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I.

TRANSLATION

OF

VARIOUS INSCRIPTIONS FOUND AMONG

THE

RUINS OF VIJAYANAGAR.

By E. C. RAVENSHAW, Esq.
Bengal Civil Service.

WITH PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS,

By H. H. WILSON, Esq.
Late Secretary of the Asiatic Society.

The history of Vijayanagar is a subject of considerable interest in the annals of India, as the last barrier that was opposed to Mohammedan invasions, and that preserved the southern part of the Peninsula from foreign rule until a very modern period.

The history of this State enjoys, consequently, the advantage of receiving frequent illustration from Mohammedan authors, and some even from Christian writers, as it survived about half a century the arrival of the Portuguese in India. Reliques of its importance exist also in the Peninsula in great numbers, not only in the remains of the capital, and towns, and
TRANSLATION OF INSCRIPTIONS

temples, founded by its rulers, or their chief officers, but in innumerable inscriptions recording grants and endowments by the same, and specifying the names and dates of the ruling prince, with occasional genealogical details. It has a still further advantage in the existence of individuals descended from the royal family at the period of its subversion, and who preserve the memory of their ancestry, if not the hope of recovering the dignity which their predecessors enjoyed.

The documents now presented to the Society, by Mr. Ravenshaw, relate to the Vijayanagar principality, and consist of copies and translations of fifteen inscriptions, and a pedigree of the kings of Vijayanagar, presented to him by the Gūrū of the family, whose duty it is to keep the Book of the Chronicles. I purpose to offer to the Society some observations on these papers.

The city of Vijayanagar was situated on the south side of the river Tungabhadra, (Toombuddra). On the north was the suburb of Anagunds, the Elephant city, which is still a town of some size, and gives its name to both the ancient and modern towns: they are also called Alpattan. Of the city of Vijayanagar the only remains are the ruins of innumerable temples interspersed with jungle, and tenanted by baboons. The principal temples are to the west of the road along the bank of the river. One of them dedicated to Vītalā, a form of Viṣṇu, is said to be equal in its architectural details to any thing to be seen at Ellora. The roof is formed of immense slabs of granite, supported by columns of the same material richly carved, between 20 and 30 feet high, and of a single block. Another temple approached by a long, broad and colonnaded street is that of Pampapati Virapāksha, which is kept in repair by the British Government. Other remarkable buildings of this class are the temples of Virabhadra, and of Ganesa; near the latter of which is a statue of Narasingha, 30 feet high. There are also the remains of the Raja's palace and elephant stables, and the granite piles of a bridge over the Tungabhadra.
Vijayanagar was known to the first travellers in India as Bissnagar, and the kingdom of Narsinga, the name of one of the sovereigns, (Narasinha,) being erroneously given to the country. Odoardo Barbessa, who published an account of his travels and a summary description of India in 1516, calls the king of Narsinha, Rasysena, mistaking titles for a name. He describes the city as of great extent, highly populous, and the seat of an active and valuable commerce, especially in the diamonds of the country*, pearls from the Persian Gulf, rubies from Pegu, silks and brocades from China and Alexandria, and broad cloths from the latter; quicksilver and cinnabar, opium, sandal, aloes, camphor from various quarters, musk and pepper from Malabar. The king, he adds, maintains about 900 elephants, 200 of which are always ready for war, as well as a force of 20,000 cavalry and an immense host of infantry; Vijayanagar being in constant hostility with the kings of Dakhan, the Muhammedan prince of Bijapur and the west, and the Hindu sovereign of Orissa. The palaces of the king and his courtiers, and the numerous temples are said to be stately buildings of stone, but the greater part of the population resided in hovels of mud and straw. The provinces forming the kingdom of Nirsinha are called by Barbessa, Tuliman (Tuluva), Canarini (Canara) Cormandel, and two others of which the name or names Trelunque are evident errors of transcription: the provinces were probably Telingana and Druvira—so that in the commencement of the 16th century, the kingdom comprised the whole of the Peninsula south of the Krishna, inclusive of the Portuguese possessions and the petty principalities of Malabar.

There are various traditions current in the Dakhan respecting the foundation of the kingdom of Vijayanagar. According to one account, the celebrated scholar and statesman Madhava, surnamed Vidyaranya, implying

* Probably of the Rourconda mines, situated about 30 miles east of Vijayanagar, or north of the Kistna:—See Tavernier’s account of them. R.
TRANSLATION OF INSCRIPTIONS

Sālivāhana 1196, (A. D. 1274) and having no son, Vidyaranya, the Gūrū of a neighbouring Raja named Jambuk Raya, placed that Raja’s son Bukk Raya on the throne of Vijayanagar.

We have here consequently an account different from all the preceding; how far more trustworthy may be questioned; at any rate it is inaccurate with respect to the name of the father of Bukka, and with regard to his date, which we know from inscriptions was about A.D. 1370, or two centuries more modern than that in the given pedigree. Tradition places also the foundation of Vijayanagar in A. D. 1336, a period not incompatible with the political events to which it possibly owed its elevation, the capture of Dwārakamāduca (the capital of the Belād kings of Mysore) by the Muhammedans, and consequent decline of their power occurring in 1310-11, and the destruction of Warankul and the subversion of the Andhra or Telinga monarchy by the same enemies taking place about 1323. The Muhammedans were prevented from following up their successes by the disturbances in Upper Hindustan, which followed the death of Ala-ud-din; and the origin of the Bhāmini and other dynasties of the Dakhan: the interval which ensued, and the absence of any paramount sovereignty in the Peninsula were prohibitions to the rise and development of a new power in that quarter.

I have in another place animadverted upon the incongruity between the chronological lists of the Vijayanagar princes commonly current in the south of India, and the series of names and dates derivable from inscriptions; the former specifying 27 princes from Bukk to the 3rd Sriranga between A. D. 1327 and 1665; and a collection of a great number of the latter, distinguishing only 14 princes between A. D. 1370 and 1626. The pedigree gives 20 princes from Bukk to the 3rd Sriranga between 1274 and the middle of the 17th century. A comparison of the three however will reconcile some of the seeming incongruities and afford a clue to others.
The three different lists are as follows:

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The inscriptions serve to correct both the traditional and the family chronology, and shew that they place the commencement of the series with Bukka about 40 or 50 years too soon. He could not have reigned long after 1381, as his successor's grants date in 1385, and a long reign would therefore place his accession no earlier than the middle of the 14th century, or about 1346, the traditional date of the foundation of Vijayanagar. The traditional chronology, however, gives him a reign of only 14 years,
in which case his grants commence almost with his reign. He could not therefore have founded Vijayanagar, if the date commonly assigned for that event is accurate; and, at any rate, we need not correct that date by the years of Bukka's reign, as on other grounds noticed above, it is little to be doubted that Bukka Rāya was not the first sovereign of Vijayanagar.

All the accounts agree in representing Bukka Rāja as an enterprising and successful prince, and as having widely extended the limits of his authority. Circumstances were favorable to his arms; and, besides the propitious consequences of foreign invasion, it seems likely that the rise of Bukka Rāya was favoured by previous internal dissensions on the score of religion, and that his prosperity was founded upon a principle of toleration. His minister Vidyaranyā was a Saiva; one of his generals Irugupu appears, from inscriptions, to have been a Jain; and in a proclamation, published in the Researches, by the princes Bukka and Harihara, they appear as mediators between the Jains and Vaishnavas, declaring that there is no difference between the two forms of faith.

In one of Mr. Ravenshaw's inscriptions Bukka is succeeded by his son Harihara, having, it is also stated, a brother of that name. This seems likely from the space through which the grants of Harihara extend, viz. to A. D. 1429. If this were the brother alluded to in other inscriptions, and by Mādhava, a Sarorya, we should have to assign him a reign of about 60 years. Even as the son he reigned a longer time than common, or between 40 and 50 years.

The 3d sovereign, in two of the lists, is Deva Rāya, with this peculiarity in the inscriptions that his grants begin three years before those of his predecessors terminate. This circumstance recurs in the succeeding reign, making it probable that the practice prevailed, which was common in the remote periods of Hindu history, of a monarch's associating with him
towards the close of his reign, his son and successor as Yuvarāja or Caesar. The traditional chronology makes Deva Raya the 4th, placing before him Vijaya, who is not named in the inscriptions, and who in the pedigree follows Deva Raya.

The 5th prince of the chronology is Rāmadeva, who is followed by Virūpaksha, and he by Mallikārjuna. The first does not appear in the inscriptions, nor the two last in the pedigree. In the inscriptions also Mallikārjuna precedes Virūpaksha; there can be little doubt, therefore that the order of the chronology is incorrect. The pedigree has, for the 5th prince, a Pundar Deva, who is not found in either of the other authorities, and may be perhaps the same as Mallikārjuna or Virūpaksha. The name may possibly be intended for Praurha Deva, a prince of whom many inscriptions are found from 1450 to 1466, and who is identified chronologically therefore with Mallikārjuna. There is nothing in the specification of dates that militates against the identity of Mallikārjuna, Virūpaksha, and Praurha Deva, as the inscriptions of all three are confined between 1450 and 1479, in a period of 29 years.

The 8th prince of the chronology and 6th of the pedigree is Rāmachandra, of whom no inscriptions have been yet found, and who is therefore of questionable existence. We have then a series of seven princes in the chronology; none, or at most but one of whom is traceable in the other authorities. Possibly the 14th or 15th, Sālava, Narasinha or Imādi Deva, may be the Narasa or Narasinha of the pedigree, and of some of the inscriptions: the Narasinha of which is no doubt the same as the Vira Narasinha of the pedigree and chronology, and who, as reigning about the end of the 15th and beginning of the 16th centuries, is the Narsinga of the first European voyagers to India.

The exclusive occurrence of a series of princes in the traditional chronology may perhaps be accounted for by domestic dissensions, the
consequent decline of the power of the Rais of Vijayanagar, and change of
dynasty which it is admitted took place. The reigns are in general very
short, and in the inscriptions we have two intervals of which one, that
between the 5th and 6th prince, of 8 years, might be filled up by some of
the names of the chronology: at any rate it is certain that with NARASINHA
a new family ascended the throne.

According to Ferishta, NARASA, or NARASINHA was a Raja of Telingāna,
who had possessed himself of the greater part of the Vijayanagar principality.
This is not incompatible with the account given in the pedigree, which states
that ŚRIRANGA RAYA, Raja of Kalyān, made war upon RAMCHANDRA of
Vijayanagar, deposed him and placed his own brother on the masnad. Other
accounts give a different version of the matter:—VIROPAKSHA, it is said, having
no issue raised one of his slaves named SINHAMA, a Telinga, to the throne.
SINHAMA, entitled PRAURHA DEVA, reigned but four years, he was succeeded
by his son VRANARASINHA, who reigned but two years, who being childless
gave his signet to his falconer NARASA or NARASINHA. Different original
statements again concurring with that of Ferishta represent NARASINHA
as the son of ISWARA DEVA, Raja of Karnul and ORVIRI, a tract of coun-
try on the Tungabhūdra, to the east of it near its junction with the
Krishna.

According to the pedigree it must have been NARASINHA RAO, the only
NARASINHA of the inscriptions, who was the monarch that gave a fresh
impulse to the prosperity of Vijayanagar, and maintaining a resolute opposi-
tion to the Muhammedan kings of the Dakhan extended his authority
over the greater part of the Peninsula and along the Coromandel Coast
towards Orissa. On his death he left two sons VRANARASINHA and KRISHN-
DEVA, the latter of whom acted as Dewan to his brother. VRANARASINHA,
according to the pedigree, left three sons, ACHYUTA, SADASIVA and TRIMALA,
who being infants, the country was managed by their uncle KRISHNADEVA.
The truth appears however to be that not only were their claims set aside by their uncle, but that even in the life time of their father Viranarasinha, Krishnadeva usurped the supreme authority and hence the doubtful occurrence of the name of the former in public documents from 1508 to 1530—the period assigned for the reign of Krishnadeva.

According to the Krishna Rāya Cheritra, Krishnadeva was the son of Narasinha by a concubine Nagambes. His stepmother, the queen Tipamba, dreading what came to pass, the supplanting of her own son Virasinha, prevailed upon the king to order Krishnadeva to be put to death, but the prince was preserved and secreted by the minister. Narasinha on his death-bed being informed of the preservation of his son, declared him his heir and successor, and the chief Poligars concurring in his nomination, the claims of Viranarasinha were disregarded, and he died, it is said, of grief at his disappointment.

The dominion of Vijayanagar that had been partly recovered by Narasinha was fully re-established by Krishnadeva. He defeated the A’dil Sháhi princes and extended his frontiers to the southern bank of the Krishna; he captured Kondavir and Warankul on the east, and marched as high as to Cuttack, where he wedded the daughter of the Gajapati sovereign. In the south, his officers governed Srirangapatan and Kámesvara. On the west, his taking Rachol on Salsette is recorded by the Portuguese writers, and Malabár appears to have acknowledged his supremacy. At no period, probably, in the history of the south of India, did any of its political divisions equal in extent and power that of Vijayanagar under Krishnaráya.

Krishnaráya was also a patron of literature, and a number of learned men were received at his Court. Eight of these were known as the Diggajas, the elephants that support the regions of the atmosphere. They
were mostly celebrated as Telugu authors, but one of them Assyaya Dikshita, is a name of some note in Sanscrit composition.

From the general tenor of the inscriptions and from his coins, this prince was also a zealous patron of that form of the Vaishnava faith, which consists in the worship of Krishna and Rama. One of the inscriptions before the Society records his bringing an image of Krishna from Udayagiri, after the capture of that fortress, and erecting a temple for it at Krishna-puran, endowed with seven villages, and with other sources of revenue, the transit duties and profits of an adjoining reservoir.

After Krishnaraya the pedigree observes, that Rama Raja his brother-in-law, or agreeably to other statements his son-in-law, contended for the masnad; but it is evident from the inscriptions that some interval must have elapsed before he gained his object, as Achyutaraya's grants date from 1530 to 1545, and those of Rama do not commence until 1547. It is also evident that he attained to supreme authority only as the minister of the second son of Viranarasinha, Sadasivaraya, as the grants of the king and his minister run nearly parallel, those of the former extending from 1542 to 1570, whilst those of the latter are dated between 1547 and 1562. The prince was, in fact, a mere pageant, and in the important events of this period involving the dissolution of the State, the name of Rama appears in the writings of both Muhammedans and Hindus as the sovereign of Vijayanagar.

The contests for the supreme sway, so briefly alluded to in the pedigree, are very obscurely narrated by native writers, especially with regard to the persons of Achyuta and Sadasiva. So far, therefore, the genealogy is of value as it determines their characters. According to the Hindu annalists, Krishnaraya having no children of his own, and the nearest heir Achyuta being absent, he appointed Sadasiva Raja under the protection of Rama
Raja. Achyuta, however, returning resumed his right, and on his death Sadāsiva ascended under the tutelage of Rama. It is therefore probable that an attempt was made, in the first instance, to expel the elder brother and place the younger upon the throne, but that this was defeated and Achyuta retained, at least nominally, the possession of his dominions.

The transactions of the Court of Vijayanagar at this period afford a curious illustration of the difficulty of obtaining precise accounts of occurrences in the East. The compiler of the pedigree could perhaps furnish, if he chose, more satisfactory details, but it is not possible to gain a clear view of the circumstances of the case from other authorities, although, in addition to Hindu writers, we have the accounts of two persons who were cotemporaries and almost eye-witnesses of what they detail. These are Firishta and Caesar Frederick, the former residing at the Court of Bejapur, and the latter a resident at Bsnagar for six months, about a year after its having been plundered by the Muhammedans. The following are their accounts:

According to Firishta, Rāmarāya, the son-in-law of Krishnarāya, succeeded to the supreme ministerial authority. On the death of the infant Raja he placed another minor of the same family on the throne, and committed the charge of the Raja’s person to the care of his maternal uncle Hoji Trimalarāya, whilst he administered the affairs of the Government himself. The Raja’s uncle after a time conspired against Rama, and compelled him to resign his post and retire to his estates. Trimalarāya next murdered his nephew and made himself king, and with the aid of Ibrahim A’dil Shāh maintained himself in his usurped authority. As soon, however, as his Muhammedan allies withdrew, he was attacked by the hostile party, who defeated him and besieged him in his palace in Vijayanagar, where, finding his affairs desperate, he destroyed himself.
We will next hear what Cæsar Frederick writes;—“About 30 years before the defeat and death of the king of Vijayanagar, three brother tyrants had usurped the throne, keeping the rightful king as a prisoner, shewing him once a year to the people, and themselves exercising the royal authority. They had been officers in the service of the father of the king, and had seized the government upon his death, leaving his son an infant. The eldest was named Rāmarāja, and he sat upon the throne and was called king; the second was named Temmarāya, who discharged the function of governor; the third, Venkatarāya, was the commander of the forces. The first and last disappeared after the fatal battle, and were never heard of more either living or dead.”

However these different accounts differ in detail, they agree in the essential features of the story, and shew that the usurpation which commenced with Krishnarāya was continued by his kinsmen, and that the sons of Viranarasinha were like himself, mere pageants in the hands of their ministers and chiefs. Had not the European traveller asserted that Tummu Rao returned to Bīsnagar after the Muhammedan kings had pillaged and left it, and was actually the ruling sovereign at the time that Cæsar Frederick remained there, we might have suspected that he was the Háji Tumul of Ferishta—who had veiled his own ambition by supporting Achyuta. This, however, could not have been the case, and we may be content with Ferishta’s account of the transaction.

The reign of Rāmarāja was, however, fatal to the principality of Vijayanagar. After being on alternating terms of friendship and enmity with the Muhammedan princes of the Dakhun, and given asylum and aid to Ali A’dil Shāh of Bījaipur, who had been even adopted as a son by the mother of the Raja, the kings of Golconda, Bījaipur, Daulatábād, and Berár, alarmed at his power and offended by his arrogance, combined against him. A sanguinary battle was fought at Talikota, on the banks of
the Krishna, in which, after a doubtful conflict, the Raja was taken and
his troops defeated. The Hindu accounts assert that the divisions of
Kuttebbhat and Nizam Shah that had been defeated, and those of Ali
A'dil Shah and Amdat-ul-Mulk covered the retreat when the Hindus,
giving themselves up to festivity, were surprised by the rallied forces of
the enemy, and thus overthrown. Ferishta admits that the wings of the
Muhammedan army were thrown into disorder, and that some of the
leaders despaired of the day when it was retrieved by the efforts of the
centre under Nizam Shah, and by the capture of Rama Raja. Caesar
Frederick states that the loss of the battle was owing to the treachery of
two of the Raja's commanders who were Muhammedans, and who, in the
heat of the action, turned upon the Hindu divisions. Both Muhammedan
and Hindu accounts agree that Rama Raja was put to death immediately
after the battle, according to the one by A'dil Shah, according to the
other by Nizam Shah.

After the action, the allied Sultans marched to Vijayanagar and laid it
waste, and then withdrew. The families of Rama and his brethren, with
the captive King, made their escape, and after a whole year Temona
Raya, the surviving brother returned to his capital and attempted its reorga-
nization. The country was, however, in so much disorder, and the roads
so infested with robbers, that he found the attempt hopeless, and in 1567,
retired to Pennaconda, eight days' journey from Vijayanagar. Endowments
in the name of the pageant king Sadasiva continued to be made until
1570, and the pedigree carries on his family to the extinction of the direct
line. Srinanga, who it may be supposed was the son of Sadasiva, suc-
cceeded to his father. The 9th in descent from him, Venkatapati, fled before
the Moghul arms to Chandragiri, where a branch of the descendants of
Rama ruled. His successor, Rama Rao, recovered a considerable extent of
country apparently about Anajundi and Vijayanagar, and the line con-
tinued for seven generations more to 1756, when Trimal Rao was dispossessed
of his raj by the arms of Tipu. The history of the Vijayanagar kings, as given in the family pedigree, thus concludes. On the capture of Srirangapatam, the country was divided between the Nizam and the Company; 1,500 Rupees per mensem were allowed by the Company to the Raja of Bijanagar, but he continued thenceforth subject to the Nizam, holding the town and some lands around Anagundi, (Bijanagar) the ancient capital, as a Jagir from the Nizam. In 1829-30, the infant Raja died, and there being no heir, the Jagir has lapsed to the Nizam's Government, and the pension of 1,500 Rupees per mensem to the Company.

PEDIGREE
OF THE
KINGS OF VIJAYANAGAR,
TRANSLATED BY
MR. E. C. RAVENSHAW.

THE FOLLOWING PEDIGREE was given to me by the Guru, or Priest of the family, whose business it is to keep the Book of the Chronicles.

The early part of the genealogical tree is merely an extract from the Chandravansa line of the Puranas, with considerable misplacements and inaccuracies. It commences with Pandu, from whom the Vijayanagar princes consider themselves descended.

Pandu Raya, King of Hastinapur, was contemporary with Krishna, King of Mathura, at the end of Dwapar Yuga. The list contains 122 generations, or rather reigns; and, if we divide 4929 by this number, it does not give more than 40 years for each reign, which is moderate for an Eastern Chronicle*.

* Chronologists, however, allow about 20 years to a generation, hence \( 122 \times 20 = 2440 = 609 \) B.C., which is probably a nearer approximation to the truth.
KINGS OF VIJAYANAGAR.

The descent of Pandu is traced in the list from Buddha, (Mercury) the son of the Moon: he had a brother named Dritarashtra. I have omitted the names previous to Pandu, as well as the enumeration of his other three sons, (Dharma Raja Bhimsen, Nakul and Sahadeva,) and confined myself to the line of Arjun, and Parikshit, to save space.

1. Pandu had five sons, called the Panch Pandava.
2. Arjuna, son of Indra, regent of the east.
3. Abhimanyu.
4. Parikshit, 3100 B.C.
5. Janamejaya.
7. Sahasranika.
8. Aswmedha.
10. Chakri Rája.
11. Chitrtra Ratha.
13. Vishnumána.
15. Sunichi.
17. Nalla.
18. Pariplava.
19. Mádhavi.
20. Sunichi, 2d.
22. Durbi.
23. Ninuga Rája.
24. Vrihadratha.
25. Sersai.
27. Durdamana.

28. Vihinukar.
29. Dhandpáni.
30. Nimi.
31. Chuma, 2100 B.C.
32. Vrihadratha, 2d.
33. Puranjaya.
34. Shisunága.
35. Shurunga.
36. Kainvarma.
37. Xemadharma.
38. Sutchayitra.
39. Vídisára.
40. Bayika.
41. Wajineya (Ajaya ?)
42. Nandivardhana.
43. Mahánandi.
44. Shisunága.
45. Shujaya.
46. Vasu.
47. Bhadraka.
48. Pulinda.
49. Gosha.
50. Panchamitra.
51. Angawána.
52. Devabhumi.
53. Bhumimitra.
54. Naráyana.
55. Krishna.
56. Shantanu.
57. Punamá.
58. Lambodara.
59. Ballikar.
60. Médá.
61. Sérati.
62. Dhundhumára.
63. Arisbhthakarna.
64. Baléya.
65. Trinama.
66. Rushutoru.
67. Sunanda.
68. Vrinka.
69. Chechakára.
70. Viváshíti.
71. Aridamna.
72. Gomati.
73. Purína.
74. Swéta.
75. Utashétha.
76. Kanva.
77. Yagashéét.
78. Vijaya.
79. Chandrabéja.
80. Marru.
81. Nanda.
82. Bhutanandi.
83. Nandili, two sons.
84. Seshunandi.
85. Yeshunandi.

The last prince had fourteen sons who ruled over Bylemdés (?) Two chiefs Amitra and Durmitra invaded them. The war was of considerable duration, and terminated in favor of the Invaders, who took possession of the country—seven of the fourteen sons fled to Andhradésha (or Telingána).
PEDIGREE OF THE

86. NANDA MAHÁRĀJA,

the eldest of the seven, built the village of Nandapura*, and gave it as an Agrahāj (an endowment) to 500 Brahmins. His dominions extended from Rāmēshvaral to the Godavery—NANDA MAHARĀJA after a reign of 42 years died in 998, Salināhana Saca, in the year Anala, of the Vrihaspati cycle, (A. D. 1076.) he was succeeded by his son.

† 87. CHALIK RAJA,

who reigned 41 years—i. e. to Saca, 1039-40. He had three sons,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VIJALA RAYA</th>
<th>VIJAYA RAYA</th>
<th>VISHNUWARDHAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reigned at Kalyan Dharja</td>
<td>at Kiskindhanagar</td>
<td>had no kingdom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patān; 1041 Saca.</td>
<td></td>
<td>or</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(also two generations had passed, Sri RANGA RAJA being king of Kalyanpattan, made war upon Ramchandra, and deposing him placed his own brother, NARSINHA RAJA, on the mamas of Vijayanagar. (see below, no. 99.)

having no sons, VIDYARANYA, the Guru of a neighbouring Raja, named JAMBUK RAYA, placed BUKKA RAYA, son of the latter on the mamas, in accordance with the Law of Kala, mādhavi-grantha. His sovereignty extended over the whole of the Dakhan.

93. BUKKA RAYA, 1235 1334
94. HARIHARA RAO, 1269 1307
95. DEVA RAO, 1318 1391
96. VIJAYA RAO, 1338 1414
97. PUNDARA DEVA RAO, 1346 1424
98. RAMCHANDRA RAO, 1372 1450
99. NARSINHA RAJA, 1395 1473
100. VIRA NARSINHA RAJA, 1412 1490

had three sons—ACHITA RAO, SADASHIVO RAO, and TRIMALA RAO; but these being children at the time of the death of their father, the country was managed by KRISHNA RAO, their uncle, who had been the dewan of their father.

101. ACHITA RAO.

102. KRISHNA DEVA MAHA RAYA, 1446 1524

Extended his dominions over Anandashen, or Mahānad (near Ramnad), Kunchy (eight koss from Arcot), Pandy Desh (about Madura), Choidesh (Tanjore) and Sri-Ranga (near Trichinopoly), Dudur Desh (not recognized), Arcot, Nellore, Srirangpattan and Mysore, Ahmadnagar, Sonda (Bindunoor), Chittledrág, Harpanahally, Jariwakrattan, Girpingora, (Pughur), Karpak (Cudapah) Yadagiri, Raachore—Mudgal—Godwall—Karnul—Shoraapur—Sagar—Pupdeymat—Kaliandrug, Kalbarga—Golconda—Amdanagar (Gucerat), Yankatgiri—Purinda

* Perhaps, also Warangal, the ancient capital of Telangana, whence the Vijayanagar family are said by Grant Duff to derive their origin.

† Here the numbers cease in the original MS.

‡ Kāśan Drāg.
and Rûmgerh—then follows a list of jâgirs granted by Krishna Deva to the members of the royal family and others.)

103. Rama Raja,
Kishen Rao's brother-in-law, contended for the masnad; after which the Musulmans under Nizam Shah invaded the country: after him again Imad ul Mulk, opposed and killed Râmaraja in Saca, 1486, 974 Fasî A. D. 1564.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Karma Raja,</th>
<th>Trimalâ Raja,</th>
<th>Kishen Bhumati,</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>his sons.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

104. Sri Ranga Raja, A.H. Saca. 1487 A. D. 1565

his brother Timâ Raja was dewan—his sons were Yuggatpati and Chingankatapati.

105. Trimala Raja, son of Chingankatapati.

106. Vira Yuggatpati.

107. Sri Ranga Raja.


110. Trimala Rao.

111. Râmadeva Rao.


113. Venkatapati

invaded by the Moghuls and fled to Chandragheri.

114 Râma Rao

dispossessed the Moghuls of an extent of country yielding 5 lakhs per annum.

115. Hari Dâs, .......................... 1615 1693

116. Chak Dâs, (his brother) ...... 1626 1704

117. Chima Dâs, ......................... 1643 1721

118. Râma Rayâ, .......................... 1656 1734


120. Yankatapati, .......................... 1663 1741

121. Trimala Rao, .......................... 1678 1756

Sultân Khân—possessed himself of the country in the name of Tipu. It was afterwards retaken by Trimala Rao. On the capture of Seringapatam, the country was divided between the Nizam and the Company—1500 Rs. per mensem were allowed by the Company to the Râja of Vijayanagar.

122. Vira Venkatapati Râma Rayâ, a minor; but he continued thenceforth subject to the Nizam, holding the town and some lands around Anagundy, (Vijayanagar) the ancient capital, as a jâgir from the Nizam. On the 31st May, 1829, the infant Râja died, and there being no heir, the jâgir, I understand, has lapsed to the Nizam’s Government, and the pension of 1500 Rs. per mensem to the Company.
TRANSLATIONS OF THE INSCRIPTIONS.

FIRST INSCRIPTION

On the Flag Staff, called Dhoujastambha, which is on the East side of the Temple of Jaina-guri, in the Road of Anagunddi.

SALUTATION to the dust of the feet of the sand of Jina deya, which gives knowledge to the ignorant, and dispels the darkness of our hearts. May Jina deya be favorable!

The emblem (or flag-staff) of Jina deya, who is the lord of the three worlds, who is the happiest, the most graceful in form and splendid in appearance.

In the place called Nandisangam, near a large and beautiful Tamary (lotus) pond, called Saraswati (or goddess of learning) was born Padmanandi, as the lotus springs from the tank. He had five names called Cundapada, Bakra deya, Mahá mati, Ilacharya and Gandhapinchha. In his race some of the noblest of the Munis, or priests, were born like gems from the ocean.

Of the same race a priest called Ratnakara Guru, the beautiful and good, was distinguished by the name of Dharmabhushana Yogendra Bhattarakha, which signifies the ornament of charity. The sky inhaled the fragrance of the fame of this priest Dharmabhittarakha, as the black beetle when he runs over the flowers. The sky was smaller than his fame: if you ask an explanation of this enigma, the answer is, as the elephant beholds the whole of his body in a small looking glass.

To the devout Dharmabhittarakha was born a son called Amarakirti.

Adoration be to the Munésvara or priest Amarakirti, who enlightens our darkness with the light of Vidyá or instruction. Of what use were men of learning when Amarakirti existed? From him was born Simánandi. From the priest Simánandi descended the charitable and fortunate Dharmabhushana, a pillar of the temple of charity, who was called Dharmabhittaráca, and whose fame was resplendent as the full moon in her glory.

From Dharmabhushana, a Munésvara called Dundamanna was born, who was as the black beetle to the lotus-feet of Simmanundi.

From the priest Dundamána was born Bhattachakra, Muni, who was fortunate and famous like Dharmabhushana. Worship be unto the feet of Dharmabhushana, in whose presence all the kings of earth bow down!
OF THE RACE OF BHATTARAKA* Muni was born Yanti Reja a great and happy king, Bukka.† From him descended Hariharesvara,‡ who illuminated the world with all the arts and sciences, as the beams of the moon illuminated the milky sea. While ruling his kingdom, conquering many kings, and extending his dominions, he was called Rajanvati, because he was the greatest legislator the world ever beheld. While ruling the earth, whose girdle is the four seas, the glory of his ancestors was dimmed by his superior light. He had a minister named Chaichadanda the Nâik, who was skilled in the transaction of private and public affairs, was warlike as Cumarãswami in battle, and devoted to the king; who was styled Bhubhat, or husband of the earth.

