Dacsbina comes obviously the Greek dexion: the Latin dexter,
dexterum is from dacb-tir, or dacbhātiram, towards the right. Paśchima is
obviously a derivative form, the root of which pâscba is no longer to be
found in Sanscrit, unless in other irregular forms, as pâscchât, but it is still
in use in the spoken dialects, in which it is pronounced pîcha, and from
pâscba is derived the Latin post, or behind, and postimus for postimus, an-
swers to pâschina, or pâschum, in the spoken dialects. Para is the English

word fore: thus we say a fairy from the Persian Peri. It is also pronounced pra, as in pra-pada the fore-foot, or fore part of the foot, including the Tarsus and Metatarsus; and from it is derived the Latin prae, and the Greek pro. From this circumstance there arose a peculiar division of the old continent, the midland countries are called Madhya, or in the middle, those toward the East Para, but more generally Purva: Para is used often as an adjective noun, as Para-Gandica, the Eastern Gandica. The countries towards the West are denominated Apara, Apar. Its derivatives are aparara, aparé, an adverb; aparica, aparicá, aparicam, masculine, feminine and neuter*. This division is used in scripture, in which the appellations of Parvaim, and Ophir, signify the countries to the East and to the West. These denominations are not deducible from the Hebrew; but only from the Sanscrit language: and Apar, and Aparica are the same with Ophir, Apar, and Africa. In Hebrew the word Ophir, without points, is written Aupir, and the learned bishop Lowth derives Africa from Aupir, or Uphir. That country, we are told, was thus called from a certain Aphros, or Aphraus, who was the son of Saturn, and the nymph Pheaura, according to the Paschal chronicle. He was the brother of Picus, and Chiron, and is called Aphar by Cedrenus. Another ancient author, as I have somewhere read, calls him Ophris, and Aphra, and says he was a companion of Herculus; and Isidorus adds †, that the appellation of Afer was supposed to have been Aper originally. The word Aparica is then synonymous with Ibericus, Iberica, &c. The Latin word Apricus seems to have been used to denote a westerly situation, as being more favoured with the congenial warmth of the sun. This ridiculous notion, still prevalent among the country peo-

* Aparica is a regular derivative form; but not in use in this part of India: yet it is in the dialect from the Sanscrit current in Ceylon, where it is written Aprica, and Aparega.

† Isidorus de originibus.
ple, in many parts of Europe, and in India, originated from a supposition, that the Earth was a flat surface. Thus they say, that part of the country is fertile, being under the sun of three; but the other is not so, being under the sun of nine o'clock. The word Aparica is not used by the followers of Brahma', to denote the Western parts of the world: but it is constantly so by the Baudh'ñis. Thus in Ava and in Ceylon the Western parts of the world are called by Mr. Joinville* Aparica-Dani, and Apparehgo-Daneb by Captain Mahony. These denominations are Sanscrit, Aparica-Dhami, the Western mansions, or countries. Dhami is a place of abode in Sanscrit; in the language of Tibet, it is den, and signifies also a country†, and the word den in English claims the same original derivation. The Burmans, say Amaragoja, which is still a further corruption like Apparehgo. The Eastern parts are called in Ceylon Purva-weedestyeb from the Sanscrit Purva-deba, or Purva-videha, or Videhasya in a derivative form, the country of Purva, or toward the East. In Ava they say Pippi-videha: but it should be Proppi-videha; for Mr. Buchanan, in his interesting account of the learning, and manners of the Burmans, informs us, that in that country they generally use the letter I. for R. thus in the Bengali dialect they say Purob, and Pob for the East. The North is called by the Sinhala Ootoorooocooroo-Deweshimnab, according to Captain Mahony from the Sanscrit Uttaracaru still used to signify the Northern parts of the old continent. The same is called Uncheugru by the Burmans according to Mr. Buchanan; but in the account of P. Sangermano, lent to me by Captain Romaine, it is Undeugru, which seems to be but a corruption from Uttaracaru. The Southern parts are called Jambu-dwipa in Ceylon; and Zubu-dib by the Burmans. In the Vayu Purva the Eastern part of the old continent is equally called Purva-dwipa as

* Aparica Researches, vol. VII.
† Alphab. Tibet, p. 588, &c.
in Ceylon and Ava, and the river Oxus is called Apara-gandica', or Western Gandica; from whence we may safely conclude, that they said also Apara-dvarpa for the West. Apareyam and Apareya are regular derivative forms from Apara, and from them is obviously derived Iberia, the ancient name of the Western parts of Europe, including Gaul, and Spain. Homer uses in that sense, the appellations of Hypereia, and Apera*: Abora is found in Apollodorus; for thus we must read instead of Abdera, as we shall see hereafter. It is well known to the learned, that at a very remote period, Europe and Africa were considered but as one of the two grand divisions of the world, and that the appellation of Africa was even extended to the Western parts of Europe all along the shores of the Atlantic. Hence the West wind or Zephyrus is called the Libyan or African wind; and Homer, if I am not mistaken, makes Zephyrus to blow directly from Libya or Africa into Greece.

Instead of para and purva, the word much'a, face, or front, is often used, particularly in the spoken dialects, and some times with the augmentative particle su; and in the dialect of Bengal sho, thus they say sho-much'a right in front, due East. Though equally grammatical, yet it is not usual to say, Su-para, Su-purva, Sho-para or Sho-purva in that sense. It seems however, that it was once in use, for in Scripture we have Parvaim, and Se-parvaim or Se-pharvaim, the name of a country, the situation of which is by no means well ascertained, yet it is probable, that it was near the mountains of Se-phar or Se-para towards the East according to Scripture; and it is not unreasonable to suppose, that Parvain, Se-pharvaim, with the mountains of Se-phar, belong to the same country, which I take to be India, called by the Copts, Sopheir; and by no means to be

confounded with Ophir. India is also called by Hesychius and Josephus, Su-phir or Su-phirn, and So-phora by Procopius.\footnote{Procopius in Schol. ad Lib. 3, Regum.}

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

The mountains of Se-phar, seem to be that range called Be-pyrrus by Ptolemy, and placed by him to the North of India, answering to the first range, or snowy mountains. This range in Ptolemy begins at Hardwâr, and instead of Be-pyrrus, several authors read Sepyrrus. In Sanscrit Su-para and Vi-para or Bi-para, for thus it is generally pronounced, are synonymous, and perfectly grammatical, though perhaps never used; and signify right before, due East. Bi-para signifies also Easternmost, and in its first acceptation is the same with before in English, which is now synonymous with fore or afore: yet there is no doubt but that formerly it was otherwise, and that before signified right afore. It is true, that the particles su, and bi like ge in the dialects from the Gothic, are often used with-
out enhancing the signification of the word they are prefixed to. Thus
fore and before, para, su-para, bi-para, and su-mucha, or sho-mucha, in
Bengalee signify the same thing. The posterity of Shem, we are told
in Scripture, dwelt in the country extending from Mesha as thou goest unto
Sephar, a mount of the East. This seems to be meant as an explanation
of the word Sephar, and at all events implies that this mountain was a
great way to the Eastward. In Europe they called the West Hesperus, and
the country toward the West Hesperia. That country is considered
by the Paurânicas as the abode of the Gods, or Surâlayam, an appellation
well known to the learned, and applied by them, in conformity with
the Purâñas, to the Westernmost part of Europe, or the British Isles.
Another denomination for Surâlayam, and which might be Sanscrit, is
Iṣā-pura or Is-pura; though probably never used. This was pronoun-
ced by the Gothic tribes As-burb, As-byrig, As-purgium: they said also
As-gard, which implies the same thing. There Is'a or Is'wara Vish-
nu, resides with all the Gods.

The word Isa was pronounced Asos, Asôi, by the Greeks, As by the
Goths: and for puri, or pura, the Goths said burb, byrig or burgh; the
Greeks pyrgos. The words As-puri; As-burb, Aspurgium, Hesperus are
pronounced by the Persians As-burj; where burj or burujs, is synony-
mous with puri, purb, &c. In their romances we see Cau-caus going to
the mountain of Az-burj, or As-burj, at the foot of which the sun-sets,
to fight the Diva-sfis or white devil, the Târa-dairya of the Purâñas, and
whose abode was on the seventh stage of the world, answering to the
seventh zone of the Baudh'hisS and the sixth of the Paurânicas, or in
other words to the White Island. The Goths, it is true, placed As-burb,
or As-gard in the East; for, when they had conquered the Western abode
of the Gods, they found none there, and rather than give up this idle
notion, they supposed that As-burb or As-gard was in the East. Beside mount Mêru is another Suvâleyam, As-burb, As-gard, and is in the East.

The Jews and the Arabians, to this day, call the South Yaman, Yamin, and Jamin, which imply the right. The Hindus call the South also Yâmya or Jâmya, and Yâmasya, because Yama Pluto, called also Yaman, is the guardian of that quarter: and, when Pliny* says, that the Hindus called the South Dramaśa, it should be Diamasta from Jâmasya, as Diamasta for Jumunu, the river Jumna. We have seen that descion in Greek, and dexter, dextera in Latin are derived from the Sanscrit daśiṇa, daśitaṁ, and daśiṇa-tīrām; and it is not improbable but that finisler, finisrum, finisrerum, or the left in Latin, and arisleros, arisleran in Greek, are equally, derived from the Sanscrit Senis-tiṁ, or Senis-tiṣṭhom, and Arasya-tiṣṭhom, or Aras-tiṣṭhom: that is to say, Saturn's quarter, in the same manner that the Hindus say Yama's quarter for the South. For Senh or Arah resided in the North: Jupiter gave him that quarter for his residence, and made him guardian of it. Saturn, according to Cicero and Plutarch, was peculiarly worshipped by the nations in the Western parts of Europe, and in the North; though the latter says, that in process of time, his worship began gradually to decline there. He was born in the left, and perished on the right. The Greeks and Romans considered the South as on the right, and the North on the left. Among them as well as the Hindus, the right was considered as more honorable, and of course, in worshipping and performing processions, they turned towards the right, keeping the object of their worship on the right: but the Gauls, says Pliny, on these occasions turn to the left: and among the Greeks, and Romans in their

* Lib. 6o c. XIX.
aces in the circus, they drove round the *Spina* or ridge in the middle, keeping it all the while on their left. The *Hindus* seem to have always considered the four cardinal points in the same light: but various systems appeared at different times, in other parts of the world. *Empedocles*, according to *Plutarch* maintained, that the summer solstice happened in the right, or North; and the winter solstice in the left, or South. This system prevailed once in the West, and of course the West was before and the East *behind*, or *aparam*, *apareña*, &c. from that time the winter solstice was called by the *Lattians*, *Hibernum*, which cannot be derived from *hyems* winter. This last comes from the *Sanscrit* *hima*, and in a derivative form *baima* and *baimas* snow, and *hyems* implies the snowy season: and mount *Huimos*, or *Havus* in Thrace signifies the snowy mountain; and as the West was then before, it was called *Su-para* or *Zephyrus*, *Se-phar* and *Se-pyrrus*, like that famous range of mountains in the East mentioned by *Ptolemy* and in the Bible. King *Juba*, a famous antiquary, was also of opinion, that the North is on the right, and this is confirmed by *Achilles Tatius*. The *Egyptians*, says *Plutarch*, placed the North on the right, and the South on the left. These alterations must have occasioned feuds among augurs and astrologers: and were probably, either admitted, or rejected at different times, according to the power, and influence of prevailing factions. This happened no less than four times in *Egypt*; and of course four times the points wherein the sun rises and sets, were considered in different points of view, and received different denominations: and well they might say to *Herodotus*, that the sun had four times altered the points of its rising, and setting. Twice it rose, where it set before: and twice it did set, where it was seen to rise before. All this happened, they said, without the least alteration in the climate of *Egypt*. These
enigmas, or paradoxes, were much admired formerly, and they were not very willing to explain them.

The same thing happened in Europe: for the sun, shocked at the abominable repast of Atreus, turned back and set where it used to rise before, that is to say, an alteration took place in the application of the denomination of before, and behind; right, and left, with regard to the four cardinal points: and Atreus is represented as a famous astronomer, who explained the yearly revolution of the Sun, performed in a contrary direction; in consequence of which the Sun is said by the Bauddhis, and also by Brâhmens, to rise in the West, and to set in the East: and the famous mountain of Asa-giri, behind which the Sun disappears, is called also the mountain of the rising Sun or Udaya-giri, and even Mahodaya. In the extracts from manuscripts, in the library of the king of France, there is one from the golden meadows of the famous Masoudi, who lived in the tenth century. The author says, that in the opinion of some philosophers, the renewal of the world would happen, when the circle of the ruling stars will be accomplished; then what had been North, will be South. But according to the Indians, says he, the Sun remains 3000 years in each of the twelve signs, and performs his revolution in the heavens in 36,000 years. That, when he passes through the meridional signs, the world will be reversed; North will become South; and South will become North: that is to say, as I take it to be, the North will be considered as the right of the world, and the South as the left. Some Hindus are of opinion, that, at the end of the Calpas, a total renewal of the world will take place, and everything will be reversed: the gods will become devils, and the devils gods. The giants, they acknowledge, were Purva-devas, or the first gods. The Egyptians perhaps entertained the same notions, and the mythologists in the West certainly did.
III. Another division of the world is into a mainland, and islands; which is also that of scripture, in which the isles of the nations, or He-bagoin are often mentioned. This division has also been admitted by Musulmans, who call them Jezair-alomam. Commentators understand by them, not only the islands, but also the peninsulas in the Western parts of the old continent: for in Sanscrit dwipa implies only a country with water on both sides; so that like Jazirab in Arabic, they may signify either islands, or peninsulas; dwipa and jazirab are often used to signify countries bordering upon the sea only. By the isles of nations, the islands, peninsulas, and maritime countries in the West, and particularly in Europe are understood: it is even so with the Paurânicos, who are very little acquainted with the Eastern parts of the old continent; even to a surprising degree, and much less than we could reasonably suppose.

The most remarkable feature of this system is mount Mēru in the center, the Olympus of the Hindus, the place of abode of Brahma, and his Sabbā congregation or court. This mountain made also part of the cosmographical system of the Jews: for Isaiah, making use of such notions, as were generally received in his time, introduces Lucifer, in Sanscrit Swarbhanu or light of heaven, boasting that he would exalt his throne above the stars of God, and would sit on the mount of the congregation in the sides of the North. Mēru has also the name of Sabbā, because the congregation or assembly of the Gods is held there, on its northern side. The hill of God is also frequently alluded to in the psalms, though in some instances it seems to imply mount Moriah. Musulmans have admitted this mountain under the name of Caf, though they confound it in general with the mountains of Locâboca, which surround the world: but, when they say it is the vatad, or pivot of the world, this is to be understood of mount Mēru, which the Paurânicos describe exactly in the shape
of a pivot: and even Mēru in Sanscrit signifies an axis, or pivot. According to Anquetil Duperron, the Parsees call this centrical mountain Tīrṣa, and the whole world is equally surrounded by an immense range of mountains. In Ceylon this surrounding range is called Cchra-vartta, according to Captain Mahony*, which in Sanscrit signifies any thing in the shape of a ring or coil. The Burmahas call it Zetkia-vāla, which word is pronounced Sākwell by Mr. Joinville, and said to signify the world in general. In Zetkia-vāla, vāla signifies a ring, or any thing in an annular shape, from the Sanscrit vāhyā, and Zetkia-vala, or Sacwell, may be a corruption from Sācyā-vályā, the ring of S'acya or Buddhā, who is supposed to have made it. The Western mythologists supposed the world and its seas to be surrounded by a land, or continent of a circular figure, according to Plutarch, and Silenus's narrative, as related by Elian; and the pilot of the Argonauts being near Peace, or Iceland, was very much afraid of being driven on its shores †.

There are several divisions of the old continent; the first, and the most ancient, according to the Purāṇas, is into seven devipas; the Baudh'is in India reckon eight of them, this number being a favourite one among them. The followers of Buddhā in Tibet, Ceylon, and Aua, have retained the Brāhmaical divisions, and reckon but seven. This division was made by Priyavratta, the eldest son of Swayambhūva, or Adam in his old age and previous to his withdrawing into solitude. He had ten sons, and it was his intention to divide the whole Earth between them equally: but three of them renounced the world: their names were Med'hā, Agnibhū, and Mina, or Mitra. In the same manner Neptune divided the Atlantis

* Asiatick Researches, Vol. VII.
between his ten sons: one of them had Gades at the extremity of the Atlantis to his share. The Atlantis was probably the old continent, at the extremity of which is Gades. This island or continent is supported by Varaha on one tusk according to the Paurântîcs; but according to mythologists in the West, Atlas supported the heavens, though, he is said some times to support the world. The Muslims say that the Earth is supported on the horns of a bull. This Atlantis was overwhelmed with a flood likewise; and it seems that by the Atlantis, we should understand the antediluvian Earth, over which ten princes were born to rule, according to the mythology of the West: but seven of them only set upon the throne according to the Paurântîcs. The names of these islands are Jambu proper or India, Cusa, Plesba, Salma, or Salmala, Crounda Saca and Pushcarâ. These divâpos, or countries, give their names to so many respective zones round Meru, which is the name the Paurântîcs give also to the Poles. If we disregard entirely the diagrams, or fanciful schemes, of the astronomers, and adhere to the text of the Purântîs, we shall immediately perceive, that these seven zones are really our seven climates: for Jambu or India is the first, and Pushcarâ is declared to be at the furthest extremities of the West, and in the same climate with Uttara Curru; which last is expressly said to be the country lying South of the Northern ocean. Pushcarâ is the Thule of Ptolemy, and the modern Iceland, under the Arctic circle, at least the sensible one. It is true that the seven climates in general were not supposed to extend much beyond the mouth of the Borysbenes: but Ptolemy, and Agathemerus by dividing each climate into three parts, (like the Hindus who divide the seven zone-like regions of Heaven, Hell and Earth into three, beginning, middle and the end,) thus made twenty-one subordinate climates, extending from the equator to the polar circle. Every climate was denominated from some famous city, country or island in it, thus we have
the zone or climate of Meróë, that of Rhodes, &c. The deśīpas, or climates of the Hindus, gradually increase in breadth, from the equator to the polar circle, from a whimsical notion that they are all equal, as to the superficial contents. The seven zones of the Hindus correspond with the following countries: Jambu is India, Cuṣa answers to the countries between the Persian gulf, the Caspian sea, and the Western boundary of India. Placsha includes the lesser Asia, Armenia, &c. Śālma is bounded to the West by the Cronian seas; that is to say, the Adriatic and Baltic seas. Crunchea includes Germany, Sacam, the British isles; and Phophara is Iceland.

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

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

The Hindus, and the followers of Budha, differ considerably about the shape, and situation of the zones. The Paurāṇics say, that they are so many concentric circles enclosing Jambu, and situated between it and the land which bounds the Universe, and the first climate is that of Mēru, included in the dwipa of Jambu: among the Greeks and Romans, the first climate was that of Meroë. Astronomers having discovered that the Earth is of a globular form, have placed them within the Southern hemisphere, which they fill up entirely. The Baudhāyins of Tibet represent these zones as so many concentric squares between Jambu and India, and mount Mēru. The followers of Buddha in Ceylon consider them as so many circles, but place them also between Jambu and Mēru considered as the North pole. The Jainas in India have in great measure adopted the Hindu system; but reckon eight dwipas. Dwipa-āt-ba-mai hai Jagā jāra, the whole world consists of eight dwipas, says the author of the Trailocayādarpāṇa. Though the followers of Budha seem to reckon seven dwipas like the Hindus, they really reckon eight; for Mēru is not included among
the seven: they say the seven ranges of mountains, or zones round Mēru: but the Paurāṇics consider Mēru and Jambu as one of their seven dvīpas. Seven is a favourite and fortunate number among the Hindus: eight among the Baudhāṇikas; and nine formerly in the West, and in the North of Asia. Between these zones, there are seven seas, or rivers only, according to some of the followers of Buddhā, and some Hindus also. There are even some, who consider these oceans, or rivers, either as one, or only as so many branches springing from one head, and winding seven times round Mēru according to the Paurāṇics, or eight times according to the Baudhāṇikas: but according to Servius the Styx went nine times round the Earth. They reckoned accordingly nine seas, and nine dvīpas, or worlds. These nine worlds are noticed in the Edda-Saṃudr, and the nine oceans are mentioned by Plutarch, who informs us that a certain Timarchus visited the oracle of Trophonius, where in a vision he saw the islands of the departed in the eighth part, or division of the ocean. These islands, according to the Hindus, and the followers of Jina, are constantly placed in the last sea but one: thus they are in the sixth, according to the Hindus: in the seventh, according to the Jainas: but the Western mythologists placed them in the eighth, because they reckoned nine seas. Nine was held a mystical, and sacred number in the Northern parts of the old continent, from China to the extremities of the West. The Cimbri observed the ninth day, month and year, sacrificing ninety-nine men, as many horses, &c. The number seven was held to be sacred by the Hebrews, and also by Muslims to this day, who reckon seven climates, seven seas, seven heavens, and as many hells. According to Rabbis and Muslim authors, the body of Adam was made of seven handfuls of mould taken from the seven flages of the Earth: and indeed the seven zones, or ranges of mountains are arranged by the Hindus like so many steps, rising gradually one above another, in such manner that Mēru looks like an immense pillar or
obelisk with a base, either circular or square, and consisting of seven steps, but according to others of eight, or even nine. The length or height of this obelisk is to its breadth, as 8:4 to 16. The Hindus generally represent mount Meru of a conical figure, and kings were formerly fond of raising mounds of earth in that shape, which they venerated like the divine Meru, and the Gods were called down by spells to come and daily upon them. They are called Meru-śringas, or the peaks of Meru. There are four of them either in, or near Benares: the more modern, and of course the most perfect, is at a place called Sár-nāt'b. It was raised by the son of an Emperor of Gaur in Bengal, with his brother in the year of Vicrama'ditya 1083, answering to the year of Christ 1027, as mentioned in an inscription lately found there. This emperor had, it seems, annexed Benares to his dominions, for he is reckoned as one of the kings of Benares, under the name of Budd'ha-sena. This conical hill is about sixty feet high, with a small but handsome octagonal temple on the summit. It is said in the inscription, that this artificial hill was intended as a representation of the worldly Meru, the hill of God, and the tower of Babel, with its seven steps, or zones, was probably raised with a similar view, and for the same purpose.

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

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*In consequence of this, Mr. **Samuel Davis**, some time ago, requested a German gentleman, well skilled in natural history, and who was going upon the **Ganges**, for the benefit of his health, to stay at **Rájamábl**, and ascertain, whether there were the remains of a **Vulcano** or not. That gentleman, whose name I do not recollect now, having maturely examined every particular appearance about **Mutí-jirnad** and **Rájamábl**, wrote a short essay, in which he proves these appearances to be **Vulcanic**, and the cascade to be the undubitable remains of the **crater** of a **Vulcano**.*
From Rájamábí, the shore trends toward the West, forming several headlands; the principal of which are Mongbéir, and Chunár. From thence it goes all along the banks of the Jamna' to Agra, and to Delbi, where it ends, forming two small rocky eminences; and then turns suddenly to the South West; and forming an irregular semi-circle, it trends toward the Indus, which it joins near Backar, at the distance of about four cols from that place, and one from Lobri, or Robri, where suddenly turning to the South, it goes toward Ránípoor sixteen cols from Robri, and four from Gunmot on the Indus. This account is from Captain Falvey, who visited that country about the year 1787. From Delbi to Backar in a direct line there are no mountains, which remain to the South of this line, forming an immense curve. Thus from the mouth of the Indus, to that of the Ganges, round Delbi, it is an immense flat and level country. The beach of the shores to the North, at the foot of the snowy mountains, and to the South round the island of India in ancient times, is covered with pebbles, some of the most beautiful I ever saw. But the greatest part of them are not real pebbles: they are only fragments of stones, marble, and agate, rounded and polished by mutual attrition, produced by the agitation of the waves. It seems as if the waters, which once filled up the Gangetic provinces, had been suddenly turned into earth: for the shores, the rocks, and islands rise abruptly from the level; and are everywhere well defined, and strongly marked; except where the surface of the adjacent level has been disturbed by the incroachments of rivers, and torrents from the hills in the rains, or by the industry of man. This I noticed particularly about Birbboom, and to the South-east of Chunár. What we call the hills in this country, and which appear such, from the immense plains below, are in reality the Table-land of old India. In the Gangetic provinces no native earth is to be found, and the soil consists of various strata of different sorts of earths, in the greatest confusion.
the lightest being often found below the heaviest. The deepest excavation, that ever came to my knowledge, was made some years ago, near Benares, at a place called Conowly, within a furlong, I believe, of the Ganges, by some gentlemen, who were erecting some indigo works. They pierced through an amazing thick stratum of stiff earth, without obtaining water. They found then several beds of mould, and sand, remarkably thin; then at the depth of about ninety-five feet, they arrived at an old bed of the Ganges, which consisted of a deep stratum of river sand, with bones of men and quadrupeds. They were supposed to be petrifactions, from their extraordinary weight, though they preserved their original texture. The human bones were entire, but those of quadrupeds were broken, and bore evident marks of their having been cut with a sharp instrument. This bed was exactly thirty feet below the present bed of the Ganges. Below this stratum of sand, they found another of clay; and below it, some mould; then, at the depth of about one hundred and five feet, they found a bed of fine white sand, such as is found on the sea shore. Under this, they found a bed of the same clay, and earth, as there was above; and they were relieved from their labours, by a copious stream of fresh water. The sight of the sea sand gave me some hope of finding some marine productions, but I was disappointed; which shews that this bed of sand was merely adventitious, and had been brought down by the river from the shores to the lower parts of its bed; and that the old bottom of the sea was considerably below. The same appearances, with human bones, have been found lately at different places, in digging wells near the Ganges, and generally at the same depth nearly.

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

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

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

"This king of the Eastern wave runs into a hundred streams; with a hundred mouths, through a hundred channels, like so many vallies; and joins the ocean through a hundredfold stream."
The Ganges advancing toward the ocean was frightened, and fled back through one hundred channels, according to the Purāṇa; and through this exercise she goes twice every day.

This happened at a place called Purāṇa-Sāgara, or old Sāgara; for the new Sāgara is in the island of that name near the sea, and the old one is near Fulta, close to a place called Munda-gaeb'ha, or Morogatcha, in Major Rennell's Atlas. There is an insignificant stream very often dry, which is the true Ganges, which divides its waters into seven small rivulets, some of which are delineated in the Bengal Atlas: from this circumstance, the Ganges is called Sát-mue'hi-Gangá in the spoken dialects, or with seven mouths. When she is called Sát-a-mue'bi, or with one hundred mouths, this implies her numerous channels, through the Sunderbunds. The old Sāgara, probably the Oceanis of Diodorus the Sicilian, is now about fifty miles from the Southern extremity of Sāgar island; and this distance shews the encroachment of the land upon the sea, since the days of Bhagīrat'ha, who lived above two thousand years before Christ, according to the genealogical scale prefixed to my essay on the chronology of the Hindus. The new Sāgara was originally on the sea shore, but it is now five, or six miles from it toward the East, and many more toward the North. It is to be wished, that the era of its foundation could be ascertained, as it would enable us to form some idea of the gradual progress of the encroachments of the Delta upon the sea.

There can be no doubt, but that the factitious soil of the Gangetic provinces, and of the Panjāb, has been brought down by the alluvions of rivers from the countries to the North of India. The quantity of earth thus brought down must have been very considerable at a very
early period; but it is very trifling at present, for these alluvious have left nothing but the bare rocks, with such parcels of ground as were out of their reach, from their being supported and protected by stony ramparts. The country, between the ranges to the North of India is a table-land, and forms, as it were, so many steps, as mentioned in the Trealibya-derpañâ, and by the Paurânicas. This circumstance was ascertained by Mr. Samuel Davis, who went as far as the first range. This was also confirmed to me by natives, with respect to other parts of the country, as far as Cashmir. On these table-lands are also various peaks, and mountains, and the beds of the rivers look like so many ravines of an enormous size.

V. By the dwîpa of Jambu, the Paurânicas understand in general the old continent, but the followers of Buddha, in Tibet, Ava, and Ceylon, understand India, and many passages from the Purâñas, prove that it was originally understood of India only.

The dwîpa of Jambu or India, is called also Câthya-dwîpa, or the island of the virgin or damsel, daughter of king Bharata, the fifth from Swayambahuva or Adam. Her name was Ila', or the Earth; this was also the name of the daughter of Satyavârata or Prithu, for though the Earth was his wife, she became also his daughter. The sea surrounding Jambu is called the Lavana-samudra, or salt sea. It would have been highly imprudent for the Paurânicas to have placed there seas, either of milk or honey.

The second dwîpa, is that of Cûsa, thus called either from a sage of that name, or from the grass Cûsa, or Poa, supposed to grow there plentifully. It includes all the countries from the Indus to the Persian gulf, and the Caspian sea, which probably the Paurânicas made the limits of that
country, or ðwîpa, and afterwards supposed to form a watery belt round the zone of Cŭsă, under the name of sea of Ṣûră or Iră', or sea of intoxicating liquors. The origin of this denomination may possibly have some affinity with Ḣrān, and the Sur or Assûr of scripture. It is probable that Sur and Assûr were once considered as synonymous; if not, then Sur, or Syria, certainly extended once from the shores of the Mediterranean sea to the gulf of Persia, and even included the greatest part, if not the whole of Arabia. The ðwîpa of Cŭsă is the land of Cush of scripture, at least part of it. Cŭsă should be pronounced nearly like Cusha, but not quite so forcibly, like the two ſś in the English word cession. The third ðwîpa is Placīsha, or the country abounding with fig-trees. It is called Palangbhu by the mythologists of Bootan, and included the lesser Asia, Armenia, &c. The name still remains in Placia, a town in Ḫria, the inhabitants of which, with those of Scylace, had a peculiar language, which was the same with that spoken by the Pelasgi of Crestone, or Croton above the Tyrrenians in Italy; and by the Pelasgi, who lived on the shores of the Hellespont according to Herodotus. Thus the denomination of Placību, or Palangbhu, seems to be the same with Placia, and Pelasgia; and the Pelasgi came originally from the lesser Asia. It is bounded by the sea of Ḣshu, or juice of the sugar-cane, and which seems to be the Euxine sea: but this will be the subject of a separate article, when it will appear, that the Paurânicas have confounded the Ḥšk, or Asb-tree, with the Ḩshu or sugar-cane, as this tree produces also a sweet juice famous in the Edda, and called when boiled askë by the old Scythians, according to Herodotus, who has however strangely misrepresented the tree from which this sweet juice was procured, and which was afterwards boiled into a hard substance, like that of the sugar-cane, which is called gur in India. Hence the Ḩshu sea, is called also in the Paurânas, the sea of Gûla in Sanscrit, and pronounced gur in the spoken dialects.
The fourth dwīpa is Sālmala, Sālmala, or Sāmalica, or the country of the willow *, and of the lord of the willow Sālmalaśvāna Sāmalicaśa, the same with Zalmoxis, called also more properly Salmosis and Zalmoxis. It extended from the Euxine to the shores of the Baltic and Adriatic seas. It is surrounded by the sea called Sarpi, Ghīta, or clarified butter.

The fifth dwīpa is called Graunbha, and Graunta, which includes Germany, France, and the Northern parts of Italy. Graunbha is the same with Cronus, confounded with Saturn by Western mythologists; and the Baltic and Adriatic seas were probably called Cronian from the dwīpa of Graunbha. It is surrounded by the Dādhi-Sāgara, or sea of curds.

The sixth dwīpa, is called Sāca, and Sācum, and includes the British isles. It is surrounded by the sea of milk, or the white sea; Čitrābdhi and Dugdhabdhi, Ghira-Sāgara, or Čhira-Samudra, Ghira-Salila, Čhi-ranidhi, Ghirārāvaha. It is called also Amritābdhi, or sea of America, synonymous with Amalaei, from which they made Amalchium in the West. It is called also Somabālābdhi, or the sea of the mountain of the Moon.

The seventh dwīpa is Pusācara or Ice-land, surrounded by the Swāduda, Swādudaca, Swādudala, Payodhi, Toyābādhi, or the sea of fresh water: for it was also the opinion of the ancients, that the furthest ocean was of fresh water: Scythicus Oceanus dulcis est, says PLINY.

The Western ocean is in general called Mahodabādhi and Mahāradha, or the great sea; and in the Revac'handha the Ghira-Samudra is said to come down as low as the parallel of Himāvān, or the snowy mountains.

* The word Sālmala is generally understood to signify Beulayr; but it signifies also such trees as produce cotton used for spinning; and I shall shew when I come to treat of Sālmala-dwīpa, that it is to be understood there of the willow.
about thirty degrees of latitude North. Calanus seems to allude to these wonderful seas, when he said to Alexander's messenger, that formerly there were springs of water, others of milk, honey, wine and oil, but that in the present wicked age and degenerated times, they had disappeared. This is also the opinion of many divines in India, who believe that in Cali-yuga these seas have disappeared, or are turned salt and bitter, and also, that the white island, is become black, on account of the sins of mankind. Onesicritus, to whom Calanus was speaking, was probably unwilling to give credit to these seas of milk, wine, and honey, but could have no great objection to springs only of the fame. One of the seven seas is called Gòbouadra-Ságara or sea of honey, I believe, in the Sidi'hanta-Siromeni. There is another division of the world into seven devipas; more complete than the preceding, but its origin is not mentioned. Their names are, Jambu, in the center, to the West, reckoning from North to South, are the devipas of Varába Çusa and Sancha; to the East, reckoning from South to North, Yama or Malaya, Yama, and Anga. The devipas of Cusa and Yama are acknowledged to be East and West with respect to India. Jambu here appears again in a different light. It includes India, the elevated plains of Haryana and mount Meru, and extends towards the West to the Caspian sea, and the Persian gulf. The followers of Jina, in India, represent Jambu nearly in the same light, except that they make it larger, and seem to extend it as far as the shores of the Euxine and Mediterranean seas. Varába-devipa being situated in the North-West quarter of the old Continent, as Europe, as will appear more fully in the course of this work. The devipa of Cusa, according to this new division, includes the lesser Asia, Armenia, Syria and Arabia. There seems also to be a third devipa of Cusa near the equator, which includes Ethiopia, &c. The Paurâñjas account plausibly for these three different situations assigned to Cusa, by
supposing it owing to the successive emigrations of the original inhabitants of that country; and the first and second Cásā they consider but as one and the same.

The third dwīpa is that of S'ançe'ba or Africa, of which they know but little, and nothing beyond Ethiopia, or rather Abyssinia and Egypt with the Eastern shores. It retains in great measure its Sanscrit name; an extensive part of that coast being called Lengbō, and Lengbōbbar to this day. But Ptolemy extends it as far as cape Gardafui, to the South of which, he places another cape called Ligīs, or Singis extrema. The denomination of S'ançe'ba is obvious also in the names of Singis, Lenghisan, and perhaps Lengitana, Langiro, Lanbaga, Lenghi, and even perhaps Senegal, from the Sanscrit Sane'ba in a derivative form; and the Troglodytes are called to this day Shangalas.

S'ançe'ba-dwīpa signifies the island of shells, and the natives, according to Strabo, used to wear large collars of them; but, according to the Paurāṇīca, the inhabitants used to live in shells; probably in caverns, hollowed like shells, or compared to shells. The famous demon S'anĉ'hasura lived in a shell. When Crīshna killed him, he took the shell in which he lived, and which is now become one of Vishnu's insignia. This strange idea was not unknown to the Greeks, who represent young Nerites, who is one of the Cupids, as living in shells, on the shores of the Red Sea. S'ançe'ba-dwīpa is then synonymous with Troglytica of the ancients. The Troglodytes, or inhabitants of Caves are called in scripture Sukim, because they dwelt in Suca, or dens; but it is probable, that the word Suca, which means a den only in a secondary sense, and signifies also an arbour, a booth, or a tent, was originally taken in the sense of a
from Sanc'ba, and afterwards used to imply any fabric to dwell in. Thus the word den is obviously derived from the Sanscrit d'ññi or den in the language of Tibet, in which it signifies any place, house or even country to live in. The Sukim, or Sukküm were a powerful nation in the time of Rehoboam, for they accompanied Shishac in his expedition against Jerusalem; and we find their descendants, in the third century of the Hejra, crossing Arabia, and invading Irak-Arabi, or the country about Babylon under their king Saheb-al-Zeng, or the lord of Zeng, who appears as a successor of the famous Sanc'ha-muc'ha-na'ga, a giant in the shape of a snake, with a mouth like a shell, and whose abode was in a shell: and who had as usual two countenances, that of a man, and another of a snake. He was killed by Crishna; but his descendants and subjects, in similar shapes, still remain there. He is called also Pancha-janya. The breath of the Sanc'ha-na'ga is believed by the Hindus to be a fiery poisonous wind, which burns and destroys animals, and vegetables to the distance of a hundred Yojanas round the place of his residence: and by this hypothesis they account for the dreadful effects of the Samum, or hot envenomed wind, which blows from the mountains of Hubab, through the whole extent of the desert. The sage Agastya, who is supposed to live in the South West or Abyssinia, put an end to this evil; and even reduced the serpent so much as to carry him about in an earthen vessel. This legend is current in the Western parts of India, but, how far it is countenanced in the Purānas, I cannot say. The Hindus in the Western parts of India are remarkably well acquainted with the superstitious monuments, rites and legends of the Musulmans in Arabia, and Egypt, such as the serpent Heredi, the black stone in the Caaba, the two pigeons destroyed by Mohammed, and the impression of a foot on a stone there. These, plausibly enough, they claim as their own property, and have traditionary legends purporting to be grounded on the Paurānas, though per-
haps not expressly found there. They say, there was formerly a great intercourse between them and Egypt, Abyssinia, and Arabia, where there are Hindus, and Brahmens even to this day, as well as all over Persia, and even in Georgia. Fakirs occasionally go there, and certain it is, that the famous Urdu-Bahau, who travelled to Moscow, and died lately at Baku, attempted to go to Egypt, but he went no further than El-Cabis and Babarein on the Western shores of the Persian gulf, being deterred from going further. I have made mention of him in my essay on Sami-Ramus, called Sami-Deni by the Hindus. Ptolemy saw many Hindus at Alexandria, and they used to visit the temple of Math-Baha-Gadavi at Bambyka or Mabog in Syria according to Lucian, as cited by the authors of the ancient universal history.

The mountains in which Sancha’sura lived, are called to this day Hubab in Arabia, or the mountains of the serpent, and the people of these mountains have, according to the Abyssinian traveller, legendary traditions of a snake, who formerly reigned over them, and conquered the kingdom of Siré. They are famous with their serpentine tribes, in Oriental tales; and in the Arabian Nights, we read of the miraculous escape of Sinbad from the devouring mouth of that dreadful race, who lived in caves among the mountains. Near that country he was exposed to many dangers from the birds called Rocks or Sinarges, the Garudas of the Paurakies, whom Persian romancers represent as living in Madagascar, according to Marco Polo. The serpent Sancha-Naga is now called Heredi in Egypt. The Moslems insist, that it is a Shaikb of that name transformed into a snake; the Christians, that it is Asmodeus mentioned in the book of Tobit, the Ashmugh, div of the Persians. There in the divipa of Sancha is the capital city of Naisir, or Baji, called Grishnangana, being situated on the river Grishna, or Grishnangi, that
is, with a black body in a human shape: for rivers have two countenances. Nairrít had a famous elephant called Cunuda, with the title of Nairrítādīgaja, or the elephant of the South-West quarter, or Nairrít. Wonderful stories are related of him: and there is no doubt but some of them are mentioned in the Purāñkas, or some other books: but I could not find them. This famous elephant is however mentioned in Lexicons, and lived in Sānc’ha-dwīpa, with his tribe of giants in the shape of elephants, or rather with two countenances. The names of several rivers in that country are pure Sanskrit; and obviously allude to the ancient inhabitants in the shape of elephants, living and sporting on their banks. Thus the Aṣṭamor is from Hastinān or Hāṣṭi-mati full of elephants. The Mareb was called Aṣṭāfas from Hāṣṭi-sabba, because their chief held his court there. Aṭsābaras or Aṣṭābaras was also the name of another river there, from Hāṣṭi-vara or Hāṣṭi-bura, the country along its banks being full of elephants, whose abode it was.

There the unfortunate Sinbad, according to Sa’di in the Arabian Nights, was once more in the most imminent danger amongst this Elephantine tribe, on his return from Seren-dip, or rather Serandab or Madagasbar, called also Raneb, and in the Purāñkas, Harika.

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

The dwīpa of Sānc’ha, is supposed by the natives to join the island
of Sumatra, or of the Moon. This mistaken notion has been adopted by Ptolemy, and after him by Oriental writers. In the beginning of the Brahmánā-duraṇa, Lancā, or the peninsula of Malaya, and Sumatra join the island of S'anc'ba or Zengh. Samásbitam, adhering to is a participial form answering to con-slitum in Latin, and sun-islamai in Greek. This is understood of the island of Mandara or Sumatra, for it is positively declared, that Muhá Lancá or Málacá, and Sumatra, are separated by a strait called Lancá-dvāra, or the gates of Lancá. Ptolemy however supposed it was the peninsula of Málacá, that was thus joined to Africa; and for this purpose the shores take a most circuitous turn. El Edrissi affirms equally, that the isle of Malai joins toward the West to the country of Zengh. The inland, or Mediterranean sea, is called Támodadhé, or the sea of Yama, and by Ptolemy Hippados, perhaps from the Sanscrit Upádábi, which would imply a subordinate or inferior sea. This expression would be perfectly grammatical, but I do not recollect that it is ever used. Hippados may also be derived simply from Abü bi, pronounced Abébi or the sea. The tract of islands called Raneb by Arabian writers, and including Madagascar, and the surrounding islands, is obviously the dwipa of Hariša mentioned in the Bbágavata along with S'anc'ba in the South West quarter of the old continent. This island being also called in Arabic the isle of the Moon, has occasioned some confusion. Doctor Vincent has thrown much light on this subject, in his learned and elaborate treatise on the Periplus of the Erythræan sea; by which it appears, that the notions of the Arabs, relating to these seas, are more conformable to the Purañkas than Ptolemy's description. The three dwipas to the Eastward are Yamala, or Malaya, now the peninsula of Málacá, and the adjacent islands; as for the dwipa of Yama, its situation is rather obscure; the third is Anga-dwipa in the North East; by which they understand China. There is very little about it in the Purañkas, and
with regard to the dwipas of Yama and Malaya, they will be the subject of a particular paragraph.

VI. There is another division of the old continent, extracted chiefly from the Bhagavata, the Brahmandá and Brahma-Puras, which represent the world under the emblem of a Nympheae or Lotos, floating on the ocean. There the whole plant signifies both the Earth, and the two principles of its fecundation. The stalk originates from the navel of Vishnu, sleeping at the bottom of the ocean; and the flower is described as the cradle of Brahma, or mankind. The germ is both Meru and the Linga: the petals and filaments are the mountains which encircle Meru, and are also the type of the Tons; the four leaves of the calyx are the four vast dwipas or countries toward the four cardinal points. Eight external leaves placed two by two, in the intervals are eight subordinate dwipas or countries.

The four great countries, or Maha-dwipas, are Uttara-curru to the North, Bhadra to the East, Jambu to the South, and Cetumala to the West. In the intermediate spaces in the North-West are Swarna-prastha or Ireland, and Chandras-kucla-Avarittana, or Britain. In the North-East are Ramanaca and Mandara: these are unknown, and have been placed there probably for the sake of symmetry. In the South-East, Lancá, the peninsula of Malaca, Sinhala or Ceylon: in the South-West there is Hariha, the Ranch of Arabian authors now Madagascar; and Pancha-janya, or Sanchez; as may be seen in the accompanying delineation of the worldly Lotos.

The usual division of the known world is into nine c'hanadas or portions exactly of the same size as to superficial contents, but of very dif-
ferent figures and dimensions. In the center of the old continent, on the highest and most elevated spot, is the division called Ilavratā, or the circle of Ilā: to the East is Bhadraśva, and to the West Cetumāla, or simply Cētu. Toward the South are three ranges of mountains, and as many to the North: between them are four divisions, two between the three ranges in the South, and as many between those in the North. The names of the ranges to the South of Ilavratā are Himāchala, Himádral or the snowy mountain: to the North of this range is the second called Hema-cūlā from its golden peaks: the country or division between them is called Cīmpu-rūba, or Cinnara-čanda. The third range is called Niśadha, and the country between this, and Hema-cūlā is called Harivarśam, or Hari-čanda.