To Chaichadanda the Nâik, was born a son called Irugadanda, who was blessed, celebrated, saluted, and adored in the world.

Irugadanda, who was a black beetle to the lotus-petaled feet of the priest Simanandi (the image of Vishnu, Siva, and Hiranyakarshna), in the year of the fortunate Sathivahana 1307, corresponding to the year Crodhana, in the mouth of Phalguna Krishna paksaha, dwitiya Sukravara, or, Friday the 18th of the moon in the month of March, (a. d. 1385,) built and erected the flag staff with black stone in the street, where the girls played in the water like a stream poured forth by Kuntala, and the mound on which the flag staff stands, was prepared with pearl-like sand in the extensive city of Vijayanagar, which abounds with nine sorts of precious stones, and which is situated in the country called Carnatic.

SECOND INSCRIPTION.

A Bond of Donation, written in Sanscrita verse on a Temple in the Village of Krishnapuram.

ADORATION to Parameswara on whose brows rest the Chamaraas and the moon, and who existed before the three worlds!

Homage to the fortunate Krishnaswami, who is exalted as the clouds, who alleviates the sorrows and pardons the sins of his servants, who is a friend to the earth,

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* Perhaps Vidyaranya.
† According to the Pedigree, the father of Bukka Raya was a neighbouring Raja named Jambuk Raya.
‡ Harinak Rae.
§ Brashwa.
and who stole the butter of the churned ocean. There was a man who was given as a gift to the Bráhmans, who bestowed on them his weight in gold that they might travel to all principal pagodas and batho in the holy waters of Cónchi, Srisaila, Sonáchala, Kanakoabha and Venkataparbat, who punished kings for their transgressions, who was the ablest warrior in the fight, the greatest amongst the kings of the earth, who was called Paramésvara, or a governor of governors, who was supreme lord over the three kings*. He slew Hindu Ráya, named the tiger. He was called Ganda Bharunda, or the elephant. All the kings blessed him, and prayed that he might live long to be the first among those who dwell in the dominions of Anga, Vanga, Calinga, &c. He was benevolent, bestowing alms to the poor. He was a man formed to sit on the precious throne, and to govern the earth, he was called the fortunate Krishna Ráya of many titles, who dwelled at Vijayanagar, and the light of whose fame for charity and beneficence shone resplendent from the mountain called Udaya, to the mountain called Astamána Parbata, or in other words, from the rising to the setting sun, and from the north to the south, or from the beginning of the mountain Merú to the south sea. The said Krishnadeva Mahá Ráya sitting on the precious throne, after conquering the king of Udayagiri, and bringing away (the image of) Krishnaswámi, returned to his city and installed it in the Mantápa, a building inlaid with emeralds, in the 1436th year of Sáliváhana, in the month Phálgunu, Sukla Pácska, Tritiya, Sukravára, or on Friday the third day of the moon in the month of March, A. D. 1514.

THIRD INSCRIPTION.

Salutation to the dust of the sand of the feet of Jína, which removes the ignorance and the darkness of our hearts!

The bond of inscription of Jína, who is the Lord of the three worlds, who is the happiest, the most beautiful, the most splendid!

There was a country called Carnáta, beautiful as heaven, which resembled the dwelling of the deities, who feasted on the substance called Ambrosia, and quaffed the drink called Nectar.

In this same Carnáta, there was a city called Vijayanagar, which was the chief amongst the cities, and which was beautiful to behold, being adorned with magnificent

* See the 9th Inscription.  † See the 7th Inscription.
palaces, and lofty houses which appeared overlayed with gold, like the mountains of Merú and Kailás lifting their golden heads to the sky. As the earth encompassed by the girdle of the four seas is illuminated by the flaming fire called Bádabálnala (or Aurora Boreális), so the city, arising from the water of the mount, is resplendent with gold and silver, and radiant with surpassing brightness. At this time reigned the king called Bukka, who was the lord of the city, and had immense riches. He was a gem of the race of Yadu, a shining precious stone in a crown of jewels. His beauty resembled that of Krishna; he was equal to Ráma in symmetry of form, in wit, in courage, and in beauty. He conquered by his valour all the quarters of the world, and was to the kings who were his enemies what the moon is to the lotus.*

From him descended a king called Hariharáxumapati,† who shone in the world as the sun in the sky, who was the best pilot to the vessel in the sea of poverty, who was liberal as Parasuráma in presenting lands; who was as Candá in giving away gold; who planted the flag-staff of victory on the shores of the four seas, and whose name was spread as far as the rays of the full moon.

From him a king called Devarajeswara was born, whose feet were like the lotus petals, and when the kings who were his enemies prostrated themselves before him, the jewels in their crown reflected the radiance of his feet. He was to the learned as the moon to the lily flowers. Among the brave he was the bravest. Among the happy the most happy.

From him a king called Vijaya Nárapati arose, the benefactor of mankind, and beneficent in charitable gifts, who extinguished the light of the glory of brave kings with the wind of his victorious banners.

Vijaya Nárapati had a son named Viradeva Raya to whom he was attached like the full moon to the sea, or as Indra to his son Jayanta. He was skilled in depriving hostile kings of the five elements called life, with the sword called the poisonous serpent. The fortunate Deva Raya was a friend to pardon, and consoled the kings who submitted to him, but broke the clouds of hostile princes in pieces, with the wind of the ears of the elephants in the day of battle.

* The lotus hangs its head and closes its leaves at night, whence the moon is said to subdue it.
† Quere Harihara Rao, 94 of Pedigree.
‡ The son of Kunti, the wife of Pandu, king of Hastinapura.
In the army of the fortunate Deva Raya, the dust of the sand of the earth which arose from the feet of the horses resembled the smoke of the fire of the bravery of Deva Raya, who appeared as the luminous sun dispelling the darkness of the anger of the troops of the opposing kings, the tears of whose wives allayed the dust of the conflict.

The mouth of the lotus of the fame of Deva Raya was opened by the genial warmth of the sun of his valour. The sides of the world were the petals of the flower compared with which the golden mountains of Himachala appeared like Karnicá (seats) and the Diggajas (or eight elephants) like beetles. The waters of the ocean formed the honey of the flower, and in its cup abode Vijaya Laxmi, the goddess of victory.

While this fortunate king ruled the world the Chintya Mani, or wishing precious stone, was unsought for, and the Calpa Vrixa, or wishing tree, was unthought of by any one. Deva Raya ruled over his kingdom with Kirti, Saraswati and Bhu Laxmi, that is, the goddess of fame, the goddess of learning, and the goddess of the earth, which was created in form of an egg by the four headed god Brahma.

Vamana, the fifth incarnation of Vishnu, would not have begged alms of Bali, had Deva Raya been living. The full moon would lose the brightness of her countenance when he gazed on her. From his touch the sinner became purified, and ceased to sin; and Indra would not dare to cut the wings of the mountains in his presence for fear of his wrath.

The king Deva Raya, whose handsome face and person were like Madanamohana, the Magnet which irresistibly attracts the hearts of women, was king of kings, a supreme governor, whose titles illuminated the world.

The happy Deva Raya resembled the king Bukka in wisdom, Hariharesvara in benevolence, and Vijaya Bhupati in valour. He was well-skilled in the arts and sciences, and was like an emerald from the mountain of Rohanachal. His throne shed happiness on the earth: (repetition) king of kings, governor of governors, &c.

The king Abhinava (or new) Deva Raya, while he was reigning in the centre of the Carnatic country in the city called Vijayanagar, in the year Parabhava, 1348 Saka on the full moon of Cartica or December, A.D. 1526, erected in the betlenut-market, a temple glittering with gold and diamonds like the starry heavens, and therein he established the god Parsvanath, who was worshipped, praised, and celebrated by Indra, who was the moon to the lotus of falsehood, and who was the lion to the elephant of the eighteen principal sins. His fame and charity will endure until the sun and moon shall disappear from the firmament.
MAY prosperity and fortune prevail! Glory be to SAMBUH, who is the lord and chief pillar of the foundation of the three worlds, called the three Nagaras, whose head is circled with Chāmaras and adorned with the full moon!

May the glory, brightness, and splendour of Rudra set us free from the bondage of ignorance!

CHANDRA RĀYA was born to enlighten the world as the moon arises in the sky to illumine the darkness of night, and as the butter came out from the milky ocean at the time of its churning.

He had a son called BUDDHA, who was as wise as Mercury, who had a son called PURURAVA Chakravarti, who had a son AYU, whose son was NAHUSHA, who had a son YAYATI, who had a son TURVASU. In the same line descended the king called BUKKA, who was conspicuous among sovereigns as the precious stone on the brow of kings. KRISHNA, the son of DEVAKI in his 5th incarnation Vamana, or the Dwarf, sought alms from BALI, but king BUKKA far surpassed BALI in dominion, glory, and charity. His fame extended from the rising of the sun to the going down thereof, and from the mountain called Himāchal to the sea. From him a king was born, called NARASĀ AVANIPĀL, as PRADUMNA was born from KRISHNA, the son of DEVAKI. He planted a flag staff at Strirangam in the middle of the river Cavēri, and slew the king of the country. He conquered the kings named CHOLA RAJA, PURANDAR RAJA† and GAJAPATI‡ who were all great warriors. He obtained a great name from the river Ganga to the city of Lancoṣ. He protected all the kings, who were at peace with him from the sun rising mountain called Udaya Pārvata to the setting place called Astagiri.

In all the holy places named Rāmeswara, &c. he distributed charities. He had a son called VIRANARASINHĀ KRISHNA DEVA MAHA RĀYA, born from the princess named NAGALĀ as RĀMA and LAXMANA sprung from CAUSALLIĀ, and SUMITRĀ by DASARATHA: VIRA NARASINHĀ KRISHNA DEVA RĀYA sitting on the throne embellished with nine sorts of precious stones, reigned over the world from the south sea to the

* NARASINHA RAYA, (P. 99). † The Rājah of Madura. ‡ The Rajah of Orissa.  śl Ceylon.
north mountain Mera, his fame extended over the earth far wider than that of the sove-
reigns Nriga, Nala, Nahusha. He distributed all kinds of charities in many holy
places, viz. Virupaksha, Culchartri, Venkatachelam, Carchi, Srisailam in the mountain
called Sonasailam and at Pryaga, where the river Ganga and Yamuna (Jumna) join in
one stream, Srisangam, Cumbha Cnoum, and in the holy water Gocarnam and Rama Setu,
&c. When Narasinha Deva Raya having ruled the world with justice departed this
life, Krishna Deva Mahâ Raya succeeded him. He was taken under the special
protection of Siva, who opened his third eye, which is situated in the middle of his
forehead, to watch over him; also of Vishnu the four handed, who holds the circle called
Chakram in one hand, and the shell called Panchajanyam in another; of Brahma, the
four-headed, of Pârvati, the spouse of Siva who holds a dagger in her hand; of Lakshmi
distinguished by the lotus, and of Saraswati, whose harp denotes her to be the wife of
Brahma. Krishna Deva Raya also performed the sixteen kinds of principal charities,
named Shadasa Mahattan, in all holy places, waters, &c. Here follow a dozen lines enu-
merating his virtues, learning, and accomplishments, which are said to have equalled
those of the Râjas Nriga, Nala, Nahusha, Nabhaga, Dhundumara, Mandhata,
Bhagiratha, Rama, &c. The said Krishna Deva Raya, who was the son of
Nagamba, and Baba Bhusal, and who reigned over the world, sitting on the throne
embellished with nine sorts of precious stones, at Vijayanagar, presented the village of
Singanahalli (the boundaries of which are marked on four sides with black stones) for the
purpose of furnishing the holy offerings, &c., to the Divine Virupaksha, whose temple
is exalted as the mountains.

Be it known unto all persons by this inscription of Krishna Deva Mahâ Raya.

FIFTH AND FIFTEENTH INSCRIPTIONS.

A Bond of Donation to Raganatha Deva at the Panagonda Gate, on
the West side of the Temple of Sunnaph, (in the Canarese language.)

MAY prosperity and fortune endure!

In the year of Saliavdana 1463, corresponding to the year Sarvari, in the month of
Karthika Sudipanchami, Guruvâr, (or Thursday the 5th day of the moon, in the month
of December, in the year of our Lord 1545,) the fortunate, the great king of kings,
FROM VIJAYANAGAR.

Paraméswara, the heroic, and famous, and glorious and valiant Achyuta* Deva Mahá Ráya was reigning in the city of Vijayanagar, and sitting on the precious throne, when Timmarágu, the son of Uregae Pedda Ambarágu of the tribe of Casyapa, and in the rule of Aparatama, built a city called Devarajanam Patnam on the east side of the Panugondo Ghóti, and established Rahunath Deva, as the tutelary deity thereof, bestowing the undermentioned lands to the god as an holy offering.

In the village called Nalala Hunesa, as Sarvemánya Aggrahar (or a gift of donation) we bought two Varti, or two pieces of "limited" lands, from Mumidi Dilchat; who procured them by making the burning sacrifice, &c.

The particulars of the two lands are as follows:—

One place called Panchaca Stallam of Cottonwar (below the canal) is of an extent sufficient for six tums of seeds. One place called Congallu, sufficient for four tooms of seeds. One place called Chákula Vári Kunda, or washerman’s pond, named Mula Maddy, equivalent to four tums of seeds. One place is called Virama Panchaka Stallam, equal to seven tums of seeds. These four places we presented to the god Raguntha Deva for an offering.

Besides these, the Máníms given to the god Ragunátha Deva for providing the daily offerings, were as follows:—

Calasápuram Máganny or in the village Dívátápuram below the old canal, a place called Joghíni, which was cultivated by Sanabhoga Veruparsa, equal to six tums of seeds. In Campelly, Ariti Tola or a plantain garden of Satta Serumian, equal to three tums of seeds. A place attached to Singana Goda, which is below the lake in Dharmáságaram, equal to three tums of seeds. In the village Vadda Besavapuram, a place called Higgadiar, which is near to the Maniem of Sanabhoga Hinnarasiah, which is equal to three tums of seeds. A place called Elleguntah, which also is equal to three tums of seeds. In the last two lands there are six tums of seeds. A place called Ambelega Hindunnah, which is near the bazar of Cumnarsa Naidu in the village Crishnapuram, the land contains two half tums of seeds. A piece of land of Pula Siddiah, which is below the lake in the village Camalápuram, in which are three tums of seeds. A piece of land Myan Hamiah Mallia,† which is within the lake called Vutacalva in the village of Madellapuram, equal to half a tum of seeds. A piece of land called Tumbená belonging to Gudu Malliah, which is below the lake in the village A’nantapuram, in which are three tums of seeds. A piece of land called Joghena,

* Achita Rao of the Pedigree.  † Perhaps a part of the dry bed of the artificial lake.
TRANSLATIONS OF INSCRIPTIONS

which is cultivated by Kana Maliah, in which are four tums of seeds. In these two villages there is land equal to seven tums of seeds.

These eight villages were presented by us as Manies, or as a gift. The seeds thereof were two canodies and one half tım, and the two vartis, with the cocaanut trees in the village. Natilah, Hunesa, which we purchased, are in addition; the seeds of which were two canodies. Those who unite together in continuing this charity will be rewarded a thousand fold. He who withholds or diminishes the charity will fall into the principal hell, and be guilty of a sin of the same magnitude as if he had murdered his mother and father at Casi (Benares), near the shore of the Ganges.

SEVENTH INSCRIPTION.

A Bond of Donation written on the Wall, in the Temple of Hazár Rámaswámi.

MAY virtue, fortune and victory prevail!

In the year of Sāliváhana 1442, corresponding to the Vrihaspati year Vikrama, in Mágha Sudi Saptami, Timmarázu, the son of Chakka Deva Mahá Ráya, of the tribe of Casyapa, the noblest of men, strong as the Garuda Bharuná, and whose dwelling was in the heart of Saraswati, (the goddess of learning) repaired the lake granted by Krishna Mahá Ráya, and also presented the adjoining lands, on Radhá-saptami the 7th of the moon, (in the month of March, 1520,) to Rámaswámi for offerings at the festivals, &c. in order to obtain salvation for his father and mother, &c.

EIGHTH INSCRIPTION.

A Bond of Donation on a Stone called Vori, in the Temple of Vithala Déva,

FORTUNE and victory!

In the year of Sāliváhana 1483, corresponding to the year Durmati, in Chaitra Sudi Panchami, Sanivar, or on the 5th of the moon (in the month of April, 1561,) while the king

* Quere Chak Das, 116 of Pedigree, Timmarazu is not mentioned in the Pedigree.
† A fabulous bird with two heads, supposed to be able to lift up elephants in its talons.
of kings, Parameswara, the fortunate, famous and heroic SADASIVA MAHA RAYA was reigning at Vijayanagar, Conati Condia RAJA DEVA MAHA RAYA, the son of Cotia Deva Mahā Rāya of the tribe of Casyapa presented his village, lands, &c., as an offering to Vithala Deva in the season of Makara, Sancranti Puniakāl, i.e. when the sun entered the eleventh sign of the Zodiac.

NINTH INSCRIPTION.


In the reign of Śālīvāhana 451,† corresponding to the year Virodhī, in Vaisākha Sudi Purnimā, (or on the 15th of the moon in the month of May, 1530.)

The fortunate, the great king of kings, Parameswara, the famous and heroic KRISHNA RAYA MAHĀ RAYA the sage, the poet, the hero, the chief of three Rāmas named Narapatī (Raja of Vijayanagar), Gajapatī, and Aswapatī established the god Narasinha Deva by the hands of a great man, named Krishna Bhakti, in the village called Krishnapuram, which with other villages were presented as an offering to the deity.

Detail of Villages.

One village called Varavoconda Tosacāram Kitachinta, near the country called Udi. One village called Vanganur, which is in the same country. These two villages have been given by my hand with my own free will with the gold and water to NARA SINHA DEVA for the daily offerings, &c., while I am ruling the world, sitting on the precious throne, at the time of the moon’s eclipse, on the 15th of the moon, in the month of Vaisākha or May, in the year Virodhī. Whatever rare thing, water, stones or gold may be found within the boundaries of the above two villages, together with the duties on imports and exports have likewise been presented by me to Narasinha Deva as a donation with my free will. Let the grant be continued until the sun and moon shall cease to shine.

(Three Sanscrit Stanzas follow, see the Twelfth Inscription.)

* This must be SADASIVA, the brother of Achita Rao (Achyuta). He is not mentioned in the Pedigree as having sat on the throne.
† Probably 1431.  ‡ Raja of Orissa.  § Raja of Satara.
FEALTY to Sambhu on whose head the moon shines, and the Chámaras glisten, who is the chief pillar and foundation of the three worlds!

Fortune and victory!

In the reign of Śáliváhana 1435, corresponding to the year Bhává, in Phálguna Sudi Trítiya, Sukrávar, or Friday the 3d of the moon (in the month of March, 1513.)

The fortunate king of kings, Paraméscara, the brave and famous, happy and heroic Krishna Mahá Ráya returning to Krishnapuram from Vidyagerhi after conquering the king of that city, brought the god or image named Krishna Deva, and established it at Krishnapuram; and at the same time presented a great many jewels set with nine sorts of precious stones, and furniture of gold and silver, &c., together with the undermentioned villages, for the divine expences, such as lights, flowers, fruits, incense, &c., and daily and extra offerings, (Pancha Parvams)—on the first day of the month, the 11th of the moon, the full moon, the 27th of the moon, and also for the new moon, monthly and yearly festivals, and for the distributions among the Brahmans, and for the pomp and splendour of worship.

1 Village called Atteratti.
1 Village called Maddalapuram, which is added to Hosuru Magani.
1 Village named Devatápuram, adjoining to Compili Magani.
1 Village called Harya Sanudram, near Cailáspuram.
1 Village styled Togalacullu.
1 Village by the name of Badanahati.
1 Village named Badrapadam, which is added to Tocala Cotuca Chella.

He also gave the transit duties at Krishnapuram as well as in the above villages, together with the lake, as a Suvamanyam to the Brahmans. He also determined that the following Brahmans should act as the priests, &c., of the said deity, and that they should each enjoy a certain portion of land; viz.

1 Candy of land to Rámanuja Achárya, son of Timana Achárya, who was of the tribe of Gautama, in the rule of Vikhanus and of the Yajusík or Yajurveda.
1 Candy of land to Timmanachárya, the son of the daughter of Rangammá.
ELEVENTH INSCRIPTION,

Written in the old Canarese Language.

ADORATION be unto SAMBUH (Siva), who is the lord of CAITAS, the chief pillar to
the foundation of the three worlds called "the three Nagaras," (heaven, earth, and the
lower world or Pátála), whose head is encircled with white Chámara, equalling the
splendour and magnificence of the full moon.

The deity called VIGHNESWARA (Ganesh), the son of SAMBUH was supposed to
have lost his head in battle. His mother PARVATI alarmed at the report, induced her
husband to search after him. The body was discovered, but every endeavour to find the
head proved unsuccessful; SAMBUH in his search happening to meet with the head of an
elephant placed it as a substitute on the shoulders of his son. VIGHNESWARA is on this
account represented with the body of a man bearing the head and proboscis of an elephant.
He was supposed to have been a proficient in all languages and sciences. He was distin-
guished by a symbol of the moon on his head. His body was painted over with a
composition of oil and red lead, which made him appear like the red clouds of the evening.

He drank up the water of the tanks with his trunk and sprinkled it like a shower on
the earth. The dignity and splendour of his body equalled the brilliancy and radiance of
the red sky occasioned by the dust of the earth when stirred up by the hoofs of the cattle
returning from pasturage in the evening. He protected the good, and his disposition
was uniformly happy. He watched over LAXMAN MANTRI, the minister of State, who
possessed every good and perfect gift, and who was accomplished in all the arts and
sciences.

The dust of the feet of LAXMIVARAGURU, the priest of LAXMAN MANTRI, has the
property of removing the sins of the multitude as the water of the Ganges, which springs
from the toe of the Almighty VISHNU in his habitation of VAICHANTHA, and purifies the
sins of men.

The minister, LAXMAN MANTRI, was the lord of the earth, and the ruler of many
kings. He resembled VISHNU, whose shape is revealed in the VIJAS, and who sprang
from the lower world (Pátála) in the form of the boar Adiváham, whose tusk having
mount MÉRU for a socket, sustained the whole world.

May the bude of the lotus, which is in the hand of LAXMI, the wife of VISHNU,
containing boundless wealth, be given to LAXMAN MANTRI. The shape of that
bud is like the shell, which was used to pour milk into the mouth of the infant Brahmain, who was born from the navel of Vishnu when reclining on Adisesha, the thousand-mouthed serpent, floating on the milky sea. Brahmain, the son of Vishnu, had a son named Atri, who is the father of Chandra, or the moon, who begat Budha. Pururava, the son of Budha, had a son called Ayu, who begat Nahusha. Nahusha had a son named Yayati, who begat Yadu, &c.

The descendants of Chandra, or the moon, where all kings of great fame and renown. In the line of Yadu was born Sri Sangamabhuminpathi, who had a son called Bukka Raya, who reigned in the circular or oval world. He was valiant in battle, and remarkable for his military acquirements. His younger brother Hari Hara Dandina-rendra, however, excelled him in every accomplishment, and was extolled by the kings of the earth for his generous and forgiving disposition, which extended not only to them but to the seven parts of the earth called Saptadweepa. Harihara Bhupala, the son of Bukka Raya, was valiant as Vishnu, who modelled the earth. His charity and benevolence exceeded that of Nala, Nahusha, Nriga, Bhoighirath, &c., and in consequence his reputation equalled in brilliancy the splendour of the full moon.

He had a son named Devaraja Narendra, who planted the ensigns of victory on every side, and who was entitled to use the white umbrella over his head. He banished the poverty of the people by his munificence, and by the water of his bounty extinguished the heat of their miseries. He was king of kings, and had all the monarchs of the earth under his subjection. He was the source of all riches as he was the chief amongst the kings. He possessed a sword like the Vejrayuda in the hand of Indra, to conquer the mountains of his enemies. He was also distinguished for his charitable virtues, which shone as bright as a meteor in the sky. This king afforded protection to all his allies by giving them assistance in the hour of need against their enemies.

Deva Raya Bhupala, the fortunate, had two ministers named Dharmadarsa and Savena, who erected a great number of temples, &c. for charitable purposes, and endowed them with villages. The fame of their king was by these means spread abroad throughout the earth.

These two ministers had a sister called Singhambu, who was celebrated for her virtue as well as beauty. She was an ornament to her sex, and her husband named Ramakasu, of the tribe of Munisvara, or penitents, was loved by the world for his excellent qualities.
Ramaraasu had five sons named Laxman Mantri, Chena Mantri, Bakana, Abuna, and Madana, who were esteemed and celebrated in the world, as much as the five wishing trees, called Santana, Calpavrix, Mandara, Harichandana and Parijata, which grew in the garden of Indra, the Lord of Paradise.

Of these five brothers Laxman Mantri was most distinguished for his strength and symmetry, which equalled that of Bhima. He was valiant and courageous, and his fame rose like that of Arjuna, the third brother of Dharmaraja or the son of Pandu, and like that of Dasaratha, Rama, whose glory was as the moon of the nectarine sea called the womb of Sangamambu. He was loved by the people and his name increased daily. Laxman Mantri afforded protection to all his friends as well as to strangers, and he constructed a great many lakes and wells. His hand was open and generous as the wishing tree Calpavirisham, and so numerous were his charities and liberal donations that Carna, a king famous for these qualities, was entirely forgotten.

Laxman Mantri was minister to the king Deva Raya Bhupala, and was loved by the nobles for his extensive acquirements in literature and the sciences.

In public or in private he was equally esteemed for his virtues, wealth, greatness, generosity, and personal bravery, &c.

The women who saw Laxman Mantri, while sitting in the light of the full moon in summer, were dazzled by his beauty, and intoxicated with love.

A great many authors and learned men composed verses, &c., in his praise.

In the dominions of Deva Raya, Laxman Mantri was the chief of men and excelled the minister of Pratapa Rudra, called Vanaka, and Yogendra in firmness, wisdom, wit and resources.

One night Laxman Mantri being asleep, dreamt that a deity called Vinaka appeared before him, having his feet adorned with Andal and Cadam, and his waist with a gold band. He had a crown on his head set with nine sorts of precious stones, and the symbol of full moon was placed above the crown. He had four hands, each of which held an instrument. The deity addressed Laxman Mantri saying, "There is a place called Virupaksha, where lasciviousness, revenge, lust, &c. are unknown, which would be a pleasant spot for the three principal deities called Hari, (or Vishnu) Hara (or Siva) and Hiranyagarbha, or the four-headed god Brahma. It is situated in the south side of the mountain called Meru, in the middle of the island called Jambudwipa, and encompassed by the salt sea called Savana Samudram. In the same place there is a river called Penakeni, whose waters are like Amritam (nectar), and abound with fish, turtles, alligators, &c. On the banks of the river there are many groves composed of mangoes,
citron, plantain, limes and other sorts of fruit trees, intermixed with all sorts of flowers and plants named Malli, Malla, Janji, &c., the abode of nightingales and other beautiful birds. This is the holiest spot in the world, where the axe of penance and devotion is laid to the root of the vine of sin. In it there is a place called Pumpátil, to the east of which there is a mountain called Malayávanta, to the south side of which again there is a cave where I recommend you to build my temple."

Laxman Mantri in accordance with the injunction of the deity erected a temple in which he placed the auspicious Virupáksha Deva with Párvatí, his wife, and their son Ganesa or Pináka on the bank of the river Pampa, to the south side of the mountain Malayávanta, whose glory shall last until the sun and moon pass away.

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TWELFTH INSCRIPTION.

A Bond of Donation written on the stone near Ranga Mantapam before the Temple of the Holy Virupáksha.

May fortune and victory endure!

In the year of Śālivahana 1438, corresponding to the year Sukla, in Māgha Bahula Chatardasi, or on the 29th of the moon (in the month of March, 1508.)

The fortunate, the great king of kings, Parameswara, brave and valiant, happy and heroic, Krishna Mahá Ráya, while sitting on the throne, presented a village, Singhasañi, for the supply of the daily offerings, together with a newly built edifice called Ranga Mantapam, and a tower opposite to it, and also a large old tower lately repaired, which is at the first gate. He presented to Virupáksha a Camalam and a Nágyánharañam set with nine sorts of precious stones: the shape of the former was that of the petals of the Tāmari (lotus) flowers, and of the latter that of a serpent. He also presented a large gold plate for the purpose of holding the daily offerings of food, and two small plates of the same metal for holding small lights, together with seventy-four other plates made with silver. He, who shall not continue the charity, will commit as great a sin as if he had slain a cow or Brahman.

STANZAS.

I.—The king sitting on the precious throne, dwelling in the city of Vijayanagar, his name is extended over the earth. In administering justice he excels the sovereigns Nrigu, Nala, and Nahusha.
II.—The virtue of giving is greater than that of continuing a charity. Giving obtains heaven, and continuing paradise.

III.—If a person continue all the gifts of others it is twice better than one of his own, should he resume those of others his own will be in vain.

IV.—If a person resume his own gifts or those of others he will be born as a mite or worm, and live sixty thousand years in dung.

V.—Rámachandra wishes all kings now and hereafter to continue to give in charity, because it is a duty appointed to man as the shore is to the sea.

FOURTEENTH INSCRIPTION.

A Bond of Donation written on a stone called Vay in the Temple of Madávaswámi.

OBEISANCE to GANÁDI PATI (or GANAPATI*), the general of the army of the deities.

Fortune and victory!

In the year of Sátiváhana 1467, corresponding to the year Visvávasú, in Krishna Sudí Trittíya, Gurucáram, or on Thursday the 3d of the moon (in the month of April 1545.)

The fortunate, the great king of kings, Parameswara, happy, famous, and heroic, SADÁSIVA MAHÁ RÁYA was ruling the world, sitting on the precious stone, holding an umbrella over his head when TIMMA RANGA, son of VRITTÁBHA RANGA presented a building called Ranga Mantapam or "public resting place," with twenty-five partitions to the God MÁDHAVA DEVÁ, (whose temple is in the city of Vijayanagar, at the great bázár, west of the Metananta). The proceeds thereof are to be appropriated to the expense of the daily festivals, drums, flutes, &c., which may be necessary for the pomp and splendour of the temple.

This gift is given by him in the name of his father VALLÁBHA RANGA and mother VENÇALOMÁ, that they may obtain salvation. Let the gift be inviolable until the sun and moon shall cease to shine in the world.

* This is apparently a mistake for the younger brother of GANAPATI named KARTIK is called "DEVA SHIKHA-PATI," (general of the army of the deities).
Transcript of the First Inscription from the Tailanga into the Devanāgarī character.
कृपया मेरे पास अपनी मदद का करें।
INSCRIPTIONS FROM VIJAYANAGAR.