To the North of Ilavratā are the Nellā, or blue mountains: to the North of this range is another called Śveta, or the white mountains: the country between these two is called Ramyaca: the third and last range is called Srṅgā-vān: and the country between the two last is Hirāvyamaya, or Hirajamaya. These six ranges extend from sea to sea, and are of different length, according to the latitudes they are in. The length of the two innermost ranges, and of course of the longest, is equal to the breadth of Jambu-dvatpa or 100,000 Yojanas: the length of the two middle ranges Śveta, and Hema-cūlā is 90,000 Yojanas: the two outermost Srṅgā-vān and Himāchala are 80,000 Yojanas in length. These mountains are 2000 Yojanas broad and as many high, or about 10,000 miles: we are informed in the Cālicā-purāṇa, that it was so formerly; but that since, the mountains have gradually subsided, and that the highest is not above one Yojana in height, or less than five miles.

According to the Trāi-loṣya-darpaṇa: these ranges do not extend
Sacred Isles in the West, &c.

from sea to sea, and occupy little more than the fourth part of the breadth of the old continent, which is in that treatise said to be equal to 60,000 Yojanas. The length of the two outermost ranges is declared to be 4202 Yojanas: the two middle ones 8416: and the two innermost 16,832. This is the more reasonable, as these three ranges very plain and obvious in the North of India, are soon confused together and disappear at some distance from it: and as 150,000 Yojanas in the Tre-loci-derpaña, are considered as equal to 180 degrees of longitude, the first range will extend East and West, about two and twenty degrees of longitude, which is the utmost breadth of India. The difference, between the two other ranges and the first, is disproportionate and inadmissible: and the proportion given in the Purâñas of their respective lengths is more natural, being in the ratios of ten, nine and eight. In this manner the three ranges are in a great measure confined to the original Jambu or India.

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

In the same manner the country beyond the Northernmost range as far as the frozen ocean is called Curu, or Airāvata, being the native country of the famous elephant of Indra called Airāvata, and of his numerous tribe and descendants, whose exuviae or spoils are to be found in vast quantities in the Northern parts of the old continent. These nine divisions are said to be perfectly equal in superficial contents, though of different shapes: and the only difficulty in delineating a general map of the world, is to divide the whole surface into nine equal parts, one of which in the center is to be a perfect square, and out of the eight others, every two
divisions are to have exactly the same figure and dimensions. The accompanying map of Jambu, which is very common, is supposed to be drawn on these principles; but whether it be very exact in that respect, I shall not determine, as I am by no means willing to go through the necessary calculations, which after all would prove of no use. In consequence of this arrangement, the first range, or the snowy mountains, lies under the parallel of fifty-two degrees of latitude: the second under that of 65° 48'; and Nisbadha in 76°. Meru is here supposed to be the North pole. The three other ranges beyond Mēru are exactly in the same latitudes, reckoning from the opposite side of the equator, which circumscribes the Northern hemisphere. But Mēru is not the North pole; it is true that it is the Nava, Nobeb, or under the ninetieth degree not from the equator, but from the horizon: or in other words, it is the zenith, and center of the known world, or old continent not including the sea; and this center according to the Paurāṇics, in the time of Cosmas Indopleustes, in the middle of the sixth century, was said to be exactly between China and Greece. We read constantly in the Purāṇas of countries, mountains, and rivers, some to the North, others to the East, or to the West of Mēru: the country of North-Curu beyond Mēru, is repeatedly declared to be to the South of the Northern ocean. All these expressions shew very plainly that by Mēru the Paurāṇics did not originally understand the North pole, which they call Siddibapura; which place, the astronomers say cannot be under the North pole, because it is in the track of the sun: for when the sun is there, it is midnight at Lanca and in India: it must be then under the equator. This is very true; but we are to argue in the present case according to the received notions of the Paurāṇics, who formerly considered the Earth as a flat surface with an immense convexity in the center, behind which the sun disappeared gradually, descending so as to graze the surface of the sea at Siddibapura. In the Brabmānta Purā-
section of the Bhuvana-Cusa, it is declared that one-half of the surface veni of the earth is on the South of Meru, and the other half on the North. All this is very plain if we understand it of the old continent; one half of which is South of the elevated plains of little Bokhara, and the other half to the North of it. Then twelve or fifteen lines lower, the author of the same Purana adds, and these two countries South and North of Meru are in the shape of a bow: this is to be understood of their outermost limits or shores.

Another irrefrangible proof, that by Meru we are to understand the elevated plains of little Bokhara, are the four great rivers issuing from it, and flowing toward the four cardinal points of the world: three of which are well known to the Hindus. These rivers are the Ganges, the Sita flowing toward the East, and now called the Hara-Moren: the Bhadra to the North, and probably the Jenisea in Siberia: the fourth is the Apara-Gandica, or Western Gandica, called more generally the Chaocher. It flows toward the West, and its present name among the natives toward its source, is Coosha, and from the former is derived its Greek appellation of Oxus.

Thus the distance of Meru from the equator is reduced from ninety degrees to forty-five: the distance from the equator at Lanka to Siddha-pura or the North Pole, is reduced from one hundred and eighty to ninety degrees: and every distance from North to South in the Hindu maps, must be reduced in the same proportion.

Thus the snowy mountains to the North of India, and placed in the map in the latitude of fifty-two degrees, are brought down lower into twenty-six degrees, the half of fifty-two: and they really begin that latitude near Assam; but they are made most erroneously to run in a direction East and West. Strabo descants a great deal upon the direction of
the mountains to the North of India * from Hipparchus, and Eratosthenes; and concludes by saying that the obliquity of the direction of these ranges was to be retained in the maps, exactly as it was in the old ones. The whole reductions are thus exhibited in the following table:

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the North Pole</td>
<td>90°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66°</td>
<td>parallel of 66° or Polar circle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128°</td>
<td>64°</td>
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<tr>
<td>1°42'</td>
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<tr>
<td>1°42'</td>
<td>52°</td>
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<tr>
<td>9°</td>
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<tr>
<td>7°6'</td>
<td>38°</td>
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<tr>
<td>6°5'8&quot;</td>
<td>32°34'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5°32'</td>
<td>26°</td>
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Instead of the numbers beyond Mēru, their complement to ninety is to be used.

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

Mēru in 40°, the Nīla range in 47° Swēta, in 52°, and Sringāvan in 59°.

The summit of Mēru is represented as a circular plain of a vast extent,

* Strabo lib. II, page 128 and 128.
surrounded by an edge of hills. The whole is called Ilāvrattha, or the circle of Ilā, and considered as a celestial Earth, or Suargabbūtu: and it is thus called to this day by the people of Tibet, the Chinese, and the Tartars: and like the Hindus they have it in the greatest veneration, worshipping its encircling mountains, whenever they descry them. According to De Guignes, the Chinese call them Tien-c'han, and the Tartars Kiloman, or the celestial mountains. In Tibet they call them Tangra or Tangla, according to F. Cassiano, and Purā'N-gir, who accompanied the late Lama to China; and gave me an accurate journal of his march from Tīsfoo-Lumbo to Siling, or Sining. Tingri, in the language of the Tartars and Monguls, signifies the heavens, and even Tibet is called Tibet-Tingri, or the heavenly country of Tibet. The name of Tien-c'han is given by the Chinese to the mountains to the North of Hima: to the Southern part of the circle, they give the name of Sioue-c'han, or snowy mountains. This range, says De Guignes, runs along the Northern limits of India toward China, encompassing a large space, enclosed, as it were, within a circle of mountains*. The Southern extremity of this circle is cloe, according to the present Hindu maps, to the last or Northern range called Niṣbad'ba: and this is actually the case with the mountains of Tangrab near Lassa, which is in the interval between the second and third range. According to F. Cassiano, the mountains of Tangrab are seen from the summit of Cambalā, several days journey to the Westward of Lassa. The famous Purā'N-gir left them on the left, in his way from Tīsfoo-Lumbo to China, at the distance of about twelve coss, and did not fail to worship them. At the distance of seventy-seven coss from the last place, he reckoned Lassa to be about twenty coss to the right: twenty-three coss beyond that, he was near

the mountains of Ninjink-Tangrá, a portion of that immense circular ridge. In his progress toward the famous temple of Ujuk or Uzuk, called Souk, in the maps, he saw them several times. Close to Ninjink-Tangrá he entered the mountains of Lurkinb, called Larkin in the maps.

VII. This sacred mountain, or heaven-like country, made part, it seems, of the sacred cosmography of the ancients. The Jews had some notions of it, and called it the mountain of God: they afterwards, with great propriety, gave that name to mount Moriah. The Greeks had their mount Olympus, inaccessible but to the Gods; and Idá-vratta, or Idá-vratta signifies the circle of Ila, the Earth, which is called also Idá. Olympus is derived from the Sanscrit Ilápu, or Ilápu, the holy city of Ila or Idá, thus it appears that Olympus, and Idá were originally the same. In remembrance of this holy circular space, the Greeks and Romans, when wishing to build a town, marked out a circle, which the first called Olympus, and the others Mundus from the Sanscrit, Mandá a circle: they said also urbs orbis, which is a translation of mandá in the language of the Gods, into that of mortals. According to Du Perron the Parsis are acquainted with such a mountain in the center of the world; and so are the Musulmans to this day. It was not unknown to our ancestors the Scythians; for they are introduced by Justin, saying that their native country was situated on an elevated spot, higher than the rest of the world, and from which rivers flowed in all directions. The Jews and Greeks soon forgot the original Meru, and gave that name to some favorite mountain in their own country: the first to mount Sinu or Moriah. The Greeks had their Olympus, and mount Idá, near which was the city of Ilium, Aiileam in Sanscrit from Ila, whose inhabitants were Meropes, from Merupa; being of divine origin, or descended from the rulers of Meru.
This mountain was even known in Europe to a late period; for it is mentioned in the Nubian geographer under the name of Moregar, from Meru-giri, or Meru-gir, the mountain of Meru. It is described by him as of an immense height, circular, and enclosing several countries within.

This sacred mountain is called by divines in Tibet, Rigbiel; hence Sosthenes, as cited by Plutarch, instead of saying that Dionysius, or Bacchus was born on Mount Meru, or Merus, says, that he was born on Mount Argillus, which he places, it is true, either in Egypt or Ethiopia.

In the same author we find another ridiculous story about this mountain, under the name of the bed of Boreas, which he says was one of the highest peaks of Mount Caucasus; and from which Jupiter hurled Saturn down into Tartarus. Mount Meru is called in the Deccan, the mountain, peak,文中 of Boreca, or the pole Bovaca by Mr. Bally, and other French authors. In the Tomuli language, and others in that country, the North is called Vada, Vadaburram, or Vada-purram, generally pronounced Varaca &c. the North wind Varakada, from the root Vada. In Sanscrit Udae is the North, or Uttara. Vada signifies originally high, great, &c. and the North is called in Sanscrit Uttara, from its being supposed to be the highest point on the surface of the earth. The Greeks thus translated Varaca the peak of Burraca, Badaga, Badaca, by the bed of Boreas, because Koiv in Greek signifies a bed. This mode of translation seems to have been much in use among them; for they translated, Deo-ban, the forest of the Gods, by Thes-painaii, Deorum-paee. The Atshami, a powerful tribe in the hills near the Ganges, by Atlomi; or people without mouths.

* Platarch de flum.
The Bittigi mountains of Ptolemy, in the Deccan, are in the country of the Badegas, according to European travellers of the seventeenth century; and their language is called Badega. The inhabitants of that country are called in the Tamuli dialect Vaducin; and by others Vaduca, and Vadugas; but generally pronounced Värugas, and Warugas: though in writing they retain the letter D which has a peculiar sound between D and R, as in Sanscrit. Nonnus in his Dionysias* takes particular notice of mount Mēru, and of its circular surface on its summit. "Bacchus, says he, or "Crīṣhna divided his forces into four armies; one he sent to the foot "of the Northern mountain, with a circular summit, and surrounded "with deep vallies shaded with trees; and from this peak in Caucasus, "issue many rivers deriving their waters from Jupiter. This was "Jupiter Pluviālis, the Indra of the Hindus, who holds his court on the summit of Mēru, which is called the Swarga, or heaven of Indra. To this mountain Euhemerus gives the name of Olympus, and very properly. It is emphatically called, as we have seen, the circle of Ilé, or Ilá, or Ilāvratta: it might be called also Ilápū, or Ilāpūs, the city of the Earth, or Ilā-pūs from Ila or Ilas, which sounds exactly like Ilos in Greek. Ila was the son of Vaiwaswata-Manu, or Noah, and in his old age, he resigned the empire of the Earth to him; and thus he became Ilā-pati, or Ijā-pati, the Lord sovereign of the earth, and Ilus the eldest in Homer, lived near mount Olympus and Ilia, in the city of Ilium inhabited by Merope.

Ilá, Ilå, and Irå, in Sanscrit, signify the earth, and these three names are to be found in the Greek language: Ilyís, or Ilos, signifies mud; Erotis the earth; and Ida is the name of the Goddes Earth, Ida mater, both

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* Nonnus Dionys. lib. XXVII. v. 150, &c.
in Greek, and the ancient Gothic. Athenagoras, as cited by Rudbeck, informs us, that, according to Orpheus, water was first, and from it was created θύρα or Earth in an unformed state; Μίλ and Ilā's was the son of Manu, or Noah; called also Mitra Varuna in the Purāṇas, or the friendly Varuna, or Neptune. According to Hesychius, Ilāon, a hero was the son of Poseidon, the God of the sea. Śyā in Sanscrit is the Earth; and in Greek Ἀια, Ge, or Gaiá, which last signifies earth, and also dust. Thus, in Sanscrit, Ilā is the earth; and Aileyam is dust and earth also. Aileyam-pus is synonymous with Ilā-pus, and is the famous city of Indra, and of the Gods, a heavenly city, which is really a terrestrial heaven. The followers of Alexander mislook a small mountain, between Cabul and the Indus, for the original Meru. This is called Meru-śringa, or the peak of Meru, in the Purāṇas, and is considered as a splinter of that holy mountain. There are many other hills thus called in India, besides artificial ones, and the Gods are supposed to come, and sport there occasionally. The Greeks had likewise several holy mountains called Olympus, and Ida. Evemerus calls it Triphylian Olympus, because Siva, with his trident trisul, Jupiter Triphylius, resides there; and fixed it on its summit. The Trisul is called Tri-phala in the North-West parts of India, from the Sanscrit Tri-phala, which is rendered in Lexicons by Tri-cantaca, or having three points. The word phala was used in the West in that sense, and the obelisks in the circus were called Phala. But as Tri-philia in Greek signifies three tribes, or families, Evemerus thought proper to translate it thus: besides, he found three nations and cities in the legends of India, which he might conceive countenanced his translation. The abode of Uršam was called Celeus or Coelus by the Latians, and he is the same with Siva, called the God of Cailás, because he resides on Cailās, one of the three peaks on the summit of Meru.
Mount Meru is said to be of four different colours, toward the four cardinal points: but the Pauránics are by no means unanimous about them; and the seas, through the reflection of the solar beams from each side, are of the same colours. The East, like the Brah-ment, is of a white colour; the South, like the Vaîśyas, is yellow; Apara the West, like the Cbûdras, is of a brown, or dark colour; and the North is red like the Cshetris. But in the Hainavatcharita, Meru is said to be supported, or propped, by four enormous buttresses: that toward the East, is of pure gold; toward the South, of iron; to the West, of silver; and the buttress to the North, of copper. Thus toward the East it is yellow, to the South red, white to the West, and of a dark brown to the North. There are several other opinions, which I shall pass over, with observing, that the Indian ocean is called Arûkoda or Arûkodalbi, or the Red sea, being reddened by the reflexion of the solar beams, from that side of Meru which is of that colour; and Pliny nearly says the same thing. * I shall pass over the extravagant accounts of this famous mountain, represented by some as a cone, by others as an inverted one. In Ceylon they say it is in the shape of an immense round column; in Tibet this column is said to be square; some of the followers of Jina compare it to a drum, that is to say, they give it the shape of a barrel. This idea however extravagant, and absurd, prevailed once in the West; as we have seen before.

VIII. The rivers flowing from Meru are four in number: there are four also in scripture: and we read in the Edâla of four primeval rivers of milk flowing from the teats of the cow Audhumbla. In all these accounts these rivers are only branches of an original one called Swarganga or

* Pliny, Lib. 6. c. 24.
Mantácin in the Puráñas: in the Edda all rivers derive their origin from that called Íver-gelmer: but in scripture it has no name.

It rises from under the feet of Vishnu, at the polar star, and passing through the circle of the moon, it falls upon the summit of Meru; where it divides into four streams, flowing toward the four cardinal points. According to Genesis, this river went forth, watering the garden of Eden, and of course winding through it: from thence it was parted, and became into four heads. The Pauránicas use the same expression, but in a literal sense, and suppose that these four branches pass actually through four rocks, carved into the shape of four heads of various animals. The Ganges running towards the south, passes through a cow’s head; hence India is called the country of the Cow, its inhabitants are descended according to some from a cow, hence they are styled Gau-vanás, they were originally Go-pálas, or simply Páliś, or shepherds. To the West is a horse’s head, from which flows the chašhu or oxus: and the inhabitants of the countries bordering on it, are of course Aśvas, or Turangamas, horses or rather horsemen. According to Scripture the house of Toqarmah, or Thorgama, as he is called by Cedrenus and Syn-cellus, traded in the fairs of Tyre, with horses. Toward the East is the head of an elephant, from which flows the river Sítá: and to the North is a lion’s head, from which flows the Bhadrasamá: hence this country, the same with Siberia, is called the kingdom of the lions: and there was actually a powerful Tartarian tribe called the tribe of the lion.

The Baudhājis have no rivers on Meru; but place the origin of them in the South West quarter. The reason of this is, that they place the seven dwiąpas, or ranges of mountains, with their seas between Meru, and India, or Jambu-dwiąpa. These seven seas, or rather the river of
milk, winding seven times round Mēru, is the original river, which reappears in the South West, and there parting, becomes into four heads of animals, the same as in the Purāṇas. But the rivers are very different, being the Ganges, the Sind‘bu or Indus, the Pasuki or Brāhmā-putra, which springs from the head of an elephant; and for this reason upper Tibet is called the kingdom of the elephant, though there are no elephants there at present. The other river, toward the North, issues from a lion’s head, and is called Sita; it is the Oxus. These four rivers spring from the roots of the tree Jambu, of a most extravagant size. The Baudhān̄ks seem to know but of one tree of knowledge, and granting all our wishes. The Purāṇas have many, which they call Calpa-varāśa. There is but one in the Misical account, and the Musulmans acknowledge but one, which they call Tuba; and our ancestors boasted of the famous Ash-tree Ygdrāsīl. This river of milk, winding round Mēru, is not peculiar to the followers of Buddha, I remember seeing in one of the Purāṇas, that the heavenly Ganges winds seven times round Mēru; that is between that mountain, and the dwipa of Jambu. The Styx, according to mythologists in the West, went nine times round the world; for nine was a favourite number among them: and the ancient Goths reckoned nine worlds, or dwipas. The elevated plains of Mēru are perhaps the highest spot, or at least the highest flat in the old continent. Its height toward India, and China, is prodigious: it is not so considerable toward the North, and is still less toward the North-West, where the ascent between the Lithinos-pyrgos or stone-tower, and the station of the merchants trading to China, is by no means very difficult. The Lithinos-pyrgos still exists under the name of Chalpatoom or the forty columns; and is famous all over these countries. The station of the merchants is still their place of rendezvous to this day, and is called Tuth-Soleiman, or the throne of Solomon. The Lithinos-
Pyrgos is at the extremity of a small branch jutting out of a range of mountains to the left of the road, or to the North, and projects toward the South, and ends abruptly in the middle of a plain. Its extremity, consisting of a solid rock, has been cut into a regular shape, with two rows, each of twenty columns. The front part is in a very ruinous condition, and the upper row of columns remains suspended from the top: the columns below answering to them, with their entablature, having been destroyed. It is a most wonderful work, and ascribed by the natives to supernatural agents as usual.

At the distance of a day's march toward the East, is Hosbán, or Osfán, called also Oosb, Oosb: there begins a chain of mountains, from which springs a rivulet called Afsen, by Strahlenberg: the range itself is called Aidzin, by Major Rennell, in his map of the twenty Satrapies of Darius Hystaspes. There ends the country of Bokhâra, and begins the empire of China. It is a famous pass, and is naturally the rendezvous of the merchants trading from the West to China. It is defended by a fort, now in ruins, and on a small peak near it, is a very ancient building, like a tower, of a wonderful structure, called the throne of Solomon, near it is a mosque of curious marble. Then for ten days, there is nothing remarkable; the ground gently rising and falling; and you arrive in the vicinity of mines of lead, which is exported all over the country. Two days further, you enter the plains of Casbgha, which is one day's journey further.

This account is taken from the journal of a Russian called Czernichef, who travelled that way from Bokhâra to Cashmir in the year 1780, and was kindly given to me by P. Wendell at Lucknow. He had been made prisoner on the frontiers of Siberia by the Calmucks, and sold as a
flave to the Usbek Tartars. His master, who was a merchant, went to trade to Câshgâr, Yârc'hând, and Cashmir; and, being pleased with his behaviour, gave him his liberty. In company with some Armenians, he came to Lucknow, where he was relieved by Sir Eyre Coote, whose generosity enabled him to revisit his native country. P. Wendle represented him to me as a plain honest man, and with his master he had learned Persian enough to make himself understood. His route from Cogend to Yârc'hând is as follows:

From Cogend to Cucan, two days,
Márbelán, one day,
Gherâbâd and Châşfatoon, two days,
Hoshân pass, one day,
Lead mines, ten days,
To Girrel, and entrance into the plains, two days,
Câshgâr, with a mud fort, one day.

In the mountains to the right of the road from Câshgâr, to Yârc'hând, he was told that the Indus had its source. According to the account of some natives of Samarcand, the first part of the route stands thus:

Cogend, 10 cols,
Camba'dan, 12
Cucan, 15
Murgbulân, 10
Nemukbân, 10
Tukt-Soleiman or Ousb, 10

Their account was from report; for they never had travelled that way. Camba'dam seems to be the Candebo in Strahlenberg's map; Cucan or
Cucan, the Cçena of the Nubian geographer: and Nemukbàn is the Namagan of Strahlenberg's. The Lithinos-pyrgos seems to be the Cliff or Aacaba of the Nubian geographer, which must have had something very remarkable to be thus noticed. One day's march toward the East is the fort and pass of Ablas, Atas, or Æisban. The fort on a high hill was built to put a stop to the incursions of the Turks, from Baghargbar or Tanechas, whose capital city was thirty-seven days march to the Eastward. From Ablas to Tobbor, there were ten days march, according to the same geographer, who meant Cáshgbär by it, perhaps, because the caravans to, and from Tibet met there; and Mr. Danville is of the same opinion. In Ulug-beg's tables, and in the Ayin-Achert in the printed copies, we read Rus instead of Ousb: the distance between Cogend and Ousb is about one hundred and thirty miles, which agrees tolerably well with the above account.

Between the ranges to the North and South of Mëru, the Paurânicas place two other ranges of mountains; one on each side of Mëru, and in a North and South direction. The Western range called Gand'hamddana, does really exist, and answers to the Comadi mountains of Ptolemy, called also Cumuda in the Purâñas. But the Eastern range called Mâlya-vân; and answering to the former, exists but in the imagination of the Paurânicas; symmetry certainly required it, and this was enough for them.

IX. In the Vāyu Purāṇa, we are told, that the water or Ogha of the ocean, coming down from heaven like a stream of Amrīta upon Mëru, encircles it, through seven channels, for the space of 84,000 Yojanas, and then divides into four streams, which, falling from the immense height of Mëru, rest themselves in four lakes, from which they spring over the mountains through the air, just brushing the summits. This wild ac-
count was not unknown in the West; for this passage is translated, almost verbally, by Pliny, and Q. Curtius, in speaking of the Ganges. Cum magnu frangore ipsius latim fontis Ganges erumpit, et magnorum montium juga recto alvo stringit, et ubi primum mollis planities contingat, in quodam lacu hospitatur. The words in Italics are from Pliny *, the others from Curtius†.

These four lakes are called Aruñoda in the East; Mánasa in the South; in the West Sitoda: the fourth, in the North is called Mahá-Bhadra.

From Máná-Sarovara, or, according to the vulgar pronunciation, Mán-saraur, the lake of Mána or Mánasa, issues the Ganges. According to Puraṅ-gir, who accompanied the late Láma to China, and had seen that lake in his way from Lāffa to Ládáac, it is called in Tibet, Chu-Mápanb, or the lake of Mápanb. In the Láma’s map it is called Mapama: but Puraṅ-gir, a well informed man, assured me that its true name was Mápanb. It was probably written at first Mapam by Portuguese Jesuits, in whose language the letter M, at the end of a word, has a nasal sound, as it had in Latin, and is to be sounded like the letter N at the end of a word in French.

This lake is constantly called Mán-Saraur by pilgrims; but this appears, according to the Pauránies, to be another, a great way to the North: this they call Bindu-Sarovara, or the lake formed by the Bindu, or drops of water falling from the hair of Maha’-deva, when he received the holy stream, from on high, on his head. There is certainly some confusion in the Purañás about Máná-Sarovara; and we must then

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* Pliny VI, c. 18°. † Curtius VIII, c. 9°.
acknowledge two lakes of that name: one on the summit of Meru, and the other to the South of it: for the sacred books cannot be reconciled otherwise. In that case Bindu-sarovara, mentioned but seldom, is the same with the Southern Mana-sarovara. The great Mana-sarovara, which proceeded from the heart of Brahma', is on Meru, and the four great rivers issue from it: but from this Man-saraur, South of Meru, the Ganges is the only river issuing. It is of course the same with Bindu-saraur, or the lake Mapan of those of Tibet.

According to Puran-gir, this lake is situated on an elevated plain covered with long grass, to the North of which is a conical hill called Khyem-lung, and dedicated to Mahadeva; and which is inserted in the map of the Lamas, but without name, and with two roads ending there. It is one of the Southern peaks of mount Cantaiweb, which rises above the rest to an amazing height. A small stream, rising behind the subordinate peak of Khyem-lung, is considered by pilgrims as the source of the Ganges. There ended the survey of the Lama mathematicians; and the countries to the South, and South West were added afterwards, from the report of natives. During the rains the lake is said to overflow, and several streams rush down from the hills: but they soon dry up, even the sacred stream itself not excepted.

According to Puran-gir, and other pilgrims from India, this extensive plain is surrounded on all sides by peaks, or conical hills, but very irregular: toward the North they rise gradually, and a little beyond the sugar loaf hill of Khyem-lung begins the base of Cantaiweb. Toward the East the range of peaks is very low, forming only a serrated crest. To the South this crest is much higher than toward the other cardinal points: but, to the North, the mountains beyond the crest are very
high. The Southern crest is very near the banks of the lake. The lake itself forms an irregular oval, approaching to a circle, but the two inlets or smaller lakes to the North are said not to exist, for Puran-gir's route was to the North of the lake, and close to its shore, and he did not see them. Pilgrims are five days in going round the lake, and the place of worship, or Gombak, is to the South. It consists of a few huts, with irregular steps down the banks of the lake. The Ganges issues from it, and during the dry season its stream is hardly five or six inches deep. It does not go through the lake called Laken in the maps; it flows to the South East of it, at the distance of two or three cues. This lake is called in India the pool of Ra'vana; and because he is the Lord of Lanza; his pool is called the lake of Lanza, or Laken in the maps.

The lake of Man-saraur is mentioned by Pliny, as I observed before, and it is probably the same, that is mentioned by Ctesias, who says it was eight hundred stadia in circumference. M. Polo describes it as to the West of Tibet, but does not mention its name. It is noticed by P. Monserrat, who accompanied the Emperor Akbar in his expedition to Cabul in the year 1581. He calls it Man-sarwar, and, from the report of pilgrims, places it in thirty-two degrees of latitude North; and about three hundred and fifty miles to the North East of Serhind. The first European who saw it, was P. Andrada in the year 1624; and in the years 1715, and 1716, it was visited by the missionaries P. Desiderius, and Emanuel Freyer.

The Burmahs call this lake Anaudâl, and place four heads of animals to the four cardinal points, from which spring the four great rivers; and thus in the opinion of the divines of Tibet and Ava, this lake is the real Man-saraur. From this description one might be induced to suppose
this lake to be the crater of a Volcano, but much larger than any now existing, Ctesias says that a liquid matter like oil was swimming on its surface, and was carefully collected by the inhabitants, and M. Polo adds, that pearls were found there. The pilgrims I have consulted knew nothing either of this precious oil or of the pearls. They shewed me however small pebbles, some, like peas, others as big as a pigeon’s egg, which they told me were found on the shores of that lake, and that pilgrims used to take a few of them as relics, to give to their friends: and I was presented accordingly with some. They are, in general, as transparent as the purest crystal, and I should suspect them to be pieces of crystal, broken and rounded by mutual attrition, occasioned by the motion of waters.

To the West of this lake springs the Sita-Cant’ba, probably the Sitodotis of Arrian. It is called also the Meph’ba-Ganga, or impure Ganges: and is supposed by some to be the same with the Satlaj or Sitoda in the Panjab: this erroneous idea seems to originate from its being called by pilgrims Sitoda: but its true name is Sitoda, nearly synonymous with Sita-cant’ba. The famous Jaya-sinha, Rajab of Jaypoor, sent people as far as the Cow’s-mouth, and they found that the Sitoda, after flowing for a considerable space toward the West suddenly turned to the South, came within two miles of the Cow’s-mouth, and fell into the Ganges about sixteen coss lower.

To the East is the Aruhoda lake, literally the water or lake of Aruha or Dawn: and it is called to this day Orin-nor, or the lake of Orin, and from it flows the yellow river, the Sita of the Purushas, called also Para-Ganatica or Eastern Ganatica.

Aparen’a, or to the West, is the Sitoda lake from which issues the Apara-
Gandīc or Western Gandīc, called also Chaʾtbīn in the Purāṇas, Oxus by the Greeks, and Coṣba by the natives. This lake at the source of the Oxus, is noticed in some maps: by the natives it is called Cul or the lake; and by Persian authors Div-sārān; according to Sir W. Jones, in his life of Nadir-Shah; Deva-sara, in Sanskrit, signifies the lake of the Gods, or the divine lake. According to them it is near the mountains of Andamās from the Sanskrit Andha-Tamaṣa, or Andʿb-Tamaṣ: both words imply darkness; but being joined together, imply it in a superlative degree; and it is the name of one of the divisions of hell. On their summit is the Belur, or dark country of the maps. The Anthema mountains are called Sacranthema by Bernard Goez. An intelligent and well-informed native of Bidusban, and royal messenger of that country for forty years, under Ahmed and Zeman-Shah, informed me that Ser-Anthema is the true name; that Ser or Serb signifies in his country, end, limit, or border, and appears to be the name of a place near the Anthema mountains, as Ser-Hind, or on the borders of Hind. This lake is said to be three days journey in circumference. The Oxus does not spring immediately from it but at the distance of fifteen miles to the West it emerges from the ground. The Coṣba is the sacred stream which sanctifies the waters of the Oxus; but by no means the main stream, which is more to the North. It is so with regard to the Ganges, the sacred stream of which is called Alaca-nanda, and is but a small river, the source of which is twelve coss to the North East of Badaricāfrāma, and, I believe, about 130 miles from Hardevār. From the lake to the hills to the Eastward is an extensive plain, called Sarāgh-Chopawn, or the plains of Chopawn. There are four places there mentioned by Goez, Ciarcinor or Chār-Chunār the four cedars, like the four cedars, or pines perhaps, near Cashmir, called Chār-Chunār also: these four trees no longer exist.*

* Mr. Forster renders the word Churār by plane trees in his account of Cashmir, and he is perhaps right.
Sareil was explained to me, by Camber-Ali, the king’s messenger, by Sereb-cul, or Ser-cul close, or on the borders of the lake; and Serpanil by Ser-pamar. These mountains are called in the Purâṇas Cumuda, the Comedi of Ptolemy, and Anjana or Crîshna the black mountains. Camber-Ali gave me a dreadful account of them from report, for he never saw them, but at a distance.

The fourth lake in the North is called Maba-Bhadra, which is probably the lake Saisans, from which flows the river Itiz. As the epithet Maba implies a great lake, I am some time inclined to suppose it to be the same with the lake Baikal; but it is too much out of the way: though I must confess, that its distance can be no objection with the Purâṇâs. Besides, the Baikal lake is called to this day Sweto-more, or the holy and sacred sea, and the country about it, and all along the Ergone, or Argon, is considered as holy by the Hindus, who occasionally visit this sacred spot. Bell in his travels mentions his seeing a Hindu there from Madras. Strahlenberg saw another at Tabolsk, who, it seems, had settled there. I have seen two who had visited that country, one was called Areeswara, whom I mentioned in my essay on mount Caucasus.

The four sacred rivers springing from the Mân-sarovara, according to the divines of Tibet, are the Brahma-putra, the Ganges, the Indus, and the Sitâ. The Ganges is the only one that really issues from that lake, and if the three others do, it must be through subterranean channels; and such communications, whether real or imaginary, are very common in the Purâṇas. The Sitâ may be the Sutodâ, Sitodâ, supposed to communicate with the Satlaj or Salodara, thus called from its hundred branches or bellies, through which it is supposed to fall into the sea.

The Indus was supposed formerly to have its source not far from Mân-
sarovara, which P. Monserrat places in thirty-two degrees of latitude North; and the source of the Indus in latitude 32° 15', the difference of longitude between the source and the lake 1° 45'.

The difference of longitude between Delhi, and Manasarovara is according to Monserrat 5° 2'. This places Manasarovara in 82° 2' of longitude, and both its longitude and latitude are remarkably correct: but what is more surprising, the good father was ignorant that the Ganges issued from it. Abul Fazil places the source of the Indus nearly in the same latitude with Cashmir, but eighteen degrees to the Eastward. The Indus has its source four or five days journey to the North-West of Yarband according to Czernichef: it runs thence in a direction South South East toward Lādac, and within two days journey of it: nay, merchants, who trade from India to Cāşgār, say it can be done in one day. The Indus then turns immediately toward the West, taking an immense sweep round Cashmir; and the place near Lādac, where it turns suddenly to the Westward, has been mistaken for its source.

X. The followers of Jīna in the Trai-locya-desphāka represent the old continent, as consisting of two concentric dwipas, of the same superficial extent. They call the whole world Arai, or Adai-dwipa, literally the two and half Islands. The two first dwipas are Zambu in the center, and Dhátu; and they are divided by an intermediate sea. The whole is surrounded by the ocean, in which are many islands called in general Antaca or Anta-mai-dwipas, or the islands at the anta, (end, or extremity) of the world. The first of them is the White Island, and the last Swaṇyambhuna-dwipa, called Pūṣkara in the Purāṅas.

Beyond this is the half of Pūṣkara, the Svarā-Chūmi of the Purāṅas.
which surrouns the world, as well as the mountain of *Mānasottara* called *Ločbóca* by the *Paurāṇics*. Beyond this circular range is the other half of *Pushcara*: but as it is out of the world, it is not included in their system of geography.

In the division of the old Continent into nine parts by the *Paurāṇics*, *Bhārata* is erroneously introduced: it should be *Nābāhi*. For *Agnidhра*, the son of *Priyavrata*, the eldest son of *Adīma*, had nine sons; called *Nābāhi Ilavratta*, *Cimpurusha*, *Harivarsha*, *Cetumāla*, *Bhadraśva*, *Ramaṇaca*, *Hiraṇmaya*, and *Curu*. Thus we read in *Sanchoniathon* that *Phos*, *Phur*, or *Phlox*, answering to *Agni'dhra*, begat sons of vast bulk, whose names were given to the countries they inhabited.

*Priyavrata* had ten sons, as we have seen before; among whom was *Agnidhra*. Three withdrew into forests; and the seven remaining were appointed to rule over the seven great divisions of the world, called the seven *devipas*. The great grandson of *Agnidhra*, called *Bharata*, gave his name to the country south of *Himālaya*, which, under that denomination, was originally confined to *India*; but it is now made to extend from sea to sea, along the range of the Snowy mountains. This we are told in general in the *Purāṇas*: but it is by no means the case, as it will appear from the particulars, that *Bhārata*, forms a semi-circle round *Māru*, beginning in the West in fifty-two degrees of latitude, or nearly so: being, as it is declared in the *Purāṇas*, in the shape of a Cow.

To King *Bharata*, *Mahādeva* gave eight sons, and one daughter called *Ilā*, or *Cumārī*, emphatically the *Maideu*. A new division of the Earth took place according to some; but the general opinion is that it was only a partial one. Be this as it may, it appears that, out of the
ten divisions of the old continent, Bhárata, included nine: Cauṣu, in the north, being excepted and left out.

According to the Prabháśya-chandā, the names of these nine bandhas or sections are, reckoning from the East toward the West, Indra-dwipa or Gandharva-chandā, Čaṣu, Tamrapurāṇah, Gabbasisá, Cumbriça India, Nāga-chandā, Saumya, Varuṣha-chandā, and Gandharva-chandā again. In the Revā-chandā, their names are thus exhibited; Gandharva, Čaṣu, Tamrapurāṇah, Gabbasisá, Cumbriça or India, Nāga, Saumya, Varuṣha, Chandāra-dwipa.

In the same section we find another variation; Gandharva, Čaṣu, Tamrapatra (erroneously for Tamra-purāṇah), Shilaśīca, Cumbriça India, Bbāga-dwipa (probably for Nāga), Saumya, Varuṣha and Chandāra-dwipa. The first and the last divisions are in general called Gandharva-chandā, being supposed to be the abode of the Gods, with their usual retinue of heavenly musicians. Through the seven remaining divisions, seven rivers are said to flow. They have a common source in the lake from which issues the Ganges. To the East are, the Nalini, flowing through Čaṣu; the Pāvan, through Tamrapurāṇah; Hlādinī, through Gabbasisá. To the West, the Sita or Jāxarto flows through the country of Varuṣha; the Čhaeshu, through Saumya; and the Sindhu, through Nāga-chandā. Between these, in the middle, is the Ganges, which flows through Cumbriça-chandā or India.

In the Vāyu-Purāṇa, the origin of these seven rivers is thus described: North of Cailāśa is the Gaura mountain, at the foot of which is the Bindu-sarovara, or lake with golden sand. There went Bhagirat’ha to fetch the Ganges, called Tripat’ha-gā, because it goes through three paths, or channels.
There he obtained the Ganges from Mahādeva, which, dividing into seven streams or paths, is called from that circumstance Saptadībā. The Sita goes through countries inhabited by the Sirind'bras, the Cuntalas with long hair, the Chinas, for this is considered as the native country of the Chinese; the Barbaras, Yavasas, Drubas, Tusbaras living among snow, Culindas, Ancas, Locavaras. The Sita goes toward the West, and falls into the sea of salt water.

The Chaeshu flows through the countries of the Chinamanus, or Chinas men, Tanganas, Sarva-Cállicas, Sand'bras, Tusbaras; Tumpacas, read Lumphacas, Pabvas, Daradas, Socas or Saxons.

The Sind'hu goes through the Daradas, Cásmitas, Gand'haras or Gandari, Yavanas or Greeks of Baetria, Hiridas, Rhotas, the Rhedoes of the Baffaries of Dionysus*, 'Sivapauras (living in the town of 'Sivapura, or Shepoor), Indrabáfas Vadánis, Visanjasas, Sainh'basas (living on the banks of the Sind'hu), Rand'hraedracs, Brahmatas, Bhirarobacas, 'Sund'muc'has, Urd-d'hamanus. The Ganges flows through the Gand'barvas, Cinnaras, Yocshas, Rácsbasas, Vidyá'dharas, Uragas (or large snakes; these are tribes of demons good and bad in the hills), Calapagrámacas, Páradas, Suigañas 'Swasas Cirátas, Pulindas, Curavas in Curu about Tanbárs, Sam-Bháratas, Panchálas, Cási or Benares, Mathyas, Magad'has (or South Babar), Brahmataras, Angas, Bangas, Calingas, Tamraliptas (or Tamlook), Sam-Bháratas or Sammáratas, as pronounced in the spoken dialects, signifies a native of India; and I am told, that it is used, though very seldom, in that sense. The Hladin or Brahmaputra goes through the Nifh'das, Račhasas, Upa-Bangas (or near Bengal), the Dhivaras (or boatmen), Rishicas, Nilamuc'has, Ceralas, Ośta-

* Stephan of Byzantium ad vocem.
The Pūvani flows through countries inhabited by the Apiṣṭhas, or whose country is without paths, then through the large lake of Indradhyumna, through the C'harpaṭhaś, living near difficult passes, the Indrâcambypaṭhas, the Mad'byanod'baṇas, the Namafčaras, the Cuka-prāvanāṭhas, then falls into that sea, in which is Indra-dvipa, and which joins the sea of salt. The Nalini goes through the Tomaras, remarkable for their quivers, as implied by their name, through the Hauṣu-mārgas, or those living near the paths of the Anferes or water fowls, that is to say, among marshes; through the Sa-bun-bacasa, or who seem to repeat incessantly the words bong bang like the Chinese, then, after forcing its way through many hills, it goes through the Carṇa-prāvanāṭhas, or wearing ear rings, then through the Ahva-muc'has, horse-faced, Sīcutas, parrot-faced, Purvatamanus or hill-men, Vidyād'haras, and falls into the Maṇpad'dhi, or great sea.

The Pūvani is probably the river of Pá or Bhâ, and called Pa-chu or water of Pá before it enters China, where it is called Kin-sha-kyang, and Yangse-kyang. The lake of Indradhyumna is probably that, which covered once the province of Yu-quang, and was drained up in great measure by one of the Emperors of China; some extensive lakes in the lower grounds still remain. The epithet of Namafčaras is well adopted to the Chinese, from their polite and ceremonious behaviour, with bowing &c.

The dvipa of Indra, a very large island, appears to be Japan: for it is described as the island of the rising sun, which is the meaning of the words Japan or Gepuen. The Nalini, called Sind'hu, or Burra-Attōck by
pilgrims from India, is the Hoang-bo or Gara-Morun. It is called the great Attock or forbidden river, because strangers are seldom permitted to go beyond it. This forbidden river is noticed by Pliny* though he does not mention its name. It was equally forbidden to those, who came from the West on the part of the Romans negotiatores nostri; or who came from India. For there were two roads frequented by merchants, according to Ptolemy, from the metropolis of China; one leading to Bactra, and the Western countries, and the other to Palibothra and India.

The learned in Nepal consider the Brahmaputra to be the Hladini of their sacred books. There came to Benares, about nine years ago, a most respectable native from that country, called Bhagirathha: being very old, he wished to die on the banks of the Ganges at the holy place of Cāsi. He had been to China and favored me with a short account of his journey. There, he says, that the Burrampooter is the same with the Hladini, and that the Haramoren is the Nalini. This river, says he, is also called by Hindu pilgrims, the Burrabattaca, or great Attock or forbidden river. He had promised to favor me with further particulars; but soon after the venerable old man breathed his last on the banks of the Ganges.

The dwipa of Chandra in the West will appear, in the course of this work, from the Purânas to include the British Isles: but as it is considered here as one of the nine grand divisions of the Empire of Bhārata, the Purânicas must have comprehended under that appellation a more extensive region altogether, than the British Isles, and including the Western parts of Europe, under the name of Liguria or Lloegyr, which I shall shew hereafter to be synonymous with the country of Chandra or Lunus, em-

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* Pliny 46°, C. 22°.
phatically called Urípa or the Lord of the Zodiac. The King of the
dwiça of Chandra being considered as a vassal, was occasionally summons-
ed to appear before his Lord Paramount, with all the Kings of the
world in India, at least according to the Reva-chandra, a section of the
Scaunda-purāṇa.

SECTION II.

LIST OF MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, AND COUNTRIES, FROM THE
PURANAS AND OTHER BOOKS.

I. In the Brahmāṇḍa-Purāṇa * we have the following list of the
mountains, rivers, and countries in the Empire of Bha'ráta.

To the East it is bounded by the tribes of Cirátas, or shepherds, living in
the hills to the North and North East of Bengal; to the West, by the Yavana,
or Greeks of Bactriana. The four great tribes live in the middle, and
there are seven principal ranges of mountains, or cula parvatas: Mahendra,
toward Madras, Malaya, on the coast of Malabar, Sabya, toward Poonah,
Sučimán, Ríṣhya, Vináhyá (the Bind hills), and Páryátra.

The inferior mountains are Mandara, Vaibára, Dardura, Colábula,
Sátrasa, Maináca, Vídhyuta, Sriparvata, Cutuca, Cútabaila, Tunganprasi'ba,
Crisbnagiri, Godhana, Hari-parvata, Pushpapagiri, Jayanta, Raivátuca, near
the Revá, or Narmadá river. In these mountainous countries live the
'Arya Mlech'bas, or foreigners; and all these mountains are in the
Deccan.

* Section of the Earth.
The principal rivers are Gungā, Sirābu, Sarasvatī, Satadru or Satlaj, Chandrabhaga or Chinab, Yamuna, Jumna, Sarayū or Sarjew, Airavati or Ravi, Vītaśa or Bīdaśa, Vīpā or Buya, Devica, Cubu, Gomati, D'hitpāpa, Bāhuda, Drīśadvatī, Cauśicī or Cōśa, Vṛītiyā, Nirvīrā, Gandāci, Iṣkhu, Lobiṭa: all these flow from Himavat or the snowy mountains.