Third Inscription, transcribed in the Devanagari Character.
(The rest of the Inscriptions, being in the Tailanga and Canarese language and characters, for which type are not readily procurable in Calcutta, are omitted; the translations being thought sufficient to explain their purport.)
II.

ANALYSIS OF THE DULVA,

A PORTION OF THE

TIBETAN WORK ENTITLED THE KAH-GYUR.

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The great compilation of the Tibetan Sacred Books, in one hundred volumes, is styled Kā-gyur or vulgarly Kān-gyur (བཀྲ་ཤིས་, bka-'hgyur) i.e. "translation of commandment;" on account of their being translated from the Sanscrit, or from the ancient Indian language, (རྒྱུན་, rgyagar skud), by which may be understood the Pracrita or dialect of Magadha, the principal seat of the Buddhist faith in India at the period.

These Books contain the doctrine of Shākya, a Buddha, who is supposed by the generality of Tibetan authors to have lived about one thousand years before the beginning of the Christian era. They were compiled at three different times, in three different places, in ancient India. First, immediately after the death of Shākya; afterwards, in the time of Ashoka a celebrated king, whose residence was at Pataliputra, one hundred and ten years after the decease of Shākya. And, lastly, in the time of Kaniska, a king in the north of India, upwards of four hundred years from Shākya; when his followers had separated themselves into eighteen sects, under four principal divisions, of which the names both Sanscrit and Tibetan, are recorded.*

* See p. 25 in the Life of Shākya, in the Kā- gyur collection.
The first compilers were three individuals of his (Shakyas’s) principal disciples. “Upālā” (in Tib. “Nye-vār-hkhor”) compiled the “Vinaya Sūtram” (Tib. Dul-vé-do); Ananda (Tib. “Kun-dgavó”) the Sūtrantah (Tib. the Do class); And “Kāshyapa” (Tib. “Hot-srung”) the Prajñāpāramitā (Tib. Sher-ch’hin). These several works were imported into Tibet, and translated there between the seventh and thirteenth centuries of our era, but mostly in the ninth. The edition of the Kā-gyur in the Asiatic Society’s possession appears to have been printed with the very wooden types that are mentioned as having been prepared in 1731 of the last century; and which are still in continual use, at Snár-t’hang, a large building or monastery, not far from Teshi-lhun-po, (བསྟེ། མེ་རི་ཚལ་བ་, bka'-shis lhun-po.)

The Kā-gyur collection comprises the seven following great divisions, which are in fact distinct works.

I. Dul-vā, विनय, (Sansk. Vinaya) or, “Discipline,” in 13 volumes.

II. Sher-ch’hin, प्रज्ञापारमिता, (Sansk. Prajñāpāramitā) or, “Transcendental Wisdom,” in 21 volumes.

III. P’hal-ch’hen, बौद्धवटा संघ, (Sansk. Buddha-vata sangha) or, “Buddha Community,” in 6 volumes.

IV. D.kon-séks, गemm, (Sansk. Ratnakuta) or, “Gems heaped up,” in 6 volumes.

V. Do-dé, सूत्र, (Sansk. Sūtranta) “Aphorisms” or Tracts, in 30 volumes.


VII. Gyut, गुण (Sansk. Tantra) “Mystical Doctrine, Charms,” in 22 volumes, forming altogether exactly one hundred volumes.

The whole Kā-gyur collection is very frequently alluded to under the name, Dé-not-sum, देवसूत्र, in Sanscrit Tripitakāh, the “free vessels or repositories”, comprehending under this appellation—1st. The Dulva.—2ndly. The Do, with the P’hal-ch’hen, Kon-séks, Nyangdás and the Gyut.
—3rdly. The Sher-chhin, with all its divisions or abridgments. This triple division is expressed by these names: 1. Dulvā, (Sans. Vinaya). 2. Do; (Sans. Sūtra). 3. Ch’hos-non-pa, ṇun-pa-kḥa, (San. Abhidharmākha.) This last is expressed in Tibetan also by ṇon-pa-dsot, ṇun-pa-kḥa, by Yum, ṇun, and by Ma-mo. ṇun. It is the common or vulgar opinion that the Dulva is a cure against cupidity or lust; the Do, against iracundy or passion; and the Ch’hos-non-pa, against ignorance.

The Dulvā, डुवा, Sans. Vinaya, which will form the subject of the present analysis, treats generally on the religious Discipline or Education of religious persons. The following are the subdivisions of this Work:


* In these names the mute letters of the Tibetan are omitted for facility of pronunciation: those who can consult the original names will readily supply them where the exact orthography is required. In other places, where a roman letter precedes a syllable in italics, or vice versa, such initial will be understood to be mute.
Some make only four divisions of the whole Dulva, thus, in Sanscrit—
1. Vinaya Vastu. 2. Pratimoksha Sutra and Vinaya vibhaga. 3. Vinaya kshudraka Vastu, and 4. Vinaya Uttara grantha. And this division is called Lung-dé-zhi, (ཞུ་ཙི་ཁོ་གུ་,) the four classes of precepts. But in the collection with the Society the subdivision is as exhibited above.

Under this title "Dulva" (དུལ་ལྷ་) there are thirteen volumes marked with the thirteen first letters of the Tib. Alphabet (from འ—ཐ,) On each leaf, on the margin of the left side, whence the lines begin, this title is expressed; then follows the letter, under which the volume is registered, accompanied by the number of that leaf in words, thus—རྱ་བྲ, འ, གཙོ, i.e. the Dulva class, the Kā or first volume, first leaf.

On the first page are seen three images representing Shākya with his son on his left, and one of his principal disciples on his right, with these sentences or inscriptions below them—"t'hup-dráng-la namo," salutation to the prince of Munis—"Shārihi-pula-namo," salutation to the son of Shārikā, sgra-gchen-hdsin-la-námo," salutation to Grachén dsin (or Lāhula, in Sanscrit.)

The titles of the great divisions of the Kāh-gyur, and of some particular works, are frequently entitled both in Sanscrit and Tibetan, as in the example just given རྣ་སྟོད་, rgya-gar-skad-du, (in the Indian or Magadha language, or Sanscrit Vinaya vastu.)—Bod-skuddu, and lastly in the Tibetan language hdul-va-gzhi, རྣ་མཐོང་, "the basis of religious discipline."

After the title of the work, follows the "salutation to the three holy ones," in Tibetan, thus—Dkon-Mch’hog-Qsun-la-p’hyag-Htsäl-lo, which in Sanscrit is expressed elsewhere thus—Namo Ratna Trayāya, and means exactly what is above expressed. Then follows a special salutation to Shākya, in one slōka, of which the meaning is this—"He that has cut off entirely all bonds (of human affection), has overcome the determinists (Sans. Tirthika, Tib. Mu-stege-chan,) and has really subdued the devil with all his hosts, he has found the supreme perfection (Bodhisatvā,) I adore him."
I proceed now to take a view of the contents of the several divisions of the *Dulva* class.

The first, Tib. H. *dul-va-Q.ghi* (Sans. *Vinaya vastu*.) "basis of education," consists of several treatises on the disciplining of those religious persons who became followers of *Shákyá*, and entered into the religious order of that *Buddha* or Sage. Besides many others, seventeen such treatises are contained in the first four volumes of the *Dulva* class. The contents may be conveniently arranged with reference to the volume of the class, and the leaf of that volume, in which they are found.

I, or first volume of the *Dulva* class.

On the second leaf the subjects of the Essays in this class are expressed in two *slokas*, the meaning of which is this—1. The entering into the religious order. 2. Confession or general supplication. 3. Prohibition or censure of immoral actions. 4. The passing of the summer at a certain place. 5. Leather, hide or skin. 6. Medicament, garments or clothes. 8. Mat. 9. *Kaushámbi*, (a city). 10. Works. 11. *Dmarser-chan*. 12. The inward man. 13. Alteration. 14. The omission or leaving off of the celebration of the feast of confession. 15. Bedding and furniture. 16. Disputing. 17. The causing of divisions amongst the priests.

The contents of the first article are thus specified—"*Shárihi-bu*," or the son of *Sháriká*. *Mustegs-chan*, or *Tirthika* (a determinist ?) Two young priests or monks. The murder of an *Arhan*. One with a maimed hand, &c. or all these contents are reduced thus—the son of *Sháriká* (Sans. *Sháriputra*); holy order; ordination, or consecration of priests.

*Nye-s-de* (Sans. Upase'na) and other bands of religious persons adopt the doctrine of *Shákyá*, become his disciples, and follow him whithersoever he goes.

From leaf 2 to 10 is related how the kings of *Anga* (or *Angadha*) and *Magadha*, made incursions into the territories of each other with troops composed of such as fought from elephants, horses, chariots, and on foot, when *Shákyá* was not yet descended from the paradise of the gods.
The king of Anga (whose capital was Champa) conquers Padma ch'hen-po, the king of Magadha (whose capital was Rhjagrigha) and makes him his tributary;—haughty expressions of the king of Anga in his letter to Padma ch'hen-po;—the officers of this monarch advise him to surrender to the king of Anga, and repeat before him a śloka, to this meaning—

"When one's kingdom and life are both in danger, one should have most care for one's life—for on consideration it will be evident that one may find another kingdom but not another life." The king of Anga keeps afterwards Magadha, for several years, in subjection, and his publicans, or tax-gatherers, make great exactions there.

An earthquake and a great light are stated to occur at the descent of Shákya, when he enters the womb of his mother, (leaf 4.) and again at his birth;—names of the four kings in the four capitals of central India, and of their sons, that were born at the same time with Shákya;—why such names were given to those young princes, (leaf 5.)

In Magadha the young prince born to "Padma ch'hen-po" is called in Tib. "Qzugs-chan-snying-po" (Sans. Vimbasára);—why so called;—his eight nurses (Sans. Dhátri), two for holding him in their laps, two for suckling him, two for cleansing him, and two for playing with him. There were born in Magadha at the same time with this prince the sons of five hundred officers.

Vimbasára, when grown up is well practised in all arts, whence his surname (leaf 5-6) in Tib. "Bzo-sbyangs," (Sans. Shrenika or Shrenya.)—He takes notice of the tax-gatherers of the king of Anga, prohibits them from collecting any further tribute in Magadha.—They have recourse to the father of the young prince, who permits to continue gathering the tribute or tax in the same manner as before. Afterwards the young prince, finding them again collecting the taxes, menaces them, and orders them to cease absolutely from all tax-gathering. They go to the king of Anga, tell him how they have been treated by the young prince of Magadha, and repeat before him a śloka of this meaning, "As long as a tree is young—
can be cut off with the nails of the fingers; when it has grown large it is
difficult to cut it down even with a hundred axes." The king of Anga
sends his envoys or messengers to the king of Magadha, and demands of
him that the young prince, tied by the neck, should be sent to him;—
an answer is returned to him;—they both prepare for war.

The king of Magadha appoints his son commander of the army.
Vimbasāra summons those five hundred sons of officers that were born at
the same time with him;—acquaints them with his own circumstances;—tells
them that he is resolved to make war against the king of Anga;—appoints
them his officers. They all cheerfully engage in his cause, and assure him
that his circumstances will be their own. The prince utters a śloka, of
which the meaning is this: "In whose house there is renown and glory (or
a sacred person) it must be defended by all means. When honor is lost all
is gone; as when the nave of a wheel is broken, the spokes are of no
use." The officers assure him of their attachment to him in these words:
"where your feet are there are our heads." He assembles the four kinds of
troops. His father expresses his wonder at the great number of his son's
army—thence Vimbasāra's surname "the king that has many troops."
Since the king of Anga had yet more troops than he himself—he causes
him to be slain by a stratagem. He occupies afterwards the whole of
Anga, and takes up his residence at Champa till the death of his father.
Afterwards he makes his residence at Rājagriha, and this Vimbasāra is
represented in the Dutea as the king of Magadha in the time of Shakya,
whom he greatly esteemed, honored, and patronized.

From leaf 10. A young Brahman from Magadha, or Central India,
travels towards the south of India, searching after mysteries or the Tantrika
doctrine. He goes to a celebrated Brahman;—is well received by him;—
general reflections on the character of the people in the east, south, west and
north of India. Praise bestowed on Central India, (leaf 10-11.) Many wish
to see it. A celebrated Brahman goes with the former to Rājagriha;—pays
there a visit to the king;—desires to dispute with any one of the brahmans
in Magadha;—the king calls on a certain (Qnas-len-gyi-bu) brahman of Nalada, a learned man who overcomes him in a dispute; the king is greatly satisfied with it, makes him a donation of Nalada, his native place or town; (leaf 13.) He returns to Nalada;—marries;—after nine months his wife is delivered of a son, who is named "Stod-rings"—why so—is entrusted to eight nurses, (leaf 13.)—when grown up, is well instructed in all the arts and sciences, (leaf 14.) in the Rigveda, Yajurveda, Samaveda, Atharvaveda, &c. Afterwards his wife is delivered of a daughter, who having eyes like those of the Shārikā bird, is called Shārikā—she is instructed in the letters,—overcomes her brother in a dispute.

Again, a certain Brahman desirous to be acquainted with the Tantrika doctrine, or with mysteries,—travels from Central India towards the south;—is instructed there in the Lokâyata system, by a learned Brahman "Skar-rgyal" (Sans. Tis'hya.) Reflections on the characters of the people of the four corners of India, and the praise of Central India, (in the same terms as above.) This Skar-rgyal wishing to visit Central India, successively goes to Rājagriha,—pays there a visit to the king,—requests him for his patronage, and expresses his wish for disputing with any learned Brahman,—the king calls on "Qnas-len-gyi-bu" of Nalada (or Nalanda). Skar-rgyal defeats him in a dispute, and he is consequently deprived of Nalada, which village is conferred by the king to his successful adversary;—the former is much grieved, and is about to leave Nalada, and go to another place—when Skar-rgyal cedes one half of his income to him, that he might remain there;—he accepts of it, remains, and gives his daughter to Skar-rgyal for his wife.

Leaf 18. Stod-rings, the brother of Shārikā, travels towards the south of India to learn the Lokâyata philosophical system. As a layman he is not admitted to hear that philosophy;—he enters into the religious order of the Kun-tu-rgyu (going every where) Sans. Parivrājaka,—will not cut his nails till he has learned that philosophy,—thence he is surnamed afterwards, Sen-rings (he with long nails, or the long nailed.)
Leaf 19. Shāriṅka enters into a dispute with her husband, Škar-rgyal; she is overcome. She becomes pregnant with a child of wonderful character,—her dreams,—explication of her dreams. She disputes again with her husband—now she overcomes him; this is attributed to the wonderful child in her womb;—she is delivered of that child;—it has several tokens on his body of being imbued with extraordinary qualities. After the name of his father, he is called Nyé-rgyal, (Sansk. Upatis'hya); after that of his mother, Shāriṅka's son (Sansk. Shāriputra, Tib. Shārihi-bu) (leaf 20.) His qualifications in all the branches of science, and the practices of the brahmans. He excels his father in understanding the true meaning of the text of the ancient brahmanical works, (leaf 21.)

From leaf 22. The history of Mohugal-gyi-bu, or Mōngal-gyi-bu (Sansk. Maugalyana). His father's name, residing place and rank. He (the father) marries,—desirous to have a son,—addresses his prayers to all sorts of gods:—at last he obtains one:—sagacity of women with child in distinguishing whether that child be a male or female:—precautions which the minister takes with respect to the diet of his wife,—tastes and savours of meat and drink enumerated:—she is delivered of a child with a perfect body;—the child is called "Lap-born,"—why so? and also "Mōngalyana," and why so? Hence he is called sometimes, Tib. Pāng-sk'yēs, Lap-born, Sans. "Kolita," sometimes Tib. Mohugal-gyi-bu, Sans. Mōngalyana, one of the Mōngol family or race. His nurses, his education, his qualifications in all the sciences and practices of the brahmans, (leaf 24.) He surpasses his father in understanding the true meaning of the ancient works. He is entrusted with the instruction of 500 young brahmans in reading the brahmanical works. How they pass the time when they are not reading. The two masters or teachers Nyé-rgyal (Sansk. Upatis'hya) and Pāng-sk'yēs (Sansk. Kolita) acquire great renown by their disciples,—they are desirous to see each other. The first is very ingenious or intelligent, the latter very rich. Their parents will not permit them to go and see each other. They meet at the occasion of a festival at Rāja-griha, whither they
were sent by their parents. They sit near to each other. Their behaviour during the several exhibitions of spectacles;—their mutual addresses, after the shows are over;—their answers, each in a single stanza, (leaf 28.) They acquire an affection for each other; eager to acquire knowledge, they resolve to enter into some religious order. **Pang-skyes** begs his parents to permit him to take the religious character; he is not permitted. His parents, his relations, his coetaneous friends use several arguments to dissuade him from his purpose; they cannot prevail on him. He will absolutely not partake of any repast until he is permitted. At last he obtains his parents' leave, goes to Nalada to meet there "**Nye'-rgyal,**" who very easily obtains his parents' leave to take the religious character;—reflections thereupon by **Pang-skyes** (leaf 33.) They proceed together to Rájagriha, where about that time there are supposed to have been six celebrated teachers, the masters of six schools of different principles (whose names both Sanscrit and Tibetan are on record). Successively they go before each of them, address them each in these terms: "**Master? (shes-ldan,** knowing) what is the method of your doctrine? what advice do you give to your pupil? what is the fruit of an honest life? (or of good moral practices) what are the benefits thereof?" Each master addresses them thus: Brahman-sons! and each tells them his own opinion or principles:—they are with none of them satisfied: they make on each their reflections in the same terms, in one stanza, the meaning of which is this: "He is an ill minded, wrong teaching, and mean fellow, although he is celebrated for a master: if his own professed principles are such, what are those which he does not profess." They leave them with disdain or contempt, on account of their gross atheistical principles. (The names and philosophical principles of those six teachers or masters may be seen, from leaf 33 to 40 of the 3, or first volume of the *Dulva.*)

Leaf 40. They become afterwards the pupils of "**Yang-dag-rgyal-va-chan.**" He entrusts them with the instruction of his five hundred disciples. In his sickness, these two young brahmans make every effort
to assist him. The one attends on him, the other seeks after medicaments. The cause of his smiling once. He tells them the birth of Shākya, and that he has become a saint or Buddha. He advises them to become his disciples, but not to mention their caste and family name, but leaving off every pride, to practise good morals before him, if they wish to find the food of immortality (Tib. Bdud-rtsi, Sans. Amrita.) Leaf 41. A stanza on the instability of human things: "All gathered treasures will end in want; the end of those on high is downfall; the end of meeting is separation or parting; the end of being alive is being dead (or is death)."

He dies—they burn his body decently, and mourn for him. They are convinced that their deceased master has been a sage, and that he had found the food of immortality. They regret much that he has not communicated it to them. They both make a law among themselves, that whichever should find first the amrīta should communicate it to the other. The circumstances of their afterwards becoming disciples of Shākya. He declares them the first pair of his principal disciples,—Nye'-rgyal (Shārihi-bu, or Shāradwatt), "the chief of the ingenious or intelligent," and Pāng-skyes (Mongal-gyi-bu, or Mohugal-gyi-bu, Sans. Monga-līyana) "the chief of those that make miracles or prodigies or illusory spectacles."

Leaf 42. Shākya declares that his privation and austerities, during the course of six years, were to no effect; he could not find what he sought for. He refreshes himself with substantial food, recovers his vigour, gives himself to meditation, and arrives at perfection, or becomes a Buddha. On the request of Brahma, the god, he goes to Varānasī, performs there his first religious course, teaches his doctrine first to five men, who had been formerly his attendants. Afterwards he discipines there fifty young persons of high descent;—ordains and consecrates them, (Leaf 43.) At other different places he finds many other disciples;—goes to Rājagriha. The king of Magadha (Vimbasa) offers him a residing place in a grove (called Ḍrang-pu-'khrul-pa gnod dge-legs, hod-mahi-ts'hal-byu.ka-lan-
da-kahi-gnas. Sans. Vēnu-vanam Kalandakā nivāsa.) It is there that the above described Nyē'-bgyal and Pāng-skyes become his disciples.

Leaf 44-45. Enumeration of several qualifications of Shākya—his seeing and knowing all things. The method he used in bringing to his doctrine or faith the before mentioned two young brahmans;—farther circumstances thereof, (leaf 45-50.)

Having been told by one of Shākya's disciples that he teaches in this manner: "What things are they that arise from causes, and what are the causes of their existence and of their cessation?"* these young brahmans are much pleased with, and go to, him, to become his disciples, leaf 50. Rumours at Rājagriha upon hearing that the two principal disciples of Yang-dag-bgyal-va-chan have become the followers of Shākya.

Leaf 51. Kuntu-bgyu Sen-rings (a brahman learned in the Lokāyata philosophical system) pays a visit to Shākya;—is very impatient at first,—afterwards, being convinced by Shākya of his wrong principles, he yields, and begs him to receive him into his order, leaf 57.—Terms used by the new comer and by the master at entering and at receiving one into the religious order.

Leaf 58-65. On the enquiry of the priests, how it came that "Shā-rihi-bu possesses such admirable talents?—Shākya tells them his religious and moral merits in his former generations. Leaf 65.—Likewise, he tells them those of Mohugal-gyi-bu.

Leaf 68. Shākya commits to the assembled body of the priests the power of receiving neophytes into his religious order, and to ordain priests when qualified. Many inconveniences arising from there being no Head or President in the congregation of the priests;—regulations for electing two principals (Mk'han-po), and five sorts of teachers (Slob-Dpon vulgo Lobon.) Rules to be observed. Instruction how to perform the rites

* Ye dharmā hētu prabhavā; hētu teshān Tathāgato hyacatat—Teshān cha yo nirodha, evam vadi Mahā bramanas.—Of this formula, which is found on most of the images of Buddha dug up at Benares, in Tirhut, and elsewhere, a full account has been given in the Journal Asiatic Society, Vol. IV. page 133 and 211.
and ceremonies at the receiving and ordaining of the priests. Terms used at that occasion.

What sorts of men may be received into the religious order, and admitted to become priests. Questions to which a new comer must answer directly. Names of several diseases and sores, leaf 79. Persons infected with, or subject to those maladies are prohibited from admission into the order. Several rules respecting the conduct of religious persons.

Leaf 91. A priest should not abuse any one (in words) even when himself abused; should not become angry when irritated; should not beat when beaten; nor rail when railed.

Leaf 92. Enumeration of several things which a religious person or priest may not do without having previously asked the principal’s and the teacher’s leave.

Leaf 102. Shákyá having passed the three months of the summer in the grove near Rájagríha, will make a tour to the hills towards the south. He makes known to the priests, that whoever likes may go with him. Excuses of the priests, both of the old and young, for not being able to accompany him. Cause or reason why but a few disciples were now with him.

Leaf 104. How any Mu-stegs-chan (Sans. Tirthika) may be admitted into the religious order of Shákyá. Regulations thereupon.

Leaf 108. No priest is to be ordained that is below twenty years of age. Reasons thereof.

Leaf 109. No one shall be received into the religious order below fifteen years of age. Indecent conduct of two young priests or students.

Shákyá at Shrāvasti in Kosala. The story of two slaves or servants, who successively had been received into the religious order of Shákyá.

Leaf 110-113. No slaves are to be admitted into that order.

Leaf 113-115. Stories of two persons who, being in debt, had taken the religious character. Shákyá prohibits the admission into the religious order of any one who is in debt.
Leaf 115. The story of a young man who, having run away from his parents, had entered into the religious order. Shākya refuses to admit any one into that order without the consent of his parents. Regulations thereupon.

Leaf 116. The story of a young person who had been received into the religious order of Shākya by a high priest. Resolution—not to receive any one without the consent of the whole congregation of the priests.

Leaf 118-121. The story of a sick person; no sick man is to be received into the religious order. Every new comer is to be questioned as to the state of his health.

Leaf 121. Shākya in the Nyagrodha Vihar, near Capila (Ser-skya, in Tibetan.) Great lamentation of the women of Capila, upon their fathers' husbands, brothers, &c. taking the religious character and leaving their houses. Zas-Gtsang-ma's (Sans. Sudhodana, the father of Shākya,) complaint before Shākya. He again prohibits their receiving any one into the religious order without the consent of his parents, and orders that they should always ask first whether a candidate has leave from his parents, except in cases of those, who have come from a far country. Leaf 123.

Leaf 123-127. The story of Kun-Dga'h-vo's (Sans. Ananda) sister's two children. How they were encouraged to read and study diligently.

Leaf 127-133. Several births according to one's moral or religious merits, described by Shākya,—applied to the before-mentioned students or young monks.

Leaf 133. The wonderful effects of Shākya's smiling. Reasons thereof. Order prohibiting the seduction of nuns or of priestesses by the monks or priests.

Leaf 136. A man passing clandestinely some time amongst the priests, without having been admitted regularly, is made acquainted with their doctrine and religious practices. His reflections thereupon. Scandals arising therefrom. Shākya's order for ejecting or expelling him, and not to suffer afterwards any one to cohabit clandestinely with the priests. Leaf 138.
Leaf 138-139. **Shākya** at Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shrāvasti, in Kosala). Several kinds of men of doubtful sex, or of hermaphrodites (Tib. Mánīng). Prohibition against receiving any such into their religious order. They should always ask when receiving a newcomer whether he is a Mánīng.


Leaf 142. Prohibition against receiving into the religious order any illusory man (Sprul-pa). Thenceforth they shall always ask when admitting one into the religious order, whether he is a Sprul-pa. — Five kinds of natural Nāgas; — the rest all illusory ones.

Leaf 143-145. Good services rendered by an illusory Nāga, to several religious persons. The priests should distinguish an illusory monastery from a real one, and not resort to such places.

Leaf 147. **Shākya** forbids the giving religious instruction to any one, unless asked; except when one is invited to a public entertainment.

Leaf 147-163. The story of Dge-Hdun-Htś'ho. His birth — his beautiful body — his becoming the attendant of Shārihi-Bu — his accomplishments — his accompanying five hundred merchants to the sea — his great services and religious instructions to many. Marvellous stories of Nāgas, &c.

Leaf 163. The way of the ancient sages discovered by Shākya, illustrated by a parable. Description of that way or method.

Leaf 167. Dge-Hdun-Htś'ho returns to Shākya — presents his converts, they are received by him into his religious order — the great perfection they acquire afterwards by their assiduity and earnest endeavour.

Leaf. 168. At the request of Dge-Hdun-Htś'ho, Shākya relates what have been the actions in former lives of several individuals whom he had found deficient in virtue, and monsters of iniquity.

Leaf 170. Again, on the request of the priests in a body, Shākya relates the religious and moral merits of Dge-Hdun-Htś'ho.
Leaf 173. The story of "Klu-gzhon-nu-sprul-pa-hod-srung" (Sansk. Kashyapa). An ancient Buddha, living at Varanasi, instructs his disciples where to perform their meditations; and advises them to live such a chaste and pure life that they may not repent it afterwards. The disciples of Shakyamuni will imitate those of Kashyapa in performing their meditations—they commit many excesses;—restrictions and prohibitions thereupon.

Leaf 175. Shakyamuni at Mynan-yod (Sansk. Shravasti) A Mu-stegs-chan monk (Sansk. Tirthika) once, on the 14th of the month, on the confession day of the Buddhists, enters into their Vihar, admires their furniture and the mode of living, and says: "The Buddhists excel us in furniture (or household stuff) and in good fare; but we excel them in religion and good morals."—To enjoy both in their proper places, he purports to make profession of both religions;—is detected and expelled. A rule is established, that thenceforth no one shall be admitted into the order, who had become formerly a Tirthika (Mu-stegs-pa, in Tibetan) or a brahmanist in general.

Leaf 177. Shakyamuni at Mynan-yod (Sansk. Shravasti.) The murder of a mother;—the circumstances preceding and following it:—various advice given to the matricide by the Tirthikas (that he should throw himself into fire,—take or swallow poison,—precipitate himself from a steep place, or strangle himself by a rope.) In his confusion, he takes refuge in the monastery of Shakyamuni's disciples; hears there accidentally from the mouth of a priest reading, that "he who opposes good actions to a committed crime, may shine even in this world like the sun and moon, after having escaped from a cloud." He repents, and, that he may yet efface the horrors of his crime by good actions, he resolves to take the religious character:—he does so, and, in a short time by his earnest application, he arrives at great perfection. Shakyamuni is informed by the priests of his being a matricide, orders him to be expelled, and makes a rule that no matricide is to be admitted into that order; and that thenceforth they should always
ask a new comer whether he is a murderer of his mother. The farther adventures of the same matricide related;—his death and his new birth, first in hell, (leaf 179,) and afterwards in heaven amongst the gods.

Leaf 183 to 188. The murder of a father;—circumstances that preceded and followed it, (told in the same manner, and nearly in the same words as above, in regard to the murder of a mother.)

Leaf 188. SHĀKYA at Mṇyān-yod (Sans. Shrāvasti.) The edicts of the kings of Magadha and Kosala (when they adopted Buddhism) that in their realms no robbery should be committed. Robbers, if detected, are to be expelled from their country, and restoration of damage to be made from the king’s treasury. Robberies and murders committed on the confines of Magadha and Kosala:—some traders, that have escaped, go to the king of Kosala, and inform him of the event:—the king sends his troops; the robbers are defeated; some escape; some are killed; sixty taken alive and brought to the king, together with the things and effects found with them. The examination of the robbers by the king—their answers. They are put to death, one escapes when carried to the place of execution, takes his refuge in a monastery of the priests of Shākya, enters into the religious order. He is found afterwards to have been a robber, and the murderer of an Arhan (Saint.) The circumstances of that detection;—a rule is made that thenceforth no murderer of an Arhan shall be received into the religious order, and that they shall ask of every new comer whether he is a murderer of an Arhan.

Leaf 190. NYE'-VAR-HK'HOR (Sans. Upāli) asks of Shākya whether one, who has caused divisions amongst the priests, is to be received into their religious order. No such shall be admitted:—likewise, no one shall be received into the order, who with an ill intention to a Tathāgata has shed blood;—nor any that may previously have fallen off, by having committed any of the four great crimes.

Leaf 191. All such persons as have any defect in their body, members or limbs, are prohibited from admission into the religious order of
SHÁKYA. They are thus specified: one with a maimed hand or foot, one without lips, one having a cicatrized body, too old, too young, lame or cripple, blind, having maimed fingers, crooked, a dwarf, having a goitre, dumb, deaf, leaning on a staff in walking, creeping or crawling, having swollen feet with corrupt matter in them, effeminate, broken under burden or by much travelling, &c. leaf 193.

With this concludes the subject of entering into the religious order of SHÁKYA, entitled in Tib. the त्रयुक्तथा अवशैषः rab-tu-byung-vahi-Gzhi, Sans. Pracrajita vàstu.

From leaf 193 to 335, inclusive, is occupied with the description of the गो-श्योंग Gso-shyong, confession or self-emendation, and general supplication. SHÁKYA at Rájagriha. The celebration of the confession, or general supplication at the end of every half month, i.e. at every new and full moon:--occasion of its being ordained,--preparations thereto;--rites and ceremonies thereof, leaf 195. Explanation of the term hdug-pa, ज्वल, sitting, and meditating, or abstract meditation, (न्यौ ध्यान rnal-lbyor.) The priests of SHÁKYA carry to excess the giving themselves to abstract meditation. leaf 201. Five sorts of ghantis (plates of mixed metal to be struck instead of bells)—for what use. leaf 202. Praying and the recitation of the Pratimoksha Sūtra, or So-sor-t'har-pahi-mdo.