Vedasmṛītī, Vedavati, Vrtraghbi, Sind'hū, Varāṇāśā, Chandanā, Sadānirā, Mahā near Cambay, Pārā, Charmanvati Vidiśā, Vetravati, or Betwā river, Siprā near Usjain, Avantī: all these rivers flow from the mountains of Pāryātra. Sonā, Narmadā, Sumabādrumā, Mandācini, Daśorhā from Chitracūṭā, Tamaśā, Pippāla Srenī, Caratāyā, Currāyā, Pīśāchā Chrostpalā, Vīpāsā, Jambulā, Vālēvābīnī, Sinerajā, Suśīmari, Marcūhā, Tridivā, Cramā: These are born from the Rischā mountains.

The Tāpi, Tapti; Payośāni, Nirvīnd'byā, Madrā, Niśad'ba, Vēkavā, Vaiśarāki near Cuttac, Sinibāhu, Cimudvati, Niṭā, Mabā-gaurī, Durgā, Antarāsilā; all these spring from the Vind'bya mountains. Godāvari, Bhi-marat'bi, Cīrībnā, Vēkū, Vanjulā, Tungabhadrā, Suprayogā, Caverī: all these come from the Sahya mountains. Cīrtamālā, Tamraparāti, Carmājā, Punyālōvatī, from the Malaya mountains. Trisāmā, Rītuculyā, Dracṣhala, Tridivā, Lāṅgūlinī, Vansadh'barā: These proceed from the mountains of Mahendrā.

Rischica, Sucumārī, Mandāgā, Mandavābīnī, Cripā, Pālaśīnī, from the mountains of Suśīman; all these rivers flow immediately into the ocean. This is not true, for the Sarasvoṭi, Yamunā, Gomati, &c, fall into the Ganges.

Then follow a list of countries: the names are in the plural, and of:
course signify the inhabitants of these countries. Curu near Tabnesar, 
Punehala, Sâru or Sâlava, jangala, Sûraresa, the Sûraresi of Arrian, 
Bhadeacará, Bod'bá, Pât'bêswara, Vatsa, Cifrishta, Culya, Cutulca, Câsi- 
côsa or Benares, Tilinga, Magad'ba, Vriça: these are in Mad'byadèsa or 
middle of India.

In the North of the Sabya mountains rises the Godáveri: on the banks 
of the Grâshná, are extensive and famous districts: there is the moun-
tain Govadd'hana made by Indra; through Râ'mas pleasure it is Súrge 
or heaven. There Bharadwaja built a town, with gardens and pools, 
Vâblica Balk, Vâtad'hâna, Abhîra or Pallis, in Candess; Câlatoycya, Apa-
rîta, Sûdra, Pabwava, Charma-c'hândaca, probably the Charme of Pliny, 
Camboja, Cuj or Coj, Rob-Coj or Arachosia, Darada Darâe Daeuwid, Bar-
bara, or Varvâra Priyalaucica, Pâna, Tushâra, or snow country, Bâbyatodara; 
there live the descendants of Atri and Bharadwâja; Praß'bala, Câse-
ruca, Lampácâb'hâna, those who live near the fân of Lampaca or Lanceh 
now Lamgan; Plâlica, Jubuda, Apaga, Alimdra, there live Cirátas or 
shepherd; Tovara, Hansamârga, Câsmira, Tângana, Chûlica, Bâbuca in 
the Vâyu-Purâña, &c.; "Abua, Purô-burwa.

To the East are the And'bravâca, Susaraça, Antaragiri within the hills, 
Bâbirgiri without the hills, Plovanga, Angeya Malada or Mâlda, Mâlovarti, 
Brabmottara, Prawijaya, Bhârgavângeya, Art'bara, Pragjyoti'sha now Gobati in 
Assam, Mundâ, Videba the country of the famous Janaca; Tamraliptica or 
Tomlozk, mâla, the Malli and mount Mallus of Pliny toward the Ganges 
now Mal-boom in Midnapoor, Magad'ba or South Babar, Govind'ba. To-
ward the South is Pândya, the country of Pandion, Ceral, Ceralà-de'sa, 
Chailya or Chola Coromandala, Culya Setuca, Mudhica, Cumandha, Mâba-Râf-
tra; Mâbâ-rütas, Mâbîsica, Colinga, Abhîra or Pallis, Vaijîbica, Anayya
living in the middle of thick forests, Vara, Pulinda, Vindʿbya-nurvica, Vaidarbha or Burra-Nagpoor, Dandaca, Paunicca, Mainica, Asmaca, Bhoga-
vardhana, Nairica, Guntala, Andhra now Telingana, Ubbida, Nalasa, Alica.

The next are in front of the Vindʿbya mountains: Suryācāra, Colavāna, Durga, Cālitaca, Puleya, Surala, Rupasa, Tapha, (these are probably the Tabusa of Ptolemy; for, in the Dekan, they pronounce that word Tabasa,) Surafita, Carancāra, Nārseta, Antara-Narmada within the Narmadā, Bhā-
u-Cacbha, Mābeya, Sāvatura.

The following are behind the mountains of Vindʿbya: Mālava, Caru-
sha, Meccala along the Narmadā called also Meccā, Utsala, or Orissa, Uttarā-
rāṇi, Deśārāka, (the country of Dojarem in the Periplus and Ptolemy,) Bhoja, Chscindhaka, Tosala, (the Tusale of Ptolemy, and Jesual of Euro-
pean travellers,) Cośala, Traipura or Tipperah, Vaidica, Tumura, Tupura, Sb-

There are also other countries called Nigarbarā for Nagbarā, called
Nakienbur in the Ayin Acberi near Cābul, Hanfamārga, the Hurfa, pro-
bably the white Hunni of Cosmas Indopleustes in the sixth century, and who inhabited the upper part of the Panjāb. Their chiefs were called Gollas, and it is related that once their army besieging a city, drank up all the water round it: as water is very scarce in that country, it is very possible. Darva, Sabanbaha, Trigarta, Mālava, Cireta: Tamasa.

II. In the Varā-sanbita, an astronomical treatise, there is a more com-
plete lift. In Madʿbyam, middle or inland country, are the following
tribes: Bhadra, Arimeda, Mandavaya, Salava, Nīpa, Udjibāna, Meru, Vatṣa, Ghosha, Yāmuna, Sarasvatī, Matṣa or Matṣya, all these are Madhyamica or in the midland Matibhaca, Āpa-jyotisha, Dharmāranya, Sarasena, Gauragriha with white necks, Uddebica, Pardya, Gudāsvattī, Pānchāla, Saceta or Oude and Benares, Canca, Curu, Cālacoti, Cucura, Paripyātra (said, to be at the source of the Chumbul,) in other Purāṇas it is called Pāripātra; Naga, Audumbara, Čāpiśāla, Gojākṣaya, Toward the East, are the Anjana, Vṛṣabhā, Dhāwāja, Padma, Mālyavatgiri, Vyāghra-muc'ha or Tyger-faced, Subha, Cārvala, Čāndārapura, Suryacaraṇa, Čaṇḍa, Magadha, Sivirgīrī, the mountains of the Siviras (These no longer exist as a nation: their name in the spoken dialects is Sivir. They are said to have been very powerful once in the Gangetic provinces, as well as the Bhar tribe, who no longer form a body.) the Siviras or Sibiras are the Sabīri of Nonn Mitkila or North Bahar, Samatata, Undra, Aṣ蠖ādāna or horse faced, Danturaka, Pracjyotisha the Lauhitya river, Čāīrada-Samudra, the sea or lake of milk, Pururādā or Cannibals, Udāya-giri, Bhadra, Gaudaca those of Gauda or Gaur, (the Corygazus of Ptolemy,) Paunāra, Ucata, Caśi, Mecata, Ambashṭa (the Ambaste of Arrian,) Escapada or single footed, Tamraliptica or Tamlook, Kosala called Tošala-Tośala in the preceding list, Vasādhamāna or Burdwan.

In the South East is Kosala, Calinga, Banga, Āpa-Banga, Sutara, Anga, Svalīca, Vīśaka, Vatṣa, Andhra, Vaidica, Urdhva-candā, (with high necks,) Vṛṣha, Nālicera or Nāricela, Samattra according to the Vrīhat-cat'ba, Charma-dāiva, Vindhyāntaravāsīna, (living in the interior parts of the Vindhyān mountains,) Tripura or Tippehā, Smaśrūd'bara, Hema-cudra, Vyālagriha, (with necks like snakes,) Mahāgrīva, (long necks,) Čisbein'dha, Cāntācēth'ali, Nisbāda-rāśktra, Purica, Daśāraṇa, Nagnapavāna, Sabara, a wild race.
In the South is Lancer, or the peninsula of Malaca, Cálájina, Sauricar-ña, Tálícata, Girinagara, Malaya the Malabár coast, Daradura, Mahendra, Málindra, Mérú-Cach'ba, Careota, Tanca, Vanaváši, Sívica, C'ba-ñicara, Cauncaña, Abhira, Acara, Veša, Avantaca, Dáfepura, Gonaradda, Ceralaca, Cánháta, Mahátavi, Chittra-Cúta, Násioya, Collagiri, Chola, Crambha-dwip'ha, (the islands of the water fowls or Láca-dvives,) Jálád'bara, Cáverya, Risbymuc'ha, Vaidurya, Same'ba, or islands of shells, (they are more generally called Barata and Barola; hence cowries are called Baratás, because they come from that country.) Muelátri Váricbara, D'harmac-pattana-dwip'ha, an island opposite to D'harmac-pattan. (D'harmac-pattan was formerly a place of some note between Calicut and Cananor.) Gamañfetra, Cásbna-Vellara, Piśica, Suryádri, Cusumanaga, Tumbavana, Cármañyaca, Támyod'bi the sea of Yama, or Southern sea, Támf'sámta-Rábica, Canchípura, Canjivoram, China-pattana or Madras, Deváshica, Sínkála or Ceylon, Rísabba, Bala-dava-pattana, or Maba Balipura, now Maveli- voram, Donáacanana, Timingola, Saná-bhaddra, Cach'ba, Cunjagaradá, Tamraparni.

In the South West is Pámbava, Cámboja, Árachbya, Sindhu, Saudra, Válámuc'ba, Amba, Ambasíla, Campilla, Narimuc'ba, Anartta, Phëkágiri, Yavana-márgana, (those who live toward the passes leading into the country of the Yavanas, or Greeks of Bractriana, or the frontiers of the Yavanas,) Carñáparvarna, Sabaraca, Sudra, Barbara, Círata Chanála, Gravý-ábya, Abbira, Chambúca, Hemagiri, Sindhu-Calaca, Raivátaca, Suráshtra, Bádara, Draviñá. These are in the great sea, or near the great sea, Mahimán, Megbvisión, Vanogba, Çbúrárpana, Astagiri, Aparánñicca, at the end of the West, Sánaticca perhaps Sintica, Haihaya the Persians, Pra-jaštádri, Ucáná, Pancahanada, or Panjáb, Rámata, Páratra, Tárácshica, Írínga, Vásya, Canaca, Saca, Nirmaryádamlech'has. These are impure tribes.
living on the borders. In the North West, Mandavya, Tuṭbāra, Tāla, Hala, Madra, Asmāca, Culi, Talaha, (Strirajab) or Amazones, Nrisinhaavana, C'başıa, Verumāti, Budagulacca, Aguruba, Maruba, Turuca, Charmaranga, Eca vilochana, (one-eyed,) Sulica, Dirgabhiriva or with long necks.

To the North, is Cailāsa, Himatán, Vasumangiri, Dhanushmān, Craun-chā Mēru, Uttara-Curu with the epithet of Cshadeamāna, or North Curu under the lesser Fish, or the lesser Bear.

Caicaevya Cabul, Vasūti, or Yāmuna, Bhogapraṣa or Hardwar, Arjunayana, Agniq'bra, Adara, Antarakedvīpi, the Doab between the Ganges and the Jumna, Irigartta, Tahora, Turagāma or Aśva-muc'ba, Češad'bara, Chi-pitnāśica, Dāferaca, Vatad'bāna, Sarad'bāna, Taesha-sila in the Vṛbatcatbā, (these are called Taesbila, the Taxila of the Greeks, and the ruins of which are to be seen between the Vetaśā and Indus,) Pusbcalavata, Cainātaca, Cantad'bāna, Ambara, Madraca, Mālova, Paulava, Čač'ba, Darāla, Pingalaca, Māñhabala, (now Manbāl in the mountains to the North of the Panjāb,) Hūna, (the Hunnii of Cosmas,) Cobala, Sātaca, Mandavya, Bhūtapura, Gand'bara, Yasovati, Hematāla, Rājanya, Cacbarā, Gayya, Yaud'baya, Sameya, Syāmaca, Cśemad'hurtta.

To the North East (it should be to the North West,) is Meruca, (the mount Meros of the Greeks,) Našča-raśya, Rāśupala, Cira, Cāśmira, Abbisāra (which includes part of Cāśmira to the North West : this was the kingdom of Abisares; by Abbisāra they oftener understand Cāśmira,) Darada, Tangaña, Culfata, Sauritya, Vana-raṣṭra. Brabma-pura, Dārvada, Amaravāna, Rājya-Girāta, Chīna, Caulinda, Palava, Lolo, Jatād'bara, Cunaba, Ch'asha, Gbośba, Cauchica, Eca-charna, Suvarna-abbu, Vasud'bana, Dvistta, Pavvara, Cb'wara, Nivafana, Trinetra, (or with three eyes,) Munjadri, Soma,
Gant'harva. Then Pāncbāla, Māgad'bica Cālinga, 'Avartha, 'Aartta or Devāraça; Sind'bu, Sauvira, Hārbaura, Madrēśa.

To the South of the Jambunā, Prayaga or Allababad, Narmadā, Arad'ha-
'Sohā the Sone, (which is considered as the half of the Narmadā,) Unāra,
Vanga, Subma, Calinga, Vāblica, or Balk, 'Saca, Yavana, Mogad'ha, 'Sabara
Prágyotixa in Assam, China, Camboja Arachosia, Mecala, Cirāta, Vicatā,
Babirántā-Saila, (within and without the hills,) Pulinda, Dravira, (all these
are South of the Yamunā,) Chambā, Udumbara, Causāmbi, Vedi, Vand'hyā-
taci, (the forests of the Vind'hyan hills,) Calinga, Purāra, Golāngula, 'Srī-
partuta, Varad'hamān, or Burdwan, Jēhubati, Taścara, (a tribe of robbers,)
Pārata, Cantāra, Gopavīja, Tuśhad'hānya, Catuca, Taru-Canaca, (or golden
tree) Dabanaśība, Sama-rātra, Ebeśbaja, Bhībaca, Chatuśbāda (with four
feet,) Črīśicara, Nirpaśīra, Pāpāpāpt, (these are tribes of robbers,) Vyā-
ḷaḍaśīya, (the woods of snakes,) Taśkoyuta, Turnā, (the Sun rules there,)
Girīsalila, Durga-cośhala, Maru-ćač'bu, Samudra-Romaca, (the sea of Rome,)
Tuśbāra Vanavāsi, Tancāha, Hala, Strīrājya, and the islands in the Ma-
bāṃava, or great sea, Madhura-raju, Cusumabhala, some read Madhura,
Rajaca, Sumabhala, (this laft is the name of the country at the source of the
Ganges according to the divines of Tibet, and the lake Su-Mapanb seems
to be called by them the sea of Matroba) 'Salīla-marī the jewel of the sea,
Lavaṇa the sea of salt, 'San'cba, Maućica, Abja, Mandācin, Uttarapāṇīya, or North Pandu, on the banks of the Hyslaspes. Between the river
Sind'bu and Māt'bura, on the Yamunā, is Bhārata, and the Sauviras, (Suṭr
in the spoken dialects,) Sugbna, Divya, (a river, the Viṣāsā or Beyab,) Sata-
dru, Satlaj, the country of Rāmata, 'Śālava, Traigartta, now Tāborah,
Paurava or country of Puru, (Purus,) Ambashtā Bad near Tanehsīr, D'hā-
nya, Yand'hēya or country of Yudd'ha, Ayoud between the Vetāīā and
Sind'bu, the country of Sarasvatā, Arjunāyana, Matṣya, Arad'ha-ṣīma,
Hasyāsvapura, Mangalya, Pausbtica, Saêla, Cârunyā. The following tribes drink of the waters of the Aïrâvati; Rayy, Vâtaflâ, and Chandrabâgâ, the Prañâbalas, Mâlava, Caicaya, Daşarâha, Ushânara. The country of Caicaya is acknowledged to be Cabul, and Mâlava is Malwa, and of course they cannot drink of the waters of the above mentioned rivers: such blunders and inaccuracies are very frequent in the Purânas: in the present lift Câsmîra, is placed to the North East of India: and I could point out many more.

III. The Tâcshâ-sillas mentioned in this list, are called Tâcshilas in the Vṛhâs-catâhâ, and their country is said there to be on the banks of the Vîtâsâ, or Hysâsses. They still exist as a numerous tribe, under the name of Syâlas or Seyâlas, and are divided into several branches; the Syâlas proper, those of Syâl-cote, of Jêbungs-Syal, whose principal town is called Jêbungsâlan by Major Rennel, the Cac-Syâlas, &c.

The immense ruins of Tâcshâila, as it is spelt also, cover a vast extent of ground, upon which a town and several considerable villages have been built; but these ruins are now mere rubbish. The Syâlas are exceedingly proud of their antiquity, talk of ancient heroes, yet they remember nothing of Alexander, and his conquests. They are a fine race of men, tall, bold, and generous, like their neighbours the Châtars, the Chateri of Diodorus, the Sicilian; the greatest part of the latter are still Hindus, and I have seen several of them at Benares: and their tribe is well known in Penjâb. The Syâlas and Châtârs are certainly a distinct race in that part of the country. The Syâlas, or Tâcshâsailas, or Silas are also called simply Tâcshas as well as Syâlas. The Syâlas say, that the ancient name of their city was Uda-nâgri, and Hud that of their country, from one
Hud-Vallala, or the shepherd, called Yulluleah by Persian authors, and Lilatos, by the Greeks.* The country of Hud is called Hodu, in the book of Esther, and seems to have included what is called Sind by Persian writers, at least the Northern parts of it. It is called Yuddhbee in the Purāṇas, and Ayud or Ayoud by European travellers of the sixteenth century.

Serai Ravaut, called Rubbaut by Major Rennell, is built upon the site of Taefbala, near Serai-Puckab.

CHAPTER THE THIRD.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXTRACTS FROM THE PURANAS.

I. For the satisfaction of the reader, I shall give a few specimens of the geographical style of the Hindus, in the very words of the Paurāṇics. The first specimen is from the Brabmapān-purāṇa.

Now I shall describe the length, and breadth of the Earth; and give a true account of the seas and islands. Between the seven islands are thousands of smaller ones. I shall now describe the seven islands, with the Moon, the Sun, and the planets, with their dimensions to the satisfaction of mankind. I shall describe, the nine divisions of the island of

* Plutarch, de familia, voce Indus.
Jambu, which exists from old, their length and circumference in Yojanas. The breadth of Jambu-dwipa is 100,000 of Yojanas: it is very large, beautiful, and circular. It includes nine divisions, with mansions full of living beings; it is surrounded by the sea of salt; the breadth of which is equal to that of Jambu-dwipa. Six ranges of mountains, with their divisions or countries, extend toward the East; which on both sides, East and West, join the Ocean.

Himapraya is Himavan, or full of snow; Hemaciriata full of gold is Himavan: Nisbadha resplendent with gold, like the rising Sun: Meru of gold of four colours is the greatest of mountains; its body appears high in all its dimensions, of many colours all round, united by the skill of Prajapati Brahma. Eastward it is white, like the offspring of Brahma, born from the navel of Vishnu; South it is yellow, and appears like a Vaišya. On the side of Varuna, West, it is like the dry leaves of a tree; and like a Sūdra, looks Meru of many names. North it is red, and looks like a Ćhetri: these are conspicuous from their colours.

Like the Vaillúra or Lapis Lazuli gem is the Nila mountain: Swetāsringa, abounding with gold, and Srīgavān like the feathers of the peacock. These are the chief hills, like so many kings, inhabited by Sīdhas, and Gandharvas. The spaces between them are 9,000 Yojanas. In the middle is Ilavrata round Meru a space of 9,000 Yojanas and this mount Meru like fire without smoke, stands in the middle. The surface of the Earth stands one half on the South of Meru, and the other half on the North. Between these seven divisions are hills; their breadth is 2,000 Yojanas each, and 2,000 Yojanas their height.
I have mentioned the breadth of Jambu-dwipa, now the two middle ranges Nilā, and Nīśadha, are 10,000 Yojanas less, in the Bhāgavata 1000 only. Śvetā and Hemacāta, likewise 10,000 less than the two former in length, and so are Himavān and Sringavān. In these seven Countries, are seen the footsteps of living creatures, with hills here and there, as if scattered at random. The Country below Himavat is Bhārata by name; beyond is Haimacāta with Cimpuruṣa; beyond is Nāśadha with golden peaks, and the Country of Harivarṣham; and beyond Harivarṣham is Meru, and Ilāvatī; beyond Ilāvatī are the Nilā mountains, and the Country of Ramyaca; beyond Ramyaca is Hiraṇmaya; beyond this is Śringa, and the Country of Guru. Know that the countries South and North of Meru, are shaped like a bow. These are four districts remarkable for their length, between them is Ilāvatī. The division of the surface behind Nīśadha is called the Southern division: the division beyond Nilā is called the Northern one. South of Nilā, and North of Nīśadha length-wise, and towards the East is Mālyavān a thousand Yojanas high, like Nilā and Nīśadha. Its length is 34,000 Yojanas, West of it is the mountain of Gandhāramadana. Its length and breadth like Mālyavāna’s. In the middle of a sort of circle, is Meru high, and of four colours; of four sides is this golden mountain, the greatest of all.

These four sides are remarkable, as they are the four paths of the five affections of the mind, from which, as they answer to the five elements, are produced all living beings.

The great God, the great, omnipotent, omniscient one, the greatest in the world, the great Lord, who goes through all the worlds, incapable of decay, and without body, is born a moulded body, of flesh and
bones, made, whilst himself was not made. His wisdom and power pervades all hearts; from his heart sprung this Padma Lotus like world in times of old. It was then in this, that appeared, when born, the God of Gods with four faces, the Lord of the Lords of mankind, who rules over all, the Lord of the world; when this flower was produced by Vishnu, then from his navel sprang the worldly Lotos, abounding with trees, and plants; then the dimensions of this worldly Lotos became obvious to the sight.

Round it are four great islands or countries: in the middle like the germ is Mēru thus called; a great mountain, of various colours all round, toward the East para it is white, I say: yellow toward the South: aparā Westward it is black; and to the North red like the dawning morn bālārca. Its height is 84,000 Yojanas: 16,000 below the surface of the Earth. In the middle it is hollow like the germ of the Lotos. Its breadth is above 32,000 Yojanas: its circumference twice that, added to it. Round it are four larger countries, and many smaller ones. Bhadrāśva, Bārata, Cetumāla to the West, and to the North the Curavas; Guru in the singular number, in which are men abounding in righteousness. The circumference of the germ carñica is 90,000 Yojanas, the internal circumference is 84,000: the flamina, filaments, or chives ceṣaurajāla extend length-wise to the number of 100,000; and their circumference is 300,000 Yojanas. The four petals are 80,000 long, and as many broad, I am now going to describe this great, and wonderful germ carñica, drupe or pericarp.

It consists of 100,000 angles: Bhrigu says 9000; Saiverni 8000, Varshapāni 1000; Bha'guri says, it is square: Ga' lava that it is hollow: Gra'mya that is like an egg, with the broad end below. Urb'ha-
VEIN, like three twisted locks of hair, whilst others will have it to be spherical. Every Ṛṣbi represents this Lord of mountains, as it appeared to him from his station. BRAHMA', INDRA, and all the Gods, declare, that this largest of all mountains, is a form, consisting of jewels of numberless colours; the abode of various tribes; like gold, like the dawning morn, resplendent, with a 1000 petals, like 1000 water pots, with 1000 leaves.

WITHIN, it is adorned with the self moving cars of the Gods, all beautiful: in its petals are the abodes of the Gods, like heaven: in its thousand petals they dwell with their consorts. There resides above BRAHMA', God of Gods, with four faces, the greatest of those, who know the Vedas, the greatest of the great Gods, also of the inferior ones. There is the court of BRAHMA' consisting of the whole Earth, of all those who grant the object of our wishes: thousands of great Gods are in this beautiful court; there the Brahmarishis dwell: it is called by all the world Manovati. There in the East is INDRA for ever to be praised, the God setting upon a vimāna, resplendent like a thousand suns. There the Gods and tribes of Ṛṣbis are always sitting in the presence of the four faced God: these the God makes happy with his resplendence: there the Gods are singing praises to him. There is the Lord of wealth, beautiful with thousand eyes, the destroyer of towns: the Indralocas enjoy all the wealth of the three worlds. In the second interval, between the East and the South, is the great vimāna of Agni or fire with a great resplendence, variegated with hundred sorts of metals, resplendent; and from whom sprang the Vedas: there is his court: he does good to all, and his name is JīVAN'Y, in the mouth of whom the sacred elements of the boma are put. There fire ANALA, the greatest of Gods, is seen in his proper form: he who gives delight to all the Gods.
On the third side, in this very same manner, know there is the great court of Vilvswaṭa-Yama, called by mankind Su-Sanvyaṅa. Thus in the next or fourth, is the court Sabbā of the Lord of the corner, or country, of Nairita: his court is called Gṛṣhṇangā; his name is Virupacsha' with a disagreeable countenance. On the West, know that there is the court of Varuṇa called 'Subhavati: Now toward the North, in the North-west, is the court of Vayu' called Gandhāviti. In the seventh corner is the Sabbā of the Lord of the Zodiac, called Mahodaya: his seat, most beautiful, is of Vaiḍūrya or lapis lazuli. In the eighth corner is the seat of Isāna or 'Siva; its colour is of fervid gold, and it is called Yabovati. These are the great and beautiful vimānas in the eight corners of the eight most benevolent Gods, called Indra-mucebyas. There dwells on the summit the God of Gods, with four faces. There is the beautiful court of Brahma' served by tribes of Rishis: it is called Manovatī by mankind. There the Rishis, the Gods, and Gandharvas, the Apsarās, the great snakes are the attendants, most fortunate, and constantly lifting up their hands.

Such is this Carśica, or germ, above the surface of the earth. Its circumference at the surface of the Earth is 48,000 Yojanas. This Mēru, above the surface of the Earth, is declared to be a hill full of inhabitants. On all sides in every country are maryādā or dividing mountains. In these countries are mountains with seven channels, one from each hill, with beautiful peaks, like gold, yellow, with many streams: without, there are three channels, and as many within Jatara, and Deva-citā are two hills to the East. Their length is from North to South equal to that of Nīla and Niḥbodha: Caila and Himavān are South and North of each other: their length is East and West, jutting into the sea. Of this Mēru very high, and of gold, the supports, or butres like mountains. I shall now describe, like so many feet on four sides: 10,000 Yojanas is.
their breadth; and they are adorned on all sides, with great vimānas. East is Mandara, South Gandhāra; Vipula West, Supārśva North. Their thousand peaks are so many seats adorned with black and red coral. There are four large trees, each with as many roots sa-mula, and branches with thousand smaller ones, all beautiful, and with flowers: these trees are the largest in the dwīpas. On the summit of the Mandara mountain is a beautiful Cadamba tree: its fruit is like a great waterpot, with flowers, with open Calices. Its fragrance is felt one thousand Yojanas, and above all round: consider it then as a large flag: from its excellence, the country, it is in, is called Bhadrāśva. Here is seen Rādhicaṇḍa, Bhagavāṇa, and he with numerous Liddhaś, rules there, here Harāhara the great, the white, did obtain the tree Rudracadamba: he who does good to every body. No great man famous and learned among the bipedes ever saw this whole island called Bhadrāśva. The Jambu tree, most beautiful, is on the South of the mountain of Meru; the fruits of which are Amṛitalpāṇi, like those of the Calpavriyāśa, and fall on the summit of the mountain. From this mountain issues the Jambu river flowing with honey: in it, is found the gold called Jambunāda, with which the Gods are adorned. This flag-like tree is in the Southern part of the dwīpa, and is called Jambu by mankind: from it Jambu-dwīpa derives its name.

On the Vipula mountain toward the West is the Plāsha tree: from this flag-like tree or Cētu the country is called Cētu-Māla: the Gods, and Gandhārous worshipped it. On Supārśva, in the North, on its summit is a large tree, the Nyagrodha: its large branches, and their circumference extend many Yojanas all round. Thus I have described the flag-like tree of the North, Curus. There are the seven Curavas or Gurus: for Curava is a plural from, truly fortunate, and who obtained
happiness, unalterable, most exquisite in this world, for a long time: and after them this island or country was called the seven Curāvas, or Curus, simply in the singular number.

This will suffice to give an idea of the geographical turn of the Hindus, and I shall leave off in future the descriptions of mountains, dales, and lakes, as if viewed through a prism, omitting the enchanting buzz of the six-footed Bhramara a beetle, or rather a large black bee fucus or drone, the names of fragrant flowers, and precious stones, with which the Hindus are as much delighted, as children are with the bare names of sweetmeats, and flowers jumbled together.

II. In the description of Bhadrāśva, or China, as we have observed before, the Paurāṇics take peculiar notice, that this extensive country had never been visited by great men, that is, by men of learning and respectability. The author then gives an account of the four sacred streams in these words:

Hear now what divine streams issue from the lakes, abundant with ogba living waters. The water of the Ocean, coming from heaven upon Mēru, is like amṛita; and from it arises a river, which, through seven channels, encircles Mēru for a space of eighty-four Yojanas, and then divides into four streams springing over the four sacred hills toward the four cardinal points. One stream goes over Mandara in the East, and encircles the beautiful grove of Chaitra-raṭha, and falls into the Aruṇḍā, or Aruṇa lake, and goes thence to the mountains of Śiśanta, Sumanta, Sumanjasā, Mādyavanta, to Vaicalana, Mañi, Rīsūbha, from hill to hill; then falls to the ground, and waters the country of Bha-
drāśva, a Su-mahā-dwīpa, or beautiful, and extensive island, or country;
and then it joins the Eastern Ocean near the Purva-dwipa, or Eastern island called in other Puránas the island of Indra, and of the rising sun, as implied also in its present Chinese name of Gepuen or Japan.

The Southern branch goes to Gand'hamadana, from hill to hill, from stone to stone; it encircles the forest of Gand'hamadana, or Deva-nandana, where it is called Alakananda. It goes to the Northern lake, called Mánasā, thence to the King of mountains with three summits, thence to the mountains of Càlinga, Ruchaca, Nishadha, Jamrābha, or copper mountains, Svetośara, Sumula, another King of hills, Vasudhrā, Hemacūla, Devasrīnga, Pishábha, a great mountain, Pancha-cūla, or with five peaks; then to Cailaśa, thence to Himavat, or snowy range; and then, this Mahābhāgā, or most propitious river, having watered many countries, falls into the Southern Ocean. Mahādeva received it on his own head, from which, spreading all over his body, its waters are become most efficacious. It falls then upon Himāchala, from which it gangs its way upon earth: hence it is called Gangā.

To the West aṣāra is a large river encircling the forests of Vaibhava: it is Mahā-bhāgā, most propitious: it falls into the lake Sītodā, called by Persian authors Diva-Sāran: thence it goes to the Su-Basfa mountains, and to the Purāvā lake, or the Caspian Sea, to the mountains called Sic'bi, Camca Vaiśārya, Capila Gandha-madana, Pinjara, Cumuda Madhumánta, Anjana, Mucūta Cīśena, Sweta filled with large snakes, to the mountain with 1000 peaks, to the Pārijāta mountain, through Cetumāla a large country, then falls into the Western Ocean. It is the Chacṣhu or Oxus.

North from Mēru there falls a branch called Bhradā, and Bhradā-śomā upon Suparkṣva of gold, which it encircles; and goes to the lake.
called Sītodacā, in the forest of Bhadra-soma, thence to the mountains of Sanbe-cūda, Vṛṣa Vatśa, Nila, Cōpinjala, Indra-nilā, Mahā-nilā, Hemāśringa, Svetāśringa, Sunaga, to the mountain with an hundred peaks, Pūshcara, Dviṣa-rāja, Varāha boar, Mayura peacock, to the single peak Jātudhi; then after corroding a thousand inferior hills, it goes to the mountain with three peaks, to Viśhuddha; then goes into the Northern Ocean. This mountain of Vatśa is said by astronomers, to be in the same meridian with Lancā, and as such is mentioned by several French authors, as Bailli, Gentil, &c.

Close to the Gandhamādana, along the banks of the Apara-Ganḍīcā, or Western Ganḍīcā, is the country of Cētumāla, 34,000 Yojanas in length, and 32,000 broad. The Cētumālas are mighty in deeds, strong and powerful; the women bright like the Lotos flower: and whoever sees them, falls in love with them. There is the great tree Panaśa, the Ygdrasil of the Edda, from which flow the sixth juices. There resides Is'wara, or Is'a, the son of Brahma. The proper name of this country is Cētu, which has an obvious affinity with the Cērum of Scripture, a plural form, and in the singular number Ceti, and with the Ceti of prophane authors.

On the East, in Bhadrāsva or Chīna, is the Purva-Ganḍīcā, or Eastern Ganḍīcā: and the length of its course is the same with that of the Apara, or Western one. In the Varāha-purāṇa it is said, that the course of the Purva-Ganḍīcā is 1000 Yojanas, but that of the Apara or Western, is only 400, which is more conformable to truth, as the Oxus does not fall into the Atlantic Ocean.

The author then gives an account of the countries round Mēru, as
far as the seas surrounding the old continent. He treats first of the
Drōpis, vallies, or countries situated between ranges of mountains.
The Brāhma, Vāyu, and Brahmāṇḍa-purāṇas, are the most copious on
this subject. The mountainous tracts to the North of India, are so
little known to us, and to the Hindus themselves, that I can by no
means throw any light upon so extravagant and obscure descriptions
of them, as are to be found in these Purāṇas. I shall of course pass
them over, after having taken notice of two curious passages, one relates
to the famous mountain of Cailāśa or Cailas, the heaven of Śiva, and often
used by his followers for heaven in general, as Coilus, Coilum, and Coila,
by the Latians. There resides Śiva called also Arhan, or Urānus;
for Śiva, like Urānas, presides over Astronomy.

It is said to be one hundred yojanas in length, and fifty broad; and a most
extravagant description of it is given in the Purāṇas. I have conversed
with many pilgrims, who had seen this famous mountain, and they uni-
formly declared to me, that it is only eight or nine miles to the South of
the lake of Rāvana, the Laken of the maps. It is about three cols
long, or seven miles, and shaped like a mandap, by which they understand
a building, like a barn. Vaicanta, the heaven of Viṣṇu, is toward
Assam; and that of Brahma towards Tartary, a considerable way to the
North. In the Vāyu-purāṇa we read, that in the Southern vallies with
regard to Meru, is the immense forest of Udumbara, in which is the
place of abode of Carddameswara, the eldest son of Adam. This
place they suppose to be in the vast Mediterranean island, in the Paleze
lake in Tibet, a very proper place for him; and also to the Eastward of
Eden.

But let us pass to the mountains, valleys, and champain countries to
to the West of Mēru. It is said in the Brahma-purāṇa, that in Bhadrāśva or China, Viṣṇu resides there with the countenance, and head of a Horse. In Bhārata, he has the countenance of a Tortoise; in Cetu-māla or Europe, he resides in the shape of a Varāha or Boar, and he is described as the chief of a numerous offspring, or followers in that shape. He is then in Cetu-māla Varākṣa, or the chief of the Varāhas or Boars; a word to be pronounced according to the idiom of the spoken dialects Wārāpā. In Cura he has the countenance of a Matsya or fish; and of course he is there Sīra-matsya, or with the head or countenance of a fish. He is probably the Chrando of the Goths, who was represented standing upon a fish in the waters. For the extensive country of Cura is declared to be South of the Northern Ocean, and North of Mēru in the Purāṇas, and particularly in the beginning of the Brahma-purāṇa. It begins immediately at the foot of the Northernmost range of Hills, a little beyond fifty-two degrees of latitude North, and extends from sea to sea.

III. In the Vāyu-purāṇa the countries to the West of Mēru are thus described; and the author begins with the valleys, and champaign countries.

There are many valleys, and flat grounds to the West of Mēru, divided by numerous ranges of hills. About the mountains of Su-bācaśa, the Bacaś of Ptolemy, and Sīchi-saila is a level country, about a hundred yojanas in extent; and there the ground emits flames. It is a most dismal place, horrid to the sight, inaccessible to mortals: the sight of it makes the very hair stand. It is the abode of the superior deities. There is Viśha-vasu, or Vasu simply, who presides over the fire, burning without fuel; he who is the great deity, and their fire seems to have life. When performing holy rites with offerings to the Gods, men always give
fire his share. There that very fire, which one day will spread over, and encompass the whole universe, is constantly burning. Within the mountains is the abode of the illustrious, and powerful Gods; with the place of the Matu-linga ten yojanas broad, and there is the hermitage of Varāhaspati.

Like these two mountains are Cumuda and Anjana: between these is an extensive valley, with a lake. The Cumuda range answers to the Comelli mountains of Ptolemy: and the Anjana, or black range, to the Anthema of Persian writers, as I observed before, and there is the Ayatana, or abode of Vishnu.

The Phān of Vasu is obviously a volcano in the Al-burz mountains, and a volcano is really Vasavāyatana, or the abode of Vasu in a derivative form: and here we have the etymology of Vesuvius, Vesuvius, and Aetna or Ætna, which words have been improperly divided. Between the great mountains Crisna and Pānlura, the black and white mountains, is a level country. In it is a Padmini land, or marshy ground abounding with Lotos. There resides the God with a thousand bodies. Mankind call it Ananta-sada, or Anantee-fades, the seat of Hari, with the title of Ananta. In the middle of the Cumuda mountains with a thousand peaks, there is a forest fifty yojanas long, and thirty broad. There is the famous pool of the Apsarasas; many holy men live there, and drink of its pure waters.

Between Sancu-cīta, or the peak like a wooden-pin, and the Prīshabha mountains, is the ībalt, or country of Parushaca many yojanas in length. There live the Cinnaras, Uragas, Serpents, and holy men.
The tract between the mountains of Capinjala, and Nāga-śaila is two-
hundred yojanas in length, and one hundred broad, truly delightful, adorned
with many groves. It abounds with fruits, and flowers of various sorts.
The Cinnarases, and Uragas, with tribes of pious and good men live there.
There are beautiful groves of Drācshā or vine trees, Nāga trees or Nāga-
rāṇga, the orange tree, and plum, or rather stone fruit trees. It abounds
with lakes and pools filled to the brim, with sweet and refreshing waters.
What part of it lies between the Pushpaca and Māhā-Megha mountains,
about one hundred yojanas long, and sixty broad, is as flat as the palm of
the hand, as known to every body, with very little water, which is
whitish. The soil is hard, and tenacious, without trees, and even with-
out grafs. There are few living creatures: and the few inhabitants are
without fixed habitations: this desert is so dreary as to make the travel-
lers hair stand up. The whole country is called Cānana, or Cānana.
There are several large lakes, likewise great trees, and larger groves,
called Cāntā. The smaller lakes, pools, groves, orchards, producing
delightful juices, are numberless. The vallies, depths, lakes, and groves
are some ten, others twelve, seven, eight, twenty, or thirty yojanas in
circumference. There are caves in the mountains, most dreary and
dark, inaccessible to the rays of the sun, cold and difficult of access. In
that country are Sidd'bas, or prophets with the gift of miracles; learned
and famous Brāhmens, bright like fire; hundred thousands of them are
in that country.

It is truly surprizing to find so plain, and sensible a description of
a country in the Purāṇas: for the translation is faithful, and I have not
left out, as before, any passage on any account whatsoever. It appears to
be Syria in its largest dimensions, and which the author calls Cānana; be-
cause the Cananeans, and amongst them the Phœnicians, were posseffed of
the greatest, and best part of it, and were moreover famous all over the East.

The dimensions in yojanas in general, must be considerably reduced; but there are particular instances when they must be retained, and such cases are by no means numerous. I have noticed that the description of this country was a plain narrative, which, if not true, bore at least every mark of probability.

The mountains of Capenjala, a sort of bird, and Nāga or of the Serpents, are unknown: the region between them was 200 yojanas, or about 900 miles long, and 100 broad, or about 450 miles. These are the dimensions of Syria from Babylon, to the Mediterranean sea. It consisted of two parts, a dreary desert, and the other a most charming and fruitful country, with six, or seven lakes called seas, the largest of which is the Asphaltite sea, thirty yojanas in circumference, according to Josèphus's account.

The Paurānīc̆s in their description of countries never mention, at least as far as I can recollect, the vine, and plum, or olive tree, nor the Nāgarānga, or orange tree, unless we are to understand the latter of trees bearing golden apples. The larger lakes, the numberless pools, the caves in the mountains, the abundance of vineyards, and orchards filled with orange and olive trees, is perfectly correct, as well as the description of the desert, with its scanty waters of a whitish colour, and a few inhabitants, without any fixed habitations, is literally true. The numerous and learned Levites, who were really Brāhmins, the Siddhas or prophets working miracles, are certainly wonderful circumstances.

The Cinnaras may be the inhabitants of the country of Cinnereth, round
the lake of the same name with the town of Cinnereth. The tribe of Urages, or serpents, were probably the Hivites, whose name implies the same thing. Vadari signifies a plum tree, but in general a stone fruit tree; and is of course applicable to the olive tree, for which, I believe, there is no name in Sanscrit. It is not understood here of the date tree, for which there is a name in that language.

This curious passage proves the existence of an early intercourse between the Hindus, with the inhabitants of the more Western countries, and particularly the Israelites. I shall show in the course of this work, that such an intercourse existed formerly: and Lucian takes a particular notice of the Hindus visiting holy places in Syria, such as the șiñán of Mahá-bhágá-devá, called Bombye, and now Manbeg. This, in my humble opinion, explains an obscure passage of the prophet Isaiah, who lived in the eighth century before Christ*: "Verily thou hast forsaken thy people, the house of Jacob; because they are filled with diviners from the East, from more than or beyond the East; who are soothsayers like those of the Philistines; and they delight in the society of children of strangers." This passage I conceive to allude to Hindus, from the very forcible expression of from the East, from beyond the East, or from the remotest parts of the East. The prophet did not mean the Chaldeans, who were well known to him, as he repeatedly takes notice of them.

IV. The next mountains are those of Silánta, many yojanas in extent, bounding with all sorts of metals and gems. It is skirted by a most delightful country, well watered, enlivened with the harmonious noise of the black bee, and frogs. There are towns with gates: and the refreshing

* Isaiah, chap. 2. v. 6.—See also Bishop Lowth on Isaiah.
moisture of this country, proceeds from Uruja, or the Lord of the Zodiac; and, re-uniting together, forms a stream, called the Vabā of the Moon, or Ghandāra-vabā. There live the Siddhas and Yakshas in caves, with intricate but delightful mazes. There among immense caves is the Crikāvana, or place of dalliance of Mahendra, where knowledge and the completion of our wishes is fully obtained. There is the great forest of the Pārijata tree, of the kings of the Gods, known through the three worlds: and the whole world sings his praise from the Vedas: such is the place of dalliance of him with 1000 eyes, or Indra.

One side is Suvarṇa of gold, as implied by its name, full of hills of the purest gems and corals. In this charming grove of Sacra, or Indra, the Gods, the Dānavas, the snakes, Yakshas, Rācchas, Gubya, or Cumeras, Gandharvas, Vidyādharas live happy, as well as numerous tribes of Asvānas fond of sport.

To the East of this lord of mountains is Cumula, a peak, with eight towns of the proud Dānavas. In the mountains of Vajracu, with many peaks, live Rācchas, frightful, assuming whatever countenance they please, strong, and performing wonderful achievements: these Rācchas are called Nīlacca.

In Mabā-Nila, or the great blue range, are fifteen towns belonging to the Huyānana or Asva-muccha, or horse-faced tribe, probably the Persians, and the descendants of Torgama, who bred horses, and carried them to the principal fairs in the East. In Sanscrit, Turangama, perhaps the same with Thorgama, for thus Thogarma is also written, signifies a horse, and implicitly a horsemán: and the Hindus derive from it the appellation of Turcoman. They are originally Cinnaras, courageous like the leader of the
armies of the Gods; Ca’rticeya, with large hands, and strong like the Indrádicas. There are fifteen chiefs of the Cinnaras, elated with pride. There in towns under ground, like Bāmiyan, live people like snakes; no man can look them in the face, and meet their eyes: their looks are like fire, like the poison of serpents. These live upon the golden flamina of certain flowers. In the hills there are above a thousand abodes of Dāityas: the houses are elegant, like high-embattled forts.