The great court-yard for the celebration of the feast of confession. CARINA, a brahman. His scruples about whether he should go or not to that festival. On the exhortation of SHÁKYA he goes there. Designation of the place for the reception of the great congregation. The officiating priest. The terms he uses in addressing the priesthood. Garbs or garments which the priests are permitted to take with them into the congregation. Description of the smaller court-yard or enclosure, leaf 219. Instructions for reciting the Pratimoksha Sūtra (or the tract on emancipation). How to intercede for any priest who may have been arrested or taken, on this day, by the king, by the robbers, or by the enemy. Then follow several instructions, how to celebrate this great day
of confession elsewhere, leaf 335. And thus ends the second part of the Vinaya vāstu, on confession or general supplication.

From leaf 335 to 357 is the Dgag-deyéhi-Gzhi རྣམ་ཐལ་ཀྱི་གྲེི་. The enumeration of immoral acts or faults. Censure thereof. Reproof and prohibition of immoral actions. A reprover or censor is elected for that purpose. Several instructions given, how to perform the office of a reprover or censor of manners, rites and ceremonies.

From leaf 357 to 378 is the Deyar-gyi-Gzhi དྭ་དྭ་ཀྱི་གྲེི་. On summering, or passing the summer. Shākya at Mnyán-yod (Sans. Shrā-vasti). The occasion of establishing the custom of making a vow for passing the three months of the summer at a certain place, without leaving it even for a single night—for what purpose it was ordained. Several instructions, concessions, restitutions, and exceptions. The manner in which they passed that season. Mutual compliments after the return of the priests to their respective colleges or monasteries. Several questions and answers how they have passed the summer.

From leaf 378 to 408, or the end of this volume, and in the beginning of the next volume (from leaf 1 to 10), contained the Ko-pags-kyi-Gzhi, རྟོག་པ་ཀྱི་གྲེི་, or, the subject of leather or skin.

The story of Gro-Bzhin-skyes, his birth, his growing up, his voyage at sea—are received into the religious order by Kātyāna (residing at Ṛṣāya Rdo-chan);—arrives at great perfection, (leaf 396.) Several sorts of skin or leather are enumerated. His private audience at Shākya's. Kātyāna's complimentary address to Shākya, presented by him:—Shākya's answer thereto, leaf 405. Permission (to the disciples of Shākya) to use a vehicle or carriage;—the occasion or circumstance of that permission;—excesses in the use of carriages;—they are prohibited, except to the old, the weak and the sick.

Leaf 406. Leave (to the disciples of Shākya) to acquire a practice in swimming;—occasion of that leave being given;—excesses made in that practice. Indecencies committed in the Ajirapati river. They are
prohibited from touching any woman;—they may not save even one that has fallen into the river;—modification of the former prohibitive precepts.

Leaf 407. They are prohibited from seizing a cow by the tail, in swimming over a river;—occasion thereof. They may seize the tail of a fine elephant, fine horse, bull, buffalo, and yak, but they must at the same time make use of a leather bag (glove?) Improprieties committed with the leather bags. They are prohibited from wearing wooden shoes (shing-gi-mch'il-lham);—occasion of that prohibition. They are permitted to wear them in their own houses;—what was the reason thereof. What to do with the wooden shoes presented (or offered) to them by the people. Leaf 408.

The first volume of the Dulva terminates here. Note: The scenes of the transactions it contains, and indeed of the whole Dulva, are represented to have been, with a few exceptions, Rājagriha in Magadha, and Shrāvasti in Kosala, or more properly the groves near those cities.

The ॥ (Kha) or second volume of the Dulva.

This volume contains 563 leaves. It is divided into 30 parts or books (ལོང་པོ་Bam-po) or from the 25th to the 54th book inclusive.

From leaf 1 to 10 is the continuation of the Ko-lpags-Gzhi གོ་ལྡེགས་གཞི of the first volume, or the treatise on leather or hide; or, in general, on the priests being allowed to wear shoes. In the Index, the subject of the whole volume is said to be on medicaments. But there is very little on that subject, except from the 10th to the 40th leaf.

From leaf 1 to 10. Several sorts of shoes (Mch'il-lham) of the religious class are enumerated, together with the stories of their being brought into use and prohibited afterwards by Shakya. Such are those made of reed leaves (smyung-lo); of the fibres of the munja grass; of thread or yarn (srad-bu), &c.

From leaf 10 to 19. Shakya in the grove near Shrāvasti. On medicine and drugs prepared from the roots, stalks or stems, leaves, flowers, fruits or nuts, juices or sap, and gums of certain plants and trees. Nuts of an
acrid taste, as that of the Amra tree, Arura, Skyurura, and Parura. Kinds of salt. Stories of particular diseases and maladies. What sort of medicament was prescribed by the physicians for each disease;—how such medicaments were permitted by Shākya to be used. Permission given by Shākya to his disciples to keep always with them a certain quantity of medicine (previously consecrated or blessed.) What gave occasion to that leave. Medicaments to be used daily, at a certain period of the day, for seven days, through one’s whole life;—diet in meat and drink. Leaf 15, medicament for the eye. The story of a madman. Stories of particular meat or flesh having been used by the disciples of Shākya, in the time of famine. Prohibitions against such practice.

Leaf 19. Shākya enters from Kāshi into Varanasi. The story of a Tribune’s (headman’s) wife there—her piety and her former moral merits.

Leaf 27. The king of Magadha (Shrenika Vimbasa) pays a visit to Shākya in a grove near Rājagriha, and begs his acceptance of an entertainment for three months with every thing necessary for him and his train or suite.

Leaf 30. The story of a priest suffering from hemorrhoids (piles) Haughty and malignant behaviour of the king’s physician to that person, though he was sent by the king to cure him;—he called Shākya also the son of a female slave. His punishment.


Leaf 34-35. What sort of medicament was employed by Kun-Dgah-vo (Ananda) in curing Shākya in a disease. The story of Gang-po, leaf 40.

Leaf 80 to 87. The king of Magadha (Lus-Hp’hags-mahi-bu-ma-Skyes-Dgra) invites Shākya into Rñagriha. With what solemnity he receives
him. The procession of the sage thither together with his train; the order thereof, and to what things it has been likened. Several miracles or prodigies that happened at his entrance into that city.

Leaf 83. The king of Magadha afterwards pays a visit to Shákyā and begs him to accept of an offer of entertainment for himself and suite during the three months of the winter, with all things that should be required (with dresses, a religious garment, meat and drink, beddings, medicaments and utensils.)

Leaf 83. Shákyā is invited afterwards (on the occasion of an epidemic malady) to Yangs-pa-chan (Sansk. Vaishali, hod. Allahabad). A chief man in that city, in a dream, is admonished by the gods, that they should implore the aid of Gautama. They consult about it, and send an embassy to him. At the request of the envoys from Vaishali, the king of Magadha permits Shákyā to visit their city, provided that they shall treat him in the same manner as he has been treated in Rájagriha; form of salutation or compliment used by the envoys from Vaishali.

Leaf 120 to 132. Upon Shákyā’s arrival at Yangs-pa-chan he is, first of all, invited and entertained by Amra-skyong, a rich courtesan, whose residence was without the city, in a grove. Afterwards he is entertained by the citizens, who were of the Lichabyi race; (they seem to have been republicans.) Their splendid dresses, horse furniture, carriages and chariots, &c., &c. This city is frequently compared by Shákyā to the residence of the gods, where Indra presides. Kun-dgah-vo (A’nanda) directed by Shákyā, advancing to the gate of the city, solemnly utters several mantras or set of forms of charms (in Sanscrit) for purifying the city from all evil spirits, and causing to cease the epidemic malady. The charms begin thus: “Vasirata” (four times repeated)—“Munčata” (twice)—“Nirgacheh’hatā” (four times)—&c., and are followed by benedictory verses for the prosperity of the city.

Leaf 132. On quitting that city, Shákyā passes through several other places in his peregrination, and relates to Kun-dgah-vo (Sans.
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AñANDA) their ancient history—makes several reflections on them, and in many places gives instructions to those that visit him.

From leaf 155 to 192, is contained the story of the meeting of PADMA SNYING-PO with SHĀKYA. This celebrated brahman hearing of SHĀKYA's being in the neighbourhood on his peregrination, sends to him one of his principal disciples (MA-SDUG), of great acquirements, with several old brahmans of respectable character, to learn through them, whether it be true what is rumoured respecting the accomplishments of GAUTAMA, and whether he has really all the characteristic signs of a sage. The conduct of MA-SDUG, and his conversation with SHĀKYA or GAUTAMA. He calls those of the SHĀKYA race upstarts, or such as are known but of late ٥٣٨٣ da-byung,) leaf 160. SHĀKYA tells him the origin of the SHĀKYA race, as also that of the family of MA-SDUG. He is much ashamed, and cannot return any answer to SHĀKYA; but is comforted, and afterwards begs for instruction. Then the teacher tells him the tenor and contents of the doctrine of a Buddha; and the several moral duties both of the Brahman and the Baudhha priests, which they should observe and perform religiously. He afterwards relates many superstitious customs, and declares that every true Brahman and Baudhha priest should desist from all such.

After the return of MA-SDUG, PADMA-SNYING-PO hearing of his having been unable to answer GAUTAMA, was so much displeased that he smote him with his shoes on the head, and would have gone immediately himself to GAUTAMA, had it not been too late in the evening. The next day mounting a carriage, and taking with him many prepared victuals, he visits GAUTAMA, is much satisfied with his conversation, and arranges a mode of salutation and return whenever they should happen to meet in the street; He assigns as the reason thereof, that courteous ceremonies are a mode of maintaining respect and renown amongst their followers.

Leaf 192. Terms of salutation; those in which men of quality or rank send their compliments, and ask after a friend's health by their messengers or servants. A full enumeration of the terms is given,
in which the King of Kosala, Gsal-rgyal sends his compliments to Gautama. (The catalogue occurs many times in the Ka-gyur, and is also introduced into the Sanscrit and Tibetan Vocabulary.)

Leaf 193. The King of Kosala, Gsal-rgyal, pays a visit to Gautama—asks him about several things:—what difference there is between the four castes? Gautama replies to the King so as to lead his own mind to the conclusion, that there is really no difference between the four castes. He asks him afterwards whether there exist gods,—whether the god Brahma does really exist?—The answer contains several modifications, and declares, if the king means such gods as have fleshly passions, and which delight in injuring and hurting others, there are none of that kind.

From leaf 201. In Rājagriha, and in several other places, at different occasions, Shākya gives many moral instructions, citing instances or parables.

From leaf 214. The story of Yul-rkhor-skhyong—how he enters into the religious order—his reflections—moral instructions to his parents.

Leaf 240. Shākya, accompanied by Gnud-sbyin-lag-nardorje converts many in the North of India.

Leaf 290. Account of Dgah-vo, a herder, with five hundred others entering into the religious order.

Leaf 302. Shākya, visiting several places, tells to Kun-dgah-vo their ancient history, and whence they derived their names.

Leaf 303. The king Gso-sbyong-hp’hags (Sansk. Uttaradha) born at Guas-Behas (Sansk. Saketana.)

Leaf 306. Terms for expressing great joy (by comparison.)

From leaf 327 to 390. Fragments of history of several universal monarchs, (Sansk. Chakravartti.)

Leaf 390. The story of Nor-bzangs, a royal prince, and of Yid-Hp’hrog-ma (the heart ravishing) his mistress. This contains many fine poetical descriptions and ingenious verses expressive of an affectionate mind: it is a kind of romance or fairy story.
From leaf 408. Several anecdotes are told by Shākya, to show the fruits and consequences of the merits and demerits of several individuals in former generations. He relates to the king of Kosala his own acts—how he arrived at Bodhisatwa, and the many benefits he afterwards endeavoured to bestow upon all animal beings. This division abounds in judicious sayings, and moral maxims:—apologues or moral tales—their application,—virtue and vice depicted in lively colours.

From leaf 496. On the request of Kun-Dgah-vo (A'ṇanda,) his principal attendant, addressed to him in verse, Shākya relates (also in verse,) the acts which he has performed from a very remote age to arrive at the state of a Bodhisatwa.

Leaf 505. Shākya, together with 500 Arhans, visits, in a miraculous manner, the great lake Ma-dros (Manassarovāra) in the north.

Leaf 506. The four great rivers that take their rise there:—the Ganga, Sindhu, Pakshu, and Sita.

From 503 to 563, or to the end of the volume, as also from leaf 1 to 20, in the next or 3d volume. On the bank of the Ma-dros lake. Shākya, and 36 persons of his principal disciples, tell (in verse) the course of their lives in former generations—or the consequences of good and bad actions. End of the 2nd volume.

The 3rd (or 2) volume of the Dulvā, Comprising 478 leaves, from the 55th to the 82nd book or section, inclusive.

General Contents. The latter part of the subject of "medicaments" in the 2nd volume. On garbs or garments—mats, spreading cloths; Kau- shambhi; works or moral actions—Dmar-ser-chan, the inward man, or man-alteration (regeneration). Omission or the leaving off, of the celebration of the confession, or general supplication. Dispute or quarrel:—the first part of the subject "of causing divisions amongst the priests."

From leaf 1 to 20. The continuation of Shākya's narration of his former births. The story of Bzang-mo and Padma-ṛtsa-lag, a cour-
tezan and her gallant, in the time of the king Ts’hang-sbyin (Sans. Brahmadatta) in Varanasi, cited by Shākyā and applied to himself. He tells his disciples, why he mortified his body for six years;—what was the cause thereof in his former lives. His disciples ask him several things, whence comes such and such a blemish or misfortune in his present life—he tells them his former immoral actions, and says that they are the consequences of these. The story of Dga-h-skyong, an ascetic, a good moralist, leaf 14.

Leaf 20. Shākyā, after his return from the Ma-dros lake to Shravasti together with the 500 Arhans, is invited and entertained by Sa-ga, (Ri-dags Hdzin-gyi-ma) a lady. His instructions to her at that occasion.

Leaf 21. On his peregrination in Kosala, Shākyā is invited and entertained by the Brahmanas and landholders of the town Thigs-pa-chan. The request of 500 Yidags (fancied beings representing the condition of a miser) made to him. His answer to them—their excuses. His reflections (in verse) on the wrong judgments of men—that “men are ashamed of those things of which they ought not to be ashamed, and vice versa.” He takes them with him to the entertainment, and afterwards makes his benediction to his hosts for the future prosperity and happiness of those Yidags.

Leaf 23. Dispute amongst the citizens of that place, whether Gautama and his disciples are covetous or not. They are tried by an entertainment, and are found to be moderate in their wishes and temperate in their living:—afterwards, by the same person, the Brahmanists also are invited and tried; but they are found to be the contrary of the former.

Leaf 24. The use of puram or buram (molasses) is permitted to his disciples. How Smka-Hdod-kyi-Sen-ge was enlightened and became an Arhan. He is declared by Shākyā to be the chief of those who are enlightened by using agreeable things. Leaf 25.

Leaf 25. From Spong-byed, Shākyā goes to Yangs-pa-chan, (Sans. Vaishali) and takes up his lodgings without the city in a house on the bank of the Ape-pond (Tib. Spréhu-rdsing-gi-Hgram.) The citizens make
a law that none of them shall invite Shākyā privately to a dinner, but they shall treat him publicly; since he will not remain long enough there, to be invited by them successively. Nor-chan, a rich citizen, having no notice of that established law, invites Shākyā privately. The same do also his wife, his son, and his daughter-in-law, on the three next following days—leaf 26 to 31. The citizens wish to punish him—how he obtains their pardon—his riches—he, and his whole family, take refuge with Buddha, or adopt Buddhism. Their former religious and moral merits, leaf 32. The story of Me'-tog-ph'ren-ggyud-Mk'han, at Varānasī, applied to Nor-chan and his family.

Leaf 35. On the occasion of a famine, the priests of Shākyā are permitted to cook for themselves:—difficulties about where to cook. The ten places in which they may not prepare their victuals. What the physician prescribes to a sick priest. How permission is obtained from Shākyā, and how he makes use of the medicament—leaf 36-37. How a proper place is chosen and rendered fit for cooking for a priest.

Leaf 37-38. Shākyā at Yāngs-pa-chan. The use of flesh, with what restriction it is permitted to his disciples.

Leaf 38. At Shrāvasti, in the time of a famine, the Buddha priests suffering from hunger are much dejected. Several concessions granted to them by Shākyā.

Leaf 40. At Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shrāvasti) the Brahmans and the laymen complain, that the priests of Shākyā will not accept of several things which they are willing to offer them, to acquire moral merits for their future happiness—Shākyā gives them permission.

Leaf 40-41. The sickness of Shārihi-bu—the physician's prescription—Maugal-gyi-bu's endeavour to procure that medicine.

Leaf 42 to 45. The story of Lugal and Bzang-byed—their happiness—family—their great qualities:—Shākyā is proceeding to visit them—the malice of the Mu-stegs-chan, (Sans. Tirthika) sect, Shākyā's enemies, to prevent his entrance:—by what means he enters into that place.
Leaf 48. How a priest may give his benediction to any quantity of physic for seven days, to be used by such persons as are pure of life. Several concessions from Shākya to sick persons, in their diet.

Leaf 50. Several anecdotes that happened at Varānasi, in the time of a famine, that was foretold to continue for 12 years, on account of there being no rain.

Leaf 53. The wonderful effects of alms-giving to a holy man or Rishi, or the consequences of religious and moral merits in former lives. Shākya is in a place called Uduma. His lectures to the (fabulous) four great kings, residing on the Ri-rab (Sans. Sumeru, or Meru.) He recommends his doctrine to the care of those four great kings or gods, and to that of Hod-srung, to defend it after his death. They all promise him that they will defend it, leaf 57. He tells his disciples the former moral merits of those four great kings or gods.

Leaf 59-60. Shākya is presented with eight sorts of liquor or drink, by a Rishi, called Kenahi-bu (the son of Kena,) he tells his disciples the use and medical virtues of them. Rivo, a tran-srong or hermit (Sans. Rishi) together with his 500 pupils, becomes the disciple of Shākya. The son of Kena also having entertained Shākya and his disciples (with a dinner) enters into their religious order, together with his pupils. To whose care these young pupils are committed by Shākya for instruction, how they are qualified in a short time, leaf 62.

Leaf 64 to 71. Eulogium on Shākya’s qualities by Kenahi-bu, leaf 71. The story of two monks, (or religious persons) father and son, formerly barbers, at Kāshi.

Leaf 72. Shākya, from Gyad-yul, goes to Sdg-ch'an, is invited and entertained there publicly, according to the measures the citizens had taken previously in his behalf.

Leaf 74-75. Stories of several entertainments to Shākya and his disciples. Leaf 76. The story of a man bitten by a snake, how he is cured. The Bidya Mantra also is exhibited; (it seems to consist of significant Sanscrit
words,) in three lines. Ancient fables are told and applied to present circumstances.

Leaf 78. Here ends the subject on medicaments, and commences that on the garments of the priests.

The story of DUM-bu, a minister (of state) and his king Hphags-skyes-po, in Lus-Hphags, (Sans. Vidēha.) DUMbu escapes to Yangs-pa-chan (Allahabad) and settles there. He first declines to give his advice in the assembly of the people there, but afterwards renders them great service by his prudent counsel.

Leaf 80 to 83. Three tribes of the Lichabyis at Yangs-pa-chan: marriages prohibited between different tribes. The beforementioned DUM-bu is made chief tribune there, (Sdē-Dpon), and after his death his second son. His elder son retires to Rājagriha in Magadha, to VIMBASĀRA. This king marries, on his recommendation, the daughter of his brother at Yangs-pa-chan.

Leaf 87. The story of AMRA-SKYONG-Ma, a celebrated harlot at Yangs-pa-chan. Leaf 90 to 92. VIMBASĀRA's amours with her—a son is born, and sent afterwards to the king to Rājagriha—he is named GYHON-nu-HJIGS-MED (the intrepid youth.)

Leaf 92. VIMBASĀRA commits adultery with the wife of a chief merchant at Rājagriha—the circumstances thereof—a son is born and sent to him—he is called "HTSHO-BYED-GZHON-nus-Gsos". Leaf 94. The education of the two natural sons of VIMBASĀRA. They wish to learn some art or handicraft.—HJIGS-MED learns carpentry, and HTSHO-BYED studies physic. The latter after having made great progress in his art, goes to Rdo-Hjog (Sans. Taxashilā, the Taxila of Ptolemy ?) to learn there the opening of the cranium (Klad-pahi thod-pa hbyed-pahi dpagad, མོང་ལྡན་པའི་ཐོད་པ་བཞེདཔ་པའི་ཐོན་) from a celebrated physician—his genius and great abilities—several instances of his dexterity and learning, his integrity and great experience in the art of physic. Leaf 104. He acquires great renown by treating several diseases successfully:—is declared, at three
different times, the prince of all the physicians, by the king of Magadha. Leaf 107-108. Medical science:—his meeting with Shākya—his improvement in curing the diseases both of the body and of the mind.

Leaf 111 to 114. The disciples of Shākya are permitted to wear three pieces of religious clothing of a dark red colour, for distinction’s sake:—what gave occasion to that permission—instruction how to prepare those garments.

From leaf 114. The story of Sa-ga-ma, a young girl from Champa, married afterwards to the son of a chief officer at Shravasti in Kosala. Her modest and prudent conduct:—description of modest and of impudent women; she is represented as the model of modest, prudent, wise, frugal, and in many respects accomplished women. Her mother’s enigmatical instruction to her with respect to her future conduct, when about to be married. Leaf 124-125. Explication of those enigmatical terms. Her father-in-law expresses himself thus: “Your mother has been wise in having given you such enigmatical instructions, but you are more wise than she in having understood and practised her enigmatical advice.”

Leaf 126. Sa-ga-ma is proclaimed the mother of Ri-dags-hdinsin and the sister of Gsal-brgyal, the king of Kosala. A Vihar is founded in her name:—she is delivered of thirty-two eggs, from which thirty-two young boys come forth:—their adventures—they are destroyed by the king of Kosala, and their heads sent in a basket to Sa-ga-ma their mother.

Leaf 129 to 131. Shākya’s lessons to the king of Kosala on that subject, Sa-ga-ma’s former moral and religious merits, as also the demerits of her thirty-two sons, told and applied by Shākya.

Leaf 133. The story of Ri-dags-mgo, an astrologer. His ill-grounded prognostication—he becomes a disciple of Shākya—is convinced of the absurdity of his astrological predictions.

Leaf 135. Sa-ga-ma at Shravasti invites and entertains Shākya with his suite. Among other offerings she presents some pieces of cotton cloth, for the monks and nuns (or male and female religious persons) to make bathing clothes of them, since she had been informed that they bathed naked.
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SHĀKYA at Yangs-pa-chan—recommends to his disciples to be clean in their bedding and clothes, and to make a proper use of the offerings made to them by their faithful followers or hearers.

Leaf 141. They are ordered to keep clean mattresses (or couches to sit and lie on)—excesses in;—restrictions;—itch, leprosy—how to treat such priests as are infected by those diseases.

Leaf 142. What sorts of religious garments are permitted by SHĀKYA to his disciples. Some of them wish to wear such and such garments, of such and such colours: to wear turbans; others to go naked. SHĀKYA tells them the impropriety and indecency of the latter and prohibits it absolutely; and, rebuking them, adds, that such a garb, or to go naked, is the characteristic sign of a Mu-stegs-chan (Sans. Tirthika.)

Leaf 143 to 147. A moral tale on impudence; several prohibitions respecting the dress of the priesthood; gifts must be divided equally among the priests—exceptions—many impostures committed.

Leaf 147 to 152. The story of two foolish old monks—how they were deceived by a certain Nye-dgah (Sans. Upa-nanda) illustrated by a moral tale characterising the idiot and the crafty or impostor, leaf 153. Other stories of Upānanda's imposture.

Leaf 162. The death of Nye-dgah, (Sans. Upa-nanda.) His immense riches. Measures taken by the king to secure for himself part of that treasure. He renounces afterwards every pretension, hearing of SHĀKYA's representation to him, made by Kun-dgah-vo, (Sans. A'nanda.) The whole substance (thirty thousand srang or tola of gold,) was divided at first amongst the whole body of priests at Shrāvasti, but afterwards the priests of all the six cities of Central India, (as, of Sāketāna, Varānasi, Vaishali, Champa, and Rājagriha) having alleged their claims, were admitted all to share with them, leaf 164. The ceremony with which it is divided, leaf 165. A moral tale on covetousness, told by SHĀKYA and applied to the above described Nye-dgah.

Leaf 166. How to divide the effects of deceased religious persons; several stories on the subject—intermixed with moral tales, mostly relating to Shrāvasti.
Leaf 185. Here ends the subject "on the garbs or garments of the religious persons" (Gos-kyi-Gzhi,) and follows that "on mats and spreading cloths" (Sra-Brkhyang.)

Leaf 186. Several religious persons after having passed the three months of the summer at Sáketána (Tib. Gnas-Bchas), go to Shrásasti to pay their respects to Shákya, who had summered there. They went thither much tired on account of the jangal, morasses, and great heat on their road, and were covered with dust. The use of Sra-Brkhyang (any cloth or thing to spread on the ground, for sitting and lying on, or a mat) is permitted by Shákya. Several ceremonies; of what, how to prepare, and how to use them, leaf 200.

From leaf 200 to 219. Kaushambhi (a city); (Shákya in the Dryanggs-lthan-gyi-kun-dgah-rá-va, or Sans. Ghośhavatyarāma); several priests at Yangs-pa-chan, well read or versed in the Hdul-va, Mdo, and Ma-mo, go to Kaushambhi and dispute with the priests of that place, who were likewise well versed in those scriptures; thence many disputes and quarrels upon various points, for twelve years;—they are rejected by the citizens, on account of their conduct. They will no longer give them alms. They repair to Shákya at Shrásasti, are ill received by him, and not admitted till they have repented, confessed their faults, and have begged pardon for them.

Leaf 219 to 229. Stories of the misconduct of some religious persons; discussions on what is lawful and unlawful, (or against religious discipline,) in the common practices of the priests.

Leaf 229 to 272. Stories of several priests, that had violated the established rules of discipline—the proceedings of the priesthood against them; several priests of the Dmar-ser-chan band at Shrásasti—the cause of many quarrels and disputes among the priests. Shákya’s orders, how such persons are to be admonished of their misbehaviour, and treated by the community. Leaf 235 to 239. Legs-lthan, a priest, on account of his several faults, is rebuked solemnly in the congregation—begs pardon, and obtains it—the circumstances thereof. Leaf 239. The faults of two other priests (Hgro-mgyogs, and Nāp-so) are enumerated: they are
ejected from the community;—under what conditions may such again be received. The story of Hch'har-ka a dissolute priest.

Leaf 272 to 291. The Gang-zag-gi-Gzhi or "on the inward man." The recollection of any committed fault or sin, the confession of it to any priest. Alteration or self-emendation—time granted for one’s repentance by the congregation of the priests. The rites and ceremonies of obtaining pardon for one’s smaller sins or faults. Several instances of committed, and afterwards confessed, sins or faults.

Leaf 291 to 298. The Spo-vahi-Gzhi "on the changing of one’s self," after committing sins or faults, and on repentance; how to ask the priests’ forgiveness.

Leaf 298 to 306. The Gso-sbyong-Gzhi-pa the putting aside or leaving off the feast of the confession. (There are several passages descriptive of the general degeneration and corruption of the priests.)

Leaf 306 to 365. The Gnas-mal-gyi-Gzhi on lodging and bedding (or dwelling place, utensils, furniture, &c.) The circumstances of several establishments (called in Tib. Gtsug-lag-k’hang; Sans. Vihar or Bihār) being made for Shākya and his disciples, especially a large one at Shrāvasti, in Kosala, by a rich landholder. Many rules and instructions respecting religious discipline.

Leaf 365 to 418. The Rtsod-pahi-Gzhi, on disputes and quarrels of the monks—several instances thereof, with their circumstances.

Leaf 418 to 478. To the end of the volume is the Dgê-hdun-Dgeyepahi-Gzhi, "the causing of divisions among the priests," (as the general subject is stated on the 418th leaf; but there is nothing to be found of that kind.)

Leaf 418-419. Is a specification of the names of the persons whose histories are about to be mentioned. Names of several (fabulous) universal monarchs (Chakravartti) in ancient India.

From leaf 419 to 446. The (fabulous) history of the Shākya race, told by Maugalyāna. The circumstances thereof (Shākya being at a certain
time in the Nyagrodha Vihar, near Capilavastu, the inhabitants of the Shaka race, desirous to know the origin and history of their nation, go in great number to him, and request of him to acquaint them with the history of their origin, that they may satisfy others on the subject. Shākya directs Maugalyāna, one of his principal disciples, to tell them their origin, in an instructive manner, and he himself lies down to sleep during the narration.) Maugalyāna addresses the inhabitants thus: "Descendants of Gautama! (Tib. Gohutama-tag)," and commences his narration by telling them, how the world was renewed after its former destruction. How the animal beings were successively propagated. The origin and causes of the different kinds, sexes, colours, qualities—their degeneration. The origin of property, laws, magistrates, universal monarchy, their descendants till the time of Sengehi-Hgram, the grand father of Shākya. Here ends the narration of Maugalyāna. Shākya much approves it, and recommends to the hearers to keep it in their memory. The rest of the volume, from leaf 446 to 478 contains the circumstances of the birth and education of Shākya. His bodily and intellectual accomplishments:—his several acts or performances; his marriages; his leaving his father's house to live an ascetic life. Here ends the 3d volume of the Dvelā.

The 4th (or 5 1/2) volume of the Dvelā.

- Containing 470 leaves, 27 parts or books, from the 83d to the 109th book, inclusive.

Subjects:—From leaf 1 to 22. The continuation of the circumstances that determined Shākya to take the religious character. His reflections on old age, sickness, death and religious state. His seeing the wretched condition of the agriculturists, or labouring class. A miracle with the shadow of a tree (the jambu tree). His marriages with Sa-hséh'o-ma, Grags-hdsin-ma, and Ri-dags-skyes. The circumstances thereof. His
earnest desire to take the religious character. The precautions which his father takes to prevent him from leaving the court—his wife's and other dreams. His being exhorted (in verse) by Indra, Brahmá, and by other gods, to renounce the world; his replies—his exit or departure—the circumstances thereof. His discourse with his groom (udun-pa)—his fine horse (Rta-mchug-Bsangs-Iidan), leaf 22.

Leaf 23. He commences his ascetic life. Leaf 24. He arrives at Rājagriha, the king (Vimbhara) observes his conduct, is much pleased with it; sends some of his men to see who and what sort of man he is—they make their report. Afterwards the king himself with his officers pays a visit to him;—their conversation (in verse). Shákya tells him, that "there is in the neighbourhood of the Himálaya (or Kailásha, Tib. Gangs-ri) a country called Kosala, full of riches and grain or corn, inhabited by the Shákyas, the descendants from Purám shing-pa (Sans. Ikshwaku, of the Surya vansha or Angirásas): that he is of the royal tribe, and that he has renounced all worldly desires, leaf 25.

Leaf 26. He quits Rājagriha, goes to the Griddhrakuta hill, and successively visits several hermits of different principles: is easily admitted by each, but seeing the absurdity of their tenets and practices, he leaves them soon: he out-does them all in their mortifying practices, hence he is styled Dge-sbyong-ch'hen-po, the great priest (Sans. Mahá Sramana.)

Leaf 29. The manner in which he gives himself to meditation, and performs his mortifications, on the banks of the Nairantryána river, leaf 39-39. He finds great delight in meditation, but, perceiving privation to be hurtful to his mental faculties, he resolves to make use of nourishing foods:—he is presented with a refined milk-soup by two maids. He is deserted by his five attendants on account of his new mode of living.

Leaf 43. He proceeds to Rdo-rjé-Gdan (Sans. Vajrásan near the modern Gáya), gives himself to meditation, overcomes the devil, and finds the supreme wisdom—becomes a saint or Buddha; great joy in his father's court upon hearing of his exalted state; why such names were given to
Rahula and A’Nanda, his son and cousin, at Capilavastu, who were born on the same night he became a saint, leaf 51-52.

Leaf 59. On the exhortation of Brahmi, the god of the universe, he resolves to communicate his doctrine to others also, according to their capacities. He goes to Varanasi. Those five attendants, that had left him lately, on account of his welfaring, being convinced of his perfections, first of all become his disciples. Afterwards the number of his followers rapidly increases. All sort of ascetics; men of different tribes and professions go over to him and adopt the Buddhistic doctrine. There are in this volume several detailed accounts how such and such persons, at such and such places, have adopted his doctrine. Instructions. Compliments. The four truths.

Leaf 106. The birth place of Shakyà near the Himālaya, on the bank of the Bhagirathi (Tib. Skal-ldan-shing-rta), not far from Capilavastu, (Tib. Ser-skya-Gzhi.)

Leaf 107-8. The king of Magadha, Vimbasára Shrenika, offers to Shakyà and his priests a support in all necessary things, as long as he shall live.

Leaf 109. The five insignia of royalty (of Vimbasára)—1. An ornamented pillow or throne. 2. An umbrella or parasol. 3. A sword. 4. A chowrie of cow-tail, the handle beset with jewels. 5. Particoloured shoes.

Leaf 123. Terms for rousing or calling on the domestics, and giving them orders for making ready breakfast.

Leaf 128. The history of a religious establishment of several large buildings (Tib. Gtsug-lag-k’hang, Sans. Vihar or Bihār) in a grove near Shravasti, in Kosala, by a rich landholder. Leaf 137. Shakyà is invited thither—his journey—miracles that happened there at his arrival.

Leaf 142. The king of Kosala, Gsal-Royal, in a letter informs the king, Zas-Gtsang-Ma (Sans. Sudhodana) the father of Shakyà, that his son has found the food of immortality, with which he is recreating all men. His father, desirous to see him, sends several messengers to invite
him; they all enter into his religious order—not one returns even to give intelligence. At last, Char-ka, his minister, begs leave to go himself, and bring intelligence to him. He promises that, in every case, he will certainly come back. With a letter from the king he repairs to Shákya at Shravasti. He too becomes a convert to Buddhism, but he is permitted to go back, as a priest, to inform the king of these events, and to predict that in seven days he should see his son at Capilavástu. Shákya’s instructions to Char-ka how he should behave himself at Capilavástu, and answer the king’s inquiries, leaf 144. Leaf 144. Comparison of great and small things. Preparations for the reception of Shákya.

Leaf 146. Orders from the king to his officers, to build in the Nya-grodha grove, sixteen large and sixty smaller rooms. Shákya, with several of his disciples, goes to meet his father at Capilavástu.

Leaf 149. Description of their meeting—their mutual compliments and conversation (in verse), leaf 150 to 152. Religious instruction: the Shákya race adopts his religion, and from every family or house one person takes the religious character. The stories of several individuals of the family of Shákya. Leaf 164, Nyé-Vár-hkhor, a barber of the Shákyas, enters into that religious order—acquires great perfection—he is the pretended compiler of the Dvelá class.

Leaf 171. The history of Kohudinya, one of the principal disciples of Shákya, as also that of others.

Leaf 242-3. Kun-Dgah-vo (Sans. A’nanda) is made the chief disciple of Shákya.

Leaf 341. Lus-hp’ags-mahi-bu Ma-skyes-Dgra causes his father’s (Vimbasa’ra’s) death. By whom he is comforted in his great troubles or anxieties.

Leaf 349. Lhas-sbyin or Lhas-byin, one of Shákya’s cousins—his great hatred and malice towards Shákya. Several instances quoted, and many moral tales told by Shákya, and applied to himself and to this
Lhas-sbyin,—or to any other individual: for under the name of Lhas-sbyin (Sans. Devadatta), is frequently understood any malicious character, or wicked man.

Leaf 392. The circumstances of Lhas-sbyin’s proceedings to cause divisions among the disciples of Shākya. Several stories are told and applied to Lhas-sbyin and to Ma-skyes-Dgra, the king of Magadha, to show the ill consequences of bad morals.

Leaf 417 to 449. Shākya’s moral instructions to the king of Magadha, Ma-skyes-Dgra; (many of them nearly in the same words as above, in the 2nd volume of the Dulvā, to Ma-sdug.)

Leaf 449. Lhas-sbyin’s further plots for injuring Gautama (Shākya). Several stories and instructions.

Leaf 470. Here ends the subject of “causing divisions amongst the priests;” which terminates also the general subject of “religious discipline” Tib. Stelul-va-Gzhi, Sans. Vinaya Vāstu.

These four volumes of the Dulvā collection were translated from the Indian or Sanscrit language in the 9th century of our era, by Sarvajñā-deva, Vidya-Kara Prabha, and Dharmakara, learned Pandits; the first and the third from Cashmir, the second from India; and by the Tib. Lotsāva, Bande Dpal-gyi-Lhun-po. They were afterwards corrected and set in order by the Indian Pandit Vidya-Kara Prabha, and the Tib. Lotsāva, Bande Dpal-Berse’gs.

In the next four volumes of the Dulva class, (from the 5th to the 8th inclusive, marked by the letters २,३,४,५) is an enumeration of the several laws or rules, (Khrims) 253 in number, respecting the conduct of the priests (Dge-slong), and an explanation of those rules, in several detailed stories or parables.

In the beginning of the 5th (or ३ Chau) volume, from leaf 1 to 30, is the treatise on emancipation. (Sans. Pratimoksha Sutra, Tib. So-sor-thar-pahi-M,do.)
Adoration of the All-knowing, or salutation to Buddha—Praise and importance of this Sūtra.—The several blessings arising from the practice of good morals.—Celebration of the confession (Gso-shyong), on every new and full moon.—Rehearsal of the established rules or precepts, pronounced by the chief (or other officiating) priests.—Exhortation to the priests to examine themselves and to confess their sins with a loud voice, if they have any.—The compendium or sum of the Buddhistic doctrine in one slōka thus, in Tibetan:

1. "No vice is to be committed,
2. Virtue must perfectly be practised,—
3. Subdue entirely your thoughts.
4. This is the doctrine of Buddha."

On leaf 30th. Commendation of the Baudhā faith, in the following two Slōkas: in Tibetan: (vol. 5, leaf 30.)

1. "Arise, commence a new course of life—turn to the religion of Buddha. Conquer the host of the lord of death (the passions), that are like an elephant in this mud-house (the body), (or conquer your passions like an elephant subdues every thing under his feet, in a muddy lake); whoever has lived a pure or chaste life, according to the precepts of this Duteu, shall be free from transmigration, and shall put an end to all his miseries."

An assertion follows that the Pratimoksha Sūtra has been recommended by each of the seven last Buddhas, who are styled here the seven Baudhā champions (Tib. Dpah-vo, Sans. Vira, Eng. Champion or Hero.) The names of those seven Buddhas, on the 30th leaf, are thus given in Tibetan: 1. Rnam-par-Gzigs. 2. Gtsug-tor-chang. 3. Thams-chad-skyob. 4. Hkhor-va-Hjig. 5. Gser-t'hub. 6. Hod-srung. 7. Shākya-t'hub-pa.

From the 30th leaf of the 5th (or 3 Cha) volume to the end of the 8th (or 9, Nya) volume, is contained the "explanation of the religious discipline," (Sans. Vinhaya vibhanga, (better Vibhága,) Tib. Hdal-va-rnam-par-Hbyed-pa.)

In these four volumes, are several stories of immoral actions, committed by some one of the religious persons belonging to the disciples of Shákya. The crime, generally, becomes divulged amongst the people, who blame the conduct of the priests. Shákya is informed afterwards of the fact. The delinquent is cited before the congregation; confesses his fault; and is rebuked by Shákya: who then explains the immorality of the act, makes a law thereupon, and declares that whoever shall violate it, shall be treated as a transgressor.

The stories, in general, are of little importance, and many of them too indecent to be introduced here.

The two hundred and fifty-three rules to be strictly observed by the priests (Dgê-slong) are of five kinds, (or there are five kinds of sins or faults provided against in those rules.)

1. There are some for the violation of which they are expelled from the order. Such are the laws or rules against adultery or, in general, fornication; robbery or stealing; murder or destruction of animal life; and the giving out (or selling) of human doctrine as a divine revelation.

2. By the violation of a second class of rules, they become outcasts from the priesthood, or are degraded. Such crimes are—the emissio seminis; indecent behaviour; immodest talk; the causing of divisions amongst the priests; the blaming of the secular state, &c. &c.

3. In the 3rd class are reckoned thirty faults;—as the keeping or wearing of more clothes than is permitted—neglecting to wear religious garments—the deposition of them at any place, &c.—prohibited materials for clothes, &c.
4. In the 4th class are enumerated ninety faults.

5. The 5th kind of faults or sins are such as must be confessed. Besides these rules, are numerous instructions regarding decent behaviour, dress—attitude or posture of the body—manner of eating and drinking, and when giving religious instruction to others.

On leaf 30 to 32. Praise of religious discipline in general, (in verse.)

From leaf 33 to 74. Several stories on fornication or adultery. BZANG-BYIN, a priest, commits adultery. SHĀKYA is informed of the fact. He is cited—rebuked—and expelled. A rule is made that thenceforth all adulterers shall be expelled. The circumstances of this story may be seen, leaf 33 to 40, together with the terms SHĀKYA used in rebuking the guilty.

From leaf 74. On stealing or robbery.

Anecdotes—kinds and modifications of theft—several instances of cheating, tricks and frauds in eluding the duties at custom-houses, &c.

Leaf 105. There are likewise several instances, how traders have defrauded the custom-houses, in putting some of their precious things into the bags of the monks.

Leaf 155 to 166. The consequences of lust and theft—fabulous history of the origin of evil in the world.

From leaf 162 to 239. Several stories of suicide and poisoning amongst the monks, or of causing themselves to be slain or deprived of life, out of grief or despair, upon hearing of the various kinds of miseries or calamities of life. SHĀKYA prohibits discoursing on the miseries of life, so as to bring others to desperation thereby.*

Leaf 270 to 274. Pretended supernatural knowledge attributed to the communication or inspiration of any divinity. Terms for rebuking such pretenders.

* For a similar story, see Ainsworth’s Dictionary under Hegesias in the Index Nom. prop.

"HEGESIAS, a philosopher of Cyrene, who displayed the miseries of life with such eloquence, that several slew themselves to be out of them; for which reason he was commended by Ptolemy to discourse no more on that subject."
Leaf 306. Several women of respectable families, at Shrāvasti, visit the Vihars (colleges and halls) in a garden near that city, conducted by Ch'har-ka a priest, who tells them whose Vihars and halls they are, with some biographical notices. His immodest behaviour. The stories of several immoral actions, by which a priest loses his character or rank, and becomes an outcast from the priesthood. On making dissensions amongst the priests.

There are thus in this volume 439 leaves, the 30 first of which are occupied by the Treatise on Emancipation, in two books, 700 Slokas. The rest of the volume contains the first books of the “Explanation of Religious Discipline.”

The 6th (or 6 Ch'ha) volume,

Containing twenty-one books, or 431 leaves.

Continuation of the subject (begun towards the end of the 5th volume) on causing divisions amongst the priests. Lhas-byin’s endeavours to seduce the disciples of Shākya to his party.

Leaf 34. Shākya visits Kaushambhi, and takes his lodgings in the Gdangs-chan-gyi-kun-Dgah-ra-vu (Sansk. Ghos'havatýaráma):—stories of discontentment. The disciples of Shākya, on account of their being of different tribes, families, houses, &c., are likened to an assemblage of all sorts of leaves fallen from the trees, in autumn, and brought together by the wind.

Leaf 57 to 61. The priests of Shākya are said to have so many clothes that for each business they make use of a different suit; and that, through dressing and undressing themselves, they have little leisure to read and study. They are prohibited from keeping superfluous garments or clothes. Several rules concerning superfluous clothes and other utensils of the priests. As also, rules concerning the wearing, and omitting religious garments, and depositing them or utensils at any place. Leaf 61 to 93.
A PART OF THE TIBETAN SACRED WORKS.

Leaf 93 to 143. Rules concerning the washing of clothes. Several stories told of the uncleanness of the priests. The birth of Shākya. Correspondence between Gsals-Rgyal, the king of Kosala, and Zas-Gtsang the father of Shākya. Leaf 102. A letter from Zas-Gtsang to Shākya—his life—he is invited—he visits his father. Dialogue (in verse) between them. Leaf 110-111. Description how the Shākya race adopted Buddhism. Leaf 131. Expressions of enthusiasm, devotion and joy uttered by five hundred of the relations of Shākya, upon their being instructed in his doctrine.

From Leaf 325 to 431, or the end of the volume, are several stories on hoarding or laying up stores,—on lying and falsehood,—and on ridiculing or despising others.

THE 7TH (OR 7 Jā) VOLUME OF THE Dulva CLASS.

Containing twenty books, (from the 43d to the 63d) and 446 leaves.

In this volume is the continuation of the stories of several faults or slight crimes committed by the priests. Such faults are reckoned ninety in number. The same are introduced into the Sanscrit and Tibetan dictionaries; but, since they are of little importance, it is unnecessary to specify them in this place. The Sanscrit generical name for this class of faults, is Shuddha préyash chittakah. Tib. Lzung-byed-Hbah-zhig, English: "what are mere faults, or venial faults". The volume commences with stories on abuse or foul language (Hp'hyá-va, ) and ends with narratives regarding culpable priests, that had been ordained (or made Gélongs) before they had reached the age of twenty.

THE 8TH (OR 8 Nya, ) VOLUME OF THE Dulva CLASS.

Containing 21 books, (from the 63rd to the 83rd inclusive,) and 417 leaves.

This volume is filled with the continuation of stories on faults or slight crimes of the same kind with those in the preceding volume. It
commences with the narration of a fault committed by digging the ground, and ends with anecdotes on the adjustment and quelling of quarrels and disputes.

The 9th (or ता) volume of the Dulea class, in 433 leaves.

This volume regards the nuns or female religious persons of the Baudhā faith. The subjects are the same as those of the last four volumes, for the priests. And the stories are told in the same terms, with the exception of some additions and applications.

From leaf 1 to 36, in 2 books, is the treatise on emancipation, for the priestesses (Gelongma), Sans. Bhikshuni pratimoksha Sutra, Tib. Dge-slong-mahi-so-sor-t'har-pahi-Mdo. (See the beginning of the 5th volume).

From leaf 36 to 483 or to the end of the volume, in 28 books, is the "Explanation of the religious discipline of the priestesses," Sans. Bhikshuni Vinaya vibhanga, (or Vibhaga) Tib. Dge-slong-mahi-hdul-ra-rnam-par-hbyed-pa; in the same manner, order, and in the same words, as in the former four volumes; with the exception of some stories, and a few instances not mentioned there.

Leaf 61. Ma-skyes-Dgra, (Sans. Ajātashatru) the king of Magadha. How and by whom he is comforted after he had caused the death of his father Vimbasaṇa.

Leaf 78 to 87. Stories of several religious persons having put an end to their lives, out of despair. Leaf 85. Several kinds of robbers.

Leaf 108 to 109. Sbom-Dga-mo, a priestess or nun, the pattern of a lewd, cunning and wicked woman. There are several stories under her name, in this volume.

Leaf 193. Lhas-byin, one of Shākyas's cousins, the model of a malignant and rancorous person. How he endeavours to acquire the knowledge of the magical art, or of performing prodigies. He applies to Shākyas—and, upon his refusal, to his principal disciples. They all refuse to instruct him. He is advised by each of them first to acquire true and useful
knowledge. He endeavours to excite dissensions, and to make divisions among the priests—as also among the priestesses, through Sbom-Dga-h-mo.

Leaf 216. Stories on the multiplicity of clothes and garments of the female religious persons. Prohibitions against them by Shākyā.

Leaf 272. The king of Kalinga sends to Gsul-bgyal, the king of Kosala, a piece of fine linen cloth, as a present. It comes afterwards into the hands of Gtsug-Dga-h-mo, (a lewd or wicked priestess) she puts it on, appears in public, but, from its thin texture, seems to be naked. The priestesses are prohibited from accepting or wearing such thin clothes.

Leaf 282. Mention is made of the four Vedas of the Brahmins. Leaf 284-5. Several terms peculiar to the loom, and to other mechanical arts, are enumerated. Defects in the body of a nun. Censure of others.

Leaf 286. Moral tales on secret slander.

Leaf 302. Several parts of the Dular class enumerated.

Leaf 331. Kun-tu-rgyu, “going everywhere,” (Sansk. Parivrājaka) is said to be the same with Grangs-chan, (Sansk. Sānka-hya).

Leaf 362. Names of several diseases. The rest of the volume is occupied with stories respecting the conduct of the nuns. Several rules to be learnt and observed. The scene of all these stories is, in general, Mnyan-yod, (Sansk. Shravasti in Kosala).

The five last volumes (marked with the letters ṣ, ṭ, ṣ, ṣ, and Ṣ of the Tib. alphabet) were translated from Sanskrit into Tibetan, first, (in the 9th century) by Jinamitra, a pandit of Cashmir, of the Vaibhashika philosophical sect, and by Klüh-bgyal-Mtshan, a Tibetan Lotsawa, or interpreter. Other translators also are mentioned.

Tenth and Eleventh (ṣ T'ha, and Ṣ Da) volumes of the Dulva,
In 60 books, of which the 10th volume contains 17, or 324 leaves—and the 11th, 33 books, or 708 leaves.

These volumes are entitled in

English:—“Miscellaneous minutiae on religious discipline.”
The 10th volume, after the title of these two volumes has been expressed, commences by—“reverence to the All-knowing.” The subject is then set forth in three stanzas, as—things relating to the discipline and conduct of the religious persons of the Buddhist sect, and the manners and customs of the people of Central India, the scene of the several acts described in the Dulva.

Leaf 2. Sangs-rgyas-Bchom-lDan-hdas (Shākya,) at Yangs-pa-chan (Sans. Vaishali, or Vishali, Pryāga of the ancients, the modern Allahabad). That city is inhabited by the Lichābyi race. Descriptions of its gardens or orchards, music, gymnastic exercises, baths. The disciples of Shākya incur scandal there by rubbing themselves with tiles or bricks with too great a noise. They are prohibited by Shākya from rubbing themselves with tiles, except their feet.

Leaf 5. Shākya at Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shrāvasti). Forbidden to rub themselves with fish-gills, instead of tiles or bricks;—to anoint themselves with fragrant substances, except when prescribed by the physician. What to do with the fragrant substances that are offered them by their pious followers.

Leaf 7. Mention is made of some fanes or chapels, (Sans. Chaitya, Tib. Mch'hod-ten) where the hair or nails of Buddha are deposited, and reverenced as sacred things.

Leaf 11. Seals are permitted to the priests—excesses in regard to seal-rings (Tib. Sor-Gdub-rgya). They are forbidden to have them of gold, silver, or precious stones. They are prohibited from wearing rings. But they may keep seals or stamps made of copper, brass, bell-metal, ivory, horn—excesses in regard to the figures cut on them.

Leaf 12. A man of the religious order must have on his seal or stamp, a circle with two deer on opposite sides, and below them the name of the founder of the Vihara (Tib. Gtsug-lag-khang). A layman may have either a full length human figure or a head cut on his signet.

Leaf 25. Predictions by Shākya and by a gymnosophist, of a child that was to be born. Its miraculous birth. It is named “fire-born” (Mo-skyēs). His education and adventures.
Leaf 28. The veracity of a Buddha is expressed thus:—"the moon, together with the hosts of stars, may fall down; the earth, together with the mountains and forests, may lift itself up into the void space above; the vast ocean may be dried up; but it is impossible that the great hermit (Mahā Srāmaṇa) should tell a falsehood."

Leaf 58 to 61. Several false charges or calumnies at Yangs-pa-chan, especially that of Lichabyi-ch’hen-po. The priests of Shākya were wont to put under ban or interdiction any person, or family, according to the following ceremony:—In their congregation, after having been informed of the facts, they turned an alms-dish or goblet, with the mouth downwards; declaring by that act, that thenceforth none should have communication with him or his house, (according to the text, no one should enter his house, neither sit down there, nor take alms from him, nor give him religious instruction.) After reconciliation had been made, the ban was taken off, by replacing the alms-dish.

Leaf 64 to 66. Shākya prohibits his disciples from learning music, dancing and singing, or visiting places where they are exhibited. Several stories are told of the practices of the religious persons.

Leaf 105. The use of garlic is interdicted to the priests, except when prescribed as a medicine—how to be used there.

Leaf 111. Permission to keep umbrellas. Excesses regarding, by using too costly stuffs,—adding too many trimmings,—or adorning the handles of them with gems, pearls, and precious metals.

Leaf 141 to 144. The king of Kosala, Gsal-rgyal, being dethroned by his son, Hphags-skyes-po, goes to Rţeqri, to Ma-skyes-Dgra, king of Magadha,—alights in a grove or garden near that city, belonging to the king, and sends him intelligence of his arrival. The king of Magadha orders preparations for receiving him solemnly. But in the mean time he dies in the garden, suddenly, from indigestion, caused by an immoderate use of turnips and fresh water. His funeral. Shākya’s instruction to the king of Magadha.
Leaf 145 to 160. *Hp'haps-skyes-po,* the king of *Kosala,* at the instigation of *Mala Qnod,* makes frequent attacks on the *Shākya* race at *Ser-skya* (*Sansk.* *Capila*) at last he takes their city and massacres many of them. Those that escaped, dispersed themselves in the hills; many of them are said to have gone to *Nepāl.* During that war, a certain *Shākya,* *Shāmpaka* is banished from *Capila.* At his parting request, *Shākya* grants him, in an illusionary manner, some hairs of his head, some nail-parings, and teeth. He goes to a country called *Bagud* or *Vagud,* is made king there, and builds a *chau* or *chapel* (*Sansk.* *Chaitya,* *Tib.* *Mch'hod-iten*) for those holy relics, called afterwards the *chau* or chapel of *Shāmpaka,* leaf 149-150.

Leaf 160. The death of *Hp'haps-skyes-po,* caused by a conflagration.

Relation of the circumstances that preceded it.

Leaf 182-183. *Gautami* (*Skye'-Dguhi-Bdagmo-ch'hen-mo*) and 500 other nuns die. Earthquake and other miracles that accompanied that event. A moral tale upon their former religious merits told by *Shākya,* leaf 185.

Leaf 202 to 248. *Shākya* gives to *Dghar-vo* (*Sansk.* *Nanda*) instructions and lessons on several subjects, especially on the state of existence in the womb, and the gradual formation of the human body.

Leaf 273. Instruction how to build and cover a fine house. After which to the end, or to leaf 324, there are many short stories, respecting the conduct, dress, victuals, &c. of the religious persons.

Eleventh (or 5. *Da*) volume of the *Dulva,* in 708 leaves and 33 books, counting from the 18th to the 60th inclusive.

Subject:—The title of this and of the preceding volume (miscellaneous minutiae on religious discipline) evinces the nature of the materials to be found here. They are of little consequence, except a few allusions to events, persons, customs, manners, places or countries. These volumes are mostly filled up with religious instructions, rules for the conduct
of the priests, and their several transgressions. Nye'-vár-hk'hor (Sans. Upáli), the supposed compiler of the Dulva collection puts questions to Shákyá how he is to act in such and such cases and receives his instructions thereon.

Leaf 1-2. Dgah-vo (Sans. Nanda), a priest with Shákyá at Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shravasti), receives from his former wife, Bzang-mo, from Ser-skya (Sans. Cupila) several finely bleached clothes calendered or glazed with ivory.

Leaf 53. When wood is not procurable to burn a dead body, neither is there any river to throw the corpse into, it may be buried.

Leaf 61. The death of Shárihi-bu. Shákyá's reflections on him. A Mechi-hod-xten (Sans. Chaitya) is built over his remains by a rich landholder at Shravasti, and an anniversary festival established in his memory. The king of Kosala orders that, at the celebration of those festivals, merchants, who come from other countries, shall pay no duties or taxes; leaf 68.

Leaf 126-127. Kátyáhi-bu (Sans. Kátyáyana) becomes the disciple of Shákyá, who tells him how other philosophers are in two extremes, and that he (Shákyá) keeps a middle way. He acquaints him with some of his principles, especially with the four great truths, and the twelve casual concatenations.

Leaf 130. Kátyáyana, with 500 other priests, is sent by Shákyá to convert to his doctrine the king of Hp'hasil-rgyal (Gtum-po-rab-Snang) together with his consorts, son, and officers. He passes on his way through Kanya-kumeya, a place where he had an acquaintance, a Brahman, who was dead at that time. The story of that Brahman's daughter, with the beautiful hair. His arrival, how he was received by the king. His successes there. How the king afterwards married the damsel. Anecdotes regarding. Leaf 194. He erects Vihars and makes several donations to the companions of Kátyáyana. Leaf 197 to 207. Many witty sayings (in verse). Leaf 207 to 209. The ten powers of Boddha.

*Sans. Ujjayani or Oujei, in Málava.
† Sans. Rájá Prudyota; (called the passionate or cruel.)
Leaf 227 Various defects of the human body are enumerated in verse. Such as have them, prohibited from being received into the religious order of Shákyā.

Leaf 230 to 253. Account of the great prodigies exhibited by Shákyā, at Shravasti in Kosala. The six Mu-stegs-čhan (Sans. Tirthika) teachers, being discontented with the treatment they meet with from the king, the officers, the brahmans, and the people in general, (who all show much favour to Gautama and his followers,) so that they can hardly gain their livelihood, endeavour to vie with Gautama in exhibiting prodigies, to show their skill and power. They are defeated:—for shame some of them put an end to their existence, others retire to the hills on the north of India. Leaf 248, the great astonishment of all at the miracles of Gautama,—their applause.

Leaf 253 to 307. The story of Bskyed-pa a king in Lus-hp'lags and other tales (Sans. Vidēhu) told by Shákya,—political intrigues. The farther history of the before mentioned six teachers.

Leaf 276. The story of Sman-ch'hen, the son of Gang-po in a town of Purna kachha a hilly country. Leaf 321 to 325. Sho-shum-pa, a cunning woman. Ingenious stories of female craft. Leaf 326. Mention made of the Hbal-gumata river, on the banks of which the priests of Shákyā used to exercise themselves.

Leaf 326. Shákyā in the Nyagrodha grove (near Ser-skya Sans. Capila). Gautami' with 500 other women of the Shákyā race, goes to Shákyā, and begs of him to receive them into the religious order. He will not permit it, and recommends to them to remain in the secular state, to wear clean clothes. They will not desist. They follow him afterwards in his perégrination through the Brija country to Nadika. They beg him again and again to receive them. At last, on the request of Kun-dgah-vo, (Sans. A'nanda) he permits them to take the religious character. Several rules and instructions respecting the order of nuns. Various stories of these females that happened mostly at Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shrāvasti).
A PART OF THE TIBETAN SACRED WORKS.

Leaf 488 to 524. The story of Padma-snying-po, a celebrated Brahman, at Hdod-pa-h’t’hun-pa, in Kosala. (This is repeated from the K’ha volume of the Dulva, leaf 155 to 192, whence the general tenor may be gathered.)

Leaf 581. Shākya in his peregrination proceeds to Gyad-yul, the country of the Champions, and at Rta-sa-chan, (the grassy, so called from the kusha grass,) the modern Cāmru or Kāmarupa, in Assam, anciently the residence of the great king Kusha-chan, stays for a certain time, under two Sāla trees.

Leaf 591. The circumstances that preceded the death of Shākya.

Leaf 635 to 636. The death of Shākya. The principal acts of his life enumerated by Hod-srung to Vyar-byed, an officer of the king of Magadha, who instructs him how to inform the king of his decease (by representing, in pictures, the several scenes of his life.) Reflections on life, by several gods. The funeral raises disputes among eight tribes or cities, on account of the relics (Sku-Gdung) of Shākya. They are pacified by having each their share. Chaityas are built for those relics.*

Leaf 667. After the death of Shākya, Hod-srung, (Sansk. Kāshyapa) becomes head of the sect. By his direction, five hundred accomplished priests, (Sansk. Arhan, Tib. Dgra-Bchom-pa,) assemble in a place called the cave of the Nyagrodha tree, near Rājagriha, and make the first compilation of the doctrine taught by Shākya. The Mdo-sdē or Sūtra class, is compiled by Kun-Dga-h-vo, (Sansk. A’nanda) The Dulva (Sansk. Vināya,) by Nyê-vār-Hk’hor (Sansk. Upālī), the Ma-mo, or Ch’hos-Mhon-pa-Mdsod (Sansk. Abhidharma) by Hod-srung (Sansk. Kāshyapa.) He presides over the sect for several years, appoints Kun-Dga-h-vo his successor, and dies on the Bya-gag-tkang hill near Rājagriha. Leaf 679.

Leaf 684. Kun-Dga-h-vo (Sansk. A’nanda) after having been for many years the head of the Baudhika sect, intrusts the doctrine of Shākya to

* See my MS. Translation of The death of Shākya.
SHANAH-gos-chan, appoints him his successor, and dies in the middle of the Ganges (on an imaginary island) between Yangs-pa-chan and Magadha. His body is divided into two parts. The one is taken by the Lichabjyi race at Yangs-pa-chan, who erect a Chaitya to contain it; the other part by the king of Magadha, who likewise builds a Chaitya, at Skya-snâr-bu (Sansk. Pataliputra) over his share of relics.

Leaf 687. NYI-Mahi-gung is received into the religious order by Kun-Dgah-vo; is ordained and instructed how to introduce the faith into Câshmir, as it had been foretold by Shâkya, leaf 688. How he civilized the Serpent race and their chief Huluta:—how he planted and blessed the saffron there, and how he laid the foundation of the Baudhâda religion in the Câshmir country, one hundred years after the death of Shâkya, who had mentioned that country, as a suitable place for dwelling and contemplation.