In Veṣu-manta, or Veṣuman, are three forts belonging to the Vidyád’haras, thirty yojanas long, and twenty-five broad. These belong to the Uluc, the Romashas or Romacas, and the Mahá-netras. These rank among the greatest of the Vidyád’haras, and whose mighty deeds equal those of Indra. The country of Veṣumanatha is one hundred and forty miles long, and about sixty broad: in it there are three strong fortified places, held at the same time by the three most powerful nations then existing. The Romashas, or Romacas, are the Romans, called Romaicoi in Greek, and often mentioned in the Puráṇas and other books of the Hindus; but only in general terms. The Uluc are the Sacas, called also Bolga, Volcae, and Wolkæ; these were probably the Parthians. The Mahá-netra, or with large eyes, are probably the Armenians: and it was in the first century, that these three powerful nations were thus brought in contact, on the borders of Syria, Armenia, and Persia, in a country bordering upon the lake Van, thus called from a town of the same name, which in the Armenian language signifies a fortified place. Har-Minni, or Har-Minnith, signifies the mountains of Minnith, or Armenia, and Vanni-minnith or Vanni-minni, the strong holds of Ar-minni, Armona, Armana, or Armenia: for thus its name is variously written.

In the Brabmándla it is declared, that in the country of Cusa, including
Iran, Syria, and Arabia, is the Cumudovati, or Euphrates, with the Cumuda mountains; from which Cusa is also denominated the dewpa, or country of Cumuda. There live the "Sacas, a powerful nation: the Párasicas remarkable for their beauty, and the "Sýamacas seemingly thus called from their black complexion. These were subdued by Rághu: and in the book of his wars, a few remarkable circumstances relating to that extensive country, occur occasionally. Otherwise the Párasicas, or natives of Páraśa, or Persia, are seldom noticed by the Paurâkies. In Cumuda is the Cumudovati river, and the Ṣ'bán of Mahā-bha'ga-devī, the sister of Mahā-deva. Of this famous place, I took particular notice in my Essay on Sêmiramis, under the name of Mābeg and Manbeg.

On Vaivanca resides the offspring of Garudā, the destroyer of serpents: it abounds with metals and precious stones. A strong and turbulent wind swifly passes over this mountain, in a human form, called Sûgréva. The offspring of Punna'ga'ri, of Garudā, in the shape of birds, fly about this mountain: they are strong, fly quickly, and mighty are their achievements. On Cara'ja always resides the mighty lord of living beings, who manifests himself there to human sight, the great God riding upon a Bull, hence called Vṛysha-bha'ńca-sancara, the chief of Yogi. The inhabitants like Mahā-deva always carry poison about them: they are Pramāṭbas or servants of Mahā-deva, and difficult of access. Mahā-deva resides there among them.

On Vasu-d'hara in Vasumati, a mountain and country full of fire, as implied by their names, are the Ṣ'bánś, or places of the eight forms of Mahā-deva, the merciful God. They are full of resplendence, and proper places of worship. There are seven Ṣ'bánś of Siddi'bas: and the Ṣ'bán of Brahma' with four faces, the mighty lord of created beings,
on a high peak: all living creatures bow to it. The eleven Rudras reside there, on the Gaja-sala, or elephant mountain.

Su-Megha is full of metals, a king of mountain it is, like the clouds Megha, with many caves in its bosom, and arbours in its skirts. It is the Atyatanam, or place of abode of the twelve Suns, and of the eight forms of Rudra. There also the sthâns of Vishnu, and the Aswinâs or Dioscuri, with many belonging to the Siddhas and Gods. There the Vaisûras, Gandharvas, and Chimaras, probably priests and minstrels, are constantly performing the puja. In the bosom of this mountain, are famous and large cities of the Gandharvas, resplendent like Amara-puri, with large forts well embattled, in which reside the Siddhas, and Gandharvas deeply skilled in war, with their king Capinjala, God and king of kings. From him these are called the Capinjala mountains, of which I took notice before.

On Anala, a fire mountain also, reside tribes of Râsthas, or evil spirits with a human body, on this mountain with five peaks, with the Dânava, proud, enemies of the Gods, great, strong and of mighty deeds. These Dânava are perhaps the Greeks, the offspring of Danaus.

On Sata-śrînga, or with one hundred peaks, reside the Taşhâs, a benevolent tribe. On Tamrâbha, or the copper mountain, is a town inhabited by the Câdrawevas, or children of Câdhu, the wife of Câ'syapa, and by Taşbacai, a serpentine tribe of artists.

In the great and beautiful Visācâsha are many caves in its skirts: it is the famous place of abode of the God, who always dwells in caves, Câ'tigeya or Mars. On Svetađâra, or with a white-belly, is a large town, and settlement of the beneficent Suna'bha, the son of Garuda.
On the large mountain of Paisūchāca, is a settlement of the Cuvēras, called also Cubēras and Gubēras, and the same with the Cabirian tribes, with a commodious palace, resorted to by the Yacēphas and Gand’harvas. On Hari-cūta resides the God Hari, to whom all the world bows: the famous navel of this most resplendent mountain is remarkable for its splendour.

On Cumūda reside the Cinnaras: on Anjana the great Snakes: on Grīfōna are the towns of the Gand’harvas with large houses.

On Pāndura on a beautiful peak, is the town of Vidyādharas, well fortified, and a large palace with battlements.

On the mountain with a thousand peaks, reside the Dāityas and Dānavas in a thousand towns. They are all shining with gold, and their voice is most melodious.

On Sucūta reside the chiefs of the Pannāgas, or great Snakes: and on Puslibaica many tribes of Munis. On Supacēba, or Subacēba, are the four mansions of Vaivaswata or Noah, of the Moon, of Vayu, and Na’gād’hipa’, or King of Serpents. The Gand’harvas, Cinnaras, Yacēphas, Nēgas and Vidyādharas, and their chiefs, are constantly worshipping their Ishta or favorite deity.

The place of Vaivaswata or Maitlam, is near Cabul, in the country of Lampacæm, as it is called in the Purānas, and Lamgam by the natives. Of this place, I took particular notice in my Essay on mount Caucæus.

V. In this Purāna, the author, whilst describing the mountains to the South, and South West of Merū, mentions a circumstance truly curious.
and interesting. Here, says he, in the forest of Śanc'ha was born Shadānana, or Ča'trice'ya, Mars with six faces. Here he wished, or formed the resolution of going to the mountains of Crauncha, Germany, part of Poland, &c. to rest, and recreate himself after his fatigues in the wars of the Gods with the giants. There, in the skirts of the mountains of Crauncha, he flung his sword, the very same which Attila, in the fifth century, asserted he had found under a clod of earth. It was placed in his tomb, where it is, probably to be found.

In the Devi-Purāṇa, it is declared, that Devi in her character of Jaya-devi, or goddess of victory, is worshipped in the dwipa of Crauncha under the emblem of a sword.

The rest of the more Western countries is neglected by the compiler, as they are described in other paragraphs, under the names of dwipas or countries of Placsha, Śālmali, Crauncha S'acm and Pushcara. He takes particular notice of a singular region in Śālmali, called the peak-land of the Gods.

Hear now: in Deva-cīla, or peak-land of the Gods, which is a mountain dividing parting countries, or in other words a long and extensive range, is the place where Garuḍa, the son of Vinata, was born; which is also his D'bāma-domus home, on a broad peak of this great range, with a beautiful palace. This country is one hundred yojanas in circumference, or about four hundred and ninety miles. There resides the numerous offspring of Garuḍa in the shape of large birds, and of men also swiftly flying, strong, ruling all over the country, and full of pride. This is the first mansion of the lord of birds, generous and merciful, swift like the stormy wind, and who resides in the dwipa of Śālmali. It is
toward the South on one of the peaks of this mountain, conspicuous, full of wealth, beautiful, seven in number, bright like the morning, and evening skies, with forts of silver, well embattled, adorned with chaplets of houses made by the Gods, forty yojanas long, two hundred miles, and thirty broad, one hundred and fifty miles. These are called the seven towns of the Gandbarvas, full of men and women. This is a peculiar tribe of the Gandbarvas called Agneyas, fire-men, or rather artificers by fire, very strong, and of mighty deeds. They are the servants of the Cuyeras, or Guhyas, whose principal employment is to explore the bowels of the earth in search of wealth. The rest of this curious description will be hereafter the subject of a particular section.

Before we pass to the second part, it will be requisite to give some explanation of the accompanying Plates:

No. I, represents the worldly Lotos, floating upon the waters of the Ocean, which is surrounded, and its waters prevented from falling into the vacuum by the Suvarna-bhumi, or land of gold, and the mountains of Lokadocas.

No. II, represents the globe of the Earth, according to the Hindu astronomers. It is projected upon the plane of the equator, and the Southern hemisphere expanded in such a manner, that the South pole, instead of a point, becomes the largest circle of this projection. They also represent the two hemispheres, separately upon the plane of the equator.

No. III, represents the same, projected upon the plane of a meridian. These two projections are against the tenor of the context of the Puranas: a Southern hemisphere being then absolutely unknown.
Here I have placed the three ranges of mountains, according to the
documents of Hindu astronomers: but not according to their usual de-
lineations: for according to these, the three ranges should be represented
by three concentric half circles, parallel to the meridians of the projection.
It is acknowledged that these ranges are in the direction of as many
parallels of latitude. In that case, the outermost ranges, must be the
longest: and this is the opinion of the Jainaś, as I observed before in
the sixth paragraph of the first chapter.

No. IV, exhibits the old Continent, projected upon an imaginary circle
passing through the North pole, and just grazing the equator in the South.
Instead of a circle, it should be an oval, with the longest diameter East and
West. But as the tracing of an oval would be attended with some difficulty,
the indolent Paurāṇīcś have adopted the circle in its room; and seldom
use the other. As such a delineation would be useless, I have of course
omitted it.

The chasm in the North-west, through the mountains surrounding the
world, was made by Gurīṣhna, when he went to see his prototype Viṣh-
nu, or the great spirit, the Paramātma of the world, whose abode is among
waters, in the land of darkness. Several heroes have passed since through
this chasm, which will be the subject of a particular paragraph herea-
after.

No. V, explains the true system of the known world according to the
Purāṇas, and of the Jainaś, reconciled with that of the astronomers of
India.

Here, the Meru of the Paurāṇicś is brought back, to its proper place,
whilst the Mēru of the astronomers remains under the North pole. The zones between Jambu or India, and the Mēru of the astronomers, are obviously our seven climates: and the points where the astronomical zones intersect the zones of the Paurāṇics round their respective centers equally called Mēru, shew the true situation of the dvīpas or countries, from which these zones according to the system, either of the astronomers or of the Paurāṇics, are equally denominated, whether they are reckoned relatively to the North pole, or to a centrical point in the elevated plains of Tartary.

No. VI, is a delineation of the country of Bbārata, in the fullest acceptation of that denomination. Its nine divisions with Curu, or Siberia, and the Northern parts of Europe, making in all ten districts, were all destroyed by a violent storm, and inundation, except one. Thus the ten divisions of the Atlantis were all destroyed by a flood except one called Gades, which probably included Spain.

Some also are of opinion, that, out of the seven dvīpas, six were likewise overwhelmed by a flood. This circumstance is also noticed in the third volume of the Aŷin-Acheri. But I believe that this notion originated with the Paurāṇics, who, unable to point out these wonderful countries, described in so extravagant a manner in their sacred books, found that the best way was to swear, that they had disappeared.
VIII.

On the *Vedas*, or Sacred Writings of the Hindus.

By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

In the early progress of researches into *Indian* literature, it was doubted, whether the *Vedas* were extant; or, if portions of them were still preserved, whether any person, however learned in other respects, might be capable of understanding their obsolete dialect. It was believed too, that, if a *Bráhma* really possessed the *Indian* scriptures, his religious prejudices would nevertheless prevent his imparting the holy knowledge to any, but a regenerate Hindu. These notions, supported by popular tales, were cherished long after the *Vedas* had been communicated to *Dára Shúco*; and parts of them translated, into the *Persian* language, by him, or for his use*. The doubts were not finally abandoned, until Colonel Polier obtained from *Jeyepur* a transcript of what purported to be a complete copy of the *Vedas*, and which he deposited in the *British* Museum. About the same time, Sir Robert Chambers collected at *Benares* numerous fragments of the *Indian* scripture: General Martine, at a later period, obtained copies of some parts of it: and Sir William Jones was successful in procuring valuable portions of the *Vedas*, and in translating several curious passages from one of them†. I have been still more fortunate in collecting at *Benares*, the text and commentary of a large portion of these

* Extracts have also been translated into the *Hindi* language; but it does not appear, upon what occasion this version into the vulgar dialect was made.

† See Preface to *Menu,* page vi, and the Works of Sir *William Jones,* Vol. VI.
celebrated books: and, without waiting to examine them more completely, than has been yet practicable, I shall here attempt to give a brief explanation of what they chiefly contain.

It is well known, that the original Veda is believed by Hindus to have been revealed by Brahma; and to have been preserved by tradition, until it was arranged in its present order by a sage, who thence obtained the surname of Vyasa or Vedavyasa; that is, compiler of the Vedas. He distributed the Indian scripture into four parts, which are severally entitled Rikh, Yajuṣṭ, Sāman, and Albhurvaṇa; and each of which bears the common denomination of Veda.

Mr. Wilkins and Sir William Jones were led, by the consideration of several remarkable passages, to suspect, that the fourth is more modern than the other three. It is certain, that Menu, like others among the Indian lawgivers, always speaks of three only, and has barely alluded to the Albhurvaṇa without however terming it a Veda. Passages of the Indian scripture itself seem to support the inference: for the fourth Veda is not mentioned in the passage, cited by me in a former essay, from the white Yajuṣṭ; nor in the following text, quoted from the Indian scripture by the commentator of the Rikh.

"The Rigveda originated from fire; the Yajurveda from air; and the Sāmaveda, from the sun."

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* Menu, chap. 11, v. 31.
‡ From the 31st chapter; which, together with the preceding chapter (30th), relates to the Parvahā midha, a type of the allegorical immolation of Nārāyaṇa, or of Brahma in that character.
|| Menu alludes to this fabulous origin of the Vedas (ch. 1, v. 23). His commentator, Ma'ō'ma.-
Arguments in support of this opinion might be drawn even from popular dictionaries; for Amera-sinha notices only three Vedas, and mentions the At'harvāṇa without giving it the same denomination. It is, however, probable, that some portion at least of the At'harvāṇa is as ancient, as the compilation of the three others; and its name, like theirs, is anterior to Vyaśa's arrangement of them: but the same must be admitted in regard to the Itiṣṭa and Purāṇas, which constitute a fifth Veda, as the At'harvāṇa does a fourth.

It would indeed be vain to quote in proof of this point, the Purāṇas themselves, which always enumerate four Vedas; and slate the Itiṣṭa and Purāṇas as a fifth: since the antiquity of some, among the Purāṇas now extant, is more than questionable; and the authenticity of any one, in particular, does not appear to be as yet sufficiently established. It would be as useless to cite the Manuṣeac and Tāpaniya Upaniṣās, in which the At'harva-veda is enumerated among the scriptures, and in one of which the number of four Vedas is expressly affirmed: for both these Upaniṣās appertain to the At'harvāṇa itself. The mention of the sage An'harvan in various places, throughout the Vedas, proves nothing: and even a text of the Yajurveda, where he is named in contrast with the Rīch, Yajish, and Šāman, and their supplement or Brāhma, is not decisive. But a very unexceptionable passage may be adduced, which the commentator of the Rīch has quoted, for a different purpose, from the Ch'ándogya Upaniṣad, a portion of the Šāman. In it, Na'ṛeda, having solicited instruc-

\* Tait, explains it by remarking, that the Rīgveda opens with a hymn to fire; and the Yajurveda, with one, in which air is mentioned. But Cullu'ca Bhat'a has recourse to the renovations of the universe. * In one Calja, the Vedas proceeded from fire, air, and the sun; in another, from Brahma at his allegorical immolation.

\* Vidē Vedas pati'm.

\* In the Taitiṣṭya Upaniṣad.
tion from Sanatcumara, and being interrogated by him, as to the extent of his previous knowledge, says, "I have learnt the Rigveda, the Yajurveda, the Samaaveda, the Atharvaveda, [which is] the fourth, the Itibasa and Puranaha, [which are] a fifth, and [grammar, or] the Veda of Vedas, the obsequies of the manes, the art of computation, the knowledge of omens, the revolutions of periods, the intention of speech [or art of reasoning], the maxims of ethicaks, the divine science [or construction of scripture], the sciences appendant on holy writ [or accentuation, profody, and religious rites], the adjuration of spirits, the art of the soldier, the science of astronomy, the charming of serpents, the science of demigods [or musick and mechanical arts]: all this have I studied; yet do I only know the text, and have no knowledge of the soul."

From this, compared with other passages of Ies authority, and with the received notions of the Hindus themselves, it appears, that the Rich, Yajush, and Saman, are the three principal portions of the Veda; that the Atharvaveda is commonly admitted as a fourth; and that divers mythological poems, entitled Itibasa and Puranahas, are reckoned a supplement to the scripture, and, as such, constitute a fifth Veda.

* Ch'bandaga Upanishad, ch. 7, § 1. I insert the whole passage, because it contains an ample enumeration of the sciences. The names, by which grammar and the rest are indicated in the original text, are obscure; but the annotations of Sancara explain them.

This, like any other portion of a Veda where it is itself named, (for a few other instances occur;) must of course be more modern than another part, to which the name had been previously assigned. It will hereafter be shown, that the Vedas are a compilation of prayers, called mantras; with a collection of precepts and maxims, entitled Brabmanas; from which last portion, the Upanishad is extracted. The prayers are properly the Vedes, and apparently preceded the Brabmana.

† When the study of the Indian scriptures was more general, than at present, especially among the Brabmanas of Gyanasukha, learned priests derived titles from the number of Vedas, with which they were
The true reason, why the three first Vedas are often mentioned without any notice of the fourth, must be sought, not in their different origin and antiquity; but in the difference of their use and purport. Prayers, employed at solemn rites called Yajnyas, have been placed in the three principal Vedas: those, which are in prose, are named Rajus; such, as are in metre, are denominated Rich; and some, which are intended to be chanted, are called Sāman; and these names, as distinguishing different portions of the Vedas, are anterior to their separation in Vyāsā's compilation. But the Atharvātha, not being used at the religious ceremonies abovementioned, and containing prayers employed at lufrations, at rites conciliating the deities, and as imprecautions on enemies, is essentially different from the other Vedas; as is remarked by the author of an elementary treatise on the classification of the Indian sciences.  

But different schools of priests have admitted some variations in works which appear under the same title. This circumstance is accounted for by the commentators on the Vedas, who relate the following story taken from Purāñas, and other authorities. Vyāsā, having compiled and arranged the scriptures, theogonies, and mythological poems, taught the several Vedas to as many disciples: viz. the Rich to Paśa; the Rajus to Vais'ampayana; and the Sāman to Jaimini; as also the Atharvātha to Sumantu, and the Itibāsa and Purānas to Sutta. These disciples instructed their respective pupils, who, becoming teachers in their turn, communicated the knowledge to their own disciples; until, at length, conversant. Since every priest was bound to study on one Veda, no title was derived from the fulfilment of that duty; but a person, who had studied two Vedas, was furred named Dvivēṣṭa; one, who was conversant with three, Trivēṣṭa; and one, versed in four, Caturveda: as the mythological poems were only figuratively called a Veda, no distinction appears to have been derived from a knowledge of them, in addition to the four scriptures. The titles, abovementioned, have become the surnames of families among the Brāhmens of Cann, and are corrupted by vulgar pronunciation into Dēbē, Trundē and Chaudē.

* Madhusudana Sarasvatī; in the Prastāba nābīda.
in the progress of successive instruction, so great variations crept into the text, or into the manner of reading and reciting it, and into the no less sacred precepts for its use and application, that eleven hundred different schools of scriptural knowledge arose.

The several Sanhitás or collections of prayers in each Veda, as received into these numerous schools, or variations, more or less considerable, admitted by them either in the arrangement of the whole text (including prayers and precepts), or in regard to particular portions of it, constituted the Sácchás or branches of each Veda. Tradition, preserved in the Puránas, reckons sixteen Sanhitás of the Rigveda; eighty-six, of the Yajurveda; or, including those which branched from a second revelation of this Veda, a hundred and one; and not less than a thousand of the Sámadhyádá, besides nine of the Aitáryóopa. But treatises on the study of the Veda reduce the Sácchás of the Rích, to five; and those of the Yajùsh, including both revelations of it, to eighty-six.*

The progress, by which (to use the language of the Puránas) the tree of science, put forth its numerous branches, is thus related. Páíla taught the Rigveda or Baburich to two disciples, Bahcalá and Indrápramati. The first, also called Babcali, was the editor of a Sanhitá, or collection of prayers; and a Sácchá, bearing his name, still subsists: it is said to have first branched into four schools; afterwards into three others. Indrápramati communicated his knowledge to his own son Mańduceya, by whom a Sanhitá was compiled: and from whom one of the Sácchás has derived its name. Védamítra, surnamed Sácalya, studied under the same teacher, and gave a complete collecti-

* The authorities, on which this is stated, are chiefly the Viṣánu puráṇa, part 3, chap. 4, and the Viśvávdás on the study of scripture; also, the Chórahávyáha, on the Sácchás of the Vedás.
or Sacred Writings of the Hindus.

on of prayers: it is still extant; but is said to have given origin to five varied editions of the same text. The two other and principal Sāc'bhās of the Rāja are those of Aśwālayana and Sānc'hyāyana, or perhaps Caushītaci: but the Vijnānapurāṇa omits them, and intimates, that Sāc'apūrṇi, a pupil of Indrapramati, gave the third varied edition from this teacher, and was also the author of the Niruśa: if so, he is the same with Yaśca. His school seems to have been subdivided by the formation of three others derived from his disciples.

The Yajur, or Adhvaryu consists of two different Vēdas, which have separately branched out into various Sāc'bhās. To explain the names, by which both are distinguished, it is necessary to notice a legend, which is gravely related in the Purāṇas, and in the commentaries on the Vēda.

The Yajur, in its original form, was at first taught by Vaiśampayana, to twenty-seven pupils. At this time, having instructed Ya'jnyawalcyā, he appointed him to teach the Vēda to other disciples. Being afterwards offended by the refusal of Ya'jnyawalcyā to take on himself a share of the sin incurred by Vaiśampayana, who had unintentionally killed his own sister's son, the resentful preceptor bade Ya'jnyawalcyā relinquish the science, which he had learnt: He instantly disgorged it in a tangible form. The rest of Vaiśampayana's disciples, receiving his commands to pick up the disgorged Vēda, assumed the form of partridges, and swallowed these texts, which were tilled, and, for this reason, termed "black": thus, they are also denominated Taistirīya, from tātirī, the name for a partridge.

*The Vākan purāṇa, part 3, chap. 5. A different motive of resentment is assigned by others.*
Yajñyawalcya, overwhelmed with sorrow, had recourse to the sun; and, through the favor of that luminary, obtained a new revelation of the Yajush; which is called "white" or pure, in contradistinction to the other, and is likewise named Vájasanéyi, from a patronymick, as it should seem, of Yajñyawalcya himself: for the Veda declares, "these pure texts, revealed by the sun, are published by Yajñyawalcya the offspring of Va'jasani." But, according to the Viséhu puráha (3. 5. ad finem), the priests, who studied the Yajush, are called Vájins, because the sun, who revealed it, assumed the form of a Horse (Vájin).

I have cited this absurd legend; because it is referred to by the commentators on the white Yajush. But I have yet found no allusion to it in the Veda itself, nor in the explanatory table of contents. On the contrary, the index of the black Yajush, gives a different and more rational account. Vais'ampayana, according to this authority †, taught the Yajurveda to Va'sca, who instructed Tittiri ‡: from him Uc'ha received it, and communicated it to A'tre'ya: who framed the Sácháé, which is named after him; and for which that Index is arranged.

The white Yajush was taught by Yajñyawalcya to fifteen pupils, who founded as many schools. The most remarkable of which are the Sáchás of Canwa and Madhyandina; and, next to them, those of the Jábálas, Baud háyanas, and Tápaníyas. The other branches of the

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* Vrijad Aranyasa ad calcem. The passage is cited by the commentator on the Rígveda. In the index likewise, Yajñyawalcya is stated to have received the revelation from the sun.
† Cand'áncarana. verse 25. This index indicatorius is formed for the Atréyi Sácháé. Its author is Cundina, if the text (verse 27) be rightly interpreted.
‡ This agrees with the etymology of the word Tittiriya; for, according to grammarians (see Pámini 4, iii. 102), the derivative here implied is recited by Tittiri, though composed by a different person. A similar explanation is given by commentators on the Upanishads.
Yajurved seem to have been arranged in several clasps. Thus the \textit{Characas}, or students of a \textit{S\'ac\'b\'a}, so denominated from the teacher of it, \textit{Characa}, are stated as including ten subdivisions; among which are the \textit{C\'al\'bas}, or disciples of \textit{C\'a\'\'ha}, a pupil of \textit{Vais\'ampa\'yan\'a}; as also the \textit{Swet\'abwataras}, \textit{Aupamanyavas}, and \textit{Ma\'tr\'ayaniyas}: the last mentioned comprehend seven others. In like manner, the \textit{Taittiriyacas} are, in the first instance, subdivided into two, the \textit{Auc\'h\'y\'yas} and \textit{Ch\'and\'ic\'eyas}; and these last are again subdivided into five, the \textit{A\'p\'astamb\'iyas}, &c. Among them, \textit{A\'p\'astamba's \'ac\'b\'a} is still subsisting; and so is \textit{A\'tr\'e\'ya's}, among those which branched from \textit{Uc\'ha}: but the rest, or most of them, are become rare, if not altogether obsolete.

\textit{Sumantu}, son of \textit{Jaimini}, studied the \textit{S\'amav\'eda}, or \textit{Ch\'\'\'and\'og\'ya}, under his father: and his own son, \textit{Sucarman}, studied under the same teacher, but founded a different school; which was the origin of two others, derived from his pupils, \textit{Hira\'n\'ya\'na\'b\'ha} and \textit{Paushyinji}, and thence branching into a thousand more. For \textit{L\'o\'ca\'c\'shi}, \textit{Cuthumi}, and other disciples of \textit{Paushyinji}, gave their names to separate schools, which were increased by their pupils. The \textit{S\'ac\'b\'a} entitled \textit{Cau\'t\'humi}, still subsists. \textit{Hira\'n\'ya\'na\'b\'ha}, the other pupil of \textit{Sucarman}, had fifteen disciples, authors of \textit{San\'hit\'as}, collectively called the northern \textit{S\'amag\'as}; and fifteen others, entitled the southern \textit{S\'amag\'as}: and \textit{Cr\'iti}, one of his pupils, had twenty-four disciples, by whom, and by their followers, the other schools were founded. Most of them are now lost; and, according to a legend, were destroyed by the thunderbolt of \textit{Indra}. The principal \textit{S\'ac\'b\'a} now subsisting, is that of the \textit{R\'aha\'yan\'iyan\'as} including seven subdivisions; one of which is entitled \textit{Cau\'t\'humi}, as abovementioned, and comprehends six distinct schools. That of the \textit{Talavac\'aras} likewise is extant, at least, in part: as will be shown in speaking of the \textit{Upan\'ish\'ads}.
The *Atharva Veda* was taught by Sumantu, to his pupil Capan- 
dha, who divided it between Devadarsa and Pat'hya. The first 
of these has given name to the *Sa'c'ba*, entitled Devadarsi; as Pippa- 
la'da, the last of his four disciples, has, to the *Sa'c'ba* of the Paippaladi. 
Another branch of the *Atharvana* derives its appellation from Saunaca, 
the third of Pat'hya's pupils. The rest are of less note.

Such is the brief history of the *Veda*, deducible from the authorities 
before cited. But those numerous *Sa'c'bas* did not differ so widely from 
each other, as might be inferred from the mention of an equal number of 
Sanbitas, or distinct collections of texts. In general, the various schools 
of the same *Veda* seem to have used the same assemblage of prayers: they 
differed more in their copies of the precepts or *Brâhmañas*; and some 
received, into their canon of scripture, portions which do not appear to 
have been acknowledged by others. Yet the chief difference seems always 
to have been the use of particular rituals taught in aphorisms (*Sūtras*) 
adopted by each school; and these do not constitute a portion of the 
*Veda*; but, like grammar, and astronomy, are placed among its appen-
dages.

It may be here proper to remark, that each *Veda* consists of two parts, 
denominated the *Mantras* and the *Brâhmañas*; or prayers and precepts. 
The complete collection of the hymns, prayers and invocations, belonging 
to one *Veda*, is entitled its Sanbita. Every other portion of Indian scrip-
ture is included under the general head of divinity (*Brâhmañas*). This 
comprises precepts, which inculcate religious duties; maxims, which 
explain those precepts; and arguments, which relate to theology *. But, 
in the present arrangement of the *Vedas*, the portion, which contains pa-

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* The explanation, here given, is taken from the *Praj'bâna bhāsa.*
sages called Brāhmaṇas, includes many which are strictly prayers or Mantras. The theology of the Indian scripture, comprehending the argumentative portion entitled Vēdānta, is contained in tracts denominated Upaniṣads; some of which are portions of the Brāhmaṇa properly so called; others are found only in a detached form; and one is a part of a Sanhitā itself.

ON THE RĪGVEDA.

The Sanhitā of the first Vēda* contains mantras or prayers, which, for the most part, are encomiastic; as the name of the Rīgveda implies†. This collection is divided into eight parts (C'barāda); each of which is subdivided into as many lectures (ad'hyāya). Another mode of division also runs through the volume; distinguishing ten books (mārkālala), which are subdivided into more than a hundred chapters (anuvāca), and comprise a thousand hymns or invocations (śīla). A further subdivision of more than two thousand sections (barga) is common to both methods; and the whole contains above ten thousand verses, or rather stanzas, of various measures.

On examining this voluminous compilation, a systematic arrangement

* I have several copies of it, with the corresponding index for the Sād'ēya Sād'ēhā; and also an excellent commentary by Sayan'achār'ya. In another collection of mantras belonging to the Aṭ'vālāyant Sād'ēhā of this Vēda, I find the first few sections of each lecture agree with the other copies; but the rest of the sections are omitted. I question whether it be intended as a complete copy for that Sād'ēhā.
† Derived from the verb rīk' to laud; and properly signifying any prayer or hymn, in which a deity is praised. As those are mostly in verse, the term becomes also applicable to such passages of any Vēda, as are reducible to measure according to the rules of prosody. The first Vēda, in Vya'sa's compilation, comprehending most of these texts, is called the Rīgveda; or, as expressed in the Commentary on the Index, because it abounds with such texts (Rīk'ēh).
is readily perceived. Successive chapters, and even entire books, comprise hymns of a single author: invocations, too, addressed to the same deities, hymns relating to like subjects, and prayers intended for similar occasions, are frequently classified together. This requires explanation.

In a regular perusal of the Veda, which is enjoined to all priests, and which is much practised by Mahrattas and Telingas, the student or reader is required to notice, especially, the author, subject, metre, and purpose of each mantra or invocation. To understand the meaning of the passage is thought less important. The instigators of the Hindu system have indeed recommended the study of the sense; but they have inculcated with equal strenuousness, and more success, attention to the name of the Rishi or person, by whom the text was first uttered, the deity to whom it is addressed, or the subject to which it relates, and also its rhythm or metre, and its purpose, or the religious ceremony at which it should be used. The practice of modern priests is conformable with these maxims. Like the Koran among the Mohammedans, the Veda is put into the hands of children in the first period of their education; and continues afterwards to be read by rote, for the sake of the words without comprehension of the sense.

Accordingly the Veda is recited in various superstitious modes: word by word, either simply disjoining them, or else repeating the words alternately, backwards and forwards, once or oftener. Copies of the Rigveda and Yajush (for the Samaveda is chanted only) are prepared for these and other modes of recital, and are called Pada, Crama, Jala, Ghana, &c. But the various ways of inverting the text are restricted, as it should appear, to the principal Vedas; that is, to the original editions of the Rigveda and.
Yajush: while the subsequent editions, in which the text, or the arrangement of it, is varied, being therefore deemed subordinate Śāc'hās, should be repeated only in a simple manner.

It seems here necessary to justify my interpretation of what is called the "Rṣhī of a mantra." The last term has been thought to signify an incantation rather than a prayer: and, so far as supernatural efficacy is ascribed to the mere recital of the words of a mantra, that interpretation is sufficiently accurate; and, as such, it is undoubtedly applicable to the meaningless incantations of the Mantra-śastra, or Tantras and Agamas. But the origin of the term is certainly different. Its derivation from a verb, which signifies "to speak privately," is readily explained by the injunction for meditating the text of the Veda, or reciting it inaudibly: and the import of any mantra in the Indian scriptures, is generally found to be a prayer, containing either a petition to a deity, or else thanksgiving, praise and adoration.

The Rṣhī or saint of a mantra is defined, both in the index of the Rgveda, and by commentators, "he, by whom it is spoken:" as the Dévatā, or deity, is, "that, which is therein mentioned." In the index to the Vajasaneyi Yajurveda, the Rṣhī is interpreted "the seer or rememberer" of the text; and the Dévatā is said to be "contained in the prayer; or [named] at the commencement of it; or [indicated as] the deity, who shares the oblation, or the praise." Conformably with these definitions, the deity, that is lauded or supplicated in the prayer, is its Dévatā: but in a few passages, which contain neither petition nor adoration, the subject is considered as the deity, that is spoken of. For example, the praise of generosity is the Dévatā of many entire hymns addressed to princes, from whom gifts were received by the authors.
THE Rishi, or speaker, is of course rarely mentioned in the mantra itself; but, in some instances, he does name himself. A few passages too, among the mantras of the Veda, are in the form of dialogue; and, in such cases, the discoursers are alternately considered as Rishi and Devasa. In general, the person, to whom the passage was revealed, or, according to another gloss, by whom its use and application was first discovered*, is called the Rishi of that mantra. He is evidently then the author of the prayer; notwithstanding the assertions of the Hindus, with whom it is an article of their creed, that the Vedas were composed by no human author. It must be understood, therefore, that, in affirming the primeval existence of their scriptures, they deny these works to be the original composition of the editor (Vya'sa), but believe them to have been gradually revealed to inspired writers.

The names of the respective authors of each passage are preserved in the Anumeramah, or explanatory table of contents, which has been handed down with the Veda itself, and of which the authority is unquestioned†. According to this index, Viswa'mitra is author of all the hymns contained in the third book of the Rigveda; as Bharadwa'ja is, with rare exceptions, the composer of those collected in the sixth book; Vasisht'ha, in the seventh; Gri'tsamada, in the second; Vanmade'va in the fourth; and Bud'ha‡ and other descendants of Atri, in the fifth. But,

* Translating literally, "the Rishi is he, by whom the text was seen." Pa'nini (1. ii. 7) employs the same term in explaining the import of derivatives used as denominations of passages in scripture; and his commentators concur with those of the Veda, in the explanation here given. By Rishi is generally meant the supposed inspired writer; sometimes, however, the imagined inspirer is called the Rishi, or saint, of the text; and, at other times, as above noticed, the dialogist or speaker of the sentence.

† It appears from a passage in the Vijaya vilasa, as also from the Vedapada, or abridged commentary on the Vajjusa'ly, as well as from the index itself, that C'atta'yana is the acknowledged author of the index to the white Yajur. That of the Rigveda is ascribed by the commentator, to the same C'atta'yana, pupil of Sannaca. The several indexes of the Veda contribute to the preservation of the genuine text; especially, where the metre, or the number of syllables, is stated; as is generally the case.

‡ First of the name, and progenitor of the race of Kings called children of moon.
in the remaining books of this Veda, the authors are more various: among these, besides Agastya, Casvapa son of Marichi, Angiras, Jamadagni son of Bhrigu, Para'sara father of Vyasa, Gautama and his son Nod'has, Vrihaspati, Na'reda and other celebrated Indian saints, the most conspicuous are Can'wa and his numerous descendants, Med'ha'ti'thi &c; Mad'huch'hanbas and others among the posterity of Viswa'mitra; Sunas'ep'ha son of Ajigarta; Cutsa, Hirany'astuya, Savya and other descendants of Angiras; besides many other saints, among the posterity of personages abovementioned.

It is worthy of remark, that several persons of royal birth (for instance, five sons of the king Vrihanga'r; and Trayyaruna and Trasadas'yu, who were themselves kings;) are mentioned among the authors of the hymns, which constitute this Veda: and the text itself, in some places, actually points, and in others obviously alludes, to monarchs, whose names are familiar in the Indian heroic history. As this fact may contribute to fix the age, in which the Veda was composed, I shall here notice such passages of this tendency, as have yet fallen under my observation.

The sixth hymn of the eighteenth chapter of the first book, is spoken by an aforesaid named Caschi'vat, in praise of the munificence of Swana'ya, who had conferred immense gifts on him. The subject is continued in the seventh hymn, and concludes with a very strange dialogue between the king Bhavayavya and his wife Ro'masa', daughter of Vrihaspati. It should be remarked concerning Caschi'vat, that his mother Us'ic was bondmaid of king Anga's queen.

The eighth book opens with an invocation, which alludes to a singular
legend. 'Asanga, son of Playo'ga, and his successor on the throne, was metamorphosed into a woman; but retrieved his sex through the prayers of Me'dhyatithi, whom he therefore rewarded most liberally. In this hymn he is introduced praising his own munificence; and, towards the close of it, his wife 'Sas'wati', daughter of Angiras, exults in his restoration to manhood.

The next hymns applaud the liberality of the kings Vibhinda, Pa-cast'haman (son of Curaya'na), Curunga, Cas'u (son of Che'di'), and Tirindira (son of Paras'u), who had severally bestowed splendid gifts on the respective authors of these thanksgivings. In the third chapter of the same book, the seventh hymn commends the generosity of Tra-sada'syu, the grandson of Ma'nd'ha'tri'. The fourth chapter opens with an invocation containing praises of the liberality of Chitra; and the fourth hymn of the same chapter celebrates Varu, son of Susha'man.

In the first chapter of the tenth book, there is a hymn to water, spoken by a king named Sind'hu-dwipa, the son of Ambarisha. The seventh chapter contains several passages, from the fifteenth to the eighteenth stūdha, which allude to a remarkable legend. Asama'ti, son or descendant of 'Icsha'cu', had deserted his former priests, and employed others: the forsaken Brāhmaṇas recited incantations for his destruction; his new priests, however, not only counteracted their evil designs, but retaliated on them, and caused the death of one of those Brāhmaṇas: the rest recited these prayers, for their own preservation, and for the revival of their companion.

The eighth chapter opens with a hymn, which alludes to a story respecting Na'ba'ne'dishta', son of Menu, who was excluded from participation with his brethren in the paternal inheritance. The legend
itself is told in the *Aitaréya Bráhma*ṣṭa*, or second portion of the *Rigveda*.

Among other hymns by royal authors, in the subsequent chapters of the tenth book of the *Sanhitā*, I remark one by *Maṇḍhātrī* son of *Yuvanaśwa*, and another by *Śyī* son of *Uśyāra*, a third by *Vasumanas* son of *Rośidaswa*, and a fourth by *Pratardana* son of *Divódāsa* king of Cāsi.

The deities invoked appear, on a cursory inspection of the *Veda*, to be as various as the authors of the prayers addressed to them: but, according to the most ancient annotations on the *Indian* scripture, those numerous names of persons and things are all resolvable into different titles of three deities, and ultimately of one god. The *Nighantu*, or glossary of the *Vedas*, concludes with three lists of names of deities: the first comprising such as are deemed synonymous with fire; the second, with air; and the third, with the sun †. In the last part of the *Niruśā*, which entirely relates to deities, it is twice asserted, that there are but three gods; ‘*Tisra eva dévatāḥ* ††.’ The further inference, that these intend but one deity, is supported by many passages in the *Veda*; and is very clearly and concisely stated in the beginning of the index to the *Rigveda*, on the authority of the *Niruśā*, and of the *Veda* itself.

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* In the second lecture and fourteenth section of the fifth book.
† *Nighantu*, or first part of the *Niruśa*, C. 3.
†† In the second and third sections of the twelfth chapter, or lecture, of the glossary and illustrations of the *Veda*. The *Niruśa* consists of three parts: the first, a glossary as abovementioned, comprises five short chapters or lectures. The second, entitled *Naigama*, or the first half of the *Niruśa* properly so called, consists of six long chapters; and the third entitled *Daivata*, or second half of the proper *Niruśa*, contains eight more. The chapter, here cited, is marked as the twelfth including the glossary, or seventh exclusive of it.

B b b
Yasya vācyam, sa rūhir; ya te ochyaté, sá dévatá; yad ácchara-pa-
rimánám, tach ch’handó. Art’hépíva ríhâyó dévatás ch’handóbhir ab-
hyad’hávan.

Tisra eva dévatáb; c fête-yantaricsha-dyu-fl’náná, agnír váyuh súrya ity at
évam vyáhrítayah próctá vyatáh; samaśáoám praýápatir. O’ńcára sar-
vadévatayah, páramésft’hýo va, bráhmó, daívó va, ád’hyátmicás. Tat
tat fl’náná anyás tad vibhútayah; carma próh’hrctwád, d’hi próhag ab-
hid’ñána slutayó bhavanty: ec’aiwa vá mahán átmá dévatá; sa súrya ity 
áchaccháte; sa hi sárva-bhút’ átmá. Tad uctam ríhíná: "súrya átmá 
jagatas rás’bhúsa ch’éti.” Tad vibhútayó’ nyá dévatás. Tad apy étad 
ríshin’ uctam: “Indram Mitram Varuṁham Agnim ábur itī,”

The Rishbi [of any particular passage] is he, whose speech it is; and 
that, which is thereby addressed, is the deity [of the text]; and the num-
ber of syllables constitutes the metre [of the prayer]. Sages [Rishir], 
solicitous of [attaining] particular objects, have approached the Gods, 
with [prayers composed in] metre.

The deities are only three; whose places are the earth, the inter-
mediate region, and heaven: [namely] fire, air, and the sun. They 
are pronounced to be [the deities] of the mysterious names* severally; 
and [Praja’páti] the lord of creatures is [the deity] of the n collect-
tively. The syllable Om intends every deity: it belongs to (Paraméshth’bi’) 
him, who dwells in the supreme abode; it appertains to (Bráhme) the 
vaś one; to (Déva) God; to (Ad’hyátma) the superintending soul.

*Bhar, bhváah, and suwar; called the Vyábrítí. See Maṇu, c. 2. v. 76. In the original text, the 
nominative case is here used for the genitive; as is remarked by the Commentators, on this passage. Such 
irregularities are frequent in the Védas themselves.
Other deities, belonging to those several regions, are portions of the [three] Gods; for they are variously named and described, on account of their different operations: but [in fact] there is only one deity, the great soul (Maha-atma). He is called the sun; for he is the soul of all beings; [and] that is declared by the sage, "the soul of (jagat) "what moves, and of (ta[=i]bhu) that which is fixed." Other deities are portions of him; and that is expressly declared by the sage: "The "wife call fire, Indra, Mitra and Varuna;" &c.*

This passage of the Anucramaṇi is partly abridged from the Niruṭa (c. 12); and partly taken from the Brāhmaṇa of the Veda. It shows (what is also deducible from texts of the Indian scriptures, translated in the present and former essays), that the ancient Hindu religion, as founded on the Indian scriptures, recognises but one God; yet not sufficiently discriminating the creature from the creator.

The subjects and uses of the prayers contained in the Veda, differ more than the deities which are invoked, or the titles by which they are addressed. Every line is replete with allusions to mythology †, and to the Indian notions of the divine nature and of celestial spirits. For the innumerable ceremonies to be performed by a householder, and, still more,

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* Niruta c. 12, § 4, ad finem. The remainder of the passage, that is here briefly cited by the author of the Index, identifies fire with the great and only soul.

† Not a mythology which avowedly exalts deified heroes (as in the Puranas); but one, which personifies the elements and planets; and which peoples heaven, and the world below, with various orders of beings.

I observe, however, in many places, the ground-work of legends, which are familiar in mythological poems; such, for example, as the demon Vritra slain by Indra, who is thence surnamed Vritrahaṇ; but I do not remark any thing that corresponds with the favourite legends of those sects, which worship either the Linga, or Sadi, or cife Raṇa or Cṛiṣh'na. I except some detached portions, the genuineness of which appears doubtful; as will be shown towards the close of this essay.