Leaf 690. SHANAH-gos-chan intrusts the Baudhâda doctrine to Nyê-sbas;—he to Dhittika;—he to Nag-po—and he to Legs-Mt’hong.

One hundred and ten years after the death of Shâkya the priests at Yangs-pa-chan violate in many respects his precepts.—Many disputes about trifles.—At last, seven hundred accomplished priests (Sansk. Arhan, Tib. Dgra-bzom-pa) make a new compilation of the Baudhâda works, to which was given, (something similar to our Septuagint,) the name of Bdun-Brgyas-yang-dag-par-Brjod-pa, “that has been very clearly expressed by the seven hundred” (accomplished priests.)

Thus ends the 11th volume, translated (in the 9th century) by Vidyakara prabha, and Dharma Shri prabha, pandits from India, and by the Tibetan Lo-lsâva (interpreter) Bande-Dpal-Hbyor. On the three last leaves, from 706 to 708, are some remarks on the defects of these two volumes (by a Lama, Nam-Mk’ah-crâgs in the monastery of Snar-thang not far from Teshi-Lhun-po) such as obsolete terms, bad translation, incorrect text, repetition of stories told before, &c. He advances several reasons, why the sacred volumes have been left in this state by the ancient reviewers.
A PART OF THE TIBETAN SACRED WORKS.

Twelfth and thirteenth (or 3 Na, and 4 Pa) volumes of the Dulvâ. The first has 458, the last 473 leaves. There are in the two volumes 64 books.

Eng. "The chief text-book (or last work) of religious discipline."

Subject, Nye-vár-hk’hor (Sans. Upáli) the supposed compiler of the Dulva collection, puts to Shákya several special cases, as to which class of transgressions particular faults or sins should be referred; or whether it be lawful to do or use such and such a thing. And Shákya answers him as to each. He addresses Shákya, by the term Btsun-pa, "Reverend!"

Nye-vár-hk’hor, in this last volume, is always mentioned by his Indian name Upáli, except in the eleven first books, which form a distinct work. At the end of this volume are the words Upalis-kun-dris-pa rdo gs-sos,—"all the queries of Upáli are ended or finished."

The names of the translators or pandits of these two volumes are not mentioned. It is merely stated that they were translated in the time of Klóhi-rgyal-Mtsh’han, a celebrated interpreter.

Calcutta, 4th September, 1831.

I may here close my Analysis of the Dulvâ collection, from the tenor of which may in some measure be judged what is to be found in the remaining eighty-seven volumes of the Kahgyur. Of the whole of this voluminous compilation I have, however, prepared a detailed Analysis with occasional translations of such passages as excited curiosity, particularly the relation of the Life and Death of Shákya. The whole are deposited in manuscript among the archives of the Asiatic Society, and will at any time be available to the scholar, who may also consult the first volume of the Society’s Journal, page 375, for a general view of their contents by the late Secretary, Professor Wilson.

20th October, 1835.
III.

ON THE

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

IN NEPÁL,

WITH SOME ACCOUNT OF THE SEVERAL COURTS, EXTENT OF THEIR JURISDICTION, AND MODES OF PROCEDURE.

By B. H. HODGSON, Esq.

British Resident in Nepál.

This subject is one that possesses much interest whether for the legislator, the historian, or the philosopher. In Hindustán we look in vain for any traces of Hindú legislation or government. The Moslem conquerors have everywhere swept them away, and substituted their own practices and doctrines for those of the conquered. Even in Rájputána, it may be doubted whether we have the pure and unmixed practices of Hindu legislators and judges, or whether their necessary connection and intercourse with Muhammedan governments have not more or less modified their notions on these subjects, and introduced changes more or less considerable. But in Nepál at least we may be sure that nothing of this kind has occurred. Separated till very recently from any intercourse with Hindustán, shut up within their mountain fastnesses, the Nepálese have been enabled to preserve their institutions in all their Hindú purity; and undoubtedly, if we wish to enquire what are the features of the Hindú system of jurisprudence, it is in Nepál we must seek for the answer.
Mr. Hodgson is the first who has enabled us to obtain something like a precise and practical view of this complex subject. He has acquired his knowledge by dint of painful perseverance in submitting repeated written interrogatories to individuals who had either previously filled, or were then filling, the first judicial situations in Nepal. These individuals gave written answers to his inquiries; and from various motives they might be presumed to speak out fairly. One of these persons presided for many years with a high reputation for ability over the Supreme Court of Justice at Kathmandu. Another was the present Dharmadikari of Nepal, a Brahman of great and various acquirements, and, from his situation, familiar with the legal administration of the country.

The information thus obtained was recorded by Mr. Hodgson, and transmitted by him to the Governor General in the form of a literal translation of the questions and their answers; to which were added, at separate times, several supplementary papers containing the result of his own local observation and research. The Governor General deemed the information collected by Mr. Hodgson of sufficient interest and importance to authorize its publication.

In attempting to arrange these valuable materials in a more connected and systematic form, any alterations or omissions in the original text have been scrupulously avoided, which might perhaps hazard the correctness of the details, or by taking from their freshness diminish their chance of interest with the earnest enquirer.

Some of the more remarkable features of the Hindu system of jurisprudence seem to call for notice in these preliminary lines, if only for the purpose of drawing the reader's attention to the subject, and furnishing him with an inducement, perhaps, to enter on an enquiry that promises well to reward any attention bestowed upon it.

The judicial system of the Nepalese appears to differ from our European system in having no separate jurisdictions or modes of proceeding for criminal trials and civil suits. Of the four Central Courts, as well as of
those of the provinces, each is competent to the dispatch of either business, and in the forms established there appears little distinguishable. Another feature of difference, and a highly important one, is the application of the trial by ordeal to the decisions of civil suits, where there is a want of evidence both oral and written. A third feature in which it differs from that of Europe is, the compelling the convicted criminal to confess; he being subjected to the torture of whipping till the desired result is obtained, without which he may not receive the full punishment of his offence. But the most peculiar feature of the system is that which belongs to it as the code of a Hindú people, I allude to the great importance attached to questions of caste, the cognizance of these being restricted to the highest Court (the Inta Chapli), in whatever part of the kingdom the subject matter originate. It may be doubted whether the system followed in all these Courts might not be improved by a closer approximation to European practice, but of some of the peculiarities which distinguish it, as compared at least with English jurisprudence, there can be as little doubt that we should do well to take a lesson from them.

Thus, the Nipálese are not so averse to receive proof of a criminal's guilt as we are. Provided he be proved guilty, they are not very particular as to the means. They consider in fact that the business of a judge is not to screen a criminal, but to convict him, and they deem the most satisfactory conviction of all, the voluntary confession of the criminal. Another particular which we might with great advantage adopt from them is, the celerity of their proceedings. No delay is ever suffered to take place as soon as a complaint is made, or information given; the parties with their witnesses are sought for, and, as soon as produced, the investigation proceeds at once to a conclusion. A third point worthy of our imitation is, their reception of each party's story in civil suits as told by himself, or of the prisoner's defence in criminal cases, without allowing a third person by his studied glosses to come between the judge and the truth. They appear to be sensible that manner as well as matter are to be
regarded, when we desire to judge of the good faith with which a statement is made.

In other particulars the Nepálese system appears to partake of the excellencies and defects of our own. Thus the prisoner in criminal cases has always the privilege of confronting his accusers, and of cross-examining them; while on the other hand, in civil suits they have (considering the poverty of the country) as excellently graduated a scale of picking the pockets of both plaintiff and defendant, as is to be found in the practice of our own "reason-made-perfect" system. *

There are other valuable peculiarities of the Nepálese system which deserve to be particularly noticed. Thus, it will be remarked, that the Courts seek in the first instance to reconcile parties, or to refer matters in dispute to arbitration. This natural and highly advantageous system, only recently made the practice of the English Courts, has prevailed in Népál for ages. Again, there are no rules of exclusion in regard to evidence. All is taken and rated only for what it is worth. Neither is there any restriction against parties becoming witnesses in their own causes,—speaking under similar penalties for false evidence as ordinary or external witnesses.

Oaths are very sparingly used, and in general rather as substitutes for evidence than as a means of validating it. This indeed is the most ancient and almost the universal acception of testimony on oath. It prevents as a consequence, in regard to witnesses, the adventitious crime of perjury or oath-breaking, leaving the more simple crime of false-witness in its place. But one of the chief practical benefits of the system lies in the sparing employment of records, which are never used for trivial objects. This is a chief cause of the quick dispatch of business which signalizes the Népál Courts, and effectually prevents arrears of business:—a marked contrast to our own Indian system wherein an over-weaning attachment to record is the source of dreadful expense and delay of justice.

* Law is the perfection of reason.
The Nêpál Courts again are always sitting. They have neither vacations nor terms. This, too, and the extreme simplicity of the forms of procedure, which are full of reason and of efficacy, are principal causes of the quick dispatch of business.

The peculiar constitution of the Nepálese panchayet might furnish useful hints for its introduction under our Government, where hitherto it has not been found to work well; nor does the extension of the jury system to the Mofussil Courts promise to meet so clearly the habits and ideas of the people, as this simple and primitive organ of the administration of justice.*

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN NÉPÁL.

I. COURTS AT THE CAPITAL.

There are four courts of justice (Nyáya Sabhá) at Kathmandú. The first and chief is called Kot Singh; the 2d Inta Chapli; the 3d Táksár; and the 4th Dhansár:

§ 2. Jurisdiction.

"† There are no regular limits placed to the jurisdiction, personal or local, of these courts, nor indeed of any court in Nêpál. Offences, however, involving the loss of life or limb, or confiscation of a man's whole substance, can be decided only in the Inta Chapli, whereto they must be at once transferred, for trial as well as sentence, if they originate in any...

* The above remarks were for the most part penned by the late Captain Herbert, into whose hands the voluminous MSS. were placed by Mr. Secretary Swinton, in order to be condensed and prepared for publication. They were afterwards arranged, and the interrogatory style broken down in order to save space, by the late Mr. G. M. Batten, Deputy Secretary to Government in the Political Department, and were finally submitted to the author for his approval and correction before publication. Mr. Colebrooke's account of Hindú Courts of Justice, in the Trans. Roy. As. Soc. II., had not then appeared. J. P. Sec. As. Soc.

† Inverted commas denote where the author's manuscript is directly followed.
shape, in any other court of the Capital or its environs* as they must be referred to it, prior to and for sentence, if they originate in any court of the mountains or of the Tarúí. But all other causes of a criminal or quasi criminal nature, (such as trespass, assault, battery, slander, reviling, &c. which in Népál are punished by whipping, petty fines, and short imprisonment, and for which the plaintiff can never have a civil action of damages) may be heard in any of the four courts of Kathmandú, or in any court of the provinces—as may all civil actions whatever without limitation."

§ 3. Officers attached to the courts and their several functions.

All the four courts are under the control of one, and the same supreme judge, called the Ditha.

There are two Bicháris, or judges for each of the three courts, Kot Singh, Taksár, and Dhandsár, who conduct the interrogation of the parties and ascertain the truth of their statements. Subordinate to the Bicháris are the following executive officers:

For the Kot Singh or supreme civil court—

1 Khardár, 1 Jemadár, 2 Amaldárs, and

1 Major, 2 Havildárs, 40 Sipáhís.†

"The Bicháris are, originally and properly, the judges. They were so every where before the conquest. They are so still, except in the metropolitan courts. The Ditha, or president extraordinary of all the courts,

* The great valley, and its immediate neighbourhood naturally form the peculiar domain of the Metropolitan Courts, but definite legal bounds of jurisdiction are unknown to the system and alien to its genius and character. The rivers Dád Cosí and Tríśul Ganga are the eastern and western limits respectively of the local jurisdiction, in the first instance, of the Courts of the Capital. H.

† These military terms, current below, prove nothing against what has been noted above, as to the absolute independence of the civil institutions of Népál upon Moslem models. The Gorkhas borrowed their military system entirely from below, but from us not from the Moghels. Here and there indeed the Mussulman name of a civil functionary has crept into use of late, but is "vox et præterea nihil." The sipáhís, are not regulars, but a sort of militia or provincials, exclusively attached to the courts. H.
is a badge of conquest; and his function, though by use now understood, is anomalous. Where he is not personally present, the Bicháris are judges. Where he is, they share his judicial functions as assessors; but chiefly enact at present, the part of our barristers. So the military menials of the court are excrescences and badges of conquest. The original ministerial agents were the Muhan Naikias and their Maháníias—the Tol-mals, &c. &c., as set down under Inta Chapli."

In each of the courts Taksár and Dhansár—

1 Khardár, 2 Amaldárs, 1 Jemadárs, and 2 Havildárs, 25 Sipáhis.

These officers serve processes* in civil suits; see to the forthcoming of unwilling* defendants and witnesses in such suits; and carry into execution the court's judgment.

The following officers belong to the Inta Chapli or supreme criminal court—

1 Bichári or Judge, 40 Sipáhis, 16 Kótwáls, 1 Arazbégí, 2 Mahánaiikias, 2 Kumhal-naikias;† 2 Khardárs, 128 Maháníias, 1 Tólpradhán;‡ 2 Jemadárs, 15 Tól-mals, 1 Pasulpradhán, 4 Havildárs, 24 Choki-maháníias, 2 Tehildárs, and 4 Amaldárs, 1 Kotwál-naikiah, 6 Bahidárs.

The Arazbégí is the superintendent of the jail, and sheriff presiding over and answerable for executions. Immediately under him are the Mahánaiikias, or superintendents of Maháníias§ who search for and apprehend criminals, and execute almost all processes§ and sentences in civil and

* See preceding note touching the military executive of the courts. H.
† The Kumhal-naikiah is head of the craft of potters; each craft has a head, but none has any special connection with the court. H.
‡ The Tólpradhán is not, properly, a judicial functionary: his duty is to levy the fixed tax of 1½ rupees upon each Nevár merchant returning from Bhoie. H.
§ See preceding remark. Here is plain proof that the military are accessory and mere badges of conquest, all functions being provided for without them. H.
criminal causes, carrying into effect the sentences of the courts, whether whipping or other. The Māhānāikiahs are always in attendance; the Māhāniahs attend by turns. They do not perform watch and ward; that duty belongs to the military: but in case of disturbance actually commenced or hue and cry of theft, or other crime committed or attempted, being raised, they apprehend the offenders. There is a Tol-māl to or superintendent of each Tōl, or ward of the city. If the presence of any person is needed in court, it is the Tol-māl's business to identify the said person, and point out his residence to the Māhāniahs, whose duty it is to secure him.

The Choki-māhāniahs are the guards of the jail.

The Kôtewāls, under their Naikiahs, perform various kinds of menial service for the Ditha and Bichāris during their sitting in court. They attend by turns four at once. The Tehwīldār has charge of all monies paid into the court on whatever ground. The Bahādār keeps the accounts of all such monies. The Khardār writes the Kailnāmahs and Rāzināmahs in each cause.

The judges and others attached to the courts receive salaries from the Government and take fees also.

The above courts sit for all the twelve months of the year, with the exception of a week or fortnight at the great autumnal and vernal festivals, Dasahara and Divāli, when only they are closed.

They are always fixed, nor do any of the judicial authorities of Kathmandū make circuits: but the Ditha has the power of sending to any part of the kingdom special judges (Bichāri,) to investigate official malversation and other particular cases when such occur.

"The Ditha, or supreme judge, personally presides over the Kot Singh and Inta Chapli, constantly and habitually, these two being in fact his own courts for the despatch (as we should say, though the term, as we shall soon see, would not actually pourtray the process,) of civil and criminal business respectively, and as well originally, without limit,
as by way of appeal in the last resort. The Ditha also sometimes goes to
preside personally in the Taksar and Dhansar when any grave matter
therein arising calls for his presence."

The subordination of the Taksar and Dhansar courts to the Ditha is
illustrated at length by Mr. Hodgson in the following manner:—"The
Bicharis of those courts hear, to a conclusion, all civil causes of whatever
amount, that plaintiff's choose to bring before them. They also hear, to
a conclusion, all plaints of wrongs done and suffered, save only such
as entail a punishment touching life or limb, or involving total confis-
cation. But at the close of each day they are obliged to go to the
Ditha and report, verbally merely and summarily, that such and such
cases have come before them, and been heard, and that in their opinion
such and such awards should be made. The Ditha may assent; and
then the awards are made accordingly by the respective Bicharis next
morning in the Taksar and Dhansar as the cases may have origin-
ated. Or the Ditha may dissent and direct in any case another
decree, and that without desiring to know more of such case than is thus
verbally set before him by the Bichari concerned. The Bichari may, in
this event, if he please and be acute, argue the topic and perhaps convince
the Ditha he is right and the Ditha wrong. Then again the award propos-
ed by the Bichari will hold; else, the Ditha will either immediately
direct another award; or he will do so, after examining any documentary
evidence adduced in the cause and brought to him for perusal by the Bi-
chari. But if neither the Bichari's verbal report of the case, nor the docu-
ments produced by them for summary examination by the Ditha afford him
satisfaction (as however in 90 cases out of 100 they do) the Ditha will
proceed to such Bichari's court and hear the cause anew,* presiding him-
self in that court for the occasion. Such is the mode of the Ditha's

* There is no want of leisure on the part of the Ditha to prevent his doing this, so often
as may be necessary. Arrears of business are unknown to the courts of Nipal, and the
current affairs of every court leave its judges at all times abundance of spare time. H.
ordinary control over the Taksār and Dhansār in cases where both parties assent to the judgments given in those courts. If either party dissent, then there is an appeal from the Taksār and Dhansār to the Ditha in the Kot Singh, and herein consists another step and degree of subordination in those courts to the Ditha. In appeals, as there are, now at least, no records or next to none (formerly recording to a small extent was in use) in any court of primary or superior jurisdiction, the original parties and witnesses must all proceed to the superior court. In regard to the form of the references which are necessarily made by the inferior courts of Kathmandū in all cases (and by the provincial courts, in all cases touching life or limb or the substance of a man’s property) to the Ditha for his sentiments as to the award, even though there be as yet no appeal to him, judgment not having been in fact had, such references are made by the Kathmandū Bichāris by word of mouth simply and summarily, as above narrated; these Bichāris, moreover, in all cases, civil as well as criminal, necessarily producing at the same time the written acknowledgment or confession of the losing or offending party, signed by such party. This document has always a principal weight in settling the affair in the Ditha’s opinion; but it will not bar the loser’s or criminal’s appeal to the Ditha’s own court, either being allowed to allege and prove in appeal undue threats or violence in extorting such acknowledgement or confession.”

The Bichāris of the Taksār and Dhansār cannot send any person to jail or put him in irons. They may only detain him in court pending the decision on his case, when if it be necessary to put him in irons or send him to jail it must be done with the sanction of the Ditha. They can, in general, fine to any extent by their own authority, but if they please they may refer a grave fine to the Ditha or Bhāradār Sabhā (Council of State.)

The Ditha in Inta Chapli can imprison a man for any number of months that may elapse from his confinement up to the annual ceremony called Srāddh-pāksh, at which period the Ditha must report to the Bhāradār Sabhā, or Council of State, and take their sanction for each case of
further imprisonment. In general, the Ditha in Inta Chapli can fine to any extent without sanction of the Bhāradār Sabhā. Now and then a very grave case may be carried by the Ditha himself to the Bhāradār Sabhā, which then usually awards the fine suggested by him.

But the Ditha cannot inflict any punishment touching life or limb, or extending to total confiscation without first summarily reporting to and obtaining the sanction of the Rāj Bhāradār Sabhā or Rāja in Council.

§ 4. Other Courts at Kathmandū.

Besides the four courts above described, there are two Courts of Registry—that for houses is called the Chi-bhandēl—and that for lands, the Bhā-bhandēl. All deeds of transfer of houses and lands are registered in these courts; and copies, with the Lāl mohr or State seal attached, furnished to the parties. No sale of house or land is valid till this copy is had. There is another court of special jurisdiction called the Daftār-khāneh, in which the disputes of the soldierly relative to the lands assigned to them for pay are investigated.

None of the above courts has criminal jurisdiction, and whatever penal offences may issue out of soldiers’ claims, and claims relating to lands and houses, are carried to the Inta Chapli.

The Bangya-baithak or Kumārī Chok, at Kathmandū, is not a court of justice but the general record office of the fisc. A separate Ditha presides over it.

The whole of the courts of Kathmandū are situated within eighty or ninety paces of each other.

“The territorial limits of the metropolitan courts are the Dūd Cosi, East, and Trisul Ganga, West: but Bhatgaon and Putan have their own courts: and every where there are village courts. Its inaccurate genius is the chief characteristic of the Nēpāl judicial administration, as of that of the whole of Asia, and indeed of Europe until late years.”
II. Judicial Administration of the Interior.

§ 5. Local Courts.

The valley of Népáл being assumed as a centre, the interior or mountain districts are divided for judicial purposes into Eastern and Western parts, each of which is sub-divided, or liable to sub-division. At present to the eastward there is only one grand section, called from its boundaries the section of the Mêchî and Dûal Cosî. To the westward there are two large sections; the former of which is denominated the division of the Kâli and Bhêri, and also the Kâli-pâr division: the latter is called the section of the Kâli and Marsyângdî, and it is also known as the Mânjh-khand circuit.

Two Bichâris, acting together, preside over each of the greater divisions above laid down. Their courts are frequently ambulatory, but there are fixed judicial residences for them. In the greater eastern division there are two, one at Mânjh-khand, the other at Chayanpur. To the westward there are four:—two for the Kâli-pâr arrondissement, at Bâguâng-chouâr and at Bêni, and two for the Mânjh-khand, at Pokhara and at Tûrkî.

The administrators of the Tarâî, or low lands, appoint their own judicial authority (called Fanjîdâr), who transacts with other business the administration of justice upon the old Moghel model. The Fanjîdâr's appointment must be ratified by the Darbâr.

For all the Tarâî there are six Sûbahs or general administrators; and under each Sûbah, sometimes two, sometimes one, Fanjîdâr.

For the division of Morang, there are one Sûbah and two Fanjîdârs; for Sâbtari-Mohotari, the same number; for Bara Parsa, the same; for Routahat, one Sûbah and one Fanjîdâr; for Chitwan-Bêleuan, the same; for Botwâl, the same; for the Duti-Tarâî, one Fanjîdâr; for Sulliâna, the same. Each of the above divisions is independent of the rest.
The powers of the Provincial, or local, courts are always the same, not being regulated with reference to the rank of the Governor of the Province for the time being. But, in cases touching life or limb, or involving confiscation, breach of the laws of religion and loss of caste, every court of the interior must forward a written report with the offender's confession to Kathmandú to be laid before the Government which refers them to the Ditha. The Ditha reports the customary proceeding in such matters, and according to his report a royal command is transmitted to the local court to award such and such punishment, or to send the offender and witnesses to Kathmandú, as the case may be. No governor of a province or judge of a district court has power to decide cases involving loss of life or limb, or status, or substance of property, (ját and pání): to the decision of all others they are competent.

Military officers, fiscal officers, "courtiers," and others of whatever profession, are eligible to judicial situations in the provinces, if they have the confidence of government and are men of respectability and capable of the charge.

"The village courts of the interior are presided over by one Prajá-naikiah and four Pradhán-Prajás, popular chiefs of the spot, who now act in subordinate co-operation with a government agent or Dwāriaḥ. Above them come the hill Bicháris of the two divisions already named:—and, instead thereof, in Pálpā and Dúti, the sudder court of the governor, and in the Tarāi, that of the Sabhá or revenual administrator.

The basis of the judicial system in the interior is to be recognized in the village courts, composed of a Naikiah and 4 Pradháns: the Dwáriaḥ is merely a badge of conquest.

* The term Provincial rather implies a court of a vice-regal ruler of a large tract: there are none such in Népál save the Governors of Dúti and Patpa, and the Sábahs of the low lands. H.
§ 6. Appeals.

The supreme ordinary appeal court is the Kot Singh, but those who are dissatisfied with its decision can apply through the Ditha to the Mahārāja, who in such cases directs the matter to be investigated in the Kōsi or Bhāradār Sabhā, (Council of State). The result of this investigation when completed is reported through the chief minister to the prince who issues definitive orders on the case, which are usually such as the report suggests. On such occasions, if the case should be a grave one, relating to loss of caste, and such like, the Bhāradārs are assisted by the Ditha and Bichāris of the Kot Singh; and, if need be, by the Dharmādhikāri also.

No one is at liberty to carry his plaint in the first instance to the Bhāradār Sabhā.

The appeal from the local courts of the interior lies in the first instance to the Kot Singh and thence to the Bhāradār Sabhā in the manner above described. But "the circumstance that in appeals from the provinces the parties and witnesses must all repair to Kathmandū; the extreme difficulties of the way; and lastly the impression naturally produced by the known fact that the local court (in all those grave cases wherein alone appeals might be resorted to) has already referred its judgment for sanction to the supreme court, all conspire to render appeals to the supreme tribunal very rare."

The inhabitants of Dūti, and those of Pālpā and Salliānah, (which form two large provincial governments, always held by the first subjects of the state with authority to nominate their own judicial functionaries) must first appeal to the sudder courts of their provincial governors, and revenue administrator respectively. In the mountains eastward of the great valley and westward too, with the above exceptions, the people's first appeal from their local courts is to the hill Bichāris, their second to the Ditha of Kathmandū.
Then there lies an appeal to the Kot Singh at Kathmandú, and finally to the Raja in Council: there is no separation of executive and judicial functions of government.


There are separate courts for the cities of Patan and Bhatgaon. Both places lie within the great valley, the former at the distance of two and the latter of eight miles from the capital.

The Múl-Sabhá or chief court of Patan and that of Bhatgaon cannot try the Panch-khata, or great crimes, involving peril of life or limb, or confiscation of a man’s whole substance; but only offences punishable by trifling whippings or fines. Their local jurisdictions are equivalent with the limits of the lands attached respectively to the towns in question. There is an appeal from these courts to the chief court at Kathmandú and important cases are often referred by them in the first instance to the supreme court of the capital.

The officers attached to the Múl-Sabhá or Pali-Sabhá at Patan, are as follows: the Dwáriáh like the Dítha of Kathmandú is a supernumerary imposed by conquest over the head of the Bichári or true judge, and the Pradháns or chief townsmen, his assessors.

1 Dwáriáh, who presides. 20 Mahániáhs.
1 Bichári. 2 Kotieál naikiahs.
4 Pradháns. 24 Kotwáls.
1 Bahidár. 14 Potadár Jaisis.
1 Patwári. 8 Pot Mahániáhs.
1 Goshwára Tehéildár. 1 Chandari.
2 Mahánaiákháis. 1 Si-chandél.

The constitution of the Lám Patí or chief court at Bhatgaon, does not materially differ, except in a few of the titles, as Jua-Pradháns, Thecha Pradháns, Tuér-naikiahs, &c. The functions of the judicial officers have
been mostly described in § 3. The remainder belong to the fiscal. These courts being not merely seats of justice, but the centres of general administration.

The court of Patan called Tūsaal resembles the Bhu-bhandel of Kathmandú, and that called Kund-bali Sabhā answers to the Chi-bhandel of Kathmandú. They are, properly, courts of registration merely, but small actions relative to the boundaries of lands and houses, or to easements attaching to them, and small actions of debt also are tried in them.

The Tūsaal court at Bhatgaon, like that of Patan, answers to the Bhu-bhandel of the capital, and that called Karmi-Sabhā to the Chi-bhandel. When land is transferred by sale, or mortgage, its limits are laid down by the professional measurers attached to the Tūsaal, and the deed of sale is registered in the court, and a copy given to the buyer. As the boundaries of all lands are thus recorded in this court, disputes relative to them are referred to it, at least in the first instance.

It is unnecessary to particularize the establishments of these revenue courts which differ little from those above given.

There is a court at Bhatgaon called Bandyā-Pradhān which has the exclusive cognizance of all disputes between the Bandyās* of that city, and their disputes alone can be heard in it.

§ 8. Police.

There is no civil establishment of watchmen in the cities of Nēpāl, but the military patrol the streets throughout the night. Night brawls and disturbances in the city are reported to the Ditha in the Inta Chapli.

The police of the villages is vested in the judicial officers described in § 4, the Dwāriah, 4 Pradhāns and from 5 to 10 Mahānias for each village, according to its size.

* Bandyas are the tonsured and regular followers of the Baudhā faith.
The Dwáriah assisted by the Múkhia or head villager* also collects the revenues and settles all the village disputes. He is in fact the principal source of justice in the villages. His cognizance extends over all cases not included in the Panch-khat, nor touching life or limb, or the substance of a man’s property. He cannot capitally condemn, maim, mutilate or confiscate. He can imprison, and punish with the corah, and fine. The extent of his local limits is not fixed: sometimes he presides over several villages; sometimes over only one, if it be large.

The Múkhia is the representative of the community, the Dwáriah of the government, both in matters of revenue and justice. The latter is the responsible person, but he acts with the assistance and advice of the former.

III. Forms of Procedure.


In civil suits, if the plaintiff be not forthcoming he is searched for, and if not immediately found, bail is taken from the defendant to appear when wanted, and he is let go; but no decision is ever come to in such circumstances. If the defendant be the absent party, he is not on that account cast. He must be searched for, and until he is found, no decision can he come to.

The parties almost invariably plead vivá voce, but the plaintiff sometimes begins his suit with a written statement. They also almost universally tell their own tale; but instances of a pleader (Mukshár), being employed have occurred, usually a near relative, and only when the principal was incapable. Professional or permanent pleaders are unknown. So

* The head villager is called by the Párbattiaha the Gaon Mukhiáh; by the Nevwárs, Naikiah and Pradhán Prajá; in the Taráí, the Jeth ráyat. The ryots are called Prajáis in the hills both by Párbattiaha and Nevwárs. The Dwáriah is a title of the new dynasty. The duties of this officer and of the Pradhán Prajá belong rather to the head of “Courts of Justice.” H.
likewise are professional informers and public prosecutors. There are none of either. The casual informer is sole prosecutor. Evidence of oral testimony, of writings, of decissorv oaths and oaths of purgation and imprecation, is admitted in all the four courts of the capital. Ordeal is only resorted to in grave cases, when oral and documentary evidence are wanting, but in such case the cause must be removed to the Inta Chapli if it should not have originated there.

The proceedings of each court remain in that court, excepting the accounts of the receipts on behalf of the state from the decision of suits; these are transferred periodically to the Kumári Chok.