BBB 2
for those endless rites enjoined to hermits and ascetics, a choice of prayers is offered in every stage of the celebration. It may be here sufficient to observe, that INDRA or the firmament, fire, the sun, the moon, water, air, the spirits, the atmosphere and the earth, are the objects most frequently addressed; and the various and repeated sacrifices with fire, and the drinking of the milky juice of the moonplant or acid asclepias*, furnish abundant occasion for numerous prayers adapted to the many stages of those religious rites. I shall, therefore, select for remark such prayers, as seem most singular; rather than such, as might appear the fairest specimens of this Veda.

In the fifteenth chapter of the first book, there are two hymns ascribed to CUTSA, and also to TRITA son of water. Three ascetics, brothers, it should seem, since they are named in another portion of the Veda as (Aptya) sons of water (Ap), were oppressed with thirst while travelling in a sandy desert. At length, they found a well; and one of them descended into it, and thence lifted water for his companions: but the ungrateful brothers stole his effects, and left him in the well, covering it with a heavy cart-wheel. In his distress he pronounced the hymns in question. It appears from the text, that CUTSA also was once in similar distress; and pronounced the same or a similar invocation: and, for this reason, the hymns have been placed by the compiler of the Veda, among those, of which CUTSA is the author.

The twenty-third chapter of the same book commences with a dialogue between AGASTYA, INDRA and the MARUTS; and the remainder of that, with the whole of the twenty-fourth chapter, comprises twenty-six hymns addressed by AGASTYA to those divinities, and to the Aświns, fire, the sun,

* Sīna-latā, Asclepias acida, or Cynanchum viminal.
and some other deities. The last of these hymns was uttered by Agastya under the apprehension of poison; and is directed by rituals to be used as an incantation against the effects of venom. Other incantations, applicable to the same purpose, occur in various parts of the *Veda*; for example, a prayer by Vasishtha for preservation from poison (book 7, ch. 3, §. 18).

The third book, distributed into five chapters, contains invocations by Viswamitra, son of Gathin, and grandson of Cusica. The last hymn or Sūta, in this book, consists of six prayers, one of which includes the celebrated Gāyatrī: this remarkable text is repeated, more than once, in other Vedas; but, since Viswamitra is acknowledged to be the Rishi, to whom it was first revealed, it appears, that its proper and original place is in this hymn. I therefore subjoin a translation of the prayer, which contains it, as also the preceding one, (both of which are addressed to the sun;) for the sake of exhibiting the Indian priest’s confession of faith with its context; after having, in former essays, given more than one version of it apart from the rest of the text. The other prayers, contained in the same Sūta, being addressed to other deities, are here omitted.

*This new and excellent praise of thee, O splendid, playful, sun (Puṣhan)! is offered by us to thee. Be gratified by this my speech: approach this craving mind, as a fond man seeks a woman. May that sun (Puṣhan), who contemplates, and looks into, all worlds, be our protector.*

*Let us meditate on the adorable light of the divine ruler (Savitri): may it guide our intellects. Desirous of*

*Sāyanāchārya, the commentator whose gloss is here followed, considers this passage to admit of two interpretations: *the light, or Brahma constituting the splendour, of* the supreme ruler, or creator of the universe; or *the light, or orb, of the splendid sun.*
food, we solicit the gift of the splendid sun (Sāvitrī), who should be studiously worshipped. Venerable men, guided by the understanding, salute the divine sun (Sāvitrī) with oblations and praise.

The two last hymns, in the third chapter of the 7th book, are remarkable; as being addressed to the guardian spirit of a dwelling house, and used as prayers, to be recited with oblations, on building a house. The legend, belonging to the second of these hymns, is singular: Vasishṭha, coming at night to the house of Varuna, (with the intention of sleeping there, lay some; but, as others affirm, with the design of stealing grain to appease his hunger after a fast of three days; ) was assailed by the house dog. He uttered this prayer, or incantation, to lay asleep the dog who was barking at, and attempting to bite, him. A literal version of the first of those hymns is here subjoined.

Guardian of this abode! be acquainted with us; be to us a wholesome dwelling; afford us what we ask of thee; and grant happiness to our bipeds and quadrupeds. Guardian of this house! increase both us and our wealth. Moon! while thou art friendly, may we, with our kin and our horses, be exempted from decrepitude: guard us, as a father protects his offspring. Guardian of this dwelling! may we be united with a happy, delightful and melodious abode afforded by thee: guard our wealth now under thy protection, or yet in expectancy: and do thou defend us.

The fourth hymn, in the fourth chapter, concludes with a prayer to Rudra, which, being used with oblations after a fast of three days, is supposed to ensure a happy life of a hundred years. In the sixth book, three hymns occur, which, being recited with worship to the sun, are believed to occasion a fall of rain after the lapse of five days: the two first are
aptly addressed to a cloud; and the third is so, to frogs, because these had croaked, while Vāsiśṭha recited the preceding prayers, which circumstance he accepted as a good omen.

The sixth chapter of the tenth book closes with two hymns, the prayer of which is the destruction of enemies, and which are used at sacrifices for that purpose.

The seventh chapter opens with a hymn, in which Sūrya' surnamed Savitri', the wife of the moon*, is made the speaker; as Daśhīna' daughter of Prajāpāti, and Juhu daughter of Brahma', are, in subsequent chapters†. A very singular passage occurs in another place, containing a dialogue between Yama and his twin-sister Yamuna', whom he endeavours to seduce; but his offers are rejected by her with virtuous expostulation.

Near the close of the tenth chapter, a hymn, in a very different style of composition, is spoken by Vāch, daughter of Ambhrīṇa in praise of herself as the supreme and universal soul‡. Vāch, it should be observed, signifies speech; and she is the active power of Brahma, proceeding from him. The following is a literal version of this hymn, which is expounded by the commentator, consistently with the theological doctrines of the Vēdas.

* This marriage is noticed in the Aitārya Brāhmaṇa, where the second lecture of the fourth book opens in this manner; Prajāpāti gave his daughter, Sūrya' Savitri', to Sūma the king. The well-known legend in the Purāṇa, concerning the marriage of Sūma with the daughters of Daśhīna, seems to be founded on this story in the Vēdas.

† In the introduction to the index, these, together with other gods, who are reckoned authors of holy texts, are enumerated and distinguished by the appellation of Brāhmaṇā. An inspired writer is, in the masculine, termed Brāhmaṇādaṃ.

‡ Towards the end of the Vṛiḍhāraṇyaca, Vāch is mentioned as receiving a revelation from Ambhrīṇa, who obtained it from the sun: but here, she herself bears the almost similar patronymick Ambhrīṇa'.
I range with the Rudras, with the Vafus, with the Adityas, and with the Viswadévás. I uphold both the sun and the ocean [Mitra and Varuṇa], the firmament [Indra] and fire, and both the Aswins. I support the moon [Soma], destroyer [of foes]; and [the sun entitled] Twashtṛ, Pūshan or Bhaga. I grant wealth to the honest votary, who performs sacrifices, offers oblations, and satisfies [the deities]. Me, who am the queen, the conferrer of wealth, the possessor of knowledge, and first of such as merit worship, the gods render, universally, present everywhere, and pervader of all beings. He, who eats food through me, as he, who sees, who breathes, or who hears, through me, yet knows me not, is lost; hear then the faith, which I pronounce. Even I declare this self, who is worshipped by gods and men: I make strong, whom I choose; I make him Brabma, holy, and wife. For Rudra I bend the bow, to slay the demon, foe of Brahma; for the people I make war [on their foes]; and I pervade heaven and earth. I bore the father, on the head of this universal mind; and my origin is in the midst of the ocean: and, therefore, do I pervade all beings, and touch this heaven with my form. Originating all beings, I pass like the breeze; I am above this heaven, beyond this earth; and what is the great one, that am I.

The tenth chapter closes with a hymn to night; and the eleventh begins with two hymns relative to the creation of the world. Another, on this subject, was translated in a former essay: it is the last hymn, but one, in the Rigveda; and the author of it is Ag'hamarshana (a son

* Heaven, or the sky, is the father; as expressly declared in another place: and the sky is produced from mind, according to one more passage of the Veda. Its birth is therefore placed on the head of the supreme mind. The commentator suggets three interpretations of the sequel of the stanza: "my parent, the holy Ambhrita, is in the midst of the ocean; or my origin, the sentient deity, is in waters, which constitute the bodies of the gods; or the sentient god, who is in the midst of the waters, which pervade intellect, is my origin."

of Madhuhandas), from whom it takes the name by which it is
generally cited. The other hymns, of which a version is here subjoined,
are not ascribed to any ascertained author. Prajapati, surnamed Pa-
rameshtbi, and his son Yajña, are said as the original speakers. But,
of these names, one is a title of the primeval spirit; and the other seems
to allude to the allegorical immolation of Brabmá.

I. ‘Then was there no entity, nor nonentity; no world, nor sky, nor
ought above it: nothing, any where, in the happiness of any one, in-
volving or involved: nor water, deep and dangerous. Death was not;
nor then was immortality: nor distinction of day or night. But that* 
breathed without afflation, single with (Swadhitá) her who is sustained
within him. Other than him, nothing existed, [which] since [has been.]
Darkness there was; [for] this universe was enveloped with darkness, and
was undistinguishable [like fluids mixed in] waters: but that mass, which
was covered by the husk, was [at length] produced by the power of con-
templation. First desire was formed in his mind: and that became the or-
ginal productive seed, which the wise, recognizing it by the intellect in
their hearts, distinguish, in nonentity, as the bond of entity.’

* Did the luminous ray of these [creative acts] expand in the middle?
or above? or below? That productive seed, at once, became providence
[or sentient souls], and matter [or the elements]: she, who is sustained
within himself†, was inferior; and he, who heeds, was superior.’

* The pronoun (sat), thus emphatically used, is understood to intend the supreme being according to the
doctrines of the Vedanta. When manifested by creation, he is the entity (jīva); while forms, being mere
illusion, are nonentity (ajñā). The whole of this hymn is expounded according to the received doctrines
of the Indian theology, or Vedanta. Darkness and desire (Tamas and Ėhya) bear a distant resemblance
to the Chaos and Eros of Hesiod. Theog. v. 116.
† So Swadhitá is expounded: and the commentator makes it equivalent to Mayā, or the world of ideas.

C c c
Who knows exactly, and who shall in this world declare, whence and why this creation took place? The gods are subsequent to the production of this world; then who can know whence it proceeded? or whence this varied world arose? or whether it upheld [itself], or not? He, who, in the highest heaven, is the ruler of this universe, does indeed know; but not another can possess that knowledge.

II. 'That victim, who was wove with threads on every side, and stretched by the labors of a hundred and one gods, the fathers, who wove and framed and placed the warp and woof, do worship. The [first] male spreads and encompasses this [web]; and displays it in this world and in heaven: these rays [of the creator] assembled at the altar, and prepared the holy strains, and the threads of the warp.'

What was the size of that divine victim, whom all the gods sacrificed? What was his form? what the motive? the fence? the metre? the oblation? and the prayer? First was produced the Gāyatrī joined with fire; next the sun (Savitṛī) attended by Uṣṇih; then the splendid moon with Anuṣṭūbbh, and with prayers; while Vṛihatī accompanied the elocution of Vṛihaspati (or the planet Jupiter.) Kirāti was supported by the sun and by water (Mitra and Varuna); but the [middle] portion of the day and Trivṣṭūbbh were here the attendants of Indra; Jagati followed all the gods: and, by that [universal] sacrifice, sages and men were formed.

When that ancient sacrifice was completed, sages, and men, and our progenitors, were by him formed. Viewing with an observant mind this oblation, which primeval saints offered, I venerate them. The seven inspired sages, with prayers and with thanksgivings, follow the
path of these primeval saints, and wisely practice [the performance of sacrifices,] as charioteers use reins [to guide their steeds.]

Some parts of these hymns bear an evident resemblance to one, which has been before cited from the white Tāyūsh†, and to which I shall again advert in speaking of that Vēda. The commentator on the Rigveda quotes it to supply some omissions in this text. It appears also, on the faith of his citations, that passages, analogous to these, occur in the Taittirīyāsa or black Tāyūṣ, and also in the Brāhmaṇa of the Vēda.

The hundred and one gods, who are the agents in the framing of the universe, typified by a sacrifice, are, according to this commentator, the years of Brahma's life, or his affections personified in the form of Anāgirās &c. The seven fates, who instituted sacrifices in imitation of the primeval type, are Māriśchī and others. Gāyatri, Uṣhnīṣ &c. are names of metres, or of the various lengths of stanzas and measured verses, in the Vēdas.

The preceding quotations may be sufficient to show the style of this part of the Vēda; which comprehends the prayers and invocations.

Another part belonging, as it appears, to the same Vēda, is entitled Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. It is divided into eight books (panjicā), each containing five chapters or lectures (adhyāya), and subdivided into an unequal number of sections (cānta), amounting in the whole to two hundred and eighty-five. Being partly in prose, the number of distinct passages contained in these multiplied sections need not be indicated.


C c c 2.
For want either of a complete commentary*, or of an explanatory index †, I cannot undertake, from a cursory perusal, to describe the whole contents of this part of the Véda. I observe, however, many curious passages in it, especially towards the close. The seventh book had treated of sacrifices performed by kings: the subject is continued in the first four chapters of the eighth book; and three of these relate to a ceremony for the consecration of kings, by pouring on their heads, while seated on a throne prepared for the purpose, water mixed with honey, clarified butter, and spirituous liquor, as well as two sorts of grass and the sprouts of corn. This ceremony, called Abhiśhēca, is celebrated on the accession of a king; and subsequently, on divers occasions, as part of the rites belonging to certain solemn sacrifices performed for the attainment of particular objects.

The mode of its celebration is the subject of the second chapter of the eighth book; or thirty-seventh chapter, reckoned (as is done by the commentator) from the beginning of the Aitareya. It contains an instance, which is not singular in the Vedas, though it be rather uncommon in their didactic portion, of a disquisition on a difference of opinion among inspired authors. “Some,” it says, “direct the consecration to be completed with the appropriate prayer, but without the sacred words (Vyākritis), which they here deem superfluous: others, and particularly Satyacāma son of Jāba'la, enjoin the complete recitation of these words, for reasons explained at full length; and Uddālaka, son of Aruṇā, has therefore so ordained the performance of the ceremony.”

* I possess three entire copies of the text, but a part only of the commentary by Sa'yan'a'cha'rīya.
† The index, before mentioned, does not extend to this part of the Veda.
The subject of this chapter is concluded by the following remarkable passage. "Well knowing all the [efficacy of consecration], Janamejaya, son of Parichsit, declared; "Priests, conversant with this ceremony, assist me, who am likewise apprized [of its benefits], to celebrate the solemn rite. Therefore, do I conquer [in single combat]; therefore, do I defeat arrayed forces with an arrayed army: neither the arrows of the gods, nor those of men, reach me: I shall live the full period of life; I shall remain master of the whole earth." Truly neither the arrows of the gods, nor those of men, do reach him, whom well instructed priests assist in celebrating the solemn rite: he lives the full period of life; he remains master of the whole earth.'

The thirty-eighth chapter (or 3d of the 8th book) describes a supposed consecration of Indra, when elected by the gods to be their king. It consists of similar, but more solemn, rites; including, among other peculiarities, a fanciful construction of his throne with texts of the Veda; besides a repetition of the ceremony of consecration in various regions, to ensure universal dominion. This last part of the description merits to be quoted, on account of the geographical hints, which it contains.

"After [his inauguration by Prajaapatि], the divine Vairus consecrated him in the eastern region, with the same prayers in verse and in prose, and with the same holy words, [as before mentioned,] in thirty-one days, to ensure his just domination. Therefore, [even now,] the several kings of the Prácbyas, in the East, are consecrated, after the practice of the gods, to equitable rule (Saṁrāya); and [people] call those consecrated princes, Samrāj.'*

* In the nominative case, Samrāj, Samráát or Samráäl; substituting in this place a liquid letter, which is peculiar to the Veda, and to the southern dialects of India; and which approaches, in sound, to the common I.
Next the divine Rudras consecrated him in the southern region, with the same prayers in verse and in prose, and with the same holy words, in thirty-one days, to ensure increase of happiness. Therefore, the several kings of the Satwats, in the south, are consecrated, after the practice of the gods, to the increase of enjoyment (Bhójya); and [people] name those consecrated princes, Bhója.

Then the divine Adityas consecrated him in the western region, with &c., to ensure sole dominion. Therefore, the several kings of the Nīchyas and Apāchyas, in the West, are consecrated &c. to sole dominion; and [people] denominate them Swarāj. *

Afterwards all the gods (Viśve déva) consecrated him in the northern region, with &c., to ensure separate domination. Therefore, the several [deities, who govern the] countries of Uttarā curu and Uttarā madra beyond Himavat, in the North, are consecrated &c. to distinct rule (Vairójya), and [people] term them Viraj. †

Next the divine Sādhyas and Aptyas consecrated him, in this middle, central and present region, with &c., for local dominion. Therefore, the several kings of Curu and Panchāla, as well as Vaśa and Uśinara, in the middle, central and present region, are consecrated &c. to sovereignty (Rajya); and [people] entitle them Rájá.

Lastly the Maruts, and the gods named Angiras, consecrated him, in the upper region, with &c., to promote his attainment of the supreme
abode, and to ensure his mighty domination, superior rule, independent power, and long reign: and, therefore, he became a supreme deity (Parameśṭhi) and ruler over creatures.

"Thus consecrated by that great inauguration, Indra subdued all conquerable [earths], and won all worlds: he obtained, over all the gods, supremacy, transcendent rank and pre-eminence. Conquering, in this world [below], equitable domination, happiness, sole dominion, separate authority, attainment of the supreme abode, sovereignty, mighty power and superior rule; becoming a self-existent being and independent ruler, exempt from [early] dissolution; and reaching all [his] wishes in that celestial world; he became immortal: he became immortal." *

The thirty-ninth chapter is relative to a peculiarly solemn rite, performed in imitation of the fabulous inauguration of Indra. It is imagined that this celebration becomes a cause of obtaining great power and universal monarchy; and the three last sections of the chapter recite instances of its successful practice. Though replete with enormous and absurd exaggerations, they are here translated at full length, as not unimportant, since many kings are mentioned, whose names are familiar in the heroic history of India.

§. vii. By this great inauguration similar to Indra's, Tura, son of Cavasha, consecrated Janamejaya son of Parichsit; and, therefore, did Janamejaya, son of Parichsit, subdue the earth completely.

* In the didactic portion of the Veda, the last term, in every chapter, is repeated to indicate its conclusion. This repetition was not preserved in a former quotation, from the necessity of varying considerably the order of the words,
all around, and traverse it every way, and perform a sacrifice with a horse as an offering.

"Concerning that solemn sacrifice, this verse is universally chanted. "In Asandivat, Janamejaya bound [as an offering] to the gods, a horse fed with grain, marked with a white star on his forehead, and bearing a green wreath round his neck."

"By this &c. Chyavana, son of Bhrigu, consecrated Sāryāta sprung from the race of Menula; and, therefore, did he subdue &c. He became likewise a householder in the service of the gods.

"By this, &c. Somaśushman, grandson of Vajaratna, consecrated Sataˈnica son of Satrajit; and, therefore, did he subdue &c.

"By this &c. Parvata and Nareda consecrated Aṃbaˈṣṭhyā; and, therefore, &c.

"By this &c. Parvata and Nāreda consecrated Yudˈhaˈnsˈraustriaˈti grandson of Ugrasena; and, therefore, &c.

"By this &c. Casˈyapa consecrated Visˈwacarman son of Bhuvana; and, therefore, did he subdue &c.

"The earth, as sages relate, thus addressed him: "No mortal has a right to give me away; yet thou, O Visˈwacarman son of Bhuvana, dost wish to do so. I will sink in the midst of the waters; and vain has been thy promise to Casˈyapa."

* So great was the efficacy of consecration, observes the commentator in this place, that the submersion of the earth was thereby prevented, notwithstanding this declaration.
By this &c. Vasishtha consecrated Sudas the son of Pijavana; and, therefore, &c.

By this &c. Samvartha, son of Angiras, consecrated Marutta the son of Avichshita; and, therefore, &c.

On that subject this verse is everywhere chanted, "The divine Maruts dwelt in the house of Marutta, as his guards; and all the gods were companions of the son of Avichshita, whose every wish was fulfilled."

§ VIII. "By this great inauguration similar to Indra's, Udamaya, son of Atri, consecrated Anga: and, therefore, did Anga subdue the earth completely all around, and traverse it every way, and perform a sacrifice with a horse as an offering.

"He, perfect in his person, thus addressed [the priest, who was busy on some sacrifice] "Invite me to this solemn rite, and I will give thee [to complete it], holy man! ten thousand elephants and ten thousand female slaves."

"On that subject these verses are everywhere chanted "Of the cows, for which the sons of Priyamedha asisted Udamaya in the solemn rite, this son of Atri gave them, [every day] at noon, two thousand each, out of a thousand millions.

"The son of Virochana [Anga] unbound and gave, while his priest performed the solemn sacrifice, eighty thousand white horses fit for use.

* All this, observes the commentator, was owing to his solemn inauguration.
The son of Atri bestowed in gifts ten thousand women adorned with necklaces, all daughters of opulent persons, and brought from various countries.

While distributing ten thousand elephants in Avachatruca, the holy son of Atri grew tired and dispatched messengers to finish the distribution.

"A hundred [I give] to you;" "A hundred to you;" still the holy man grew tired; and was at last forced to draw breath, while bestowing them by thousands.*

§ IX. "By this great inauguration, similar to Indra's, Dīrghatama, son of Mamata, consecrated Bharata the son of Duhshanta; and, therefore, did Bharata, son of Duhshanta, subdue the earth completely all around, and traverse it every way, and perform repeated sacrifices with horses as offerings.

On that subject too, these verses are everywhere chanted. "Bharata distributed in Maśyāra a hundred and seven thousand millions of black elephants with white tusks and decked with gold.

"A sacred fire was lighted for Bharata son of Duhshanta, in

* It was through the solemn inauguration of Anga, that his priest was able to give such great alms. This remark is by the Commentator.

† So the name should be written, as appears from this passage of the Veda; and not, as in copies of some of the Pavamana, Dushyanta or Dushyanta.

‡ The several manuscripts differ on this name of a country; and, having no other information respecting it, I am not confident that I have selected the best reading. This observation is applicable also to some other uncommon names.
Sāchīgūṭha, at which a thousand Brāhmaṇas shared a thousand millions of cows apiece.

"Bharata, son of Duḥshanta, bound seventy-eight horses [for solemn rites] near the Yamunā; and fifty-five, in Vṛtragūṇa on the Gangā.

"Having thus bound a hundred and thirty-three horses fit for sacred rites, the son of Duḥshanta became preeminently wise, and surpassed the prudence of [every rival] king.

"This great achievement of Bharata, neither former nor later persons [have equalled]; the five classes of men have not attained his feats, any more than a mortal [can reach] heaven with his hands."

"The holy saint, Vṛihaduṣṭha, taught this great inauguration to Durmuṣṭha king of Panchāla; and, therefore, Durmuṣṭha, the Panchāla, being a king, subdued by means of that knowledge the whole earth around, and traversed it every way.

"The son of Satyahāvya, sprung from the race of Vasīṣṭha, communicated this great inauguration to Atyāraṭi son of Janantapa; and therefore, Atyāraṭi son of Janantapa, being no king, [nevertheless] subdued by means of that knowledge the whole earth around, and traversed it every way.

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* All this, says the commentator, shows the efficacy of inauguration.
† It is here remarked in the commentary, that a Brāhmaṇa, being incompetent to receive consecration, is however capable of knowing its form: the efficacy of which knowledge is shown in this place.
Satyahavya, of the race of Vasisht'ha, addressed him, saying, "Thou hast conquered the whole earth around; [now] aggrandize me." Atyara'ti, son of Jananta'pa, replied; "When I conquer Uttara'Curu, then thou shalt be king of the earth, holy man! and I will be merely thy general." Satyahavya rejoined; "That is the land of the gods; no mortal can subdue it: thou hast been ungrateful towards me; and, therefore, I refuse from thee this [power]." Hence the king Sushmín'a son of Sāvi, destroyer of foes, slew Atyara'ti who was [thus] divested of vigour and deprived of strength.

Therefore let not a soldier be ungrateful towards the priest, who is acquainted [with the form,] and practises [the celebration, of this ceremony]; lest he lose his kingdom, and forfeit his life: lest he forfeit his life.

To elucidate this last story, it is necessary to observe, that, before the commencement of the ceremony of inauguration, the priest swears the soldier by a most solemn oath, not to injure him. A similar oath, as is observed in this place by the commentator, had been administered previously to the communication of that knowledge, to which Atyarāte owed his success. The priest considered his answer as illusory and insulting, because Uttara'Curu, being north of Meru, is the land of the gods, and cannot be conquered by men: as this ungrateful answer was a breach of his oath, the priest withdrew his power from him; and, in consequence, he was slain by the foe.

The fortieth and last chapter of the Aitarēya Brāhmaṇa relates to the benefit of entertaining a Purōbīta, or appointed priest; the selection of a proper person for that station; and the mode of his appointment by the
king; together with the functions to be discharged by him. The last section describes rites to be performed, under the directions of such a priest, for the destruction of the king’s enemies. As it appears curious, the whole description is here translated; abridging, however, as in other instances, the frequent repetitions, with which it abounds.

Next then [is described] destruction around air (Brahme).* Foes, enemies, and rivals, perish around him, who is conversant with these rites. That, which [moves] in the atmosphere, is air (Brahme), around which perish five deities, lightning, rain, the moon, the sun, and fire.

Lightning, having flashed, disappears behind rain: it vanishes, and none know [whither it is gone]. When a man dies, he vanishes; and none know [whither his soul is gone]. Therefore, whenever lightning perishes, pronounce this [prayer]; “May my enemy perish: may he disappear, and none know [where he is].” Soon, indeed, none will know [whither he is gone].

Rain, having fallen, [evaporates and] disappears within the moon, &c. When rain ceases, pronounce this [prayer], &c.

The moon, at the conjunction, disappears within the sun, &c. When the moon is dark, pronounce &c.

The sun, when setting, disappears in fire, &c. † When the sun sets, pronounce &c.

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* So this observance is denominated, viz. Brāhmaṇāb parimarab.
† Behind a cloud.
‡ The Taittiriya Upaniṣad contains a passage, which may serve to explain this notion; “The sun, at eve, penetrates fire; and, therefore, fire is seen afar at night: for both are luminous.”
"Fire, ascending, disappears in air, &c. When fire is extinguished, pronounce &c.

"These same deities are again produced from this very origin. Fire is born of air; for, urged with force by the breath, it increases. Viewing it, pronounce [this prayer], "May fire be revived; but not my foe be reproduced; may he depart averted." Therefore, does the enemy go far away."

"The sun is born of fire. Viewing it, say "May the sun rise; but not my foe be reproduced, &c."

"The moon is born of the sun. Viewing it, say "May the moon be renewed, &c."

"Rain is produced from the moon. Viewing it, say "May rain be produced, &c."

"Lightning comes of rain. Viewing it, say "May lightning appear, &c."

"Such is destruction around air. Maitréya, son of Cusakuru, communicated these rites to Sutwan, son of Girisa, descended from Bharga. Five kings perished around him; and Sutwan attained greatness."

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* At night, as the commentator now observes, the sun disappears in fire: but reappears thence next day. Accordingly, fire is destitute of splendour by day, and the sun shines brighter.

† The moon, as is remarked in the commentary, disappears within the sun at the conjunction; but is reproduced from the sun, on the first day of the bright fortnight.

‡ Here the commentator remarks, Rain enters the lunar orb, which consists of water; and, at a subsequent time, it is reproduced from the moon.
* The observance [enjoined] to him [who undertakes these rites, is, as follows]: let him not sit down earlier than the foe; but stand, while he thinks him standing. Let him not lie down earlier than the foe; but fit, while he thinks him sitting. Let him not sleep earlier than the foe; but wake, while he thinks him waking. Though his enemy had a head of stone, soon does he slay him; he does slay him.

Before I quit this portion of the Veda, I think it right to add, that the close of the seventh book contains the mention of several monarchs to whom the observance, there described, was taught by divers fages. For a reason beforementioned I shall subjoin the names. They are Vis'wan'tara son of Sushadman; Sahade'ya son of Sarja, and his son So'maca; Babhrul son of Deva'vridha, Bhima of Vidarbha, Nagnajit of Gand'ha'ra, Sanasruta of Arindama, Rituvid of Janaca; besides Janame'jaya and Suda's, who have been also noticed in another place.

The Aitare'ya Arahya'ca is another portion of the Rgveda. It comprises eighteen chapters or lectures unequally distributed in five books (Arahya'ca). The second, which is the longest, for it contains seven lectures, constitutes with the third an Upanishad of this Veda, entitled the Babvri'ch Brāhma'na Upanishad; or, more commonly, the Aitare'ya, as having been recited by a sage named Aitare'ya. The four last lectures of that second Arahya'ca, are particularly consonant to the theological doctrines of the Vedanta; and are accordingly selected by theologians of the

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* It is so affirmed by Anandatirt'ha in his notes: and he, and the commentator, whom he annotate, state the original speaker of this Upanishad to be Mahida'ra, an incarnation of Narayana, proceeding from Vis'kara son of Arija. He adds, that, on the sudden appearance of this deity at a solemn celebration, the whole assembly of gods and priests shamed: but, at the intercessions of Brahma', they were revived;
ON THE VEDAS,

Védánti school, as the proper Aitārēya Upaniṣhad. The following is literally translated from this portion of the second Ārañyaka.

THE AITARÉYA ĀRAÑYA. B. 2.

§ IV. * Originally this [universal] was indeed soul only; nothing else whatsoever existed, active [or inactive]. He thought, “I will create worlds;” thus he created these [various] worlds; water, light, mortal [beings] and the waters. That “water” is the [region] above the heaven, which heaven upholds; the atmosphere comprises light; the earth is mortal; and the regions below are “the waters.”†

and, after making their obeisance, they were instructed in holy science: this Āvatāra was called Mahidhāra, because those venerable personages (Mabin) declared themselves his slaves (dāja).

In the concluding title of one transcript of this Ārañyaka, I find it ascribed to Nārāyaṇānanda: probably, by an error of the transcriber. On the other hand, Saūnaca appears to be author of some texts of the Ārañyaka; for a passage, from the second lecture of the fifth (Art. 5, lect. 2, § 11), is cited as Saūnaca's, by the commentator on the prayers of the ca. (lect. 1, § 15).

* I have two copies of Sancara's commentary, and one of annotations on his gloss by Nārāyaṇendra; likewise a copy of Sažana's commentary on the same theological tract, and also on the third Ārañyaca; besides annotations by Anandatīrtha on a different gloss, for the entire Upaniṣhad. The concluding prayer, or seventh lecture of the second Ārañyaca, was omitted by Sancara, as sufficiently perspicuous: but is expounded by Sažana, whose exposition is the same, which is added by Sancara's commentator; and which transcribers sometimes subjoin to Sancara's gloss.

As an instance of singular and needless frauds, I must mention, that the work of Anandatīrtha was sold to me, under a different title, as a commentary on the Taittiriya sanhitā of the Upaniṣhad. The running titles, at the end of each chapter, had been altered accordingly. On examination, I found it to be a different, but valuable work; as above described.

† Ambbos water; and Āpar the waters. The commentators assign reasons for these synonymous terms being employed, severally, to denote the regions above the sky, and those below the earth.
He thought, "these are indeed worlds; I will create guardians of worlds." Thus he drew from the waters, and framed, an embodied being*. He viewed him; and of that being, so contemplated, the mouth opened as an egg: from the mouth, speech issued; from speech, fire proceeded. The nostrils spread; from the nostrils, breath passed; from breath, air was propagated. The eyes opened: from the eyes, a glance sprung; from that glance, the sun was produced. The ears dilated: from the ears, came hearkening; and from that, the regions of space. The skin expanded: from the skin, hair rose; from that, grew herbs and trees. The breast opened; from the breast, mind issued: and, from mind, the moon. The navel burst: from the navel, came deglutition†; from that, death. The generative organ burst: thence flowed productive seed; whence waters drew their origin.

These deities, being thus framed, fell into this vast ocean; and to him they came with thirst and hunger: and him they thus addressed: "Grant us a [smaller] size, wherein abiding we may eat food." He offered to them [the form of] a cow: they said, "that is not sufficient for us." He exhibited to them [the form of] a horse: They said, "neither is that sufficient for us." He showed them the human form: they exclaimed: "well done! ah! wonderful!" Therefore man alone is [pronounced to be] "well formed."

He bade them occupy their respective places. Fire, becoming speech, entered the mouth. Air, becoming breath, proceeded to the nos-

* Purusha: a human form.

† Apāna. From the analogy between the acts of inhaling and of swallowing, the latter is considered as a sort of breath or inspiration: hence the air, drawn in by deglutition, is reckoned one of five breaths, or airs inhaled into the body.

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trils. The sun, becoming light, penetrated the eyes. Space became hearing and occupied the ears. Herbs and trees became hair and filled the skin. The moon, becoming mind, entered the breast. Death, becoming deglutition, penetrated the navel; and water became productive seed and occupied the generative organ.

*Hunger and thirst addressed him, saying "Assign us [our places]." He replied: "You I distribute among these deities; and I make you participant with them." Therefore is it, that to whatever deity an oblation is offered, hunger and thirst participate with him.

"He reflected, "These are worlds, and regents of worlds: for them I will frame food." He viewed the waters: from waters, so contemplated, form issued; and food is form, which was so produced.

"Being thus framed, it turned away, and sought to flee. The [primeval] man endeavoured to seize it by speech; but could not attain it by his voice: had he by voice taken it, [hunger] would be satisfied by naming food. He attempted to catch it by his breath; but could not inhale it by breathing: had he by inhaling taken it, [hunger] would be satisfied by smelling food. He sought to snatch it by a glance; but could not surprise it by a look: had he seized it by the sight, [hunger] would be satisfied by seeing food. He attempted to catch it by hearing; but could not hold it by listening: had he caught it by hearkening, [hunger] would be satisfied by hearing food. He endeavoured to seize it by his skin; but could not restrain it by his touch: had he seized it by contact, [hunger] would be satisfied by touching food. He wished to reach it by the mind; but could not attain it by thinking: had he caught it by thought, [hunger] would be satisfied by meditating on food. He wanted to seize it by the generative
organ, but could not so hold it: had he thus seized it, [hunger] would be satisfied by emission. Lastly, he endeavoured to catch it by deglutition; and thus he did swallow it: that air, which is so drawn in, seizes food; and that very air is the bond of life.

"He [the universal soul] reflected "How can this [body] exist without me?" He considered by which extremity he should penetrate. He thought, "if [without me] speech discourse, breath inhale, and sight view; if hearing hear, skin feel, and mind meditate; if deglutition swallow, and the organ of generation perform its functions; then who am I?"

"PARTING the future [srama], he penetrated by this route. That opening is called the future (vidriti), and is the road to beatitude (nandana) *

"Of that soul, the places of recreation are three; and the modes of sleep, as many: this (pointing to the right eye) is a place of recreation; this (pointing to the throat) is also a situation of enjoyment; this (pointing to the heart) is [likewise] a region of delight.

"Thus born [as the animating spirit], he discriminated the elements, [ remarking] "what else [but him] can I here affirm [to exist];" and he contemplated this [thinking] person †, the vast expanse ‡, [exclaiming] it have I seen. Therefore is he named IT-SEEING (idan-dra); IT-SEEING is indeed his name: and him, being IT-SEEING, they call, by a

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* The Hindur believe, that the soul, or conscious life, enters the body through the sagittal future; lodges in the brain; and may contemplate, through the same opening, the divine perfections. Mind, or the reasoning faculty, is reckoned to be an organ of the body, situated in the heart.
† Purusha.
‡ Brahma, or the great one.
remote appellation, Indra; for the gods generally delight in the concealment [of their name]. The gods delight in privacy.

§ V. This [living principle] is first, in man, a fetus, or productive seed, which is the essence drawn from all the members [of the body]: thus the man nourishes himself within himself. But, when he emits it into woman, he procreates that [fetus]: and such is its first birth.

It becomes identified with the woman; and being such, as is her own body, it does not destroy her. She cherishes his own self, thus received within her; and, as nurturing him, she ought to be cherished [by him]. The woman nourishes that fetus: but he previously cherished the child, and further does so after its birth. Since he supports the child before and after birth, he cherishes himself: and that, for the perpetual succession of persons; for thus are these persons perpetuated. Such is his second birth.

This [second] self becomes his representative for holy acts [of religion]: and that other [self], having fulfilled its obligations, and completed its period of life, deceases. Departing hence, he is born again [in some other shape]: and such is his third birth.

This was declared by the holy sage. "Within the womb, I have recognised all the successive births of these deities. A hundred bodies, like iron chains, hold me down: yet, like a falcon, I swiftly rise." Thus spoke Vāmadeva, repose in the womb: and possessing this [intuitive] knowledge, he rose, after bursting that corporeal confinement;

* Here, as at the conclusion of every division of an Upanishad, or of any chapter in the didactic portion of the Vedas, the last phrase is repeated.
† For the man is identified with the child procreated by him.
and, ascending to the blissful region of heaven, he attained every wish and became immortal. He became immortal.

§ VI. 'What is this soul? that we may worship him. Which is the soul? Is it that, by which [a man feels]? by which he hears? by which he smells odours? by which he utters speech? by which he discriminates a pleasant or unpleasant taste? is it the heart [or understanding]? or the mind [or will]? Is it sensation? or power? or discrimination? or comprehension? or perception? or retention? or attention? or application? or haste [or pain]? or memory? or affection? or determination? or animal action? or with? or desire?

'All those are only various names of apprehension. But this [soul, consisting in the faculty of apprehension,] is Brahma; he is Indra; he is (Praja'pati) the lord of creatures: these gods are he; and so are the five primary elements, earth, air, the ethereal fluid, water and light: these, and the same joined with minute objects and other seeds [of existence], and [again] other [beings] produced from eggs, or borne in wombs, or originating in hot moisture, || or springing from plants, whether horses, or kine, or men, or elephants, whatever lives, and walks or flies, or whatever is immovable [as herbs and trees]: all that is the eye of intelligence. On intellect [every thing] is founded: the world is the eye of intellect; and intellect is its foundation. Intelligence is (Brabme) the great one.

* Swarga: or place of celestial bliss.
† Aja: the unconscious volition, which occasions an act necessary to the support of life, as breathing &c.
‡ Brahma (in the masculine gender) here denotes, according to commentators, the intelligent spirit, whose birth was in the mundane egg; from which he is named Hiranyagarbha. Indra is the chief of the gods or subordinate deities; meaning the elements and planets. Praja'pati is the first embodied spirit, called Vira'; and described in the preceding part of this extract. The gods are fire and the rest, as there stated.
|| Vermin and insects are supposed to be generated from hot moisture.
By this intelligent soul, that sage ascended from the present world to the blissful region of heaven; and, obtaining all his wishes, became immortal. He became immortal.

§. VII. 'May my speech be founded on understanding: and my mind be attentive to my utterance. Be thou manifested to me, O self manifested [intellect]! For my sake [O speech and mind!] approach this Veda. May what I have heard, be unforgotten: day and night may I behold this, which I have studied. Let me think the reality: let me speak the truth. May it preserve me: may it preserve the teacher: me may it preserve; the teacher may it preserve: the teacher may it preserve; may it preserve the teacher.'*

ON THE CAUSHITACI.

Another Upanishad of this Veda, appertaining to a particular Sālebā of it, is named from that, and from the Brāhmaṇa, of which it is an extract, Caushitaci Brāhmaṇa Upanishad. From an abridgment of it (for I have not seen the work at large), it appears to contain two dialogues; one, in which Indra instructs Pratardana in theology; and another, in which Ajatasatru, king of Caśi, communicates divine knowledge to a priest named Balaci. A similar conversation between these two persons is found likewise in the Vrśabhadātaḥya of the Tājurveda; as will be subsequently noticed. Respecting the other contents of the Brāhmaṇa, from which these dialogues are taken, I have not yet obtained any satisfactory information.

* This, like other prayers, is denominated a mantra; though it be the conclusion of an Upanishad.
or Sacred Writings of the Hindus.

The abridgment abovementioned occurs in a metrical paraphrase of twelve principal Upanishads, in twenty chapters, by Vidya Praṇya, the preceptor of Madhava de바 뎃라. He expressly states Cauḍitacī as the name of a Śadeva of the Rigveda.

The original of the Cauḍitacī was among the portions of the Veda, which Sir Robert Chambers collected at Benares; according to a list, which he sent to me, some time before his departure from India. A fragment of an Upanishad, procured at the same place by Sir William Jones, and given by him to Mr. Blaquiere, is marked in his handwriting "The beginning of the Cauḍitacī." In it, the dialogists are Chitra surnamed Gangaīśani, and Svetaceta with his father Uddalaka son of Aruna.

I shall resume the consideration of this portion of the Rigveda, whenever I have the good fortune to obtain the complete text and commentary, either of the Brāhmaṇa, or of the Upanishad, which bears this title.

ON THE WHITE YAŚURVEDA.

The Vaiṣṇava, or white Yajush, is the shortest of the Vedas; so far as respects the first and principal part, which comprehends the Mantras. The Sanhitā, or collection of prayers and invocations belonging to this Veda, is comprised in forty lectures (Adhyāya), unequally subdivided into numerous short sections (candīca); each of which, in general, constitutes a prayer or Mantra. It is also divided, like the Rigveda, into Anuvācas or
chapters. The number of *Anuvédas*, as they are stated at the close of the index to this *Veda*, appears to be two hundred and eighty-six: the number of sections or verses, nearly two thousand (or exactly 1987). But this includes many repetitions of the same text in diverse places. The lectures are very unequal, containing from thirteen to a hundred and seventeen sections (*cakchicā*)

*Though called the Yajurvéda, it consists of passages, some of which are denominated *Rīb*, while only the rest are strictly *Yajus*. The first are, like the prayers of the *Rgvéda*, in metre: the others are either in measured prose, containing from one to a hundred and six syllables; or such of them, as exceed that length, are considered to be prose reducible to no measure.*

The *Yajurvéda* relates chiefly to oblations and sacrifices, as the name itself implies. The first chapter, and the greatest part of the second, contain prayers adapted for sacrifices at the full and change of the moon: but the six last sections regard oblations to the manes. The subject of the third chapter is the consecration of a perpetual fire, and the sacrifice of victims: the five next relate chiefly to a ceremony called *Agniśtōma*, which includes that of drinking the juice of the acid aselepias. The two following relate to the *Vajapeya* and *Rājajñāya*: the last of which ceremonies involves the consecration of a king. Eight chapters, from the eleventh to the eighteenth, regard the sanctifying of sacrificial fire; and the ceremony, named *Sautrāmaṇi*, which was the subject of the last section of the tenth chapter, occupies three other chapters from the nineteenth to the twenty-first. The prayers, to be used at an *Aśvamēthā*, or ceremony em-

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*I have several copies of *Maḍhyandina*’s white *Yajus*, one of which is accompanied by a commentary entitled *Védadipa*: the author of which, *Mahād’harā*, consulted the commentaries of *Uvāt’a* and *Maḍhyandina*, as he himself informs us in his preface.

† *Yajus* is derived from the verb *Yaj* to worship or adore. Another etymology is sometimes assigned: but this is most consistent with the subject; viz. (*Yajyā*) sacrifices, and (*bōma*) oblations to fire.
blematick of the immolation of a horse and other animals, by a king ambitious of universal empire, are placed in four chapters, from the twenty-second to the twenty-fifth. The two next are miscellaneous chapters; the Sautrāmaṇi and Āśvamedha are completed in two others; and the Puruṣāśvamedha, or ceremony performed as the type of the allegorical immolation of Nārāyaṇa, fills the thirtieth and thirty-first chapters. The three next belong to the Sarvāśvamedha, or prayers and oblations for universal success. A chapter follows on the Pitrīśvamedha, or obsequies in commemoration of a deceased ancestor; and the five last chapters contain such passages of this Veda, as are ascribed to Dāhyach, son or descendant of At'harvan; four of them consist of prayers applicable to various religious rites, as sacraments, lustrations, penance, &c.; and the last is restricted to theology.

Excepting these five chapters, most of the passages contained in the preceding part of this collection of prayers, are attributed to divine personages: many are ascribed to the first manifested being, named Prajāpati, Paramesht'hi, or Nārāyaṇa Purūsha; some are attributed to Swayambhu Brahme, or the self-existent himself: the reputed authors of the rest are Viśvaśāti, Indra, Varuṇa and the Āświns: except a few scattered passages, which are ascribed to Viśvamitra, Vamađe'va, Mad'hučhandas, Med'ha-tith'hi, and other human authors; and some texts, for which no Rishi is specified in the index, and which are therefore assigned either to the sun (Vivasvat or Aditya), as the deity supposed to have revealed this Veda; or to Ya'jñyawalcya, as the person who received the revelation: in the same manner, as the unappropriated passages of the Rīgveda are assigned to Prajāpati or Brahma.'
Several prayers and hymns of the Vajur-Veda have been already translated in former essays; and may serve as a sufficient example of the style of its composition. I shall here insert only two remarkable passages. The first is the beginning of the prayers of the Sarvamedha. It constitutes the thirty second lecture, comprising two chapters (anuvāca) and sixteen verses.