"The first great object of the courts of Népál, when litigants come before them, is not trial, but reconcilement. The parties and witnesses all clamorously urge what occurs to them (never upon oath), and try their strength against each other. The general result of this apparently uncomely but really effectual procedure, is to bring the parties to an understanding, which the court takes care that the loser shall abide by. But if the court cannot thus succeed in bringing the parties to reconcile their difference or to submit it to the court's summary arbitrament, upon a view of the animated exhibition just described, then, and then only, the trial in our sense begins: the first step of which is to bind the parties to the issue: for that is the meaning of thápíng the béri, a ceremony which then takes place, and here, first, oaths are permitted; which very generally are used, instead of evidence, not to confirm evidence. If the testimony of external witnesses is readily forthcoming, it is taken and preferred. But in general, the parties themselves must look to that point well, for the court seldom cares to delay or to exert itself, in order that witnesses may appear. Neither the people nor the judges deem external witnesses the one thing indispensable. If such are not readily forthcoming to give decisive testimony, the court and country are agreed as to the propriety of at once resorting to other modes of proof; with which, though we were once familiar with them, justice is now deemed by us to have little connection. These
are,—decisory oaths of the parties, in civil causes, either party taking the oath at their pleasure; purgatory oaths of the accused in some penal causes; ordeals of various kinds, both in civil and criminal matters; and lastly, Pancháyats, chiefly applied, but not exclusively, to civil actions.

§ 10. Course of a Civil Suit.

Whoever has a complaint to make goes into court: the Bichári asks him against whom his plaint is, where the defendant is, and of what nature the plaint may be. The plaintiff explains, and then asks for a runner of the court to go with him, to whom he may point out the defendant. The Bichári gives the necessary order to the jemadar, the jemadar to the havildar, and the havildar to the sipáhis. The sipáhi ordered to go immediately demands 8 annas from the plaintiff; which paid, he goes with him and arrests the defendant where the plaintiff points him out.

On the arrival of the defendant in court, the Bichári interrogates the parties face to face, and usually brings them to such an understanding as prevents the necessity of going to trial, in which case pán phút; or some small fees only, are charged to them.

For instance, in a claim advanced for debt; if the debtor, when called on by the court, acknowledges the debt, and states his willingness to pay as soon as he can collect the means, which he hopes to do in a few days—in this case, the Bichári will desire the creditor to wait a few days. The creditor may reply that he cannot wait, having immediate need of the money; if so, one of the runners of the court is attached to the debtor, with directions to see the producing of the money in court by every means. The debtor must then produce money, or goods, or whatever property he has, and bring it into court. The Ditha and Bicháris then, calling to their assistance two or three merchants, proceed to appraise the goods produced in satisfaction of the debt, and immediately satisfy the debt, nor can the creditor object to their appraisement of the debtor's goods and chattels. In matters thus settled, that is where the defendant admits the cause of
action to be valid, from five per cent. to ten per cent. of the property litigated is taken (see § 14) and no more.

But if the parties cannot be brought to an understanding and persist in positive affirmation and denial, the plaintiff is commanded by the Bichāri formally to pledge himself to prosecute his claim to a conclusion in the court wherein he is and no other. The words enjoining the plaintiff thus to gage himself are these, bērt⁴ thāpo, and the act consists in the plaintiff’s taking a rupee in his hand and striking the earth with the closed hand, saying at the same time “my claim is just and I gage myself to prove it so.” The defendant is then commanded to take up the gage of the plaintiff, or to pledge himself, similarly, duly to attend the court to the conclusion of the trial, which he does by formally denying the claim made against him, and upon this denial he likewise strikes the earth with his hand closed on a rupee. The rupee of the plaintiff and that of the defendant are deposited in court. The next step is for the court to take the fee, called karpan, of five rupees from either party. Both bērt and karpan are the perquisites of the various officers of the court, and do not go to the government.

The giving of karpan by the parties implies that they desire to refer their dispute to the decision of the ordeal: and accordingly, as soon as the karpan is paid down, the Ditha acquaints the Government that the parties in a certain cause wish to undergo the ordeal. The order for them to undergo it is thereupon issued from the Darbār, but when it has reached the court, the Ditha and Bichāris first of all exhort the parties to come to an understanding and to seek the settlement of their dispute by Panchāyat or other means than ordeal, which if they will not do, the trial by ordeal is directed to proceed. (See § 15.)

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* Bērt means a chain; the act of “thaping the bērt” obliges the parties to persevere to a decree, and prevents them from withdrawing the action; the proceeds go to the Bichāri. H.
§ 11. Form of Procedure in a Criminal Cause.

The process in a criminal suit may be illustrated by the following example:

If any one come into court and state that a certain person has killed such another by poison, sword, dagger, or otherwise, the informer is instantly interrogated by the court thus; how? when? before whom? the corpus delicti where? &c. &c. He answers by pointing out all these particulars according to his knowledge of the facts, adducing the names of the witnesses, or saying that though he has no other witnesses than himself to the fact of murder, he pledges himself to prove it, or abide the consequences of a failure in the proof. This last engagement when tendered by the accuser is immediately reduced to writing to bind him the more effectually; after which one or more Sipáhis of the court are sent with the informer to secure the murderer, and produce him and the testimony of the deed in court, which, when produced accordingly, is followed by an interrogation of the accused. If the accused confess the murder, there is no need to call evidence: but if he deny it, evidence is then gone into, and if the witnesses depose positively to their having seen the accused commit the murder, the accused is again asked what he has to say, and if he still refuse to confess, he is whipped into a confession; which, when obtained, is reduced to writing and attested by the murderer. The murderer is then put in irons and sent to jail. Thus theft, robbery, incest, &c. are tried in Népál, and the convicts sent to prison. Each prisoner receives a daily allowance of a seer of parched rice and a few condiments.


"The necessity of lustrating the city at the Dasahara, has had the casual consequence of causing a jail delivery to be held at that period. The jail (which is situated within the city,) must then be emptied at all events; and it is usual to empty it judicially, disposing of the convicts who happen to be collected in the jail."
But this is neither the principal nor only delivery held during the year. In fact, the idea of periodical jail deliveries belongs to a system of migratory courts not always sitting, as that of regular deliveries does to an accurate system. The Népálese system of judicial administration is neither ambulatory nor accurate: but it has few and trivial delays, and offenders are speedily dealt with by judges who are always at their post, neither having vacations nor making circuits."

When they amount to twenty or thirty, the Ditha makes out a calendar of their crimes, and adds thereto their confessions and statements of the customary punishments inflicted in such cases. This list the Ditha carries to the Bháradár Subhá, (Council of State) whence it is taken by the Premier to the Prince, after the Ditha's allotment of punishment to each convict has been ratified or another punishment substituted. The list so altered or ratified in the Council of State and referred by the Premier to the Prince is, as a matter of form, sanctioned by the Prince—after which it is re-delivered to the Ditha; who makes it over to the Araz-bégi—the Araz-bégi taking the prisoners and the Mahán Naikiahs, and some men of the Pórya* caste with him, proceeds to the banks of the Bishenmoti, where the sentence of the law is inflicted by the hands of Póryas, and in presence of the Araz-bégi and Mahán Naikiahs. Thus are grave offences involving the penalty of life or limb treated.


No fee is taken from a plaintiff on the occasion of his commencing his pleading, or exhibiting a document. In civil causes, wherein the plaintiff's ground of action is not denied by the defendant and consequently it needs only to compel the latter to liquidate a claim of which he does not dispute the justice, dasoud-bisond, or five per cent. to ten per cent. according to circumstances of the amount of property, as has been explained in the description of the procedure of a civil cause, is taken from the parties.

* The vilest of the vile.
Where there is affirmation and denial by the parties and the trial of right must be had, then the charges called béri and karpan, which have also been explained, attach; and beyond these there are no other expenses attendant on the prosecution of civil suits.

The tax called jítauí means what is paid to the government in actions of debt and right from the winner; and what is paid from the loser is called hárauri. Jítauí is ten per cent. upon the property litigated, and hárauri five per cent.; dasond-bisond and jítauí-hárauri are therefore nearly identical expressions; the manner of their application requires more detailed illustration. In matters of debt and contrast in which the defendant (Asámé) does not persist in denying the plaintiff’s (Sáhu) claim, but only pleads present inability to pay, the Court, after the adducing of the plaintiff’s books of account and other documentary evidence, takes dasond, or ten per cent. of the property disputed from the plaintiff, and bisond, or five per cent. from the defendant, on the settlement of the cause in court. If the debtor deny the debt, in any form of allegation, that is, if he say he never borrowed, or that he has paid the sum, and will not recede from his denial, and the debt be proved, by evidence or ordeal, then on the decision of the cause, dasond of the debt is levied (as before) on the plaintiff, and the defendant suffers dánd* (fine) more or less, according to the obstinacy of his falsehood. If the plaintiff, persisting in his allegation of a sum due, be cast; and it be proved that there was no debt; then the plaintiff or false accuser (Puláha) suffers dánd, proportioned to the mischief or iniquity of the falsehood, and the falsely accused (Sueccha)

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* Dánd is not by itself a punishment. Punishments (Sázána) are, death, maiming or mutilating, imprisonment, and whipping with nettles or the corah, a true informer or accuser is not Puláha; a false and malicious informer or accuser is alone called (after conviction) Puláha. If in the case supposed the crime he proved, the informer will receive a reward from the government under the name of jítauí, not pay a tax under that name. But if in such case the accusation be proved false, then the accuser will suffer dánd.

Dánd is not double of jítauí, but half of dánd is jítauí; that is, the amount of dánd is that which is first decided according to circumstances, and is that which regulates the amount of jítauí. H.
gets *jitaurī* from the government: and thus in all cases of false allegation or accusation of property being wrongfully acquired, or false accusation of other sort or misdemeanor.

In offences involving loss of life or limb, or degradation of a Brahman from his caste, neither *jitaurī-hāraurī*, nor *dasond-bisond* attach: confiscation of the offender’s property follows. The *Sandhuah* or convicted *felon* suffers corporally; and the informer goes free.

In cases of disputes in court between sons by marriage, regarding their shares, the court after awarding equal shares to all, takes *dasond* from all alike; neither *bisond*, nor *jitaurī*, nor *dānd* attach. If the son by wedlock give not his share to the son by concubinage, and the matter come into court, the court awards to the latter a sixth share taking *dasond* from him: *phul-pān* or a petty fee is taken from the former, and nothing else. Sons by adoption, if of equal caste with the sons begotten in wedlock, get equal shares with them; if of meaner caste, less. *Dasond* attaches to the portion awarded; but neither *dānd* nor *jitaurī*.

Neither *dasond-bisond* nor *jitaurī-hāraurī* attach in cases of action or prosecutions for creating nuisance, or for injuring or destroying public works of utility.

In cases of slander, and assault and battery, (for which there can be no civil action of damages) the offender suffers *dānd* proportioned to his offence; the complainant does not pay *jitaurī* or any tax whatever.


Both in civil and criminal cases the court compels the attendance and deposition in the usual way of the witnesses summoned by the accused. As cases are heard and decided as soon as they occur, witnesses are

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* This *jitaurī*, ostensible a present is in many cases actually a small fee or tax. Thus: the party receives a turban worth two rupees and pays for it five rupees. But it is sometimes really a present, when the prosecutor is poor and meritorious; in which case it is rated to cover his expenses during the prosecution, and to afford him a small reward to boot. H.
never obliged to attend long in the court. They therefore have no allowance whatever for food or travelling expenses.

A man of rank is treated with much consideration; but ordinarily he is required to go into court and depose like one of the vulgar. Occasionally however an officer of the court is deputed to wait on him at his house, and to procure his evidence by interrogatories.

Women of rank are privileged from attendance: if their evidence be indispensable, some person who has the entrée of the Zenânah is deputed to hear their evidence and report it to the court.

Oral evidence is never reduced to writing at the time of utterance, nor recorded.

Documents produced in evidence remain in the court pending the dispute, and are returned to the owners when it is over.

Parties can always be witnesses in their own cases and always speak under the same penalties for falsehood as external witnesses.

An oath is never tendered to a witness in the first instance; but if his evidence be contradictory or dissatisfactory to either of the parties, he is then sworn and required to depose afresh on oath. If he is a Siva-mârzi or Brahmanical Hindu he is sworn on the Hari Vansa; if a Buddhist, on the Pancha Raksha; if a Masulman, on the Korân.

The form of swearing on the Hari Vansa is thus described. The Bichâri of the court, having caused a spot of the ground of the court to be smeared with cow dung,* and spread over with pipal leaves, and a necklace of tulsi beads to be placed on the neck of the witness, places the witness on the purified spot of ground, and causes him to repeat a sloka of which the meaning is “whoso gives false evidence destroys his children and ancestors both body and soul, and his own earthly prosperity,” holding the Hari Vansa all the while on his head, and thus prepared he

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* This solemn oath is well worthy our attention. Oaths in Népâl are used generally as substitutes for evidence rather than to confirm it; and the Bible, &c. prove that this was the primitive notion of an oath. [H.]
deposes. If there be reason to suppose that a witness is prevaricating or concealing some part of what he knows, he is imprisoned until he makes a full revelation.

Perjurers* and suborners of perjury are fined or corporally, nay even capitally, punished, according to the importance or otherwise of the case, or the extent of the mischief done, and according also to the offender’s caste. In criminal cases, if the prisoner should volunteer a confession, that confession being taken down in writing and attested by himself, entirely supersedes the necessity of his trial; no witnesses are called to prove his guilt; moreover, if the prisoner should be fully convicted by evidence, his confession must nevertheless be had, taken down and signed by himself; and before such confession under his own hand is obtained, he cannot be punished. If he be sullenly silent, he is first scolded and menaced and frightened; if these means fail, he is flogged with the corah, until he confesses; and then his kail-námah is written.

He may always demand confrontation with his accuser, and cross-examine the evidence against him.

If in penal cases, he should persist in affirming his innocence, and declare that the accuser and his witnesses are his enemies, then he may have the ordeal, but he cannot purge himself by any sort of oath (sapat kriya).

In cases of signed and attested bonds, &c., if the attesting witnesses are dead, or not forthcoming, and no other satisfactory evidence is procurable, resort is had to ordeal. If in a case of debt the plaintiff produce a note of acknowledgment of the debt by the defendant, and the defendant deny the note to be his, and the fact cannot be ascertained by evidence as to his hand or any other sort of evidence, the defendant is brought by threats and scolding to admit the note as his, but if he persist in a denial,
resort is had to ordeal. So it is in cases where the casual writing is in
the hand of a third party, and not that of the defendant; if the parties
cannot agree as to the authenticity of the note, and there is no other evi-
dence in the cause, the decision of the case is referred to ordeal.

Tradesmen are allowed to adduce their entries in their books to prove
debts to them. In general all mercantile affairs are referred to a Pancháyat
of merchants, whose judgment is decisive upon conflicting entries, &c.

§ 15. Ordeal.

The ordeal is called Nyáya,* and the form of it is as follows: Upon
two bits of paper the names of the parties are respectively
inscribed; the papers are rolled up into balls; the balls have
púja offered to them; and from either party a fine† or fee of one
rupee is taken. The balls are then affixed to staffs of reed, whereupon
two annas‡ more are taken from each party. The reeds are then entrusted
to two of the havildárs of the court to take to the Queen’s tank,§ and
with the havildárs, a Bichári of the court, a Brahman, and the parties,
proceed to the tank; as likewise two men of the Chámákhatalak (or Chumár)
caste. Arrived at the tank, the Bichári again exhorts the parties to
avoid the ordeal by other settlement of the business, the truth of which
lies in their own breasts. But if they insist on ordeal, the two havildárs,
each with a reed, proceed one to the east, and the other to the west
side of the tank, entering the water about knee-deep. The brahman, the
parties, and the Chámákhatalaks, at this moment, all enter the water a
little way, when the brahman performs pújá to Varuna, in the name of
the parties, and repeats a sacred text, the meaning of which is, that man-
kind know not what passes in the minds of each other, but that all

* The word “Nyáya,” “justice, right” is technically applied solely to ordeal. H.
† Called Góla.
‡ Called Narãvadi.
§ This dipping in the Queen’s tank is the most popular ordeal at present: but there are
many others, similar to those formerly in use below, and indeed, all over the world. H.
inward thoughts and acts are known to the gods, Surya and Chandra, and Varuna and Yamā, and that they will do right between the parties to this dispute. When the pūjā is over, the brahman gives the tilak to the two Chāmākhalaks and says to them, “let the champion of truth win and let the false one’s champion lose.” This said, the brahman and the parties come out of the water. The Chāmākhalaks then divide, one going to the place where one reed* is erected, and the other, to the other reed. They then enter the deep water and at a signal given both immerse themselves at the same instant. Whoso first emerges from the water, the reed beside him is instantly destroyed with the scroll attached to it. The other reed is carried back to the court where the ball containing the scroll is opened and the scroll read. If the scroll bear the plaintiff’s name, the plaintiff wins the cause; if the defendant’s, the defendant is victorious. The fine, called jitaure is then paid by the winner, and that called hāraure by the loser; besides which, five rupees are demanded from the winner in return for a turban† which he gets; and the same sum, under the name of Sabhā siddhah (or purification of the court) from the loser. The above four demands on the parties, or jitaure, hāraure, pagri, and Sabhā siddhah, are government taxes; and exclusive of them eight annas must be paid to the Mahānīahs of the court—eight annas more to the Kotwāls—and, lastly, eight more to the Khardār or register. In this manner multitudes of causes are decided by Nyāya, (ordeal) when the parties cannot be brought to agree upon the subject matter of dispute, and have no documentary or oral evidence to adduce.

§ 16. Panchāyat.

The Panchāyats in use are of two kinds, domestic and public, the latter being called to settle suits come before the courts; the former to settle matters never brought under the court’s cognizance.

* “Markat.”
† The turban fee is called Pagri.
Domestic Pancháyats are very popular, especially among merchants whose wealth attracts the cupidity of the courts, and the community of whom can, on the other hand, always furnish intelligent referees or Panch men.

To the public Pancháyat, all matters may be referred (with the exception of cases of life destroyed,) at the discretion of the courts, or at the desire of the parties: but cases of battery and assault are not usually referred to these tribunals.

The Panch men are appointed by the Ditha, at the solicitation of the parties, with whom solely the selection lies. After selection of their Panch men by the parties, the Ditha takes from them an obligation to abide by the award of the Pancháyat. The court or government never appoint Pancháyats of their own motion, except when men of note are under accusation; but if parties expressly solicit it, stating that they can get no satisfaction from their own Panch men, and give a petition to that effect to the government, the government will then appoint a Pancháyat to sit on the case. But no man can sit on a Pancháyat without the assent of both parties.

A Pancháyat of this sort often acts the part of a jury when men of note are accused, the government nominating the Panch men. In civil actions too the parties, tired of litigating, will sometimes desire the court or the government to nominate a Pancháyat to hear and decide without appeal. Ordinarily Pancháyats are chosen purely by the parties, and half the judicial business of the kingdom is performed by them to the satisfaction alike of the parties, the public and the government. The function of the Panch men appears to me to be essentially that of jurors. They find the verdict, and the court, out of which they issue and in which they assemble, merely enforces their finding.

The Pancháyats assemble in the court out of which they issue, and officers of the court are appointed to see that the Panch men attend daily and fully, with a view to prevent needless delay in the decision of causes
When such, however, does occur nevertheless, the matter is taken out of
the hands of the *Pancháyat* and decided by the court which appointed it.

The *Pancháyat* has no power of its own to summon or to enforce the
attendance of any person, to make an unwilling witness depose, or to secure
the production of necessary papers. All such executive aid being afforded
by the court appointing it; and in like manner the decision of this
tribunal is referred for execution to the court. The assumption of any
power of their own by the *Pancháyat* would be a grave offence.

The *Panch* are required to be unanimous. Such at least is the rule,
but a very large majority will suffice in certain cases.

There are no permanent or established individual *Panch* men, but in
all cases wherein *Párbattiahs* (Hindus of the mountains) are concerned,
it is necessary to choose the *Panch* men out of the following distinguished
tribes:—1st *Arjal*; 2d *Khadal*; 3d *Pandê*; 4th *Panth*; 5th *Boharah*; 6th
*Rana*; one person being selected out of each tribe; and among the *Newárs*,
the tribes from which *Panch* men must necessarily be chosen, are 1st *Maikè*;
2d *Bhanil*; 3d *Achár*; 4th *Srisht*. In matters affecting neither *Párbattiahs*
nor *Newárs* there is no limit as to the selection by the parties of their
*Panch* men; but old, learned, honest and experienced men may be supposed
to have the preference. They receive no compensation for travelling
expenses or loss of time, or on any account whatever. Indeed the very
idea of compensating them is abhorred.

**IV. The Law.**

§ 17. *Codes applicable to the different classes of inhabitants.*

Custom or precedent is the law in many cases; the *Dharmashástra*, or
sacred canons, in many more; and the decision of numerous cases depends
almost equally on both.

Infringements of the laws of caste fall under the *Shástrás*. Other
matters are almost entirely governed by the *Dès A'chár*, or customary law
of the province of *Gorkhá*. 
The customs of the Baudhā portion of Newārs are peculiar to themselves; but in general the Newārs and Pārbattiahs both acknowledge and are subject to the same Dharmaśāstra, although in some points there are appropriate usages for each.

It is not indispensably necessary that the Ditha should be versed in the law Shāstras, but he must be acquainted with the principles of law and justice, and be a man of high respectability.

Neither is it required that the Bichāris should receive a regular legal training; but they must always be well educated, of high character, practically acquainted with the law, and conversant with the customs of the country and the usage of its various tribes. And when a Ditha or Bichāri is removed by rotation, or otherwise, he cannot retire till he has possessed his successor with a knowledge of the state of the court, and the general routine of procedure.

§ 18. Adoption, Inheritance, &c.

Whoever would adopt a child must do so with the consent of all his near relations, and with the permission of some court of law, to which he must proceed, and in which he must complete the act. So, if he would alienate any portion of his property, by will, in favor of such adopted child, he must obtain, first of all, the consent of his heirs and perform the act in presence of a Panchāyat. In neither case, therefore, can there be, or in fact ever is there, a dispute and appeal to the courts of law. If any one in adopting a son and assigning to him property at his death, hath neglected the above prescribed forms, and a dispute therefrom arise and resort is had to the courts of justice, such dispute is settled by calling together several elders of the tribe to which the deceased belonged and taking their judgment upon the usage of that tribe; which usage governs the court's decree. No man can adopt, or devise, at his own will and pleasure.

With regard to inheritance, also, the custom of each tribe is ascertained by reference to some of its elders, and that custom so ascertained
rules the judgment-seat in all cases of application to it. Amongst the Khās tribe, if a person have a son born in wedlock, that son is his heir: if he have no such son, his brothers and brother’s male descendants are his heirs: his married daughters, or their progeny, never. If he have a virgin daughter, she is entitled to a marriage portion and no more. If he have a son by a concubine, and after his death his brothers and descendants do not conceal the deceased’s wealth, but fairly state it to the bastard son, and give him a reasonable portion, the bastard son must, in such case, take what they give him, and he can get no more in any court; but if they conceal the deceased’s wealth, and put off the bastard son with idle tales, assigning him no share whatever, then the bastard son, if he appeal to the courts, shall have all the deceased’s property assigned to him, to the total exclusion of the family so attempting to defraud him. In short, the son by a concubine must have a reasonable share allotted to him by the family, though the exact amount will rest with them. If a Khās have a son, he cannot alienate a single rupee from him by will, either of ancestral or acquired wealth, save only, and in moderation, to pious uses; neither can a Khās adopt a son not of his kindred and make him his heir, if he have near blood relations. His first choice lies among his brother’s sons and nearest relatives in the male line; his next among his daughter’s sons and their male progeny: a stranger he can never adopt.

The Magar, Gurung, Mārmi, and Kairanti tribes agree with the Khās in respect to inheritance, adoption, and wills.

The Siva-Margy section of the Nevaars agrees mostly with the Parbattiahs on all these heads. The Buddha-Margy section have some rule of their own. Among the Nevaars of both persuasions, the son by a concubine gets one-sixth of the share of a son born in wedlock.

When cases of dispute on these topics are brought into court, the judge calls for the sentiments of the most respectable of the tribe to which the litigants belong, and follows their statement of the custom of their tribe.
ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF


The great crimes (technically called Punch khat) are those to which some of the following punishments are applied:—1, Confiscation of a man's entire property. 2, Cutting off ears and nose. 3, Amputating hands and feet. 4, Putting out eyes andemasculating. 5, Suspending by the heels from a tree till dead. 6, Flaying alive. 7, Death by hanging or decapitation, with the enslaving of wives and family, and forfeiture of whole property.

The above punishments can only be inflicted by the chief court of each of the three cities (Kathmandú; Bhātgaon, and Patan.) The lesser adalats have power to cause the “touching† of the stone,” to fine, to place under restraint, to send to prison, to inflict slight corporal punishments, and so forth.

* A more methodical and complete enumeration of the great punishments, (Punch Khata—the word Khata being used to express as well the assigned penalty as the offence) is the following:

1. Death. 2. Mutilation. 3. Banishment. 4. Enslaving, or making over to some vile caste, the offender’s wives and children. 5. Confiscation.

Nor is this enumeration of the chief offences the technical Sasstrika one—but the more useful and practical enumeration derived from present usage modified by the original enumeration of the sacred law books. That enumeration is as follows:

1. Brahm-hatya or brahmancide.
2. Stri-hatya, or woman killing.
3. Bal-hatya, or infanticide.
4. Gao-hatya or cow killing.
5. Agāmiya-gavan or incest in the peculiar Hindu sense. H.

† The Dhunga Chāyai or touching of a stone is this: When a cause is decided the Bichāri orders a stone (any one) to be brought, and upon it a few blades of Dūb grass to be put. He then commands the loser of the cause to put a rupee and four dams on the stone and to touch it, observing to him “you have committed an offence against the Mahárāja as well as the other party: that stone is the symbol of the Rāja’s feet, touch it, thereby acknowledging your offence, and be freed.” The rupee put on the stone is the Bichāri’s perquisite, and the four dams, that of the Mahánia. This usage is not observed in every cause decided, but only when it is held that sin (pāp) is necessarily attached to the losing party, and never in cases of ordeal. Others say that the stone has the “charan” or foot mark of the God Viṣṇu graved on it, (the Sahigrām) and this account is more in harmony, with the usage of making atonement by an offering to it, than if it represented the sovereign of the state. H.
List of the chief offences above adverted to.

1 Kalyán Dhan, or treasure-trove, i.e. appropriating it. 2, Patricide. 3, Matricide. 4, Killing a Cow. 5, Killing a Brahman. 6, Killing a Woman. 7, Procuring Abortion. 8, Killing a Gárú. 9, Incendiaryism. 10, Poisoning. 11, Theft and Robbery. 12, Taking another’s land by violence. 13, Seducing another’s wife. 14, Murder. 15, Destroying Houses, &c. devoted to charitable and religious purposes. 16, Agamya-gavan or Incest.

1st.—Kalyán Dhan is treasure-trove of all sorts whatever; including new mines. Secretly appropriating any such (which all belongs to the crown) is equivalent to theft, and is punished with death or confiscation in the chief adālat. If death be awarded, the Bichári delivers the offender to the Mahániah and he to the Poryas, who execute the delinquent; if confiscation be the sentence, then the Mahániaux, and the Mahan Naikiahs and the Bahidad, and others, going to the delinquent’s house take the delinquent’s own share of the whole family property (lands as well as moveables), but spare the shares of the other members of the family.

To procure conviction in these cases, as in others, an informant (Puláha) is necessary, and then there are two parties to the cause, the informer (Puláha) and the accused (Sandhuah) whichever of them establishes his case, gets a khilaat from the sirkár, paying pagrí and jitaurí. If the informer loses, he is obliged to “touch the stone,” and is fined with reference to the offence, and his means, more or less: (it is the custom to demand publicly twice as heavy a fine as is really taken) and the victorious accused, pays to the sirkár as jitaurí half the sum paid by the loser as dánd or fine. In the Panch khat, the Kalyán Dhan above described is held the greatest, and the ultimate decision of cases is peculiar to the Mahárája.

2nd. Patricide.—If any one, from the wantonness of youth, or selfishness, or avarice, or the instigation of his father’s women, should put his aged father under restraint or imprison him, or starve him to death, such a wretch (Sandhuah) must have his property confiscated, and be put to death
by the Poryas (public executioners); if the wretch be a Brahman, his forelock must be shaved off; his thread broken; he must have a stripe of the hair on all four sides of his head shaved off; must be crammed with all forbidden food, and, in a word, utterly defiled and degraded; paraded thus through the whole city; his infamy proclaimed; and finally he must be driven out of the country, with confiscation of all his property.

3rd. Matricide.—This is punished like patricide.

4th. Killing a cow.—Punishment the same as for patricide; and if a Brahman, also as provided above.

5th. Killing a Brahman.—Ditto ditto.

6th. Killing a woman.—If any one should kill his wife on suspicion of having defiled his bed, the Maháns, having seized him, bring him before the court and he is beaten till he confesses, when he is obliged to "touch the stone," his property is confiscated, and he is delivered to the Poryas for execution. If he has children, his children's rights or shares are exempted, but all the rest of his property is confiscated.

7th. Procuring abortion.—If any husband depart on a journey, and his wife commit adultery in his absence; or if a widow become incontinent; or if a man inadvertently marry within the prohibited degrees, and, in any of these cases, the woman prove with child, and she and her paramour procure medicine and destroy the fruit of her womb; the woman, if proved guilty, is seized and maltreated till she confesses, and when by her confession the mediciner and the paramour are known, both are severely fined.

8th. Killing a Guru, an elder brother, or a child.—A person committing these crimes is seized and confined, and if on investigation he be proved guilty, he is delivered to the Poryas who conduct him through the city, proclaiming his sin and its penalty, and warning the people; and then, taking him forth from the city, execute him. His wife and children are given in slavery to the stranger, and his property confiscated.

9th. Arson.—Whoso sets fire to another's house is punished with death.

10th. Poisoning.—This crime is also punished with death.
11th. 12th. and 13th.—Theft, robbery, and seduction.—If any one by violence take the property or land or wife of another, such an one is punished with heavy fines.*

14th. Murder.—If any, from avarice, kill a man of wealth (Sahu), he is executed, and his property confiscated, and his wife and children made over in slavery to the stranger.

15th. Sacrilege.—Whoso destroys the religious works of another, as a Dharma-sāla, or well, &c., founded for the good of his soul, such an one is severely punished and fined, according to the damage done: sometimes his whole property is confiscated.

16th. Agamyā-gavan or Incest.†—Whoso has sexual commerce with his Guru's wife or mother, or his father's lesser wife, or his son's wife, his property is confiscated and death is inflicted on him.

Whoso has sexual commerce with his daughter or with his daughter-in-law, he is, first of all, heavily fined or all his property is confiscated: then the male sinner is committed to the Poryas, conducted throughout the city, and expelled with his penis cut off: and the female has her nose and ears and pudendum cut off, and is then expelled the city; or else, she is given to be stuprated by fifty or one hundred or more men and then expelled. Incest with an elder brother's wife in his life-time is punished with very

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* The Hindu prejudice (in this case salutary) disinclines most of my informants to admit the fact that theft is ever punished with death. The ordinary punishment is certainly mutilation, repeated on a repetition of the offence. But it is certain that aggravated cases of theft and robbery (between which there is no technical distinction made) are often punished with death, and this indeed is expressly admitted in the preceding part of this paper. The description of theft in this place is strange enough, as is that of murder in the next paragraph. The just inference from such descriptions of these crimes is, that among these mountaineers, who are for the most part of fierce disposition and habits, the law has been obliged to exempt too many violent takings both of property and life from the ordinary definition and penalty of robbery and murder.—H.