* Fire is that [original cause]; the sun is that; so is air; so is the moon; such too is that pure Brahme, and those waters, and that lord of creatures. Moments [and other measures of time] proceeded from the effulgent person, whom none can apprehend [as an object of perception], above, around, or in the midst. Of him, whose glory is so great, there is no image: he it is, who is celebrated in various holy strains †. Even he is the god, who pervades all regions: he is the first born: it is he, who is in the womb; he, who is born; and he, who will be produced: he severally, and universally, remains with [all] persons.

* He, prior to whom, nothing was born; and who became all beings; himself the lord of creatures, with a [body composed of] sixteen members, being delighted by creation, produced the three luminaries [the sun, the moon, and fire].

* To what God should we offer oblations, but to him, who made the fluid sky and solid earth, who fixed the solar orb (svar), and celestial abode (nāca), and who framed drops [of rain] in the atmosphere? To what god should we offer oblations, but to him, whom heaven and earth mentally contemplate, while they are strengthened and embellished by offerings, and illuminated by the sun risen above them.

* Asiatic Researches, Vol. V, and VII.
† The text refers to particular passages.
The wise man views that mysterious being; in whom the universe perpetually exists, resting on that sole support. In him, this world is absorbed; from him, it issues: in creatures, he is twined and wove, with various forms of existence. Let the wise man, who is conversant with the import of revelation*, promptly celebrate that immortal being, the mysteriously existing and various abode: he, who knows its three states [its creation, continuance and destruction], which are involved in mystery, is father of the father. That [Brabme], in whom the gods attain immortality, while they abide in the third [or celestial] region, is our venerable parent, and the providence which governs all worlds.

Knowing the elements, discovering the worlds, and recognising all regions and quarters [to be him], and worshipping [speech or revelation, who is] the first-born, the votary pervades the animating spirit of solemn sacrifice by means of [his own] soul. Recognizing heaven, earth, and sky [to be him], knowing: the worlds, discovering space and (jwar) the solar orb [to be the same], he views that being: he becomes that being; and is identified with him, on completing the broad web of the solemn sacrifice.

For opulence and wisdom, I solicit this wonderful lord of the altar, the friend of Indra, most desirable [fire]: may this oblation be effectual. Fire! make me, this day, wise by means of that wisdom, which the gods and the fathers worship: be this oblation efficacious. May Varuna grant me wisdom; may fire and PrajaPati confer on me sapience; may Indra and air vouchsafe me knowledge; may providence give me understanding: be this oblation happily offered! May the priest and the soldier

* For the word Gand'barba is here interpreted, as intending one, who investigates holy writ. In another place (Apostled Reseaches, vol. VII, p. 297); the same term signified the sun; and should have been translated, instead of "heavenly quiferter, or celestial chorister," which is not the meaning in that place, though it be the most common acceptation of the word.
both share my prosperity; may the gods grant me supreme happiness: to thee, who art that [felicity], be this oblation effectually presented."

The next passage, which I shall cite, is a prayer to fire.*

Thou art (Samvatšara) the [first] year [of the cycle]; thou art (pari-vatsara) the [second] year; thou art (idāvatšara) the [third] year; thou art (idvat-vatsara) the [fourth] year; thou art (vatsara) the [fifth] year: may mornings appertain to thee; may days and nights, and fortnights, and months, and seasons, belong to thee; may (Samvatšara) the year be a portion of thee: to go, or to come, contracting or expanding [thyself], thou art winged thought. Together with that deity, remain thou firm like Angiras."

I have quoted this almost unmeaning passage, because it notices the divisions of time, which belong to the calendar of the Vedas; and which are explained in treatises on that subject annexed to the sacred volume, under the title of Jyotisb. To this I shall again advert, in a subsequent part of this essay. I shall here only observe, with the view of accounting for the seeming absurdity of the text now cited, that fire, as in another place†, sacrifice, is identified with the year and with the cycle, by reason of the near connexion between consecrated fire, and the regulation of time relative to religious rites; at which one is used, and which the other governs.

The fortieth and last chapter of this Veda is an Upanishad, as before
intimated: which is usually called \( \text{Iśā-vāśyam} \), from the two initial words; and sometimes \( \text{Iśā 'dhyāya} \), from the first word; but the proper title is \( \Uparṇisbād \) of the \( \text{Vājasaṇēya Sāmbītā} \). The author, as before mentioned, is \( \text{Dadhīvach}, \) son or descendant of \( \text{Atharvan} \). A translation of it has been published in the posthumous works of Sir William Jones.

The second part of this \( \text{Vēda} \), appertaining to the \( \text{Mādhyāndina Sācēhā} \), is entitled the \( \text{Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa} \); and is much more copious than the collection of prayers. It consists of fourteen books (cāndha) unequally distributed in two parts (bhōga): the first of which contains ten books; and the second, only four. The number of lectures (ad'byāya), contained in each book, varies; and so does that of the Brāhmaṇas or separate precepts, in each lecture. Another mode of division, by chapters (Prapāṭha), also prevails throughout the volume: and the distinction of Brāhmaṇas, which are again subdivided into short sections (cāndicā), is subordinate to both modes of division.

The fourteen books, which constitute this part of the \( \text{Vēda} \), comprise two hundred lectures corresponding to sixty-eight chapters. The whole number of distinct articles entitled Brāhmaṇa is four hundred and forty: the sections (cāndica) are also counted, and are stated at 7624.

* Besides \( \text{Mahēdhrā} \)'s gloss on this chapter, in his \( \text{Vēda-dīpa} \), I have the separate commentary of \( \text{Saṅkara} \), and one by \( \text{Baḷaśākha} \)'s \( \text{Aṅgānanda} \), which contains a clear and copious exposition of this Upaniṣād. He professes to expound it, as it is received by both the Čānā and \( \text{Mādhyāndina} \) schools. Sir William Jones, in his version of it, used \( \text{Saṅkara} \)'s glosses; as appears from a copy of that gloss, which he had carefully studied, and in which his handwriting appears in more than one place.†

† My copies of the text and of the commentary are both imperfect: but the deficiencies of one occur in places, where the other is complete; and I have been thus enabled to inspect carefully the whole of this portion of the \( \text{Vēda} \).

Among fragments of this \( \text{Brāhmaṇa} \), comprising entire books, I have one which agrees, in the substance and purport, with the second book of the \( \text{Mādhyāndina Śatapatha} \), though differing much in the readings of almost every passage. It probably belongs to a different \( \text{Sācēhā} \).
The same order is observed in this collection of precepts concerning religious rites, which had been followed in the arrangement of the prayers belonging to them. The first and second books treat of ceremonies on the full and change of the moon; the consecration of the sacrificial fire &c. The third and fourth relate to the mode of preparing the juice of the acid Asclepias, and other ceremonies connected with it, as the Śyāsībhūma &c. The fifth is confined to the Vājapēya and Rājasūya. The four next teach the consecration of sacrificial fire: and the tenth, entitled Agni rahasya, shows the benefits of these ceremonies. The three first books of the second part are stated by the commentator*, as relating to the Sautrāmati and Aśwamēṣa; and the fourth, which is the last, belongs to theology. In the original, the thirteenth book is, specially, denominated Aśwamēṣa-bya; and the fourteenth is entitled Vribad äravyaca.

The Aśwamēṣa and Puruscharmēṣa, celebrated in the manner directed by this Vēda, are not really sacrifices of horses and men. In the first mentioned ceremony, six hundred and nine animals of various prescribed kinds, domestic and wild, including birds, fish, and reptiles, are made fast; the tame ones, to twenty-one posts; and the wild, in the intervals between the pillars: and, after certain prayers have been recited, the victims are let loose without injury. In the other, a hundred and eighty-five men of various specified tribes, characters, and professions, are bound to eleven posts: and, after the hymn, concerning the allegorical immolation of Nārāyana†, has been recited, these human victims are liberated unhurt: and oblations of butter are made on the sacrificial fire. This mode of per-

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* At the beginning of his gloss on the eleventh book.

† A flat rejoices, Vol. VII, p. 231. The version of the hymn, as there given, should be amended by substituting, at the 15th verse, 'binding' for 'inmolating.' A similarity of terms led to that error, which the context did not correct; for the 9th verse is rightly translated. However, to follow the commentaries strictly, even the term, which there occurs, and which properly signifies 'inmolated,' may be translated, 'consecrated.'
forming the *Aśwamedha* and *Purushāmādha*, as emblematic ceremonies, not as real sacrifices, is taught in this *Vēda*: and the interpretation is fully confirmed by the rituals*, and by commentators on the *Sanhitā* and *Brāhmaṇa*; one of whom assigns as the reason, 'because the flesh of victims, which have been actually sacrificed at a *Yajña*, must be eaten by the persons, who offer the sacrifice: but a man cannot be allowed, much less required, to eat human flesh †.' It may be hence inferred, or conjectured at least, that human sacrifices were not authorized by the *Vēda* itself: but were either then abrogated, and an emblematical ceremony substituted in their place; or they must have been introduced in later times, on the authority of certain *Purāṇas* or *Tantras* fabricated by persons, who, in this as in other matters, established many unjustifiable practices on the foundation of emblems and allegories, which they misunderstood.

*The horse, which is the subject of the religious ceremony called *Aśwamedha*, is also, avowedly, an emblem of *Virāj* or the primeval and universal manifested being. In the last section of the *Taittirīya Tājurvēda*, the various parts of the horse's body are described, as divisions of time, and portions of the universe: 'morning is his head; the sun, his eye; air, his breath; the moon, his ear; &c.' A similar passage in the 14th book of the *Śatapatha brāhmaṇa* describes the same allegorical horse for the meditation of such, as cannot perform an *Aśwamedha*; and the assemblage of living animals, constituting an imaginary victim, at a real *Aśwamedha*, equally represent the universal being according to the doctrines of the Indian scripture. It is not, however, certain, whether this ceremony did not also give occasion to the institution of another, apparently not authorized by the *Vēdas*, in which a horse was actually sacrificed.*

* I particularly advert to a separate ritual of the *Purushāmādha* by *Yaśnyadeva*.
† Cited from memory: I read the passage several years ago; but I cannot now recover it.
The Vṛibad āranyaca, which constitutes the fourteenth book of the Sātpat'ha brāhmaṇa, is the conclusion of the Vājasanéyi or white Yajush. It consists of seven chapters or eight lectures: and the five last lectures, in one arrangement, corresponding with the six last lectures, in the other, form a theological treatise entitled the Vṛibad Upaniṣhad, or Vājasanéyi brāhmaṇa upaniṣhad, but more commonly cited as the Vṛibad āranyaca*. The greatest part of it is in dialogue; and Yajña-yāvalcya is the principal speaker. As an Upaniṣhad, it properly belongs to the Cāṇeṣa Śāśkha: at least, it is so cited by Vidyāraṇya in his paraphrase of Upaniṣhads before-mentioned. There does not, however, appear to be any material variation in it, as received by the Madhyandina school: unless in the divisions of chapters and sections; and in the lists of successive teachers, by whom it was handed down.†

To convey some notion of the scope and style of this Upaniṣhad, I shall, here, briefly indicate some of the most remarkable passages; and chiefly those, which have been paraphrased by Vidyāraṇya. A few others have been already cited; and the following appears likewise to deserve notice.

Towards the beginning of the Vṛibad āranyaca, a passage, concerning the origin of fire hallowed for an Aśvamedha, opens thus: 'Nothing existed in this world, before [the production of mind]: this universe was encircled by death eager to devour; for death is the devourer. He framed mind, being desirous of himself becoming endued with a soul.'

* Besides three copies of the text, and two transcripts of Sāncara's commentary, I have, also in duplicate, another very excellent commentary by Nītīya'hand' Ākrama, which is entitled Mīndyśhara; and a metrical paraphrase of Sāncara's gloss by Sūrya'warā'cha'rya; as well as annotations in prose by Ananda Giri.

† This is the Upaniṣhad, to which Sir William Jones refers, in his preface to the translation of the Institutes of Menu: p. viii.
Here, the commentators explain death to be the intellectual being, who sprang from the golden mundane egg: and the passage, before cited from the *Rigveda*, where the primeval existence of death is denied, may be easily reconciled with this, upon the Indian ideas of the periodical destruction and renovation of the world, and finally of all beings but the supreme one.

The first selection by *Vidyāraṇya*, from this *Upaniṣad*, is the fourth article (*brahmaṇa*) of the third lecture of the *Vribad ṛāṇyaṇa*. It is descriptive of *Vīraṭ*, and begins thus:

"This [variety of forms] was, before [the production of body], soul, bearing a human shape. Next, looking around, that [primeval being] saw nothing but himself; and he, first, said "I am I." Therefore, his name was "I:" and, thence, even now, when called, [a man] first answers "it is I," and then declares any other name, which appertains to him.

"Since he, being anterior to all this [which seeks supremacy], did consume by fire all sinful [obstacles to his own supremacy], therefore, does the man, who knows this [truth], overcome him, who seeks to be before him.

"He felt dread; and, therefore, man fears, when alone. But he reflected, "Since nothing exists besides myself, why should I fear?" Thus his terror departed from him; for what should he dread, since fear must be of another?"
He felt not delight; and, therefore, man delights not, when alone. He wished [the existence of] another; and instantly he became such, as is man and woman in mutual embrace. He caused this, his own self, to fall in twain; and thus became a husband and a wife. Therefore, was this [body, so separated,] as it were an imperfect moiety of himself: for so Yajñyavalkya has pronounced it. This blank, therefore, is completed by woman. He approached her; and, thence, were human beings produced.

She reflected, doubtfully; "how can he, having produced me from himself, [incestuously] approach me? I will now assume a disguise." She became a cow; and the other became a bull, and approached her; and the issue were kine. She was changed into a mare, and he into a stallion; one was turned into a female ass, the other into a male one; thus did he again approach her; and the one-hoofed kind was the offspring. She became a female goat, and he a male one; she was an ewe, and he a ram; thus he approached her; and goats and sheep were the progeny. In this manner, did he create every existing pair whatsoever, even to the ants [and minutest insect]."

The sequel of this passage is also curious; but is too long to be here inserted. The notion of Vira'j dividing his own substance into male and female, occurs in more than one Purâna. So does that of an incestuous marriage and intercourse of the first Menu with his daughter Satarupa: and the commentators on the Upanisad understand that legend to be alluded to in this place. But the institutes, ascribed to Menu, make Vira'j to be the issue of such a separation of persons, and Menu himself to be his offspring *. There is, indeed, as the reader may observe from

* See Sir W. Jones's translation of Menu, Ch. 1, v. 32 and 33.
the passages cited in the present essay, much disagreement and consequent confusion, in the gradation of persons interposed by Hindu theology between the supreme being and the created world.

The author of the paraphrase before mentioned has next selected three dialogues from the fourth lecture or chapter of the Vrīhadāraśāyana. In the first, which begins the chapter and occupies three articles (Brāhmaṇas), a conceited and loquacious priest, named Bālačī (from his mother Bālacā), and Gārgya (from his ancestor Garga), visits Ājaṭṭasātru king of Ceti, and offers to communicate to him the knowledge of God. The king bequests on him a liberal recompense for the offer; and the priest unfolds his doctrine, saying he worships, or recognizes, as God, the being who is manifest in the sun; him, who is apparent in lightning, in the ethereal elements, in air, in fire, in water, in a mirror, in the regions of space, in shade, and in the soul itself. The king who was, as it appears, a well instructed theologian, refutes these several notions, successively; and, finding the priest remain silent, asks "is that all you have to say?" Gārgya replies, "that is all." Then, says the king, "that is not sufficient for the knowledge of God." Hearing this, Gārgya proposes to become his pupil. The king replies, "It would reverse established order, were a priest to attend a soldier in expectation of religious instruction: but I will suggest the knowledge to you." He takes him by the hand; and, rising, conducts him to a place, where a man was sleeping. He calls the sleeper by various appellations suitable to the priest's doctrine; but without succeeding in awakening him: he then roufes the sleeper by stirring him; and, afterwards, addressing the priest, asks, "While that man was thus asleep, where was his soul, which comfits intellect? and whence came that soul when he was awakened?" Gārgya could not solve the question: and
the king then proceeds to explain the nature of soul and mind, according to the received notions of the Vedánta. As it is not the purpose of this essay to consider those doctrines, I shall not here insert the remainder of the dialogue.

The next, occupying a single article, is a conversation between Ya'jñayavālcya and his wife Maitreyī. He announces to her his intention of retiring from the civil world; requests her consent, and proposes to divide his effects between her, and his second wife Catya'yanī. She asks, "Should I become immortal, if this whole earth, full of riches, were mine?" "No," replies Ya'jñayavālcya, "riches serve for the means of living; but immortality is not attained through wealth." Maitreyī declares she has no use, then, for that, by which she may not become immortal; and solicits from her husband the communication of the knowledge, which he possesses, on the means, by which beatitude may be attained. Ya'jñayavālcya answers, "Dear wert thou to me; and a pleasing [sentiment] dost thou make known: come, sit down; I will expound [that doctrine]; do thou endeavour to comprehend it." A discourse follows, in which Ya'jñayavālcya elucidates the notion, that abstraction procures immortality; because affections are relative to the soul, which should therefore be contemplated and considered in all objects, since every thing is soul; for all general and particular notions are ultimately resolvable into one, whence all proceed, and in which all merge; and that is identified with the supreme soul, through the knowledge of which beatitude may be attained.

I shall select, as a specimen of the reasoning in this dialogue, a passage, which is material on a different account; as it contains an enumeration of the Vēdas, and of the various sorts of passages, which they
comprise; and tends to confirm some observations hazarded at the beginning of this essay.

"As smoke, and various substances, separately issue from fire lighted with moist wood; so, from this great being, were respired the Rigveda, the Yajurveda, the Samaveda, and the Atharvan and Angiras; the Itihasa and Purana; the sciences and Upanishads; the verses and aphorisms; the expositions and illustrations: all these were breathed forth by him."

The commentators remark, that four sorts of prayers (Mantra), and eight kinds of precepts (Brabmana) are here stated. The fourth description of prayers comprehends such, as were revealed to, or discovered by, Atharvan and Angiras: meaning the Atharvana Veda. The Itihasa designates such passages in the second part of the Vedas entitled Brabmanas, as narrate a story: for instance, that of the nymph Urvashih and the king Pururavas. The Purana intends those, which relate to the creation and similar topics. "Sciences" are meant of religious worship. "Verses" are memorial lines. "Aphorisms" are short sentences in a concise style. "Expositions" interpret such sentences; and "illustrations" elucidate the meaning of the prayers.

It may not be superfluous to observe in this place, that the Itihasa and Puranas, here meant, are not the mythological poems bearing the same title; but certain passages of the Indian scriptures, which are interspersed among others, throughout that part of the Vedas, called Brabmana, and instances of which occur in more than one quotation in the present essay.

The dialogue between Yajnyawalcya and Maitreyi, above-
mentioned, is repeated towards the close of the sixth lecture, with a short and immaterial addition to its introduction. In this place, it is succeeded by a discourse on the unity of the soul: said, towards the conclusion, to have been addressed, to the two Aświns, by Dād'hyāch, a descendant of At'hārvan.

The fourth lecture ends with a lift of the teachers, by whom that and the three preceding lectures, were handed down, in succession, to Pautima'śhya. It begins with him, and ascends, through forty steps, to Aya'sya; or, with two more intervening persons, to the Aświns; and from them, to Dād'hyāch, At'hārvan, and Mṛityu or death; and, through other gradations of spirits, to Viṃj; and finally to Brāhme. The same lift occurs again at the end of the sixth lecture: and similar lifts are found in the corresponding places of this Upanīṣad, as arranged for the Mad'byandina 'Sāch'hā. The succession is there traced upwards, from the reciter of it, who speaks of himself in the first person, and from his immediate teacher Sauryana'vya, to the same original revelation, through nearly the same number of gradations. The difference is almost entirely confined to the first ten or twelve names.*

The fifth and sixth lectures of this Upanīṣad have been paraphrased, like the fourth, by the author beforementioned. They consist of dialogues, in which Yajña'yawālcya is the chief discoursor.

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* I do not find Vya'sa mentioned in either lift; nor can the surname Pārāja'ya, which occurs more than once, be applied to him; for it is not his patronymick, but a name deduced from the feminine patronymick Pārājari. It seems therefore questionable, whether any inference, respecting the age of the Vēdas, can be drawn from these lifts, in the manner proposed by the late Sir W. Jones, in his preface to the translation of Menu (p. viii.). The anachronisms, which I observe in them, deter me from a similar attempt to deduce the age of this Vēda from these and other lifts, which will be noticed further on.
"Janaca, a king paramount, or emperor, of the race of Vidébas, was celebrating at great expense, a solemn sacrifice, at which the Brândmanas of Čuru and Pancála were assembled; and the king, being desirous of ascertaining which of those priests was the most learned and eloquent theologian, ordered a thousand cows to be made fast in his stables, and their horns to be gilt with a prescribed quantity of gold. He then addressed the priests, "whoever, among you, O venerable Brândmanas, is most skilled in theology, may take the cows." The rest presumed not to touch the cattle; but Yañjnyawalcy a bade his pupil Sámasrávas drive them to his home. He did so; and the priests were indignant, that he should thus arrogate to himself superiority. Aswala, who was the king's officiating priest, asked him, "art thou, O Yañjnyawalcy a! more skilled in theology than we are?" He replied, "I bow to the most learned; but I was desirous of possessing the cattle."

This introduction is followed by a long dialogue, or rather by a succession of dialogues, in which six other rival priests (besides a learned female, named Ga'rgy, the daughter of Vachacru;) take part as antagonists of Yañjnyawalcy a; proposing questions to him, which he answers; and, by refuting their objections, silences them successively. Each dialogue fills a single article (Brândmana); but the controversy is maintained by Gargy in two separate discussions; and the contest between Yañjnapalcy a and Vídgdha surnamed Sácalya, in the ninth or last article of the fifth lecture, concludes in a singular manner.

Yañjnyawalcy a proposes to his adversary an abstruse question, and declares "if thou dost not explain this unto me, thy head shall drop off." Sácalya (proceeds the text) could not explain it; and his head did fall off; and robbers stole his bones, mistaking them for some other thing."
Yajñavyāvalgīa then asks the rest of his antagonists, whether they have any question to propose, or are desirous, that he should propose any. They remain silent, and he addresses them as follows:

"Man is indeed like to a lofty tree: his hairs are the leaves; and his skin, the cuticle... From his skin flows blood, like juice from bark; it issues from his wounded person, as juice from a stricken tree. His flesh is the inner bark; and the membrane, near the bones, is the white substance of the wood. The bones within are the wood itself: and marrow and pith are alike. If then a felled tree spring anew from the root; from what root does mortal man grow again, when hewn down by death? Do not say, from prolific seed; for that is produced from the living person. Thus, a tree, indeed, also springs from seed; and likewise sprouts afresh [from the root] after [seemingly] dying: but, if the tree be torn up by the root, it doth not grow again. From what root, then, does mortal man rise afresh, when hewn down by death? [Do you answer] He was born [once for all]? No; he is born [again]; and [I ask you] what is it, that produces him anew?"

The priests, thus interrogated, observes the commentator, and being unacquainted with the first cause, yielded the victory to Yajñavyāvalgīa. Accordingly, the text adds a brief indication of the first cause as intended by that question. "Brahma, who is intellect with [the unvaried perception of] felicity, is the best path [to happiness] for the generous votary, who knows him, and remains fixed [in attention]."
and the king Janaca; in which the saint communicates religious instruction to the monarch, after inquiring from him the doctrines which had been previously taught to the king by divers priests.

These are followed by a repetition of the dialogue between Yajnya-Walcya and his wife Maitreyi; with scarcely a variation of a single word, except the introduction as above mentioned. The sixth lecture concludes with repeating the lift of teachers, by whom, successively, this part of the Veda was taught.

Concerning the remainder of the Vribad aranyakas, I shall only observe, that it is terminated by a lift of teachers, in which the tradition of it is traced back from the son of Pautima'shi, through forty steps, to Yajnya-Walcya; and, from him, through twelve more, to the sun. In copies belonging to the Madhyandina Sace'ba, the lift is varied, interposing more gradations, with considerable difference in the names, from the reciter who speaks in the first person, and his teacher the son of Bharadwaj, up to Yajnya-Walcya; beyond whom, both lifts agree.

The copy, belonging to the Cunwa Sace'ba, subjoins a further lift stated by the commentators to be common to all the Sace'baks of the Vajin or Vaja-sanjiya Yajurveda, and to be intended for the tracing of that Veda up to its original revelation. It begins from the son of Sanjivi, who was fifth, descending from Yajnya-Walcya, in the lifts abovementioned; and it ascends by ten steps, without any mention of that saint, to Turu surnamed Cavashe'ya, who had the revelation from Prajapat; and he, from Brahme.

Before I proceed to the other Yajurveda, I think it necessary to re-
mark, that the Indian saint last mentioned (Tura son of Cavasha) has been named in a former quotation from the Aitareya, as the priest who consecrated Janamejaya son of Parichshit. It might, at the first glance, be hence concluded that he was contemporary with the celebrated king, who is stated in Hindu history to have reigned at the beginning of the Cali age. But, besides the constant uncertainty respecting Indian saints, who appear and reappear in heroic history at periods most remote, there is in this, as in many other instances of the names of princes, a source of confusion and possible error, from the recurrence of the same name, with the addition even of the same patronymick, for princes remote from each other. Thus, according to Puranas, Parichshit, third son of Curu, had a son named Janamejaya; and he may be the person here meant, rather than one of the same name, who was the great grandson of Arjuna.

ON THE BLACK YAJURVEDA.

THE Taittiriya, or black Yajush, is more copious (I mean, in regard to mantras,) than the white Yajush, but less so than the Rigveda. Its Samhita, or collection of prayers, is arranged in seven books (ashtaca or cana), containing from five to eight lectures or chapters (adhyaya, prasna, or propataca). Each chapter, or lecture, is subdivided into sections (anuvaca), which are equally distributed in the third and sixth books; but unequally in the rest. The whole number exceeds six hundred and fifty.

Another mode of division, by canadas, is stated in the index. In this arrangement, each book (canada) relates to a separate subject; and the
chapters (praśna), comprehended in it, are enumerated and described. Besides this, in the Sanbitá itself, the texts contained in every section are numbered; and so are the syllables in each text.

The first section (anuvácä), in this collection of prayers, corresponds with the first section (cañdlicá) in the white Yajush*; but all the rest differ; and so does the arrangement of the subjects. Many of the topicks are indeed alike in both Védas; but differently placed, and differently treated. Thus the ceremony called Rájasíya occupies one cañda, corresponding with the eighth praśna of the first book (Aśtāca); and is preceded by two cañdas, relative to the Vájasíya and to the mode of its celebration, which occupy fourteen sections in the preceding praśna. Consecrated fire is the subject of four cañdas, which fill the fourth and fifth books. Sacrifice (ad'bůra) is noticed in the second and third lectures of the first book, and in several lectures of the sixth. The subject is continued in the seventh and last book; which treats largely on the Ḭyóṭísílóma, including the forms of preparing and drinking the juice of acid Aśclepias. The Aśvämed'ha, Nṛ'méd'ha, and Pitr'méd'ha, are severally treated of in their places; that is, in the collection of prayers † and in the second part of this Véda. Other topicks, introduced in different places, are numerous; but it would be tedious to specify them at large.

Among the Rśbis of the texts, I observe no human authors: nine entire

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* Translated in a former essay, with the first verse in each of the three other Vedas. Asiatic Researches, Vol. V, p. 364.

† The prayers of the Aśwämed'ha occur in the concluding sections, between the 12th section of the 4th chapter and the end of the fifth chapter of the 7th and last book.
cāndas, according to the second arrangement indicated by the index, appear to be ascribed to Prajāpati or the lord of creatures; as many to Sōma or the moon; seven to Agni or fire; and sixteen to all the gods. Possibly, some passages may be allotted by the commentators to their real authors, though not pointed out by the index for the Ātrēyī Sācabā.

Several prayers from this Veda have been translated in former essays*. Other very remarkable passages have occurred on examining this collection of Mantras†. The following, from the seventh and last book ‡, is chosen as a specimen of the Taittirīya Yajurveda. Like several before-cited, it alludes to the Indian notions of the creation; and, at the risk of sameness, I select passages relative to that topick, on account of its importance in explaining the creed of the ancient Hindu religion. The present extract was recommended for selection by its allusion to a mythological notion, which apparently gave origin to the story of the Varāha-avatāra; and from which an astronomical period, entitled Calpa, has perhaps been taken.§

* WATERS [alone] there were; this world originally was water. In it, the lord of creation moved, having become air: he saw this [earth]; and upheld it, assuming the form of a boar (varāha); and then moulded that [earth], becoming Viśvācarmāṇ, the artificer of the universe. It appeared (aprābata), and was manifest (prithibivī); and therefore is that name (Prithibivī) assigned to the earth.

† The lord of creation meditated profoundly on the earth; and created

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* Aryan Researches, Vol. V, and VII.
† I have several complete copies of the text: but only a part of the commentary by Śāyana.
‡ Book VII, Chapter 1, Section 5.
§ One of the Calpa, or renovations of the universe, is denominated Varāha.
the gods, the Vasus, Rudras, and Adityas. Those gods addressed the lord of creation, saying: "How can we form creatures?" He replied, "As I created you by profound contemplation (tapas); do you seek in devotion (tapas), the means of multiplying creatures?" He gave them consecrated fire, saying, "With this sacrificial fire, perform devotions." With it, they did perform austerities: and, in one year, framed a single cow. He gave her to the Vasus, to the Rudras, and to the Adityas, successively; bidding them 'guard her.' The Vasus, the Rudras and the Adityas severally guarded her: and she calved for the Vasus, three hundred and thirty-three calves; and as many, for the Rudras; and the same number, for the Adityas: thus was she the thousandth.

They addressed the lord of creation, requesting him to direct them in performing a solemn act of religion with a thousand kine for a gratuity.] He caused the Vasus to sacrifice with the Agnistoma; and they conquered this world, and gave it to the priests: he caused the Rudras to sacrifice with the Tirt̄hya; and they obtained the middle region, and gave it away for a sacrificial fee: he caused the Adityas to sacrifice with the Atirātra; and they acquired that other world, and gave it to the priests for a gratuity.

This extract may suffice: Its close, and the remainder of the section, bear allusion to certain religious ceremonies, at which a thousand cows must be given to the officiating priests.

To the second part of this Veda*, belongs an Arāhyas, divided like the

* The Tatāttha, like other Vedas, has its Brāhmaṇas: and frequent quotations from it occur in the commentary on the prayers, and in other places. But I have not yet seen a complete copy of this portion of the Indian sacred books.
Sanhitā into lectures (praśna), and again subdivided into chapters (anuvāca), containing texts, or sections, which are numbered, and in which the syllables have been counted. Here also a division by cāndas, according to the different subjects, prevails. The six first lectures, and their corresponding cāndas, relate to religious observances. The two next constitute three Upaniṣads; or, as they are usually cited, two: one of which is commonly entitled the Taittirīyaca Upaniṣad; the other is called the Nārāyana; or, to distinguish it from another belonging exclusively to the Atharva-veda, the great (Mabā, or Vīrīyana,) nārāyana. They are all admitted in collections of theological treatises appendant on the Atharva-veda; but the last-mentioned is there subdivided into two Upaniṣads.

For a further specimen of this Yajur-veda, I shall only quote the opening of the third and last chapter of the Vāruni or second Taittirīyaca Upaniṣad, with the introductory chapter of the first.

*Bṛhiṣgu, the offspring of Vṛunā, approached his father, saying "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." Vṛunā propounded these; namely food [or body], truth [or life], sight, hearing, mind [or thought], and speech: and thus proceeded; "That, whence all beings are produced; that, by which they live when born; that, towards which they tend; and that, into which they pass; do thou seek, [for] that is Brahme."

*He meditated [in] devout contemplation; and, having thought profoundly, he recognised food [or body] to be Brahme: for all beings are

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*I use several copies of the entire Āraṇyka, with Sancara's commentary on the Taittirīya Upaniṣad, and annotations on his gloss by Ananda-jīna. Besides separate copies of that, and of the Mahā-āraṇyka, and a commentary on the Vāruni Upaniṣad entitled Laghu digēdā.
indeed produced from food; when born, they live by food; towards food they tend; they pass into food. This he comprehended; [but, yet unsatisfied,] he again approached his father Varuna, saying “Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme.” Varuna replied, “Seek the knowledge of Brahme by devout meditation: Brahme is profound contemplation.”

Having deeply meditated, he discovered breath [or life] to be Brahme: for all these beings are indeed produced from breath; when born, they live by breath; towards breath they tend; they pass into breath. This he understood: [but] again he approached his father Varuna, saying “Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme.” Varuna replied “Seek him by profound meditation: Brahme is that.”

He meditated in deep contemplation; and discovered intellect to be Brahme: for, all these beings are indeed produced from intellect; when born, they live by intellect; towards intellect they tend; and they pass into intellect. This he understood: [but] again he came to his father Varuna, saying, “Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme.” Varuna replied, “Inquire by devout contemplation: profound meditation is Brahme.”

He thought deeply; and, having thus meditated [with] devout contemplation, he knew Ananda [or felicity] to be Brahme: for all these beings are indeed produced from pleasure; when born, they live by joy; they tend towards happiness; they pass into felicity.

Such is the science, which was attained by Briigu, taught by Varuna, and founded on the supreme ethereal spirit. He, who knows this,
ON THE VÉDAS,

rests on the same support; is endowed with [abundant] food; and becomes [a blazing fire], which consumes food: great he is by progeny, by cattle, and by holy perfections; and great, by propitious celebrity.'

The above is the beginning of the last chapter of the Várūki Upanishad. I omit the remainder of it. The first Taittiriyaca Upanishad opens with the following prayer. 'May Mitra [who presides over the day], Varúna [who governs the night], Aryaman [or the regent of the sun and of sight], Indra [who gives strength], Vṛihaspati [who rules the speech and understanding], and Vishnu, whose step is vast, grant us ease.

[1] bow to Brahma. Salutation unto thee, O air! Even thou art Brahma, present [to our apprehension]. Thee I will call "present Brahma:" thee I will name "the right one:" thee I will pronounce "the true one." May that [Brahma, the universal being entitled air], preserve me; may that preserve the teacher: propitious be it.*

ON OTHER UPANISHADS OF THE YAJURVÉDA.

Among the Sácbás of the Yajurveda, one entitled Maitrayáni, furnishes an Upanishad, which bears the same denomination. An abridged paraphrase of it, in verse †, shows it to be a dialogue in which a sage, named Sáca'Yana, communicates to the king Vrihadra'ha, theological knowledge derived from another sage called Maitra.

* I have inserted here, as in other places, between crochets, such illustrations from the commentary, as appear requisite to render the text intelligible.
† By Vidyākānta. I have not seen the original.
A different Śāc'bhā of this Vēda, entitled the Cai'ba or Cāt'bacca, furnishes an Upaṇisābhad bearing that name; and which is one of those most frequently cited by writers on the Vēdānta. It is an extract from a Brāh- 
mana; and also occurs in collections of Upaṇisābhas appertaining to the 
Avaḥvadā.

Śwe'ta'swatara, who has given his name to one more Śāc'bhā of the 
Tajurvēda, from which an Upaṇisābhad is extracted*, is introduced in it, as 
teaching theology. This Upaṇisābhad, comprised in six chapters or lectures 
(ad'byāya), is found in collections of theological tracts appertaining to the 
Avaḥvadā; but, strictly, it appears to belong exclusively to the Tajurvē.

ON THE SĀ'MAVE'DA.

A peculiar degree of holiness seems to be attached, according to 
Indian notions, to the Sāmavēda; if reliance may be placed on the inference suggested by the etymology of its name, which indicates, according 
to the derivation † usually assigned to it, the efficacy of this part of the 
Vēdas in removing sin. The prayers, belonging to it, are, as before ob-
derved, composed in metre, and intended to be chanted; and their supposed efficacy is apparently ascribed to this mode of uttering them.

Not having yet obtained a complete copy of this Vēda, or of any

* In the abridgment of it by Vidyārandūra, this is the description given of the Śwe'ta'swatara Upaṇisābhad.
† From the root Sā convertible into Sā and Sā, and signifying to destroy. The derivative is expounded as denoting something which destroys sin.
commentary on it, I can only describe it imperfectly from such fragments, as I have been able to collect.

A principal, if not the first, part of the Śāmavēda is that entitled Ḍṝṣṭi. It comprises prayers, among which I observe many, that constantly recur in rituals of Śāmavēdeya or Ghahandōga priests, and some of which have been translated in former essays*. They are here arranged, as appears from two copies of the Ḍṝṣṭi †, in six chapters (prapātaka) subdivided into half chapters, and into sections (daśati); ten in each chapter, and usually containing the exact number of ten verses each. The same collection of prayers, in the same order, but prepared for chanting, is distributed in seventeen chapters, under the title of the Grāmāgėya gāna. That, at least, is its title in the only copy which I have seen. But rituals, directing the same prayers to be chanted, employ the designation of Ḍṝṣṭi gāna, among other terms applicable to various modes of rhythmical recitation.

Another portion of the Śāmavēda, arranged for chanting, bears the title of Gārhya gāna. Three copies of it ‡, which seem to agree exactly, exhibit the same distribution into three chapters, which are subdivided into half chapters and decades or sections, like the Ḍṝṣṭi above mentioned§. But I have not yet found a plain copy of it, divested of the additions made for guidance in chanting it.

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* Aṣṭādīk Recherche, Vol. V, and VII.
† One of them dated nearly two centuries ago, in 1672 Sāman. This copy exhibits the further title of Ghahandōga Sanhīda.
‡ The most ancient of those in my possession, is dated nearly three centuries ago, in 1587 Sāman.
§ This Gārhya comprises nearly three hundred verses (Sāman), or exactly 290. The Ḍṝṣṭi contains twice as many, or nearly 600.
THE additions here alluded to, consist in prolonging the sounds of vowels, and resolving diphthongs into two or more syllables, inserting likewise, in many places, other additional syllables, besides placing numerical marks for the management of the voice. Some of the prayers, being subject to variation in the mode of chanting them, are repeated, once or oftener, for the purpose of showing these differences; and, to most, are prefixed the appropriate names of the several passages.

Under the title of Arṣhaḥayā Brāhmaṇa, I have found what seems to be an index of these two portions of the Sāmaveda. For the names of the passages, or sometimes the initial words, are there enumerated in the same order, in which they occur in the Grāma āgya, or Ardhica, followed by the Arāhaya gāna. This index does not, like the explanatory tables of the other Vedas, specify the metre of each prayer, the deity addressed in it, and the occasion on which it should be used; but only the Rṣbi or author: and, from the variety of names stated in some instances, a conclusion may be drawn, that the same texts are ascribable to more than one author.

It has been already hinted, that the modes of chanting the same prayers are various, and bear different appellations. Thus, the rituals frequently direct certain texts of this Veda to be first recited simply, in a low voice, according to the usual mode of inaudible utterance of the Vedas; and then to be similarly chanted, in a particular manner, under the designation of Ardhica gāna; showing, however, divers variations and exceptions from that mode, under the distinct appellation of Aniruđita gāna.* So, likewise, the same, or nearly the same passages, which are contained

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* The ritual, which is the chief authority for this remark, is one by Sānāt' Achara, entitled Tajjyasthāra Sudhānīdhi.
in the A'rchica and Grámagéya, are arranged in a different order, with further variations as to the mode of chanting them, in another collection named the Uba gána.

From the comparison and examination of these parts of the Sámavéda, in which, so far as the collation of them has been carried, the texts appear to be the same, only arranged in a different order, and marked for a different mode of recitation, I am led to think, that other collections, under similar names,* may not differ more widely from the A'rchica and Arahyu above mentioned: and that these may possibly constitute the whole of that part of the Sámavéda, which corresponds to the Sanhitráx of other Védas.

Under the denomination of Bráhmána, which is appropriated to the second part or supplement of the Védas, various works have been received by different schools of the Sámavéda. Four appear to be extant; three of which have been seen by me, either complete or in part. One is denominated Shádvinta; probably from its containing twenty-six chapters. Another is called Adháuta, or, at greater length, Adháuta Bráhmána. The only portion, which I have yet seen, of either, has the appearance of a fragment, and breaks off at the close of the fifth chapter: both names are there introduced, owing, as it should seem, to some error; and I shall not attempt to determine which of them it really belongs to. A third Bráhmána of this Védas is termed Pancastupína; so named, probably, from the number of twenty-five chapters comprised in it: and I

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* Sir Robert Chambers's copy of the Sámavéda comprised four portions entitled Gánas, the distinct names of which, according to the list received from him, are Vigána, Arád, Vigna, Ugáma, and Ubya gana. The first of these, I suspect, to be the Bráhmána, written in that list Arád; the last seems to be the name, with that which is in my copy denominated Uba gána.
conjecture this to be the same with one in my possession not designated by any particular title, but containing that precise number of chapters.

The best known among the Brāhmaṇas of the Śāmaveda is that entitled Tāṇya. It was expounded by Sa'yan'acha'rya; but a fragment of the text with his commentary, including the whole of the second book (panjica), from the sixth to the tenth lecture, is all that I have been yet able to procure. This fragment relates to the religious ceremony named Agnistoma. I do not find it, nor in other portions of the Śāmaaveda before described, any passage, which can be conveniently translated as a specimen of the style of this Veda.

Leaving, then, the Mantras and Brāhmaṇas of the Śāmaaveda, I proceed to notice its principal Upaniṣhad, which is one of the longest and most abstruse compositions bearing that title.

The Cb'handogya Upaniṣhad contains eight chapters (prāvatacar), apparently extracted from some portion of the Brāhmaṇa, in which they are numbered from three to ten *. The first and second, not being included in the Upaniṣhad, probably relate to religious ceremonies. The chapters are unequally subdivided into paragraphs or sections, amounting, in all, to more than a hundred and fifty.

A great part of the Cb'handogya † is in a didactic form, including however, like most of the other Upaniṣhads, several dialogues. The beginning of one, between Sanatcumara and Na'eda, which occupies the

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* I have several copies of the text, with the gloss of Sanacara, and annotations on it by Anandajnya- Nāgiri; besides the notes of Vyāsatīrtha on a commentary by Anandatīrtha.
† Its author, indicated by Vyāsatīrtha, is Hāyagrīva.
whole of the seventh chapter *, has been already quoted. The preceding chapter consists of two dialogues between S\textit{wetace\textasciiacute{t}}u, grandson of Arun\textsuperscript{a}, and his own father U\textit{dadalaca} the son of Arun\textsuperscript{a}. These had been prepared in the fifth chapter, where Pra\textsuperscript{a}h\textsuperscript{a}na, son of Jiva\textsuperscript{a}, convinces S\textit{wetace\textasciiacute{t}}u of ignorance in theology and where that conversation is followed by several other dialogues, intermixed with successive references for instruction. The fourth chapter opens with a story respecting Janas\textsuperscript{ruti}, grandson of Putra; and, in this and the fifth chapter, dialogues, between human beings, are interspersed with others in which the interlocutors are either divine or imaginary persons. The eighth or last chapter contains a disquisition on the soul; in a conference between Praja\textsuperscript{a}pati and Indra.

I shall here quote, from this \textit{Upanishad}, a single dialogue belonging to the fifth chapter.

\textit{Prachinas}\textsuperscript{\textasciitilde{a}}la son of Upamanyu, Satyayajnya issue of Pulusha, Indradyumna offspring of Bhallavi, Jana descendant of Sarcaracsya, and Vudila sprung from A\textit{swatara\textasciitilde{s}\textasciiacute{w}}a, being all persons deeply conversant with holy writ, and possessed of great dwellings, meeting together, engaged in this disquisition, "What is our soul? and who is Brabhme?"

"These venerable persons reflected, "U\textit{dadalaca}, the son of Arun\textsuperscript{a}, is well acquainted with the universal soul: let us immediately go to him." They went: but he reflected, "these great and very learned persons will

* That is, the seventh of the extract, which constitutes this \textit{Upanishad}; but the ninth, according to the mode of numbering the chapters, in the book, whence it is taken.
ask me; and I shall not [be able] to communicate the whole [which they inquire]: I will at once indicate to them another [instructor].” He thus addressed them, “Aswapati, the son of Cecaya, is well acquainted with the universal soul; let us now go to him.”

They all went; and, on their arrival, [the king] caused due honours to be shown to them respectively; and, next morning, civilly dismissed them; [but, observing, that they flailed, and did not accept his presents,] he thus spoke: “In my dominions, there is no robber; nor miser; no drunkard; nor any one neglectful of a consecrated hearth; none ignorant; and no adulterer, nor adulterers. Whence [can you have been aggrieved]?” [As they did not state a complaint, he thus proceeded] “I must be asked, O venerable men! [for what you desire].” [Finding, that they made no request, he went on:] “As much as I shall bestow on each officiating priest, so much will I also give to you. Stay then, most reverend men.” They answered: “It is indeed requisite to inform a person, of the purpose of a visit. Thou well knowest the universal soul; communicate that knowledge unto us.” He replied: “Tomorrow I will declare it to you.” Perceiving his drift, they, next day, attended him bearing [like pupils] logs of firewood. Without bowing to them, he thus spoke.

“Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O son of Upamanyu?” “Heaven,” answered he, “O venerable king!” “Splendid is that [portion of the] universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul: therefore, in thy family, is seen [the juice of the acid asclepias] drawn, expressed, and prepared, [for religious rites]; thou dost consume food [as a blazing fire]; and dost view a [son or other] beloved object. Whoever worships this for the universal soul, similarly enjoys food, contemplates a beloved object, and finds religious occupations in his family. But this is [only] the head of
the soul. Thy head had been lost," added the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

"He now turned to SATYAVAJNYA the son of PULUSHA, saying: "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of PRACHINA-YOGA?" "The sun," answered he, "O venerable king!" "Varied is that portion of the universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, in thy family, many various forms are seen: a chariot yoked with mares, and treasure, together with female slaves, surround thee; thou dost consume food, and contemplate a pleasing object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, has the same enjoyments, and finds religious occupations in his family. But this is only the eye of soul. Thou hadst been blind," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

"He next addressed INDIRAYUMNA the son of BHALAVI: "Whom dost thou worship, as the soul, O descendant of VYAGHRAPAD?" "Air," replied he, "O venerable king!" "Dispersed is that portion of the universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul; numerous offerings reach thee; many tracts of cars follow thee; thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, enjoys food and contemplates a beloved object; and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the breath of soul. Thy breath had expired," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

"He then interrogated JANA the son of SARCARAGSHYA: "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O son of SARCARAGSHYA?" "The ethereal elements," said he, "O venerable king!" "Abundant is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, thou likewife dost abound with progeny and wealth. Thou dost consume food;
thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, consumes food, and sees a beloved object; and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the trunk of soul. Thy trunk had corrupted," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

"He afterwards inquired of Vudila the son of Aswatara'swa: "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Vyāghrapad?" "Water," said he, "O venerable king!" "Rich is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul; and therefore, art thou opulent and thriving. Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, partakes of similar enjoyments, contemplates as dear an object, and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the abdomen of the soul. Thy bladder had burst," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

"Lastly he interrogated Uddalaca the son of Aruna. "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Gotama?" "The earth," said he, "O venerable king!" "Constable is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul: and, therefore, thou remainest steady, with offspring and with cattle. Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, shares like enjoyments, and views as beloved an object, and has religious occupations in his family. But this forms only the feet of the soul. Thy feet had been lame," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

"He thus addressed them [collectively]: "You consider this universal soul, as it were an individual being; and you partake of distinct enjoyment. But he, who worships, as the universal soul, that which is known by its [manifested] portions, and is inferred [from consciousness],

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enjoys nourishment in all worlds, in all beings, in all souls: his head is splendid, like that of this universal soul; his eye is similarly varied; his breath is equally diffused; his trunk is no less abundant; his abdomen is alike full; and his feet are the earth; his breast is the altar; his hair is the sacred grass; his heart, the household fire; his mind, the consecrated flame; and his mouth, the oblation.

"The food, which first reaches him, should be solemnly offered: and the first oblation, which he makes, he should present with these words: "Be this oblation to breath efficacious." Thus breath is satisfied; and, in that, the eye is satiate; and, in the eye, the sun is content; and, in the sun, the sky is gratified; and, in the sky, heaven and the sun, and whatever is dependant, become replete: and after that, he himself [who eats] is fully gratified with offspring and cattle; with vigour proceeding from food, and splendour arising from holy observances."

"But whoever makes an oblation to fire, being unacquainted with the universal soul, acts in the same manner, as one who throws live coals into ashes: while he, who presents an oblation, possessing that knowledge, has made an offering in all worlds, in all beings, in all souls. As the tip of dry grass, which is cast into the fire, readily kindles; so are all the faults of that man consumed. He, who knows this, has only presented an oblation to the universal soul, even though he knowingly give the residue to a Chándála. For, on this point, a text is [preserved]: "As, in this world, hungry infants press round their mother; so do all beings await the holy oblation: they await the holy oblation."

* Several similar paragraphs, respecting four other oblations, so presented to other inspirations of air, are here omitted for the sake of brevity. The taking of a mouthful, by an orthodox Hindu theologian, is considered as an efficacious oblation: and denominated Pránágniśtra.
Another Upanishad of the Sāmaṇḍa belongs to the Śaṅkha of the Tālauvācāras. It is called the "Cenēśbīna," or "Cena" Upanishad, from the word, or words, with which it opens; and, as appears from Sāncara's commentary, this treatise is the ninth chapter (adhyāya) of the work, from which it is extracted. It is comprised in four sections (cāṇḍa). The form is that of a dialogue between instructors and their pupils. The subject is, as in other Upanishads, a disquisition on astral and mystical theology. I shall not make any extract from it, but proceed to describe the fourth and last Veda.

ON THE AT’HARVA-VEDA.

The Sāṅhitā, or collection of prayers and invocations, belonging to the At’harvaniya, is comprised in twenty books (cāṇḍa), subdivided into sections (anuvāca), hymns (śeṭa), and verses (ṛīṭa). Another mode of division by chapters (prapātaka) is also indicated. The number of verses is stated at 6015; the sections exceed a hundred; and the hymns amount to more than seven hundred and sixty. The number of chapters is forty nearly.

A passage from this Veda was quoted by Sir W. Jones in his essay on the literature of the Hindus; and a version of it was given, as a

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* I have Sāncara's gloss, with the illustrations of his annotator, and the ample commentary of Āchārya Manuša; besides a separate gloss, with annotations, on the familiar Upanis̄haad belonging to the At’harvaniya Veda.

† Asiatic Researches, Vol. I. P. 547.

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specimen of the language and style of the Atharvan'a. That passage comprises the whole of the forty-third hymn of the nineteenth book *. In the beginning of the same book, I find a hymn (numbered as the sixth) which is almost word for word the same with that, which has been before cited from the thirty-first chapter of the white Yajuṣṭa †. Some of the verses are indeed transposed, and here and there a word differs: for example, it opens by describing the primeval man (purusba) with a thousand arms, instead of a thousand heads. The purport is nevertheless the same; and it is needless, therefore, to insert a version of it in this place.

The next hymn, in the same book, includes an important passage. It names the twenty-eight asterisms in their order, beginning with Critticā: and seems to refer the solstice to the end of Aśleśā, or beginning of Magbā. I call it an important passage; first, because it shows, that the introduction of the twenty-eighth asterism is as ancient, as the Atharvanāvēda; and secondly, because it authorizes a presumption, that the whole of that Vēda, like this particular hymn, may have been composed when the solstice was reckoned in the middle, or at the end, of Aśleśā ‡, and the origin of the Zodiack was placed at the beginning of Critticā. On the obvious conclusion, respecting the age of the Vēda, I shall enlarge in another place.

* Sir W. Jones cites it, as from the first book; I suspect, that, in Colonel Polier's copy, the nineteenth book might stand first in the volume. It does so, in General Martin's transcript, though the colophon be correct. I have another, and very complete, copy of this Vēda. General Martin's, which I also possess, is defective: containing only the ten first and the two last books. An ancient fragment, also in my possession, does not extend beyond the sixth.
† Asatik Researches, Vol. VII. P. 251.
‡ The middle of Aśleśā, if the divisions be twenty-seven, and its end, when they are twenty-eight equal portions, give the same place for the solstice.
An incantation, which appears to be the same that is mentioned by Sir W. Jones, * occurs in the fourth section of the nineteenth book. It is indeed a tremendous incantation; especially the three Suśtas, or hymns, which are numbered 28. 29. and 30. A single line will be a sufficient specimen of these imprecations, in which, too, there is much lamentation.

' Destroy, O sacred grass, my foes; exterminate my enemies; annihilate all those, who hate me, O precious gem!'

The Atharva vēda, as is well known, contains many forms of imprecation for the destruction of enemies. But it must not be inferred, that such is the chief subject of that Vēda; since it also contains a great number of prayers for safety and for the averting of calamities: and, like the other Vēdas, numerous hymns to the gods, with prayers to be used at solemn rites and religious exercises, excepting such as are named Yajnya.

The Gōpat'ha Brāhmaṇa appears to belong to the second part of this Vēda. Not having seen a commentary, nor an index, of this work, I can only speak of it, from a copy in my possession: this contains five chapters (Prapātaca), with the date of the transcript * and name of the transcriber, at the end of the fifth, as is usual in the colophon at the close of a volume.

The first chapter of this Gōpat'ha Brāhmaṇa traces the origin of the universe from Brahma; and it appears from the fourth section of this chapter, that At’harvan is considered as a Prajāpati appointed by Brahma to create and protect subordinate beings.

† Darbba, Poa Cyonosuroides.
* It is dated at Mai'barā in the year (Samvat) 1732.
In the fifth chapter, several remarkable passages, identifying the primeval person (purusha) with the year (samvatfara), convey marked allusions to the calendar. In one place (the fifth section), besides stating the year to contain twelve or thirteen lunar months, the subdivision of that period is pursued to 360 days; and, thence, to 10,800 muburtas, or hours.

I proceed to notice the most remarkable part of the At'harva-veda, consisting of the theological treatises, entitled Upanishads, which are appended on it. They are computed at fifty-two: but this number is completed by reckoning, as distinct Upanishads, different parts of a single tract. Four such treatises, comprising eight Upanishads; together with six of those before described as appertaining to other Vedas, are perpetually cited in disquisitions on the Vedanta. Others are either more sparingly, or not at all, quoted.

It may be here proper to explain what is meant by Upanishad. In dictionaries, this term is made equivalent to Rehefsya, which signifies mystery. This last term is, in fact, frequently employed by Menu and other ancient authors, where the commentators understand Upanishads to be meant. But neither the etymology, nor the acceptation, of the word, which is now to be explained, has any direct connexion with the idea of secrecy, concealment, or mystery. Its proper meaning, according to Sancara, Sa'yan'a, and all the commentators, is divine science, or the knowledge of God: and, according to the same authorities, it is equally applicable to theology itself, and to a book in which this science is taught. Its derivation is from the verb sah (shad-ri) to destroy, to move or to weary, preceded by the prepositions upa near, and ni continually, or nis certainly. The sense, properly

* The Cina and Ch'bhandiga from the Samaveda; the V'yabd aropan'ya and It' voc'ya from the white Yajus, and the Taishiya from the black Yajus; the Aitareya from the Rgveda; and the Cau'ba, Pad'na, Muc'daca and Manda'ya from the At'harva-dua. To these should be added the Nritsaba sipansya.
deducible from this etymology, according to the different explanations given by commentators, invariably points to the knowledge of the divine perfections, and to the consequent attainment of beatitude through exemption from passions.*

The whole of the Indian theology is professedly founded on the Upaniṣhads †. Those, which have been before described, have been shown to be extracts from the Veda. The rest are also considered as appertaining to the Indian scripture; it does not, however, clearly appear, whether they are detached essays, or have been extracted from a Brāhmaṇa of the At'harva-vēda. I have not found any of them in the Sanhitā of the At'harvaṇa, nor in the Gopat'ba brāhmaṇa.

In the best copies of the fifty-two Upaniṣhads, ‡ the first fifteen are stated to have been taken from the Saunacēyas, whose Sāc'bā seems to be the principal one of the At'harva-vēda. The remaining thirty-seven appertain to various Sāc'bās, mostly to that of the Paippalādis: but some of them, as will be shown, are borrowed from other Vēdas.

The Mundaka, divided into six sections unequally distributed in two parts, is the first Upaniṣhad of the At'harvaṇa; and is also one of the most important, for the doctrines which it contains. It has been fully illustrated by Saṅcarā, whose gloss is affixed by the annotations of Anandaj-

* Saṅcarā, and Anandaśrama on the Viśhād āraṇyaka; as also the commentaries on other Upaniṣhads, especially Saṅcarā on the Cat'haba. Other authors concur in assigning the same acceptation and etymology to the word: they vary, only, in the mode of reconciling the derivation with the sense.

† It is expressly so affirmed in the Vedānta sāra, v. 3.

‡ I possess an excellent copy, which corresponds with one transcribed for Mr. Blaquière, from a similar collection of Upaniṣhads belonging to the late Sir W. Jones. In two other copies, which I also obtained at Benares, the arrangement differs, and several Upaniṣhads are inserted, the genuineness of which is questionable; while others are admitted, which belong exclusively to the Yajurveda.
The opening of this Upanishad, comprising the whole of the first section, is here subjoined.

*Brahma* was first of the gods, framer of the universe, guardian of the world. He taught the knowledge of God, which is the foundation of all science, to his eldest son *Atharva*. That holy science, which *Brahma* revealed to *Atharvan*, was communicated by him to *Angir*, who transmitted it to *Satyavaha*, the descendant of *Bharadwaja*: and this son of *Bharadwaja* imparted the traditional science to *Angiras*.

*Saunaca*, or the son of *Sunaca*, a mighty householder, addressing *Angiras* with due respect, asked "What is it, O venerable sage, through which, when known, this universe is understood?"

"To him the holy personage thus replied: "Two sorts of science must be distinguished; as they, who know God, declare: the supreme science, and another. This other is the *Rigveda*, the *Yajurveda*, the *SamaVEDA*, the *Atharvaveda*; the rules of accentuation, the rites of religion, grammar, the glossary and explanation of obscure terms, prosody, and astronomy; also the *Itihasa* and *Puravada*; and logic, with the rules of interpretation, and the system of moral duties.

"But the supreme science is that, by which this unperishable [nature] is apprehended; invisible [or imperceptible, as is that nature]: not to be seized; not to be deduced; devoid of colour; destitute of eyes and ears;"

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*Sanjara* remarks, that *Atharva*, or *Atharvan*, may have been the first creature, in one of the many modes of creation, which have been practised by *Brahma*.

† Meaning the prayers contained in the four *Vedas*, disjoined from theology.
without hands or feet, yet ever variously pervading all: minute, unalterable; and contemplated by the wise for the source of beings.

"As the spider spins and gathers back [its thread]; as plants sprout on the earth; as hairs grow on a living person; so is this universe, here, produced from the unperishable nature. By contemplation, the vast one germinates; from him, food [or body] is produced; and thence, successively, breath, mind, real [elements], worlds, and immortality arising from [good] deeds. The omniscient is profound contemplation, consisting in the knowledge of him, who knows all: and, from that, the [manifested] vast one, as well as names, forms, and food, proceed: and this is truth."

The Prāṇa, which is the second Upaniṣad, and equally important with the first, consists, like it, of six sections; and has been similarly interpreted by Sāncara and Baḷacrīshṇa. * In this dialogue, Suceś's Ā the son of Bharadwaḍa, Saṭyacāma descended from Śivi, Saurya-ā'yaṇa a remote descendant of the Sun, but belonging to the family of Garga, Causing surnamed Aśwala'yaṇa, or son of Aśwala, Vaidarbhi of the race of Bhrīgu, together with Carand'hi' surnamed Ca'ya'yaṇa; or descendant of Ca'ya, are introduced as seeking the knowledge of theology, and applying to Pi'pala'da for instruction. They successively interrogate him concerning the origin of creatures, the nature of the gods, the union of life with body, and the connexion of thoughts with the soul.

The nine succeeding Upaniṣads (from the 3d to the 11th) are of inferior importance, and have been left unexplained by the writers on the Vēdānta,

* I have several copies of the text, besides commentaries on both Upaniṣad.
because they do not directly relate to the Sāṅkrāta, or theological doctrine respecting the nature of the soul. They are enumerated in the margin.

The Manuṣya follows, and consists of four parts, each constituting a distinct Upaniṣhad. This abstruse treatise, comprising the most material doctrines of the Vedānta, has been elucidated by the labours of Gaṇḍapaḍa, and S’aṅcara. Gaṇḍapaḍa’s commentary is illustrated by the notes of Ananda-giri.

Among the miscellaneous Upaniṣhads, the first thirteen (from the 16th to the 28th) have been left uncommented by the principal expounders of the Vedānta, for a reason before mentioned. The names of these Upaniṣhads will be found in the subjoined note.

The following six (from the 29th to the 34th,) constitute the Nṛṣinba Tāpaniṭya: five of them compose the Pūrva Tāpaniṭya or first part of the Upaniṣhad so called; and the last, and most important, is entitled Uttara Tāpaniṭya. It has been expounded by Gaṇḍapaḍa; as the first part (if not the whole Upaniṣhad) has been, by S’aṅcara. The object of this treatise appears to be the identifying of Nṛṣinba with all the gods: but, so far as I comprehend its meaning (for I have not sufficiently examined

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* This reason is assigned by the annotator on S’aṅcara’s gloss, at the beginning of his notes on the Manuṣya Upaniṣhad.
† 3d Brāhma-vidyā. 4th Chauricā. 5th Chālīka. 6th and 7th Āṭhara-vātras. 8th Garbha. 9th Mabā. 10th Brāhma. 11th Pradāgnibhāra.
‡ 16th Nila-rudra. 17th Nada-vindu. 18th Brahme-vindu. 19th Mrīta-vindu. 20th Dhyāna-vindu. 21st Tṛṣṇi-vindu. 22d Yogo-sthūla. 23d Yogā-caturva. 24th Sanadīva. 25th Aravī or Aravī-yoga. 26th Candel-barati. 27th Pīnta. 28th Āṭmā.
§ I have several copies of the text, and of Gaṇḍapaḍa’s commentary; with a single transcript of S’aṅcara’s gloss on the five first of the treatises entitled Tāpaniṭya.
it to pronounce confidently on this point;) the fabulous incarnation of
Vishnu, in the shape of a vast lion, does not seem to be at all intended;
and the name of Narasimha is applied to the divinity, with a superlative
import, but with no apparent allusion to that fable.

The two next Upanishads constitute the first and second parts of the
Cāthaca, or Vallī, or Cāthacavalli (for the name varies in different copies).
It belongs properly to the Yajurveda, as before mentioned; but it is usually
cited from the Atharvaveda; and has been commented, as appertaining to
this Veda, by S'ancara, and by Balacrishna.*

It comprises six sections, severally entitled Vallī; but constituting
two chapters (adhyāya), denominated Pūrva-vallī and Uttara-vallī.
The dialogue is supported by Mrityu or death, and the prince Nachi-
ce'tas; whom his father Vajrasāvatasa consigned to Yama, being
provoked by the boy's importunately asking him, (through zeal, however,
for the success of a sacrifice performed to ensure universal conquest;) "to
whom wilt thou give me?" Yama receives Nachicseat'tas with honor,
and instructs him in theology, by which beatitude and exemption from
worldly sufferings may be attained, through a knowledge of the true nature
of the soul, and its identity with the supreme being. The doctrine
is similar to that of other principal Upanishads.

The Cenéhi or Cina Upanishad is the thirty-seventh of the Athar-
va'ṇa, and agrees, almost word for word, with a treatise bearing the same

* The commentary of S'ancara is, as usual, concise and perspicuous: and that of Balacrishna,
copious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a para-
phrase by Vidyaranya, I have found this Upanishad forming a chapter in a Brāhmaṇa, which is
marked as belonging to the Sâmaveda, and which I conjecture to be the Paucha vima Brāhmaṇa of
that Veda.
title and belonging to a Śācchā of the Sāmaveda. Śaṅcarā has, however, written separate commentaries on both, for the sake of exhibiting their different interpretations*. Both commentaries have, as usual, been annotated.

A short Upaniṣhad, entitled Nārāyana, is followed by two others (39th and 40th), which form the first and second parts of the Vṛīhan Nārāyana. This corresponds, as before mentioned, with an Upaniṣhad, bearing the same title, and terminating the Arokiya of the Taittirīya Vajurveda.

On the three subsequent Upaniṣhads, I shall offer no remarks; they have not been commented, among such as relate to the Vedaṇta; and I have not ascertained, whence they are extracted.†

Under the name of Anandavalli and Bṛigu-valli, two Upaniṣhads follow (44th and 45th), which have been already noticed as extracts from the Arokiya of the black Vajuga, distinguished by the titles of Taittirīya and Vāruci.

The remaining seven Upaniṣhads‡ are unexplained by commentators on the Vedaṇta. They are indeed sufficiently easy, not to require a laboured interpretation: but there is room to regret the want of an ancient commentary, which might assist in determining whether these Upaniṣhads be genuine. The reason of this remark will be subsequently explained.

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* Here, as in other instances, I speak from copies in my possession.
† Their titles are 41st Sarvopanibhāda, 42nd Hanuṣa, and 43rd Parama Hanuṣa.
‡ 46th Gauda, 47th Cālāyukuttra, 48th and 49th Rāma Ṭāpanīya first and second parts, 50th Gaṇapada, 51st Tābala, 52nd Afūma.
ENTERTAINING no doubts concerning the genuineness of the other
works, which have been here described, I think it, nevertheless, proper to state
some of the reasons, on which my belief of their authenticity is founded.
It appears necessary to do so; since a late author has abruptly pronounced
the Védas to be forgeries.*

It has been already mentioned, that the practice of reading the principal Védas in superstitious modes, tends to preserve the genuine text.
Copies, prepared for such modes of recital, are spread in various parts
of India, especially Benares, Jeyenagar, and the banks of the Gódávéri.
Interpolations and forgeries have become impracticable, since this usage
has been introduced: and the Rígvédas, and both the Yajushes, belonging
to the several Sác'hás, in which that custom has been adopted, have
been, therefore, long safe from alteration.

The explanatory table of contents, belonging to the several Védas,
also tends to ensure the purity of the text; since the subject and length
of each passage are therein specified. The index, again, is itself secured
from alteration by more than one exposition of its meaning, in the form
of a perpetual commentary.

It is a received and well grounded opinion of the learned in India,
that no book is altogether safe from changes and interpolations, until it
have been commented: but when once a gloss has been published, no
fabrication could afterwards succeed; because the perpetual commentary
notices every passage, and, in general, explains every word.

Commentaries on the Védas themselves exist, which testify the au-

* Mr. Pinkerton in his Modern Geography, Vol. II.
thenticity of the text. Some are stated to have been composed in early times: I shall not, however, rely on any, but those, to which I can with certainty refer. I have fragments of Uvāṭa's gloss; the greatest part of Sāyānā's on several Vēdas; and a complete one by Mahīḍhara on a single Vēda. I also possess nearly the whole of Sāncara's commentary on the Upaniṣads; and a part of Gauḍāpaḍa's; with others, by different authors of less note.

The genuineness of the commentaries, again, is secured by a crowd of annotators, whose works expound every passage in the original gloss; and whose annotations are again interpreted by others. This observation is particularly applicable to the most important parts of the Vēdas, which, as is natural, are the most fluently and elaborately explained.

The Niruṭa, with its copious commentaries, on the obsolete words and passages of scripture, further authenticates the accuracy of the text, as there explained. The references, and quotations, in those works, agree with the text of the Vēdas, as we now find it.

The grammar of the Sanscrit language contains rules applicable to the anomalies of the ancient dialect. The many and voluminous commentaries on that, and on other parts of the grammar, abound in examples cited from the Vēdas; and here, also, the present text is consonant to those ancient quotations.

Philosophical works, especially the numerous commentaries on the aphorisms of the Mimāṃsā and Vēdānta, illustrate and support every position advanced in them, by ample quotations from the Vēdas. The object of the Mimāṃsā is to establish the cogency of precepts contained
in scripture, and to furnish maxims for its interpretation; and, for the same purpose, rules of reasoning, from which a system of logick is deducible. The object of the Vedánta is to illustrate the system of mystical theology taught by the supposed revelation, and to show its application to the enthusiastic pursuit of unimpassioned perfection and mystical intercourse with the divinity. Both are closely connected with the Vedas: and here, likewise, the authenticity of the text is supported by ancient references and citations.

Numerous collections of aphorisms, by ancient authors *, on religious ceremonies, contain, in every line, references to passages of the Vedas. Commentaries on these aphorisms cite the passages at greater length. Separate treatises also interpret the prayers used at divers ceremonies. Rituals, some ancient, others modern, contain a full detail of the ceremonial with all the prayers which are to be recited at the various religious rites, for which they are formed. Such rituals are extant, not only for ceremonies which are constantly observed, but for others which are rarely practiced; and even for such, as have been long since dispersed. In all, the passages, taken from the Vedas, agree with the text of the general compilation.

The Indian legislators, with their commentators, and the copious digests and compilations from their works, frequently refer to the Vedas; especially on those points of the law, which concern religion. Here also,

* The Sūtras of Aśwālātana, Saṅchyañana, Baudhāñañana, Cāvyñañana, Lāññañana Gośhila, Apastamba, &c.

These, appertaining to various Sākṣas of the Vedas, constitute the calpa or system of religious observances. I have here enumerated a few only. The list might be much enlarged, from my own collection; and still more so, from quotations by various compilers; for the original works and their commentaries, as well as compilations from them, are every numerous.
the references are consistent with the present text of the *Indian scripture*.

Writers on ethics sometimes draw from the *Vedas* illustrations of moral maxims; and quote from their holy writ, passages at full length, in support of ethical precepts *. These quotations are found to agree with the received text of the sacred books.

Citations from the *Indian scripture* occur in every branch of literature, studied by orthodox Hindus. Astronomy, so far as it relates to the calendar, has frequent occasion for reference to the *Vedas*. Medical writers sometimes cite them; and even annotators on profane poets occasionally refer to this authority, in explaining passages which contain allusions to the sacred text.

Even the writings of the heretical sects exhibit quotations from the *Vedas*. I have met with such in the books of the *Jainas*, unattended by any indication of their doubting the genuineness of the original, though they do not receive its doctrines, nor acknowledge its cogency †.

In all these branches of *Indian* literature, while perusing or consulting the works of various authors, I have found perpetual references to the *Vedas*, and have frequently verified the quotations. On this ground, I defend the authentick text of the *Indian scripture*, as it is now extant;

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* A work entitled *Niti manjari* is an instance of this mode of treating moral subjects.

† The *Sutopatha Brhadma\~na*, especially the 14th book, or *Vibhadarana\~ya*, is repeatedly cited with exact references to the numbers of the chapters and sections, in a fragment of a treatise by a *Jaina* author, the communication of which I owe to Mr. *Spere*, among other fragments collected by the late Capt. *Hoare*, and purchased at the sale of that gentleman's library.
and, although the passages, which I have so verified, are few, compared
with the great volume of the Védas, yet I have sufficient grounds to argue,
that no skill, in the nefarious arts of forgery and falsification, could be
equal to the arduous task of fabricating large works, to agree with the
very numerous citations, pervading thousands of volumes, composed on
diverse subjects, in every branch of literature, and dispersed through the
various nations of Hindus inhabiting Hindustan, and the Dekhin.

If any part of what is now received as the Védas cannot stand the test
of such a comparison, it may be rejected as at least doubtful, if not
certainly spurious. Even such parts, as cannot be fully confirmed by a
strict scrutiny, must be either received with caution, or be set aside as
questionable. I shall point out parts of the fourth Védas, which I con-
sider to be in this predicament. But, with the exceptions now indi-
cated, the various portions of the Védas, which have been examined, are
as yet free from such suspicion; and, until they are impeached by more
than vague assertion, have every title to be admitted as genuine copies
of books, which (however little deserving of it) have been long held in
reverence by the Hindus.

I am apprized, that this opinion will find opponents, who are inclined to
dispute the whole of Indian literature, and to consider it all as consisting of
forgeries fabricated within a few years, or at best in the last few ages.
This appears to be grounded on assertions and conjectures, which were
inconsiderately hazarded, and which have been eagerly received and
extravagantly strained.

In the first place, it should be observed, that a work must not be hastily
condemned as a forgery, because, on examination, it appears not to have

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been really written by the person, whose name is usually coupled with quotations from it. For, if the very work itself show, that it does not purport to be written by that person, the safe conclusion is, that it was never meant to be ascribed to him. Thus, the two principal codes of Hindu law are usually cited as Menu's and Ya'ñyawalcya's: but, in the codes themselves, those are dialogists not authors: and the best commentators expressly declare, that these institutes were written by other persons than Menu and Ya'ñyawalcya.* The Sûrya Siddhânta is not pretended to have been written by Meya: but he is introduced as receiving instruction from a partial incarnation of the Sun: and their conversation constitutes a dialogue, which is recited by another person in a different company. The text of the Sânc'bya philosophy, from which the sect of Budd'ha seems to have borrowed its doctrines, is not the work of Capila himself, though vulgarly ascribed to him: but it purports to be composed by I'swara Crîshnâ; and he is stated to have received the doctrine mediately from Capila, through successive teachers, after its publication by Panchasic'hâ, who had been himself instructed by Asuri, the pupil of Capila.

To adduce more instances would be tedious: they abound in every branch of science. Among works, the authors of which are unknown, and which therefore, as usual, are vulgarly ascribed to some celebrated name, many contain undisguised evidence of a more modern date. Such are those parts of Purâñas, in which the prophetick style is assumed, because they relate to events posterior to the age of the persons, who are speakers in the dialogue. Thus, Budd'ha is mentioned under various names in the Matsya, Vishnu, Bhâgavata, Garuda, Nrisinha and other purânas. I must not omit to notice, that Sancar'acha'rya, the great commentator on

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*Vijñya'nayo'gi, also named Vijñya'ne'svara, who commented the institutes, which bear the name of Ya'ñyawalcya, states the text to be an abridgment by a different author.
the abstrusest parts of the Vedas, is celebrated in the Vribhad d'harma purâna* as an incarnation of Vishnu; and Gaup'apa'da is described, in the Sancara vijeya, as the pupil of Suka the son of Vyasa.†

I do not mean to say, that forgeries are not sometimes committed; or that books are not counterfeited in whole or in part. Sir W. Jones, Mr. Blackmore, and myself, have detected interpolations. Many greater forgeries have been attempted: some have for a time succeeded, and been ultimately discovered: in regard to others, detection has immediately overtaken the fraudulent attempt. A conspicuous instance of systematic fabrication, by which Captain Wilford was for a time deceived, has been brought to light, as has been fully stated by that gentleman. But, though some attempts have been abortive, others may doubtless have succeeded. I am myself inclined to adopt an opinion supported by many learned Hindus, who consider the celebrated Sri Bhâgavata, as the work of a grammarian, supposed to have lived about six hundred years ago,

In this, as in several other instances, some of which I shall have likewise occasion to notice, the learned among the Hindus have refuted the impostions that have been attempted. Many others might be stated, where no impostion has been either practised or intended. In Europe, as well as in the East, works are often published anonymously with fictitious introductions; and diverse compositions, the real authors of which are not known, have on insufficient grounds been dignified with celebrated names. To

* In the 78th chapter of the 2d part. This is the Purana, mentioned by me with doubt in a former essay. I have since procured a copy of it.
† If this were not a fable, the real age of Vyasa might be hence ascertained; and, consequently, the period, when the Vedas were arranged in their present form: Govinda natha, the instructor of Sancara, is stated to have been the pupil of Gaupapa'da; and, according to the traditions generally received in the peninsula of India, Sancara lived little more than eight hundred years ago.
such instances, which are frequent everywhere, the imputation of forgery

does not attach.

In Europe, too, literary forgeries have been committed both in ancient
and modern times. The poems, ascribed to Orpheus, are generally ad-
mitted not to have been composed by that poet, if indeed he ever existed.
Nani, or Annius, of Viterbo, is now universally considered an impostor,
notwithstanding the defence of his publication and of himself by some
among the learned of his age. In our own country, and in recent times,
literary frauds have been not unfrequent. But a native of India, who
should retort the charge, and argue from a few instances, that the whole
literature of Europe, which is held ancient, consists of modern forgeries,
would be justly censured for his presumption.

We must not then indiscriminately condemn the whole literature of
India. Even Father Hardouin, when he advanced a similar paradox
respecting the works of ancient writers, excepted some compositions of
Cicero, Virgil, Horace and Pliny.

It is necessary in this country, as everywhere else, to be guarded
against literary impositions. But doubt and suspicion should not be carried
to an extreme length. Some fabricated works, some interpolated passages,
will be detected by the sagacity of critics in the progress of researches into
the learning of the east; but the greatest part of the books, received by
the learned among the Hindus, will assuredly be found genuine. I do not
doubt, that the Vedas, of which an account has been here given, will
appear to be of this description.

In pronouncing them to be genuine, I mean to say, that they are the
fame compositions, which, under the same title of Véda, have been revered by Hindus for hundreds, if not thousands, of years. I think it probable, that they were compiled by Dwa’pa’yana, the person who is said to have collected them, and who is thence surnamed Vyáša, or the compiler. I can perceive no difficulty in admitting, that those passages, which are now ascribed to human authors, either as the Rñbüs, or as the reciters of the text, were attributed to the same persons, so long ago, as when the compilation was made: and, probably, in most instances, those passages were really composed by the alleged authors. Concerning such texts, as are assigned to divine persons according to Hindu mythology, it may be fairly concluded, that the true writers of them were not known when the compilation was made: and, for this reason, they were assigned to fabulous personages.

The different portions, which constitute the Védas, must have been written at various times. The exact period, when they were compiled, or that, in which the greatest part was composed, cannot be determined with accuracy and confidence from any facts yet ascertained. But the country may; since many rivers of India are mentioned in more than one text: and, in regard to the period, I incline to think, that the ceremonies called Rajnya, and the prayers to be recited at those ceremonies, are as old as the calendar, which purports to have been framed for such religious rites.

To each Véda, a treatise, under the title of Jyotisa, is annexed; which explains the adjustment of the calendar, for the purpose of fixing the proper periods for the performance of religious duties. It is adapted to the comparison of solar and lunar time with the vulgar or civil year; and was evidently formed in the infancy of astronomical knowledge. From the
rules delivered in the treatises, which I have examined *, it appears, that the cycle (Yuga) there employed, is a period of five years only. The month is lunar; but at the end, and in the middle, of the quinquennial period, an intercalation is admitted by doubling one month. Accordingly, the cycle comprises three common lunar years, and two, which contain thirteen lunations each. The year is divided into six seasons; and each month, into half months. A complete lunation is measured by thirty lunar days; some one of which must of course, in alternate months, be sunk, to make the dates agree with the nycthemera. For this purpose, the sixty-second day appears to be deducted †: and, thus, the cycle of five years consists of 1860 lunar days, or 1930 nycthemera; subject to a further correction, for the excess of nearly four days above the true sidereal year: but the exact quantity of this correction, and the method of making it, according to this calendar, have not been yet sufficiently investigated to be here stated. The zodiac is divided into twenty-seven asterisms, or signs, the first of which, both in the Jyotishi and in the Vedas, is Curvica or the Pleiads. The place of the colures, according to these astronomical treatises, will be forthwith mentioned: but none of them hint at a motion of the equinoxes. The measure of a day by thirty hours, and that of an hour by sixty minutes, are explained; and the method of constructing a clepsydra is taught.

This ancient Hindu calendar, corresponding, in its divisions of time, and in the assigned origin of the ecliptic, with several passages of the Vedas, is evidently the foundation of that, which, after successive corrections, is now received by the Hindus throughout India. The progress of those correcti-

* I have several copies of one such treatise; besides a commentary on the Jyotishi of the Rigveda, by an unknown author, which is accordingly assigned to a fabulous personage, Sesha Naga.

† The Athenian year was regulated in a similar manner: but, according to Geminus, it was the sixty third day, which was deducted. Perhaps, this Hindu calendar may afford in explaining the Greco, system of lunar months.
ones may be traced, from the cycle of five * to one of sixty lunar years (which is noticed in many popular treatises on the calendar, and in the commentary of the *jyotisha*); and, thence, to one of sixty years of Jupiter; and, finally, to the greater astronomical periods of twelve thousand years of the gods, and a hundred years of Brahma'. But the history of Indian astronomy is not the subject of this essay. I shall only cite from the treatises, here referred to, a passage in which the then place of the colures is stated.

* Swar ácramété jómá'rcau yadi jácam jñává+jávau; jvát taddádiyugam, mág-
  has, tatas, šuclo, 'yana by udac.

* Prapadyéíté śravifht'bá+nau súryachándramaśáv udac; súrpa'rá'dhé dácshi-
  nác tu: máq'ba-srávaññayób sadá.

* Gharma-vridd'hir, apám praś'bab, cóhá-pá-bráśa, udag gatau: dácshiité
  tatu vipyaraññau, 'ham mubúryt añanénatu.'

The following is a literal translation of this remarkable passage, which occurs in both the treatises examined by me.

* When the sun and moon ascend the sky together, being in the constellation over which the Vájasa preside; then does the cycle begin, and the [season] Mág'ba, and the [month] Tápas, and the bright [fortnight], and the northern path.

* The sun and moon turn towards the north at the beginning of Sravifht-

* The treatises in question contain allusions to the ages of the world: but without explaining, whether any, and what specific period of time was assigned to each age. This cycle of five years is mentioned by the name of Yuga, in Paraśara's institutes of law edited by Suvara, and entitled Vrīhat Paraśara. It is there (Ch. 12. v. 83.) stated, as the basis of calculation for larger cycles: and that of 3600 years, deduced from one of sixty (containing twelve simple yugas), is denominated the Yuga of Vāc'pati; whence the yuga of Prajan'at'há containing 216,000 years is derived; and twice that constitutes the Cali-yuga. The still greater periods are afterwards described under the usual names.
t'ba; but the sun turns towards the south in the middle of the constellation over which the serpents preside; and this [his turn towards the south, and towards the north,] always [happens] in [the months of] Māgha and Srāvana.

In the northern progress, an increase of day, and decrease of night, take place, amounting to a praṣṭha (or 32 pālas) of water; in the southern, both are reversed (i.e. the days decrease, and the nights increase), and [the difference amounts] by the journey, to six mukārtas*.

Sravishṭā is given, in all the dictionaries of the Sanskrit language, as another name of Dhravishṭā; and is used for it, in more than one passage of the Vėdas. This is the constellation which is sacred to the Varuṇa; as Avīśṭā is, to the serpents. The deities, presiding over the twenty-seven constellations, are enumerated in three other verses of the Ṛṣṭīṣṭha belonging to the Yajūṣ, and in several places of the Vėdas. The Ṛṣṭīṣṭha of the Rśb differs in transposing two of them; but the commentator corrects this as a faulty reading.

In several passages of the Ṛṣṭīṣṭha, these names of deities are used for the constellations over which they preside; especially one, which states the situation of the moon, when the sun reaches the tropick, in years other than the first of the cycle. Every where these terms are explained, as indicating the constellations, which that enumeration allots to them†. Texts, contained in the Vėdas themselves, confirm the correspondence, and the connexion of Asvin and the Asvins is indeed decisive.

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* I cannot, as yet, reconcile the time here stated. Its explanation appears to depend on the construction of the elephynia, which I do not well understand; as the rule for its construction is obscure, and involves some difficulties, which remain yet unsolved.

† I think it needless to quote the original of this enumeration.
Hence it is clear, that D’banish’t’bā and Ašleśbā are the constellations meant; and that when this Hindu calendar was regulated, the solstitial points were reckoned to be at the beginning of the one and in the middle of the other: and such was the situation of those cardinal points, in the fourteenth century before the Christian era. I formerly* had occasion to show, from another passage of the Vēdas, that the correspondence of seasons with months, as there stated, and as also suggested in the passage now quoted from the Jyotisb, agrees with such a situation of the cardinal points.

I now proceed to fulfil the promise of indicating such parts of the fourth Vēda, as appear liable to suspicion. These are the remaining detached Upanishads, which are not received into the best collections of fifty-two theological tracts, belonging to the At’harva-vēda; and even some of those which are there inserted, but which, so far as my inquiries have yet reached, do not appear to have been commented by ancient authors, nor to have been quoted in the old commentaries on the Vedānta. Two of these Upanishads are particularly suspicious: one entitled Rāma tāpaniya, consisting of two parts (Pārva and Uttara); another called Gōpāla-tāpaniya, also comprising two parts, of which one is named the Cṛṣṇa Upanishad. The introduction to the first of these works contains a summary, which agrees in substance with the mythological history of the husband of Sītā, and conqueror of Lanka. The other exalts the hero of Mat’burdā.

Although the Rāma tāpaniya be inserted in all the collections of Upanishads, which I have seen; and the Gōpāla tāpaniya appear in some; yet I am inclined to doubt their genuineness, and to suspect that they have been written in times, modern, when compared with the remainder of the

Védas. This suspicion is chiefly grounded on the opinion, that the sects, which now worship Ráma and Críshná as incarnations of Vishnu, are comparatively new. I have not found, in any other part of the Védas, the least trace of such a worship. The real doctrine of the whole Indian scripture is the unity of the deity, in whom the universe is comprehended, and the seeming polytheism, which it exhibits, offers the elements, and the stars and planets, as gods. The three principal manifestations of the divinity, with other personified attributes and energies, and most of the other gods of Hindu mythology, are indeed mentioned, or at least indicated, in the Védas. But the worship of deified heroes is no part of that system; nor are the incarnations of deities suggested in any other portion of the text, which I have yet seen; though such are sometimes hinted at by the commentators.

According to the notions, which I entertain of the real history of the Hindu religion, the worship of Ráma, and of Críshná, by the Vaiśhānavas, and that of Maha'deva and Bhava'ní by the Saivas and Saktas, have been introduced, since the persecution of the Budhhas and Jainas. The institutions of the Védas are anterior to Budh'ha, whose theology seems to have been borrowed from the system of Capila, and whose most conspicuous practical doctrine is stated to have been the unlawfulness of killing animals, which in his opinion were too frequently slain for the purpose of eating their flesh, under the pretence of performing a sacrifice or Yajnya. The overthrow of the sect of Budh'ha, in India, has not effected the full revival of the religious system inculcated in the Védas. Most of what is there taught, is now obsolete; and, in its stead, new orders of religious devotees have been instituted; and new forms of religious ceremonies have been established. Rituals founded on the Purāñas, and obser vances borrowed from a worse source, the Tantras, have, in
great measure, antiquated the institutions of the Védas. In particular, the sacrificing of animals before the idols of Câlî*, has superseded the less sanguinary practice of the Tâjnya; and the adoration of Râma and of Crîshna has succeeded to that of the elements and planets. If this opinion be well founded; it follows, that the Upanîshâds in question have probably been composed in later times, since the introduction of those sects, which hold Râma and Gopâla in peculiar veneration.

On the same ground, every Upanîshad, which strongly favours the doctrines of these sects, may be rejected, as liable to much suspicion. Such is the Atîmâbodhâya Upanîshad,† in which Crîshna is noticed by the title of Madhûsu'dâna son of Devaci; and such, also, is the Sundari-tâpani,‡ which inculcates the worship of Devî.

The remaining Upanîshâds do not, so far as I have examined them, exhibit any internal evidence of a modern date. I state them as liable to doubt, merely because I am not acquainted with any external evidence of

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* In Bengal and the contiguous provinces, thousands of kids and buffalo calves are sacrificed before the idol, at every celebrated temple; and opulent persons make a similar destruction of animals, at their private chapels. The sect, which has adopted this system, is prevalent in Bengal, and in many other provinces of India; and the Sanguinary Chapters, translated from the Câlîcâ Parâva by a member of this society (Afrânck Researches, Vol. V. p. 171), is one among the authorities, on which it relies. But the practice is not approved by other sects of Hindus.

† I have seen but one copy of it, in an imperfect collection of the Upanîshâds. It is not infected in other compilations, which nevertheless purport to be complete.

‡ According to the only copy, that I have seen, it comprises five Upanîshâds, and belongs to the Atarvâna; but the style resembles that of the Tàntras, more than the Védas. It is followed by another tract marked as belonging to the same Védas, and entitled Tripura Upanîshad, or Tripuriya; but this differs from another bearing the familiar title of Tripuri Upanîshad, and found in a different collection of theological treatises. I equally discredit both of them, although they are cited by writers on the Mantrasûtras (or use of incantations); and although a commentary has been written on the Tripura by Bhâtyâ Bhaâscara.
their genuineness *. But it is probable, that further researches may ascer-
tain the accuracy of most of them, as extracts from the Védas; and their
authenticity, as works quoted by known authors. In point of doctrine,
y they appear to conform with the genuine Upaniṣhads.

The preceding description may serve to convey some notion of the
Védas. They are too voluminous for a complete translation of the whole:
and what they contain, would hardly reward the labour of the reader;
much less, that of the translator. The ancient dialect, in which they
are composed, and especially that of the three first Védas, is extremely
difficult and obscure: and, though curious, as the parent of a more pol-
ished and refined language (the classical Sanscrit), its difficulties must
long continue to prevent such an examination of the whole Védas, as
would be requisite for extracting all that is remarkable and important in
those voluminous works. But they well deserve to be occasionally con-

tulted by the oriental scholar.

* This same observation is applicable to several Upaniṣhads, which are not inserted in the best collections,
but which occur in others. For instance, the Saundas, Cauda, Gopīchudana, Dariana and Vajrasūci,
shall not stop to indicate a few questionable passages, in some of these dubious tracts.
IX.

A Botanical and Economical Account of Bassia Butyracea, or East India Butter Tree.

By W. Roxburgh, M. D.

Bassia Butyracea.

Poltandria Monogynta.

Generic Character.

Calyx beneath, four or five leaved. Corol, one petalled. Border about eight cleft. Berry superior, with from one to five Seeds.

Bassia Butyracea. Roxburgh.

Calyx five leaved; Stamens thirty or forty, crowning the subcylindric tube of the Corol.

Fulwah, Phulewarah, or Phulewara, of the inhabitants of the Almorah hills, where the tree is indigenous. Flowering time, in its native soil, the month of January; Seeds ripe in August.

Trunk of the larger trees, straight, and about five, or six feet in circumference. Bark of the young branches smooth, brown, and marked with small, ash coloured specks.

Leaves alternate, about the ends of the branchlets, petioled, obovate-cuneate, obtuse-pointed, entire; smooth above, villous underneath; veins simple, and parallel; length, six to twelve inches; breadth, three to six.
PETIOLES, from one to two inches long.

STIPULES, if any, minute, and caducous.

FLOWERS numerous, round the base of the young shoots, and from the axils of the lower leaves, peduncled, large, pale-yellow, drooping.

CALYX, four, five, or six leaved (five is by far the most common number); ovate, obtuse, covered externally with ferruginous pubescence, permanent.

COROL; tube subcylindric, length of the Calyx; border of eight, spreading, oblong, obtuse divisions, longer than the tube.

STAMENS; filaments from thirty to forty, about as long as the tube of the Corol, and inserted on its mouth. Anthers linear-oblong.

PISTIL, germ conical, (ten or twelve celled, one seeded) downy, surrounded with a downy nectarial ring. Style longer than the stamens; stigma acute.

BERRY oblong, generally pointed by a remaining portion of the style; smooth, fleshy, containing one, two, or three, rarely more, large seeds; the rest not ripened.

SEEDS oblong, rather round than flat, but differing in shape according to the number contained in each fruit; smooth, shining, light brown, with a long, lanceolate, lighter coloured, less smooth, umbilical mark on the inside.

THIS tree, which is rendered interesting on account of its seeds yielding a firm butyrraceous substance, resembles Baffia Latifolia, (see Coromandel Plants, Volume I, No. 19, also Afsatick Researches, Volume I, Page 399,) so much as scarce to be distinguished from it, except by the Corol, and Stamina.

HERE (in Baffia butyracea) the Corol is of a thin texture, with a tube
nearly cylindric, and border of eight, large, spreading, oblong segments. There (in Bassia latifolia) it is thick and fleshy, with a gibbous, indeed almost globular tube; and border of generally more than eight, small, cordate, rather incurved segments.

Here, the Stamina, from thirty to forty in number, have long filaments inserted on the mouth of the tube of the Corol. There they are fewer in number; have very short filaments, and are arranged in two, or three series, completely within the tube, to which they are affixed.

It may not be improper to notice here some other species of the same genus. The following Botanical description of Bassia longifolia, Linn., Mant. page 563, I have been favored with by Doctor Klein of Tranquebar, and the account of its economical uses by the Reverend Doctor John, of the same place.

Description by Doctor Klein.

Calyx, Perianth: monophyllum, 4-partitum; laciniosis ovatis, acutis, coriaceis, extus tomento ferrugineo obductis, persistantibus.

Corolla monophylla, campanulata; tubo cylindraceo, inflato, carnoso, limbo 8-partito; laciniosis lanceolatis, erectis.

Stamina, filamenta 16, brevissima, in duos ordines divisa, quorum octo ad incisuras laciniarum, octo in tubo corollae inserta. Antherae lineares, secatae, acutae, extus pilosae, limbo breviore.


Pericarp: drupa oblonga, 1-3 sperma, carnosa, lacteascens. Seminibus subtrigonis oblongis.

Arbor magnis, ramis sparsis, erectis, horizontalibusque.

ECONOMICAL USES OF THE OIL, OR ILLEEPEI TREE,

Bassia longifolia. By the Reverend Doctor John.

1st. The oil, pressed from the ripe fruit, is used as a common lamp oil, by those who cannot afford to buy the oil of the coco-nut. It is thicker, burns longer, but dimmer, smokes a little, and gives some disagreeable smell.

2d. It is a principal ingredient in making the country soap, and therefore, often bears the same price with the oil of the coco-nut.

3d. It is, to the common people, a substitute for ghee, and coco-nut oil, in their curries and other dishes. They make cakes of it, and many of the poor get their livelihood by selling these sweet oil cakes.

4th. It is used to heal different eruptions, such as the itch, &c.

5th. The cake (or Sakey) is used for washing the head; and is carried, as a petty article of trade, to those countries, where these trees are not found.

6th. The flowers, which fall in May, are gathered by the common people, dried in the sun, roasted, and eaten, as good food. They are also bruised, and boiled to a jelly, and made into small balls, which they sell, or exchange, for fish, rice, and various sorts of small grain.

7th. The ripe fruit, as well as the unripe, is eaten by the poor, as other fruits. Of the unripe, the skin is taken off, and after throwing away the unripe kernel, boiled to a jelly, and eaten with salt and Capsicum.

8th. The leaves are boiled with water, and given as a medicine, in several diseases, both to men, and to cattle.

9th. The milk of the green fruit, and of the tender bark, is also administered as a medicine.
Bassia Butyracea, or East India Butter Tree.

10th. The bark is used as a remedy for the itch.

11th. The wood is as hard, and durable, as teak wood, but not so easily wrought, nor is it procurable of such a length for beams, and planks, as the former; except in clay ground, where the tree grows to a considerable height; but, in such a soil, it produces fewer branches, and is less fruitful, than in a sandy, or mixed soil, which is the best suited for it. In a sandy soil, the branches shoot out nearer to the ground, and to a greater circumference, and yield more fruit. These trees require but little attention; beyond watering them during the first two or three years, in the dry season. Being of so great use, we have here whole groves of them, on high, and sandy grounds, where no other fruit trees will grow.

12th. We may add, that the owls, squirrels, lizards, dogs and jackals, take a share of the flowers; but the vulgar belief is, that the latter, especially in the time of blossom, are apt to grow mad, by too much feeding on them.

Bassia obovata, Forster's Prod. No. 200: a native of the Isle of Tanna, in the south Sea. Of this species, I possess no other account than the definition, which corresponds with the habit of the genus. If Forster has left us no account of the uses of the tree, it may be worth while to make inquiry, when an opportunity offers.

Park's Shea, or butter tree of Africa, we have reason, from his description, and figure, as well as from analogy, to suppose a species of this same genus. At page 352 (of his travels in the interior of Africa) he says, "The appearance of the fruit evidently places the Shea tree in the natural order of Sapota, (to which Bassia belongs,) and it has some resemblance to the Maduca tree (Bassia latifolia,) described by Lieutenant Charles Hamilton, in the Asiatick Researches, Volume I, page 300.

O o o
"The people were everywhere employed in collecting the fruit of the Shea trees, from which they prepare a vegetable butter, mentioned in the former part of this work. * These trees grow in great abundance all over this part of Bambarra. They are not planted by the natives, but are found growing naturally in the woods; and in clearing woodland for cultivation, every tree is cut down but the Shea. The tree itself, very much resembles the American oak, and the fruit, from the kernel of which, first dried in the sun, the butter is prepared, by boiling the kernel in water, has somewhat the appearance of a Spanish olive. The kernel is enveloped in a sweet pulp, under a thin green rind; and the butter produced from it, besides the advantage of its keeping the whole year without salt, is whiter, firmer, and to my palate, of a richer flavour, than the best butter I ever tasted made of cows milk. The growth and preparation of this commodity, seem to be amongst the first objects of African industry, in this and the neighbouring states; and it constitutes a main article of their inland commerce." Park's travels in Africa, page 262-3.

In the following account of the Bassa Butyracea, by Mr. Gott, we find the people of Almorabcat the dregs, left after the finer parts have been extracted; consequently there can be little doubt of the wholesomeness of the pure vegetable butter itself. The thick oil of Bassa latifolia, and longifolia, the natives of various parts of India, either use alone, or mixed with ghee (clarified butter), in their diet.

* This commodity, Shea toulou, which literally translated, signifies Tree-butter, is extracted, by means of boiling water, from the kernel of the nut, has the confidence and appearance of butter; and is in truth an admirable substitute for it. It forms an important article in the food of the natives, and serves also for every domestic purpose in which oil would otherwise be used. The demand for it is therefore great. Park's Travels in Africa. Page 26.
On Captain Hardwicke's departure for England, in the beginning of 1803, he gave me a small quantity of the above mentioned substance, observing, that the only account he could give me of it was, that it was reported to him to be a vegetable product from Almorah, or its neighbourhood, where it is called Fulwahb, or Phulwarah. In consequence of this information, I applied to Mr. Gott, (who is stationed in the vicinity of that country,) to make the necessary inquiries; and from him I procured an abundance of well preserved specimens, at various times, in leaf, flower and fruit. From these, and that gentleman's account of the tree, and its product, the foregoing description, and the annexed figures, were taken.

The same sample, which I got from Captain Hardwicke, in January 1803, I have still by me. It remains perfectly sweet, both in taste, and smell. Its flavour is that of cloves; having, I presume, been perfumed with that spice, previously to its falling into his hands, a practice mentioned in the following narrative. At this instant the thermometer is at ninety-five, and for these six weeks, it has rarely been below ninety, and has often risen to one hundred, or more, yet it continues about as firm as butter is in England during winter.

Mr. Gott's account of the tree, and its product, is as follows:

The tree producing a fat-like substance, known in this country by the name of Phulwahb, is a native of the Almorah hills, and known there by the same name. The tree is scarce, grows on a strong soil, on the declivities of the southern aspects of the hills below Almorah, generally attaining the height, when full grown, of fifty feet, with a circumference of six. The bark, of such specimens as I have been able
to obtain, is inclined to smoothness, and speckled; it flowers in January, and the seed is perfect about August, at which time the natives collect them, for the purpose of extracting the above substance. On opening the shell of the seed or nut, which is of a fine chestnut colour, smooth, and brittle; the kernel appears of the size and shape of a blanched almond: the kernels are bruised, on a smooth stone, to the consistence of cream, or of a fine pulpy matter; which is then put into a cloth bag, with a moderate weight laid on, and left to stand, till the oil, or fat, is expressed, which becomes immediately of the consistence of hog's lard, and is of a delicate white colour. Its uses are in medicine, being highly esteemed in rheumatism, and contractions of the limbs. It is also much esteemed, and used by natives of rank, as an uncture, for which purpose, it is generally mixed with an Utur of some kind. Except the fruit, which is not much esteemed, no other part of the tree is used.

This tree is supposed to bear a strong affinity to the Mawa, (Madhuca, or Baffia latifolia;) but the oil, or fat, extracted from the seeds, differs very materially. The oil from the Mawa, is of a greenish-yellow colour, and seldom congeals. That from the Phulwah congeals, immediately after expression, is perfectly colourless; and, in the hottest weather, if melted by art, will, on being left to cool, resume its former consistence. The oil from the seed of the Mawa, if rubbed on woollen cloth, leaves as strong a stain as other oils or animal fat. The fatty substance from the Phulwah, if pure, being rubbed on woollen cloth, will leave no trace behind.

The oil of Mawa is expressed in considerable quantities, about Cawnpore, and Farruckabad, and being mixed with, is sold as ghee.

This fatty substance very rarely comes pure from the hills, and receives more and more adulteration, (by adding the purest ghee,) as it
passes down to the lower provinces: age gives it the firmness of pure tallow.

Additional remarks by the same, in consequence of a few queries transmitted to Mr. Gott.

It is supposed there might be annually procured from twenty to thirty maunds, at the price of fourteen or fifteen rupees the maund.

1st. It is never taken inwardly as a medicine, nor is it used in diet; further than that the dregs, after the purer fatty substance is expressed, are eaten, as a substitute for ghee, by the peasants, or labourers, who extract the fat.

2d. I have some pure, which has been by me ten months, and it has neither acquired colour, nor bad smell.

3d. After it is imported into Robilkhund, it is scented with Uttr, (an essential oil,) and a little of the flour of the Indian corn (Zea Mays) is added, to increase its consistency. N. B. This flour is added on account of its peculiar whiteness.

4th. If it is clean, and free from dirt, it never undergoes any purification; if on the contrary, it is heated, and filtered through a coarse cloth.

5th. The flowers are never used. The pulp of the fruit is eaten by some; it is of a sweet, and flat taste.

The timber is white, soft, and porous; and is never made any use of by the natives. It is nearly as light as the Semul, or cotton tree (Bombax heptaphyllum.)
DESCRIPTION OF A SPECIES OF OX NAMED GAYAL.

COMMUNICATED BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, ESQ.

THE Gayal was mentioned in an early volume of the researches of the Asiatick Society,* by its Indian name, which was explained by the phrase 'cattle of the mountains.' It had been obscurely noticed (if indeed the same species of ox be meant,) by Knox, in his historical relation of Ceylon; and it has been imperfectly described by Captain Turner, in his journey through Bootan.† Herds of this species of cattle have been long possessed by many gentlemen, in the eastern districts of Bengal, and also in other parts of this province: but no detailed account of the animal and of its habits, has been yet published in India. To remedy this deficiency, Dr. Roxburgh undertook, at my solicitation, to describe the Gayal from those seen by him in a herd belonging to the Governor General. Dr. Buchanann has also obligingly communicated his observations on the same cattle: and both descriptions are here laid before the society; with information obtained from several gentlemen at Tipura, Silhet, and Chatgaon, relative to the habits of the animal. The original drawing, from which the plate has been taken, is in the collection of Sir John Anstruther; for whom it was drawn by a native artist in his service.

* In the second volume (p. 183) published in 1790.
† P. 21.
‡ Embassy to Tibet, p. 150.
From the information, which was first received, it was supposed that the Gayāl would not engender either with the buffalo, or with the common bull and cow, and must therefore constitute a distinct species in every system of classification. Although that be not confirmed, by the correcter information now obtained; yet, on account of the considerable and apparently permanent difference between the common cow and the Gayāl, this ought still perhaps to be considered as a distinct species, rather than as a variety. Its generick and trivial names, with the synonyma, may be stated as follows.

*BOS GAVÆUS.*

SYNONYMA: Sansc. Gayaya; Hind. Gavai, or Gayāl; Beng. Gobaygoru; Pers. Gayangali; mountaineers (Cúcis &c.) east of Silhet, Mélbana; mountaineers (Cúcis) east of Chatgaon, Sbiāl; Mugs, Jbongnua, Burmas, Núnc. Ceylon, Gauvera.*

*Bos Bubalus Gauvera:* PENNANT.†

"The Gayāl," says Dr. ROXBURGH, "is nearly of the size and shape of the English bull. It has short horns, which are distant at their bases, and rise in a gentle curve directly cut and up: a transverse section, near the base, is ovate; the thick end of the section being on the inside. The front is broad, and crowned with a tuft of lighter coloured, long, curved hair. The dewlap is deep and pendent. It has no mane, nor hump; but a considerable elevation over the withers. The tail is short; the body covered with a tolerable coat of straight, dark-brown, hair: on the belly, it is lighter coloured; and the legs and face are sometimes white."

* Knox's historical relation of Ceylon, p. 21.
† History of Quadrupeds I. p. 27.
OF OX NAMED GAYAL.

Doctor Buchanan thus describes it:

The Gayal generally carries its head with the mouth projecting forward like that of a buffalo. The head at the upper part is very broad and flat, and is contracted suddenly towards the nose, which is naked like that of the common cow. From the upper angles of the forehead proceed two thick, short, horizontal processes of bone which are covered with hair. On these are placed the horns, which are smooth, shorter than the head, and lie nearly in the plane of the forehead. They diverge outward, and turn up with a gentle curve. At the base they are very thick, and are slightly compressed, the flat sides being toward the front and the tail. The edge next the ear is rather the thinnest, so that a transverse section would be somewhat ovate. Toward their tips, the horns are rounded and end in a sharp point. The eyes resemble those of the common ox; the ears are much longer, broader and blunter than those of that animal.

The neck is very slender near the head, at some distance from which a dewlap commences; but this is not so deep, nor so much undulated, as in the Bos Zebu or Indian ox. The dewlap is covered with strong longish hair so as to form a kind of mane on the lower part of the neck; but this is not very conspicuous, especially when the animal is young.

In place of the hump, which is situated between the shoulders of the Zebu, the Gayal has a sharp ridge, which commences on the hinder part of the neck, slopes gradually up till it comes over the shoulder joint, then runs horizontally almost a third part of the length of the back, where it terminates with a very sudden slope. The height of this ridge
makes the neck appear much depressed and also adds greatly to the
cumfulness of the chest, which, although narrow, is very deep. The
sternum is covered by a continuation of the dewlap. The belly
is protuberant, but in its hinder part is greatly contracted. The rump
or os sacrum has a more considerable declivity, than that of the European
ox; but less than that of the Zebu.

'The tail is covered with short hair, except near the end, where it
has a tuft like that of the common ox; but, in the Gayal, the tail descends
no lower than the extremity of the tibia.

'The legs, especially the fore ones, are thick and clumsy. The false
hoofs are much larger than those of the Zebu. The hinder parts are
weaker in proportion than the forehand; and, owing to the contraction
of the belly, the hinder legs, although in fact the shortest, appear to be
the longest.

'The whole body is covered with a thick coat of short hair, which
is lengthened out into a mane on the dewlap and into a pencil-like tuft
on the end of the tail. From the summit of the head there diverges,
with a whirl, a bunch of rather long coarse hair, which lies flat, is
usually lighter coloured than that which is adjacent, and extends to-
wards the horns and over the forehead. The general colour of the
animal is brown in various shades, which very often approaches to
black, but sometimes is rather light. Some parts, especially about the
legs and belly, are usually white; but, in different individuals, these are
very differently disposed.
In the first column of the following table is the measurement of a full grown cow; in the second is that of a young male.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Feet</th>
<th>Inches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From the nose to the summit of the head</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between the roots of the horns</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the horns to the shoulder</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the shoulder to the insertion of the tail</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height at the shoulder</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height at the loins</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth of the chest</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circumference of the chest</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circumference at the loins</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the horns</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the ears</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The different species of the ox kind may be readily distinguished from the Gayâl by the following marks. The European and Indian oxen by the length of their tails, which reach to the false hoofs; the American ox by the gibbosity on its back; the Bovus moschatus, Cafer, and pumilus, by having their horns approximated at the bases; the Bos grunniens by its whole tail being covered with long silky hairs; the Bos Bubalus, at least the Indian buffalo, by having the whole length of its horns compressed, and by their being longer than the head and wrinkled; also by its thin coat of hair, by its want of a dewlap, and above all by its manners; the Bos barbatus by the long beard on its chin.

The cry of the Gayâl has no resemblance to the grunt of the Indian ox: but a good deal resembles that of the buffalo. It is a kind of low...
ing, but thriller, and not near so loud as that of the European ox. To this however, the Gayál approaches much nearer, than it does to the buffalo.'

The result of inquiries made by Mr. Macrae at Chatgaon, has been communicated by that gentleman in the following answer to questions which were transmitted to him.

The Gayál is found wild in the range of mountains that form the eastern boundary of the provinces of Aracan, Chittagong (Chatgaon), Tipura, and Silhet.

The Cucis or Lunetas, a race of people inhabiting the hills immediately to the eastward of Chatgaon, have herds of the Gayál in a domesticated state. By them he is called Shiál; from which, most probably, his name of Gayál is derived; as he is never seen on the plains, except when brought there. By the Mugs he is named S’hongmuab; and, by the Burmas, Núnc. In the Hindu tátra he is called Gabay. It appears, however, that he is an animal very little known beyond the limits of his native mountains; except to the inhabitants of the provinces abovementioned.

The Gayál is of a dull heavy appearance; but, at the same time, of a form, which indicates much strength and activity, like that of the wild buffalo. His colour is invariably brown; but of different shades, from a light to a dark tinge; and he frequently has a white forehead, and four white legs, with the tip of the tail also white. He has a full eye, and, as he advances in age, often becomes blind; but it is uncertain, whether
from disease, or from a natural decay. His disposition is gentle; even when wild, in his native hills he is not considered to be a dangerous animal, never standing the approach of man, much less bearing his attack. The Cucis hunt the wild ones for the sake of their flesh.

The Gayal delights to range about in the thickest forest, where he browses, evening and morning, on the tender shoots and leaves of different shrubs; seldom feeding on grass, when he can get these. To avoid the noonday heat, he retires to the deepest shade of the forest; preferring the dry acclivity of the hill, to repose on, rather than the low swampy ground below; and never, like the buffalo, wallowing in mud.

Gayals have been domesticated among the Cucis from time immemorial; and without any variation, in their appearance, from the wild stock. No difference whatever is observed in the colour of the wild and tame breeds: brown of different shades being the general colour of both. The wild Gayal is about the size of the wild buffalo of India. The tame Gayal, among the Cucis, being bred in nearly the same habits of freedom, and on the same food, without ever undergoing any labour, grows to the same size with the wild one.

He lives to the age of fifteen, or twenty, years; and, when three years old, the Gayal cow receives the bull; goes eleven months with young; and will not again admit his embrace, until the following season after she has brought forth.

The Gayal cow gives very little milk, and does not yield it long; but what she gives, is of a remarkably rich quality; almost equally so, with
the cream of other milk, and which it also resembles in colour. The Cúcís make no use whatever of the milk, but rear the Gayáls entirely for the sake of their flesh and skins. They make their shields of the hides of this animal. The flesh of the Gayál is in the highest estimation among the Cúcís; so much so, that no solemn festival is ever celebrated without slaughtering one or more Gayáls, according to the importance of the occasion.

The Cúcís train their Gayáls to no labour; although, from the great strength and gentle disposition of the animal, he must be very competent to every purpose, either of draught, or carriage, to which, the buffalo, or the ox, is applicable.

The domesticated Gayáls are allowed by the Cúcís to roam at large, during the day, through the forest, in the neighbourhood of the village; but, as evening approaches, they all return home, of their own accord; the young Gayál being early taught this habit, by being regularly fed every night with salt, of which he is very fond: and, from the occasional continuance of this practice, as he grows up, the attachment of the Gayál, to his native village, becomes so strong, that, when the Cúcís migrate from it, they are obliged to set fire to the huts, which they are about to leave, lest their Gayáls should return thither from their new place of residence, before they become equally attached to it, as to the former, through the same means.

The wild Gayál sometimes steals out from the forest in the night, and feeds in the rice fields bordering on the hills. The Cúcís give no grain to their cattle. With us, the tame Gayáls feed on Caláí
(phascolus max); but, as our hills abound with shrubs, it has not been remarked, what particular kind of grass they prefer.

'The Hindus, in this province, will not kill the Gabay, which they hold in equal veneration with the cow. But the Ašl Gayál, or Selōi, they hunt, and kill, as they do the wild buffalo. The animal, here alluded to, is another species of Gayál found wild in the hills of Chatgaon; a correct description of which will be given hereafter. He has never been domesticated; and is, in appearance and disposition, very different from the common Gayál, which has been just described. The natives call him the Ašl Gayál in contradistinction to the Gabay. The Cucis distinguish him by the name of Selōi, and the Mugs and Burmas by that of P’hanj; and they consider him, next to the tiger, the most dangerous and the fiercest animal of their forests.'

'The Gayál (Mr. Eliot writes from Tipura,) is little known to the natives here; it is principally considered as an inhabitant of the Chatgaon hills. In conversation with people belonging to the Raja of Tipura, on the subject of this animal, I have understood, that it is known in the recesses of the more eastern part of the Tipura hills, but has never been caught. In the past year, some of these animals were seen in a herd of elephants, and continued some time with the herd: but they were alarmed by the noise used in driving the elephants, and escaped being secured in the fenced enclosure. The K'hēda of that season was nearly five hours' journey from the skirts of the hills.

'The animal is found wild, but is easily domesticated, though, in this state, he essentially partakes of wild habits. I have some Gayáls at Munnamutty; and, from their mode of feeding, I presume, that they
keep on the skirts of the vallies, to enable them to feed on the sides of the mountain, where they can browse. They will not touch grass, if they can find shrubs.

While kept at Cameralab, which is situated in a level country, they used to resort to the tanks, and eat on the sides; frequently betaking themselves to the water, to avoid the heat of the sun. However, they became sickly, and emaciated; and their eyes suffered much. But, on being sent to the hills, they soon recovered, and are now in a healthy condition. They seem fond of the shade; and are observed in the hot weather to take the turn of the hills, so as to be always sheltered from the sun. They do not wallow in mud like buffaloes; but delight in water, and stand in it, during the greatest heat of the day, with the front of their heads above the surface.

Each cow yields from two and a half, to about four sers, of milk*, which is rich, sweet, and almost as thick as cream; it is of high flavour, and makes excellent butter.'

Information, decisive of the question, whether the Gayal engender with the common Indian bull, has been received from Mr. Bird, at Dacca; who having brought a domesticated female Gayal from Chittagong to that place, and not being able to procure a male Gayal at Dacca, directed a common bull† to be presented to her, which the female received, upon being blinded by a cloth thrown over her eyes: the issue was a cow resembling mostly the Gayal mother; and from that cow, impregnated by a bull of the same common breed, another

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* From five to eight pounds.
† Of the breed named Difwali. It is a Zebu of the common kind found in the middle districts of Bengal.
cow was produced, which also had grown up and was in calf by a common bull, at the date of Mr. Bird’s letter.

Mr. Dick communicated the following answer from Silhet.

Not being able to procure, here, any satisfactory information respecting the Gayál, I transmitted questions to my Vakil at Câch’hâr (having understood, that those animals had been sent hither, from that place), and desired him, to obtain the most correct information on the subject.

With regard to the Hindus scrupling to kill a Gayál, I could not obtain a direct answer: as the word “Gô” is affixed to one of the names, from which they infer, that it partakes of the cow, and are afraid positively to declare, that it is not improper to kill the animal; quoting a passage from the Sâstra, “Gôjâdriśah Gavayab,” a Gavaya is like an ox.” However, the Râjâ of Câch’hâr, who is a Câbriya of the Suryabâni race, occasionally sends several Gayâls to be sacrificed on certain hills in his country, in order to conciliate the Dévalâ of the place; as his Vakil informs me.

The answers received from the Vakil at Câch’hâr, to the questions forwarded by Mr. Dick, contain the following information.

The Gayál is called Gaujangâlî in the Persian language, Gavâya in Sanscrit, and Mêth’banâ by the mountaineers: but others name the animal Gobay-gorú.

Gayâls are not confined to the woods: they are domesticated. But wild Gayàls are found in the mountains of Bhotant, &c. They are kept, in a tame state, by the people who inhabit the Câlânâgâ hills, near the
district of Ch’hilbet (Silbet), on the eastern border of the province of Cách’bá, west of Manipúr, and north of a tract dependant on Tripura. Cúlánágás, Cúcis, and Khátis (tribes of mountaineers), keep Gayáls for the sake of the flesh, not for the milk, which they do not use; nor for burden, since they have no such employment for their cattle.

The Gayál lives to the age of twenty, or twenty-five, years: it has reached its full growth, at five years; and the female is generally higher than the male. She receives the bull, in her fifth year, and bears after ten months. If milked she yields from two, to two and half, férus of milk, or sometimes more.

The tame Gayáls, however long they may have been domesticated, do not at all differ from the wild: unless in temper; for the wild are fierce and untractable. The colour of both is the same; namely, that of the antelope; but some are white, and others black: none are spotted, nor piebald. They graze and range like other cattle; and eat rice, mustard, chiches, and any cultivated produce; as also, chaff and chopped straw.

The Gavaya is like a cow;” consequently, not the same with a cow: a Hindu, therefore, commits no offence by killing one. But natives of Bengal or of the mountains, who are Hindus, scruple to kill a Gayál themselves, because it is named Gobay-goru (or the Gavaya cow).

To this answer, an addition was made by the Raja’s Vakil, at Silbet.

Met’banás are sacrificed, especially by Nágás and Cúcis, before the mountain gods, Nákbaran and Má’iram. The Cúcis and Nágás are

* From four to five pound.
fond of the meat; and, therefore, constantly keep such cattle, and eat their flesh; and often make presents of them to the Rája of Cák'bár. The Rája preserves them, and sometimes offers Mél'banás in sacrifices to deities; or entertains, with their flesh, Nágás and Cúcís, who come to visit him. The mountaineers are much pleased with that compliment, and eat the meat with delight.'

This information has established (what I had previously conjectured), that the animal mentioned by many Sanscrit authors, under the name of Gavaya, is no other than the Gayál. Amera Sinha, in a chapter of his dictionary relating to animals, mentions the Gavaya with many wild animals; among which are the black antelope, the spotted axis, the porcine deer, the painted or white footed antelope, the grunting ox, and the musk deer. One of his commentators (Rā'ya-Mucuta) says of the Gavaya, that, in shape, it resembles the ox. He had previously compared the form of the grunting ox (Bos Grunniens,) to that of a buffalo. Another annotator states Gavaya, as a name received into the common dialects. Both agree in deriving the word, from Gó, a bull or cow, and aya knowledge; because, as they remark, 'one might take it for an ox.'

The Rája-níghantiago, an excellent catalogue of natural productions, with their reputed qualities in the Materia Medica, states Gavaya as synonymous with Vana-gó or wild ox; also called in Sanscrit, Balabbadra and Mábágava; and, in the vulgar dialect, Gavaí. Another vocabulary has added Gavántca to the Sanscrit synonyma; and, according to the Rája-níghantiago, the female is likewise named Bhílagaví, or cow of the Bhillas (a tribe of pillagers and mountaineers).

No further evidence would seem necessary, had not the Bhavaparacásā,
a celebrated medical work, confounded the Gavaya with the Rāya or Rīšya, (in Hindi, Rōjb), which is the painted or white-footed antelope, called Nilgau. Madanapāla, in a similar catalogue of animals considered relatively to their medical uses, has fallen into the same error; and so, probably, other writers may have done, who inhabit countries where the Gayāl is little known.

To correct this mistake, (without relying on the separate mention of the two animals in the Ameracōṣha,) I shall cite no less an authority, than the Indian scripture. The twenty-fourth chapter of the Vajasaneyi Yajurveda, enumerates the animals, which should be consecrated to various deities, at an. Atwamed'ba. It is there directed (v. 27), that three Rāyas (white footed Antilopes) shall be consecrated to the deities named Vasus; and, towards the close of the next verse (v. 28), it is required, that three buffaloes shall be presented to Varuna, as many Gavayas to Vrihaspati, and the same number of camels to Tvashtṛī. The commentator on the Veda, (Mahīḍhara,) explains Gavaya, as signifying, ' wild cattle resembling kine.' It is evident, that this suits better with the Gayāl, than with any other animal known in India.

From the authorities above quoted, the Sanscrit synonyma may be safely concluded. But it is not so easy to determine a Persian name of this species of ox. Gaujangalt', or cow of the forest, mentioned by Mr. Dick's Vakel at Cābōbār, is a suitable designation; but it does not occur, so far as I can learn, in any Persian work of authority. It may be necessary to caution the reader, not to suppose the Persian Gaucōbī (which literally signifies, as Mr. Gladwin translated it, mountain cow,) to be this, or any other species of the ox. The Tohsatū'imuminin, and Mekhsenzel-
aduiyeh, two celebrated treatises by Persian physicians, concur in describing the three varieties of Gaucobi, also named Gauzen or Gbzen, and in Arabick, Iyyal or Uyyal, as three sorts of deer: and the last mentioned work declares it to be the same with the Hinde Barching'ba or Cervus Elaphus.

I take this opportunity, while treating of a species of ox, to notice an error, which crept into Kerr's unfinished translation of the animal kingdom in Linnaeus's Systema Naturae; and which has been followed by Doctor Turton in translating the general system of nature by Linnaeus. Mr. Kerr described and figured, under the name of Bos Arnee, an animal, which, notwithstanding the exaggerated description, given on the authority of 'a British officer, who met with one in the woods, in the country above Bengal *,' is evidently nothing else, but the wild buffalo; an animal very common throughout Bengal, and known there, and in the neighbouring provinces of Hindustan, by the name of Arna. Though neither fourteen feet high as Mr. Kerr has stated, or rather as the officer, on whose information he relied, had affirmed; nor even eight feet, as Doctor Turton, following Kerr's inference from a drawing, affirms; yet it is a large and very formidable animal, conspicuous for its strength, courage, and ferocity. It may not be true, that the buffaloes of Asia and Europe constitute a single species; but, certainly, the wild and tame buffaloes of India do not appear to differ in any thing, except the superior size, and more uniform figure, of the wild animal. A better description of the buffalo, than has been yet given, is perhaps wanted; but the Bos Arnee of Kerr and Turton must be rejected from systems of zoology, as an erroneous description taken from a loose drawing, affixed by the fragment of a skeleton.

* Kerr, page 336.
APPENDIX.

Introductory Remarks, intended to have accompanied Captain Mahony’s Paper on Ceylon, and the doctrines of Buddha, published in the Seventh Volume of the Asiatick Researches; but inadvertently omitted in publishing that Volume.

By J. H. Harrington, Esq.

I have the pleasure of laying before the Society a paper on the Island of Ceylon, and on the religious opinions of the greater part of its inhabitants, the worshippers of Boodh or Buddha, whose religion and philosophy appeared to Sir W. Jones, “connected with some of the most curious parts of Asiatick History,” * and the period of his appearance an important epoch in Hindoo Chronology.†

This paper, which has been procured by the Honorable Mr. Duncan, from Captain Mahony, an officer of the Bombay establishment, for sometime resident on the Island of Ceylon, has, with another paper already communicated to the Society by Captain Mackenzie, anticipated and superseded some cursory remarks written by myself, during a short residence at Colombo, in the year 1797; and which I had hoped to render more worthy of perusal on receiving a translation of the Peerowana.

* Asiatick Researches, Volume I, page 354.
† Discourse on the Hindoos, Asiatick Researches, Volume I.
Pótá, an antient book composed in the Páli language by 'Anunda' Maḥa'Tiru'na'shee, which was given to me by a priest of Buddha, as containing a full account of his religion; and which I left to be translated at Columbo, by Monsieur De Huan, with the assistance of Lewis De Silva. But the French version made by them was unfortunately put on board the Greenwich, captured by a vessel from the Isle of France; and it has consequently never reached me. We shall not however have to regret this accident, if Captain Mahony, who has given an extract from an historical work, the Maḥa Raja Wallieb, or as a copy of it shewn to me was called, the Rájáuulee Puttur, shall hereafter favor the society with the communication of the authentick materials for a history of the Singalese, their religion, manners, and customs, which I understand to be in his possession.

In the mean time I beg the Society's acceptance (for their Museum) of two small images of Boode, which I procured at Columbo; and of two others brought from the Burmah dominions by Captain Cox, late resident at Rangoon; the identity of which proves incontestably that the object of worship on the Eastern peninsula, and the Island of Ceylon, is the same. I also beg to deposit in the Society's library the accompanying copy of the Peerūwānā Pótā abovementioned, of which, at some future period, we may hope to procure another translation, if that carried to Bourbon or Mauritius, should not find its way to Europe, and the publick.

I shall only add my testimony to that of Captain Mahony, as to the period at which the Singalese compute the appearance of Gautama Buddha; whose death, or rather disappearance from the earth, they state to have been 2339 years before 1797 A. C. or 542 years before the birth of Christ, and as their sacred era is reckoned from this epoch,
it may be esteemed deserving of credit. It also corresponds, almost exactly, with the computation of the same era in Siam, as stated by Mr. Marsden, in his tract on the chronology of the Hindoos; wherein, speaking of Siam, he observes, "the civil reckoning is by lunar years, consisting ordinarily of twelve months each, with an intercalary of seven months in the period of nineteen years, and commencing with the new moon that precedes the winter solstice. This era is computed from the supposed time of the introduction of their religion by Sumacod, 544 years before Christ; or in the year of the Julian period 4169."

The real time at which Buddha, the son of Sudho'dun (from whom he has the appellation Soobhob-dari, in the Amara-ebsna), propagated the heterodox doctrines ascribed to him by his followers, and for which they have been branded as atheists, and persecuted as heretics, by the Brahmans, is however a desideratum, which the learned knowledge and indefatigable research, of Sir W. Jones, have still left to be satisfactorily ascertained. His usual candour induced him to acknowledge, his original error in supposing this Buddha to have been the Wisdom of the Gods, and genius of the planet Mercury; and the passage from the Bhagavatamrita, quoted in his dissertation on the chronology of the Hindoos, which states that Buddha, (the ninth Avatār), became visible the thousand and second year of the Cāliage being past, is, I find, open to another reading which makes it the second thousandth year, or the year 2000, instead of 1600. At least it was so interpreted to me by Rādhā'rānt, the very Pundic who is mentioned, by Sir William Jones, as having produced to him the book, from which the passage in

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* Dissertation on the chronology of the Hindoos, Asiatic Researches, Volume II.
question is quoted, and who is now one of the Pundits of the court of Sudr Deewanee Adalut. His interpretation was also confirmed to me by Survo Tewaree, the other Pundit of the court; but in justice to our revered Founder, whose regard to truth I have but imitated in this remark, I must add, that Mr. Blaquiere, whose knowledge of the Shanfrit language is too well known to need my testimony, concurs in the reading and version of Sir William Jones.

Another point yet to be ascertained, is, whether Buddha, the ninth Avatár of the Hindoos, be the same with the heretic Buddha, now worshipped at Ceylon, and in the eastern peninsula; as well as in China, Bootan, and Tibet. Sir William Jones, in his dissertation on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India *, observes on Buddha, that “he seems to have been a reformer of the doctrines contained in the Vedas; and though his good nature led him to censure these ancient books, because they enjoined sacrifices of cattle, yet he is admitted as the ninth Avatár, even by the Brāhmens of Cāsi.” Captain Wilford, in his dissertation on Egypt and the Nile †, after mentioning the subversion of the religion and government of De'va'da'sa, the sovereign of Benares, by Vishnu, in the character of Jina, Mahā' de'va in the form of Arhan, or Mahimān, and Brahma' in the figure of Buddha, remarks, “most of the Brāhmens insist that the Buddha, who perverted De'va'da'sa, was not the ninth incarnation of Vishnu; whose name, some say, should be written Boudha, or Boddha; but not to mention the Amarcśh, the Mughda-bōdh, and the Gita-gouind, in all of which, the ninth Avatár is called Buddha, it is expressly declared in the Bbāgavat, that Vishnu should appear ninthly in the form of “Buddha”, son of Jina, for the

* Asiatic Researches, Volume I.
† Asiatic Researches, Volume III.
"purposë of confounding the Dairyas, at a place named Cica, when the " Cáli-age should be completely begun."

In this quotation the ninth Avatár is called the son of Jina; (perhaps as a descendant from Jina, or as having adopted part of his doctrines;) but the present worshippers of Buddha state him to be the son of Sudhodun, and those from whom Aboolfuzul took his account of Boodh in the Ayeen Akhuree, gave him the same information; in which they are supported by the Amara-cósha, as already noticed. The followers of Boodh, at Ceylon, although their long intercourse with the Hindoos (especially since they have been governed by a Hindu prince) has introduced some Hindu tenets and observances, in addition to what may have been originally derived from them, also positively deny that their Boodh is the Hindoo Avatár. The conclusion of Sir W. Jones,* that a second Buddha, assuming the name and character of the first, attempted to overset the system of the Brâhmans, and was the cause of their persecution of the Boudbas, corresponds with, and is supported by, the information given to Aboolfuzul, who says, "The Brâhmanes call Boodh the ninth Avatár, but assert that the religion which is ascribed to him is false, " and fabricated by some other person.†"

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* Dissertation on the chronology of the Hindus, Asiatick Researches, Volume II.
† See further his account of this religion, in the Third Volume of Gladwin's Translation of the Ayeen Akburen, page 157.
CERTAINLY. 

From the passage provided, it appears to be discussing certain legal or procedural aspects, possibly related to a court or legal case. The text mentions phrases like "the time of hearing," "the account of the prosecution," and "the terms of the agreement," which suggest a formal or legal context. However, without more context, it's difficult to provide a more detailed analysis.
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END OF THE EIGHTH VOLUME.
ERRATA.

Page Line
46 1 read a new symbol. Line 18 after nature, a full stop.
48 15 for religion read religion. Line 3 from the bottom after total, a full stop.
62 4 from the bottom read particle.
85 12 after the word learn, add except in the Siva purāṇa.
137 9 for aparatus read apparatus.

and elsewhere:

141 19 — reserving space — reserving a space
— 20 — with a surface — with the surface
142 26 — and the points of reference — and the points are points of reference
— — — even — ever
144 25 & 26 — every half hour — nearly half an hour

151 — \[100 + \frac{0.043263}{2}\] — \[100 + \frac{0.043263}{12}\]

In page 158, in giving the values of seconds, minutes, &c. in divisions of the micrometer, read thus:

One second will be equal 1,269 divisions.
One minute — — — 7572 ditto.
Ten minutes — — — 7572 ditto.

In page 182 line 13 for poplar read polar.

NOTE. The ratio of the earth's diameters as mentioned in the note, page 192, has been determined by using the degree as brought out here, and the one in latitude 50° 41' as deduced from the measured arc between Greenwich and Paris, which is 60851 fathoms; and these two give the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameters to be 1 : 1,008567, supposing the earth to be an ellipsoid.

Page Line
196 8 for treaties read treatise
201 last line — interpretation — interpolation
Page Line  
201 14 for setting read putting  
204 16 — Reviewer Reviewer  
212 3 from the bottom for Syra read Syra  
216 5 after enough add for  
222 11 from the bottom, for 98053 read 91053  
236 3 —— tithus —— Tithis  
237 8 —— 1266000 —— 1296000  
238 4 —— 3027102 —— 2163102  
239 8 —— 3024000 —— 2160000  
— 9 —— 60480 —— 43200  
249 penult. read a place for him.  
250 antepenult. and page 251, line 4 from the bottom, read manuscripts  
252 10 read These two sections, the titles of which he borrowed, consist, as he wrote them, of no less than  
256 6 read steiropates: line 9 for name, read same: line 15 for affected, read effected: line 21 for remains, read remain  
257 1 read of them  
262 8 for then read than  
275 21 read HERCULES  
277 2 omit from  
278 9 for point read points  
280 5 read (Pluto)  
282 17 for will read shall  
284 24 omit the second the  
285 9 read antediluvian: line 10 for set, read state: line 17 read perceive: line 4 from the bottom read the beginning, the middle  
291 9 read for the hills remain  
292 4 omit the second some: line 23 read appearances  
293 12 for as read when  
296 2 read alluvions; line 18 read of SATYAVRATA
297 24. 26 read (according — — procured.)

298 In the note for Bombyx? read the Bombax;

302 9 read S Anti-de'vi

303 16 read according to the author of the Arabian Nights;

308 23 read Caunopas

309 3 read peninsular

309 2 read (vēdi): line 24 read begin in that

311 8 for who read: the latter

314 19 read who in his old age resigned: line 21 read Jyāpati

315 17 — because JUPITER TRIPHYLIUS, or ŚIVA, with his trident (trisūli), resides there.

316 6 — Sudras: line 7 Cẖatriyas: line 24 primeval

317 13 — whence

322 19 — but there appears

327 9 — sometimes: line 21 for and read or

328 last line, read Swarna-bhāmi

330 5 and 11 read (Indiā)

332 15 read and Vidyād baras;

333 5 — on the part of the Romans (negotiantes nostri), or to those who came: line 14 for There read In it

335 2 — Yamuna or Jumna: line antepenult: all these rivers, it is pretended; fall immediately

339 21 read Barāiana

345 2 enclose in a parenthesis (in the Bāgavata 1000 only).

☞ In many similar instances the reader will easily supply the parenthesis, which has been omitted at the press.

346 last line read that it is

347 20 read with a thousand: line 23 with a hundred

353 12 read Uranus

354 2 omit there: line penult: for their read there
read hundreds of thousands
for bounding read abounding
read mountains
enclose within a parenthesis (called also Cabras and Guhyas, and the
same with the Cabiran tribes,)
(iii) In numerous other instances, whose remarks are introduced in the
body of the quotations, the reader is requested to supply the parenthesis.
read morning
read and the Jainas,
read "the sun is the soul
read two passages, both remarkable
for sentence read sentences
for appeared and was manifest read became celebrated and conspicuous
in the notes, line penult, read transcript
in the notes, line 3 from the bottom, read instrutor
read have been generally introduced,
in the notes, line 5 from the bottom, for another read a