† One branch of this subject is treated at length in a paper published by Mr. Hodgson in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, No. 1, page 45, entitled "On the law and legal practice of Nepal as regards familiar intercourse between a Hindu and an outcast." Sec.
heavy fines; after levying which the younger brother may keep, if he will, the defiled wife whom the elder has put away.

To have commerce after his death, with an elder brother's wife is no crime whatever.* In Agamya-gavan, from the father seven steps, and from the mother five grades, are forbidden. If any marry within them, the man's and the woman's father, and the go-between, all are fined, and the woman must be put away.

If any Newâr wife, in her husband's life and whilst he is within Nêpâl, go astray, she and the adulterer are fined sixty rupees; after which, the woman may go with either her husband, or the adulterer, as she pleases. If she prefers her husband (he willing) then the court shall take pasu pân from him; and if she go with the other, then he shall have a second fine levied on him and take her.

If a Newâr go to Bhote, and his wife remaining at his house or at the house of her father, should elope; or, if her protectors (father, uncle, brother, &c.) should resolve to give her in marriage to another, her husband being (as before) in Bhote, in either case the wife must perform "pâchuki" that is, she must go to the Mât Sabhâ of the city she belongs to (Kathmandû, or Bhatgaon or Patan), and present two supâris and one mohr (six and half annas) to the judge;† when the judge sends the two supâris by the hands of a Mahan to the house of her husband. The Mahan having reached the house says to the relatives of the husband, "this is the supâri of him who is gone to Bhote. His wife is divorced from him, and I therefore return you the instrument of the marriage contract (i. e. the supâri.)" Then

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* This seems an interesting relic of the old customary law of India, requiring or permitting a younger, "to raise up seed" to an elder deceased brother, by marriage of the widow; such a custom still prevails in Orissa.

The custom itself would appear to be a relic of the still older and barbarous usage, which made the wife of one common to all the brothers, an usage which I have heard of doubtfully as prevailing in some parts of India, but which is unquestionably prevalent in Bhote.—H.

† Now, under the Gorkhas, a Newâr wife cannot get free without paying two, four, or six, or more up to twenty rupees, according to her means. —H.
the wife returns all the ornaments, &c. given her by her husband, or if she
 delays in so doing, the Mahan compels restitution of them. The wife is
 then free to do as she wills; but, still she is liable to fine (as all others are),
 if she have had sexual commerce with one of lower caste than herself.

 If any Newâr commits adultery with a Newâr woman, whose husband
 is gone to Bhote, and the woman perform not pâchuki then, supposing the
 caste of the parties to be the same and no relationship within the prohibited
 degrees to exist between them, they shall be fined in double the usual
 amount, or one hundred and twenty* rupees: and then be suffered to go
 free, unless the adulterer be within the prohibited degrees of relationship to
 the adulteress. In that case he is put to death, or his whole property is
 confiscated; or his penis is cut off; and every sort of indignity and hard-
 ship heaped on him; or he is let off with a fine proportioned to his means;
 the punishment being increased or decreased according to the nearness or
 otherwise of the relationship.

 All such an adulterer's relations are obliged to go through the whole
 ceremonies of purification (prayas-chitta), paying all the allotted fees to
 the Dharmâdikâri.

 If the wife or daughter-in-law of a Brahman is defiled by a Kshatriya,
or other of lower degree, such an one (the male) is decapitated, and all his
 property confiscated. The Brahmanâ cannot regain her caste by perform-
ing prayaschitta, but falls into the caste of him who defiled her; and so in
 case of a female of the Kshatriya, Vaisya, or Sudra being defiled by a male
 of lower degree. If a Sudra defile the daughter, &c. of a Vaisya, but his
 caste be such that the Vaisya could take water from his hand, then the
 Sudra is let off with heavy fines; his life and property, for the rest, being
 spared. But if the Sudra be so vile that the Vaisya could not lawfully†

* Here, as on all other occasions, this is the fine awarded to be paid, but only half of
which actually is levied on the party.—H.

† List of the vile classes from whom no one can take water to drink—
Kassai, Kusalliah, Porya, Dhosâ, Kami, Damai, Kulu, Chama-khalak, Phugan, Massal-
man, Sonâr, Sarki, &c.—H.
drink water from his hand, then in such case the Sudra is decapitated and his property confiscated: and in this latter case all the Vaisyas of the city must perform prayaschitta.*

If a Brahman defile a Kshatriya's or a Vaisya's or a pure Súdra's (whose water may be drank) daughter, it is no legal offence. If a Brahman or Kshatriya or Vaisya or pure Súdra violate the daughter of one of the vile classes; then, if a Brahman, his whole property is confiscated and a stripe of hair shaved off all the four sides of his head, and he is expelled the country; and all the four castes must perform prayaschitta. If a Kshatriya or Vaisya or Súdra do so, his life is forfeited as well as his property confiscated. If any one become enamoured of a lovely girl and he give her charms or philters, and medicines whereby he comes to enjoy her; then he shall be made to "touch the stone" and be heavily fined: and the person who sold him the medicine or made the charms for him shall be fined also.

If any one corrupt and seduce the wife of any Parbattiah, (whether of the Brahmanical or other caste) such Parbattiah shall, if the case be clearly so, himself put the adulterer to death, and afterwards cut off the nose and hair of the adulteress, and turn her adrift. The injured husband, if he prove his injury, shall do all this without question, even though the slain adulterer be a Brahman.

But if the woman, when her husband would cut off her nose, can escape and prove her innocence before a court of justice; then the murderer of the pretended adulterer shall be executed, and all his property confiscated. In case the Parbattiah adulteress have sinned with many men, then the Parbattiah husband shall only slay the first adulterer with his wife, and no other.

* When a person is ordered to perform this purification he goes to the Dhármadákári and learns from him what rites are needful to be gone through. The Dhármadákári writes him a prescription for their performance, and takes usually two rupees for it.—H.
If the stroke of the injured husband fail to kill the adulterer, and he turn on the husband and slay him, the adulterer shall escape punishment, and keep the woman to boot. Such is the usage among all the Parbattiahs so long as they marry among the Parbattiahs; but if a Parbattiah marry a Newârni, he shall not have the privileges above described in respect to her. If any Parbattiah (Khâs or Magar) marry the daughter of his maternal uncle, it is well, and even obligatory on the girl’s parents if the man seek it: and the parents must wait his permission to marry her elsewhere. So, also, if the father’s sister’s son seek the mother’s brother’s daughter in marriage, the latter must assent, nor can she marry elsewhere till he has declared his disinclination; if such a person there be in existence. But if any Newâr have any sexual commerce with the daughter of his maternal uncle, it is totally unlawful (by way of marriage or not), and he shall be severely fined.

Assault.—If two persons disagree, fall out, and one strike the other so as to bring blood, and he who has lost blood go to the court and complain, the court in case the charge is proved, shall make the blood-drawer “touch the stone” and fine him five rupees to the Sirkâr.

Fraud.—If any one, having mortgaged his land or property to a creditor, afterwards mortgage it to a second creditor, and the case come before court, the court shall award the land or goods to the first creditor; but if the second creditor agree to pay the debt of the first creditor, the second may keep the pledged land or goods till the pledge is redeemed.

Guti Lands.—If any pledge his Guti* land for money and spend that money, in such case both giver and taker of such pledge shall be fined.

* Guti is land consecrated to the deity, a sort of mortmain remaining in the hand of the mortmainer and his descendants, (ostensibly for the use of such deity, but really for own use; the obligation to the god being liquidated by a petty annual offering to him,) is for security from rapacity of government or the prodigality of heirs. It is deemed more sacred than “birtha,” which is an offering to Brahmans, not to god himself, and is an alienation too. Whereas Guti is only ostensibly an alienation—in fact, an entail of the strictest kind on the descendants of the Gutiyâr. It is neither partible among heirs, nor transferable in any degree.—H.
But if the taker of such pledge upon discovery of its being Guti, give it up, then he shall not be fined.

Forgery.—If any one, claiming under a deceased person, forge a bond of debt due to the deceased, and produce the bond and witnesses in court, demanding payment of debt as the representative of the deceased, and the forgery be proved, the court shall award the forger loss of his right hand and a heavy fine, and make him “touch the stone:” and from the other party they shall take jitar for the Sirkár.

Swindling.—If any one pretending to be the owner of land, pledge it and borrow money on it, and the taker of the pledge discover the fraud and complain in court: in case the matter is proved, the giver of such pledge shall have his hand cut off; the right owner of the land shall have his own; and the acceptor of the pledge be without remedy.

Disputed Bonds.—If the heirs of a dead man produce an obligation for money, all the witnesses to which are dead, and the debtor deny the bond, and no other evidence can be had;—if such a case be brought before the Adálat, the court refers it to a Pancháyat or orders an ordeal, or tenders to the parties the decisive oath. Thus, if they be Shiva-márgy Newárs, it orders either of them to put the Hari Vansa on his head, and take up the money contested at his soul’s peril if it be not his; or if they be Baudhama-márgy, it commands either to take the Pancha Raksha and do likewise. The tax on such issues is ten per cent. from the winner and five per cent. from the loser, or dasond-bisond, see § 13.

Népál Residency, 29th January, 1831.
Alliteration is a subject, which in different eras of the world has engaged the attention and consumed the time of men of the most powerful minds, both in the East and in the West. In the dark ages, when men retired to monasteries, hermitages, deserts and caves, taking with them all the learning of their time, it excites no surprise, that they attempted to relieve the tedium of solitude, and to whet their ingenuity, by compositions which required the most vigorous efforts of intellect. It may be lamented that they were not employed in more profitable pursuits; but it cannot be denied, that they have afforded the strongest proofs of skill and persevering labour. Owing, however, not to any want of capacity, but rather to a deficiency even in the Latin language when compared with the Sanscrit, the recluses of the West were never able to equal the sages of the East. Their alliterations appear to be confined chiefly to letters, and not to extend, as in Sanscrit, to syllables, to words, to pādas, and to whole stanzas. The following may be taken as a specimen of their attainments in this art:

Inter cuncta micas igniti sidera coeli;
Expellit tenebras e toto Phoebus ut orbe;
Sic cæcas removit Jesus sus caliginis umbrae,
Vivicansque simul vero praecordia motu,
Solem justicicæ se se probat esse beatus.
The letters repeated, when read downwards, form the word Jesus three times, i.e. at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end.

Among the writers of this description in Europe, Aldhelm is one of the most celebrated. He lived at the time of the Saxon Heptarchy, and was thirty years governor of the monastery of Malmsbury. He devoted much time to the study of Latin prosody and alliteration; and is said to have produced a piece, which whether read upwards or downwards, forwards or backwards, was the same, like the third example of stanzas in artificial forms occurring in this essay. There is reason however to believe, though many ingenious pieces were produced in Europe, that alliteration was never reduced to a system as in Asia; and that Aldhelm, though one of the first writers of this class there, will not bear a strict comparison with Kālidāsa of this country.

It is generally believed, that the celebrated poet Kālidāsa lived near the commencement of the Christian era. He was one of the nine splendid gems that adorned the court of Vikramāditya, and by the epithet Koliṣṭa, conqueror of millions, which was applied to him, it would seem that he was the chief. He wrote the Nalodāya for the purpose of exhibiting his unbounded skill in alliteration. In four books, containing on the average fifty-four stanzas each, he has given such illustrations of this subject as can never be surpassed.

This work has lately been published in Europe, with a Latin translation by a continental scholar, Ferdinundus Benary; but from the manner in which the text is printed, the grand design of Kālidāsa is completely sacrificed; and from the manner in which the translation is made, his meaning appears to be, in many instances, most obscurely expressed, and sometimes entirely mistaken. No reason can be imagined, why Kālidāsa should again write the history of King Nala and Damayanti, after it had been so elegantly written in flowing verse by Vyāsa Deva, except that he intended in this simple story to shew forth his ingenuity in alliteration; yet as his work has been printed in Europe, no person would suppose that it contained a single instance of such ingenuity. Since then it was the particular design of
this great poet, to illustrate this subject; it will be proper in the first place
to consider the different kinds of alliteration which his work contains.

The Nalódaya is for the most part written in verse measured by time,
but is interspersed with verses measured by the number of syllables. The
verses measured by time belong to the second class, first order, first genus,
and ninth species of Sanscrit poetry. The genus is called चाय्या and
the species शाल्यागौलि. Each line contains thirty-two instants, with the
poetic pause at the end of the third foot or twelfth instant. An instant is
one short syllable; a long syllable is two instants. In scanning this
metre, only trisyllabic feet must be used; with the exception of one disyll-
labic, the spondee; and one quadrisyllabic, the procelesmatic. The sixth
foot of each line, or of the second and fourth páda, must be an amphibrach
or procelesmatic. The alliteration takes place in the first páda immedi-
ately after the first foot; and in the second páda at the close; in the third
páda, in like manner, after the first foot, and in the fourth at the close; or
in other words, the alliteration is found in the beginning of each line after
the first foot and at the end. The first verse will serve as a general
specimen for the whole, as—

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चद्यब सदायाधवत: पापात्या दुरसदायाधवतः।

After text...

O my heart! never depart from Yadvava, the father of Love, who is the fire that burns the
intolerable wood of sin, and who preserves the three worlds from all enemies.

Though the preceding is the regular structure of the verses measured by
time in the Nalódaya, yet there are one or two exceptions in the position of
the letters repeated. In the first book the following exception occurs:—

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नामनलनलमनानानमस्व कृतिविवधान।

After text...

She saw there some men bright as fire, glorious and energetic; and in appearance so like
Nala, that there was no difference between them.
The verses in the *Nalbdaya*, measured by the number of the syllables, and interspersed with the others, are of the first class and of the first order of Sanscrit poetry; and are either of the eighth genus, चन्द्रयुग्म, consisting of eight syllables to the *pada*, and the fifth species, प्रमाणिक; or of the twelfth genus, जगती, consisting of twelve syllables to the *pada*, and of the fifth species, द्राक्षक. In scanning these metres the only feet employed are the *Iambus* and *Anapæst*. In the verses of these metres the alliteration is sometimes the same in all the four *padas*; but most commonly it is different in the third and fourth *padas* to what it is in the first and second. The position of the repeated letters in each *pada* is determined by the choice of the poet. The following examples will illustrate these remarks:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{बंधे संगरनगर संकासारसारास्फळः}; \\
\text{मधु: संगरसारसदस्सरसारसारः.}
\end{align*}
\]

*While he, a sea of excellence, and she, of a loving mind, were in their glory, the warbling flowery spring returned.*

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{चरम्पचाल नगानवतानवता}; \\
\text{नवनवनाललतरा मदुना.}
\end{align*}
\]

*This river side is very beautiful, free from cranes, and adorned with flowers which have been tasted by the bees. What coyness is this of yours? said one who with gentle force and flattery led away his beloved.*

In these metres Kālidāsa often confines the alliteration to two of the *padas*, in which case, instead of repeating the letters twice, he repeats them four times. In all these instances the letters repeated form complete *padas*:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{षिका षिका षिका षिका}; \\
\text{वियोगिनीरभवन्त।}
\end{align*}
\]

*Twas as if some angry cuckoo was chiding the absent fair ones, and addressing them in broken accents.*

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{वर्याविरामका पाया नया नया नया नया}; \\
\text{नया नया नया नया.}
\end{align*}
\]
ON SANSKRIT ALLITERATION.

Did not the lover, gazing on the vernal sky, which, from the number of sportive busy bees, appeared covered with wandering clouds, meet with the object of his heart's desire?

Those wishing to see other examples of the kinds of alliteration that have been here introduced, have only to refer to the Nalbdaya, where they will find them in abundance. The work, however, being confined entirely to the kinds that have been mentioned, does not supply a full exposition of the subject under consideration. It furnishes numerous examples of the first three orders of this species of poetry, and particularly of the third; but not extending beyond these, it leaves untouched seven other orders which are necessary to complete the system. And even in the first three orders, it does not give examples of all the genera, and much less of all the species which they contain.

The subject of alliteration, therefore, deserves in this place a more minute consideration. It forms a distinct, and what may be denominated a third class of Sanscrit poetry, and may be used, as we have seen, in metres of any description, both of the first and second class.* The name by which it is known is बमक यमाकु. In compositions of this nature, it is an invariable rule, that while the syllables to be repeated are left to the pleasure of the poet, in every repetition they must be employed in a different acceptation; and if this rule is ever violated, it is at the expense of his ingenuity.

In this class of poetry there are ten orders, and in some of them several genera, species, and varieties, which we shall now proceed to specify.

1.—The first order is called प्रत्ययम. In this the letters repeated occur together without any others intervening. It has four genera, determined by the number of पादस in which the alliteration occurs. We shall give one specimen of each genus. Every stanza or verse is divided into four parts,

* For a description of these classes, see the Prosody of the author's Grammar.
called पादः: pádas; if the alliteration occurs only in one of these, it is of the first genus; if in two, of the second; if in three, of the third; and if in four, of the fourth.

In the first genus there are several species, which arise from the position which the reiterated letters occupy in either of the four pádas. They may be placed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the páda as well as in the first, second, third, or fourth páda at pleasure; but to belong to this genus must occur in only one páda: as,

राजन्यः प्रजा जाना भवन्तः प्राण मन्यति ।
चतुर्स्तिरस्तिरस्तिः प्रजा कर्यं ॥

The people are happy in having you for their king: you who are distinguished in receiving taxes to the extent of the four seas.

In the second genus there are six species, arising from the repetition of the letters together in two of the pádas; as in the first and second; the first and third; the first and fourth; the second and third; the second and fourth; or the third and fourth:

राजनिवारीविनिविन्न चान्ति तद्भवं नपे ॥
भीतं च पुनःसृष्टि वसुधा वसुधारथा ॥

*May these glorious kings conquer in the dreadful battle—by whom the earth is filled with wealth.*

In the third genus there are four species, arising from the repetition of the letters together in three of the pádas; as in the first, second, and third; the first, second, and fourth; the first, third, and fourth; or the second, third, and fourth: as,

जायता लम्पूङ्खिनास्मानकर्ष नकर्ष जिने।
कमलं कमलं कुर्यादित्स्मद दृष्टिमन्निधये ॥

*O beloved, we are conquered by your beautiful countenance; and why should not the lotus which adorns the water, surrounded with bees and full of petals, prevail, though it does not speak?*
ON SANSKRIT ALLITERATION.

In the fourth genus there is only one species, which arises from the repetition of the letters together in each of the pádas: as,

शरणं शरणं परिमुच्छतनु पततं पततं कहुभो वजः॥
सकले: सकले: प्ररितं करणे श्विनेष्टिति रिव खं भिचितं॥

The whole heaven resounded with the many deep pitiable and wailing sounds of the birds, quitting the surface of the lakes and flying in all directions.

The last three genera may have several species, arising from the position which the repeated letters occupy in the páda, as stated in the first genus. They may be placed at the beginning, middle, or end of each páda, at the pleasure of the poet.

2.—The second order is called अयित. It differs from the former in the repetition of the letters with something intervening. It has four genera, which are distinguished by the repetition of the same letters, apart from each other, in one, two, three, or four pádas.

The repetition of letters apart in only one páda displays no skill in alliteration: it may happen by chance; it is therefore unnecessary to give an example of this genus.

In the second genus there are six species, arising from the position which the repeated letters occupy, as in the first and second pádas; the first and third; the first and fourth; or the second and third; the second and fourth; or the third and fourth: as

अहस्ति ब्रजी लयं च नक्षिकान्तखोलिसिं।
नृवीर्यवृत्तमाचर्चन्द्रकान्ति: हिर्यमाल:॥

The peacock, having a beautiful shining tail, has ascended the crystal mount of pleasure, and is dancing.

In the third genus there are four species, determined by the position which the repeated letters occupy in the first, second and third; the first, second and fourth; the first, third and fourth; or the second, third and fourth pádas: as
The enemy's elephants, killed by our destroying power, appeared by their flowing blood like a dark cloud reddened by the setting sun.

In the fourth genus there is only one species—though there may be several varieties, from the position of the repeated letters in different parts of the pádas:

कमलंकृतः करोर्षिमि कमलंचाकरमुखः।
कमलंखा करोरिषिमि कमलंवाघ्रिषिमि।।

Your head of hair is like the bees (for blackness,) your face superior to the lotus; and you among your lovers, like Lakshmi, enrich (your favourite.)

In this order the repeated letters may be placed at the beginning, middle or end; in the beginning and middle; the beginning and end; the middle and end; or in all the three parts: as

चन्द्रिन्तेचन्द्रिन्तेमन्दिरबिलमितेचन्द्रिन्तेः सर्रसाधिन्ते।
चन्द्रसताः चन्द्रसताः सतसबादाः पुर्णितेविनितेनसमोहितं।।

Joyful laughter was destroyed; the pleasures of love were diminished; the disconsolate women were no longer cheerful; and the welfare of the city was neglected.

Besides the above, there are several other varieties in this order, arising from the use of two sets of repeated letters or words; in which case the first páda agrees with the second, and the third with the fourth; or the first with the third, and the second with the fourth; or the first with the fourth, and the second with the third; as

वदनीरस्वप्नाभास्तनैः इत्तमनः।
वदनीरिष्णृते हृदयः मास्तेरिष्णृणिः।।

By the cries of the cuckoo; by the sound of your voice, my friend; and by the blowing of the south winds, my heart is ravished.

* This is called चक्रवर्त्ति.
If in this order, the alliteration occurs at the beginning of each páda, it is called वृन्द; if at the end पुष्य.

3.—The third order is called चम्पेततयम, and is a union or mixture of the two preceding orders, having the same letters repeated both together and apart. The alliteration may consist of different letters, as in the first order; or of the same letters, as in the second: and thus two genera are produced.

In the first genus, which consists of different letters repeated both together and apart, there are three species, as when the first páda agrees with the second, and the third with the fourth; or the first with the third, and the second with the fourth; or the first with the fourth, and the second with the third: as

कालस्वर्यास्ति नातरकमीनिमुनी।

तारतारमर्षिणि कालस्वर्यास्ति।

What woman can bear to see the rainy season, when the stars are hid by clouds, when the loud thunder resounds, and the clouds are black as death?

In the second genus there are two species, as when the same letters are repeated both together and apart, in two or in four pádas: as

यामयामत्रान्नाधिकनामयामस्थर्णं निन्दा।

यामयामभिषस्य खर्च यामयामभिष्टीवय।

We shall die by the night lengthened into nine hours, which though I have passed, still it is not gone.

4.—The fourth order is called ढंड or काश्ची. In this the last letters of one páda correspond with the beginning of the next: as

पित्रितात्रितामुदिष्कुटां कुटां स्त्रामपरिविकंश्वत।

दक्षतात्जज्ञलवक्ष्य चरितं चरितं महारितंसह।

The bewilderment of the Rākshases wandering in all directions was manifest, and by their great leader, when routed, many unworthy deeds were done.
5. — The fifth order is called दमुद्र. In this order a comparison is instituted between the whole पादस.

There are four genera. The first has six species; as when the first and second; or first and third; or first and fourth; or second and third; or second and fourth; or third and fourth, * पादस are alike, but not the remaining ones.

The second has three; as when the first is the same as the second, and the third as the fourth; or when the first is the same as the third, and the second as the fourth; or when the first is the same as the fourth, and the second as the third. The third has three; as when the first, second and third; or the first, third and fourth; or the second, third and fourth are alike. † The fourth has one, as when all the पादस are the same: as

**भवानरे: परिक्षान्ति समस्ततेन सविधिः।**

**भवानरे: परिक्षान्ति दासान्तरायणिः।**

He burnt the city which was not accessible to the great and powerful monkeys, and which could not be reduced by men.

**समस्तवर्णालोकी दासवर्णालोकते।**

**समस्तवर्णालोकी दासवर्णालोकते।**

Lanka (Ceylon) devoted to Siva, and having in it beautiful fine houses; possessing absolute authority, and being inhabited by the destroyers of the sages, was burnt.

**वेसामलानविभिन्नत: समुद्रुः वेसामलानविभिन्त: दमुद्रः।**

**वेसामलानविभिन्नत: समुद्रुः वेसामलानविभिन्त: दमुद्रः।**

Hanumán with the signet shone distinguished;

Indra with his mistress, having been before defeated, was pleased;

Old Ocean with his inferior deities being surpassed, was angry;

And the joy-inspiring wind being changed, blew.

---

* The second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth of these species are called respectively, चौकम्पाद, विपच, गर्भ, युक्तपाद, मियाण.

† The third is not reckoned a distinct genus by native writers, but is classed with the first, and considered only as an extension of it. The three genera of which examples are given are denominated, पादास्पाद, चौकम्पाद, and सम्बास्पाद; or सम्बास्पाद.
6.—The sixth order is called अङ्कल. It has a certain number of syllables reiterated alternately through the whole stanza. The distinctions in it arise from the number of the syllables that are repeated. The following is a specimen of the trisyllabic kind: as

नागाणांला दधानाद्विता विगंविगात्व सिम्बिकालित
समनामसिदा महतामन्ना वरण्यासरण सम्यातमम्यान

The fine mountain elephants were not spared;
An entire stop was put to the motion of the birds;
All enjoyment was perfectly destroyed;
The disconsolate women were deeply afflicted;
And then the brave perished, but not in battle.

7.—The seventh order is called प्रतिकांस. It has a given number of syllables, reading the same backwards and forwards.

Four kinds of it are enumerated. First, when one half páda reads backwards, the same as the next does forwards. Secondly, when one páda reads the same backwards as the next does forwards. Thirdly, when two pádas or one line reads backwards the same as the next does forwards. Fourthly, when one slóka or stanza reads backwards the same as the next does forwards: as

नाराजाय वणानात साजनैष घनैजामा
That great army by its valour triumphed in many a battle.

वरणायागधरास्य सहरभीरगणारव
कारितारिखागधिनास नाम्म्यावरितारिका
That fine army, defended by huge elephants, resounding with the shouts of the fearless, intent upon fighting and destroying the enemy, is irresistible.

नाराजामदि धीराणामकचकामिना
नामिकानचकामेन खाधोनामदलादिना
The woman whose mind is not enchanted by the peacock's voice: who is bold and unsubdued by all-subduing love, is not the woman for me.

* This is also called संस्कृतताम्र by some, and placed under the head of दुंकर.
O immortals: the well armed, bold, glorious and warlike enemy does not tremble at our prowess. What fine, well mailed, broad chested, bold man, is acting the hero, unmoved in the loud resounding battle?

The following, written over the holy water in one of the churches in Paris, is a specimen of the kind in Greek; with this difference, that the whole reads the same backwards and forwards, and has the same meaning both ways—\( ν ψ ο ν \) ανομικος \( μ λ \) μονε \( ο ψ ο ν \)—(wash your sins and not merely your face.)

The following is a specimen of the same kind in Latin.

\[ \text{Roma tibi subito, motibus ibit amor.} \]
\[ \text{Sole medena pede, ede, perede melos.} \]

There are instances of a like nature in Sanscrit. The following stanza reads the same backwards and forwards, and has the same meaning both ways.

\[ \text{स ारमार्गराराजान्यभाषामनाशिया | बालिनाममागभाषीनहारायरावनमार्या} \]

Is not this a beautiful woman, whose gait is like that of a large elephant? She is adorned with her necklace, is gone into the grove, and let her lover follow.

8.—The eighth order is महाबनक. In this every \( p \alpha \delta \alpha \) must be the same, and also every part of every \( p \alpha \delta \alpha \); so that the same letters must be reiterated as many times as the nature of the verse requires, to fill up the whole stanza. There may of course be many kinds of this, arising from the number of syllables fixed upon for repetition, and the metre employed.

As the words or syllables repeated must occur in a different sense every time they are repeated, it is difficult to find such as can be reiterated through a whole stanza, and yet make good sense. The following is given as a specimen of this kind of composition, for the explanation of which I am

*This term is applied by some writers to the next order.
indebted to Mr. Wilson. Though a misapplication of ingenuity, it serves
the purpose for which it is here adduced, of explaining the nature of this
description of alliteration.

O thou! who participatest in my feelings, effect the union of me, with this maiden, alike
unparalleled by any; in whom loveliness and accomplishments are combined; but who is filled
with haughtiness, and is indifferent to my sufferings.

Analysis;—मानव अ fellow sufferer, from मान and याय; मा me,
मानव with this (maid); मानवाते मानव अ unparalleled in beauty and accom-
plishments, from मा, मा, नय, and ग्रहमा; मानव bring to or with, unite, स,
आ, and जो to lead; मानवाते मानव अ indifferent to my sufferings, चमान,
याय and मान; मान अ haughty, व and मान.

9.—The ninth order is मानवाभास. This requires one whole stanza to
be the same as the next in sound, but different in sense. Strictly speaking,
there can be only one kind of this; the only distinction that can be
made is that arising from the varied length of the stanza. The following
are specimens of this description: as,

अभियातावर्तुः न्तु भुक्तिक्षरपरः इ
कर्क्षणप्रतिधामसक्तिपुस्तक्षरम् इ
अभियातावर्तुः न्तु भुक्तिक्षरपरः इ
कर्क्षणप्रतिधामसक्तिपुस्तक्षरम् इ

He will go to the good, great, handsome, rough chested, renowned, virtuous, excellent, blue-
eyed king, (Rāma.)

And in passing to the principal, lofty, enchanting, hard, inhabited mountain opposite, his
splendour will be visible; for a season, in the sky.

10.—The tenth order is called मानवाभास. This is only partial
alliteration; it has sometimes only the appearance of it, arising from some

* याय same as यायाय इ
similarity in the sound of certain letters; at others there is an alliteration, but it is irregular, and can be reduced to no definite rules: as

\[ \text{विटिबिटिनिर्दितिबिनि} \text{विनिर्दित} \text{श्रेणरतःपरष्ठध}.
\]

\[ \text{उदरहःधुरेसुदेशवर्धिः कुरवःखामिर्कुलं} \]

The noble Kurus, devoted to the conquering and preserving of the land, firmly opposed their enemies, and made them tremble in the battle.

Besides the preceding there is another kind of alliteration called वृक्षर, by means of which the whole stanza may be thrown into some artificial form. The particular form into which the verse is thrown, gives to it both its character and name, as may be perceived by the instances which follow.

1.—The गामुनिकाः has the syllables of the stanza so arranged as to read the same either straight forward, or cross-ways, following the order of the lines drawn from the first syllables. These lines are supposed to present a figure something like a stream of urine passing from a cow, and hence the name by which this kind of alliteration is denominated; as

\[ \text{म च भे क म डा नं सा ध नं य विय पा दिभः}.
\]

\[ \text{व च ये वि क म डा नं यु द्रा सा य वि य घ णि भः}.
\]

When the contest commenced with loud vociferations, the juice flowed copiously from the infuriated elephants engaged in the battle.

2.—The चर्चान्तिमक after the stanza is regularly arranged according to its four पदाः, or component parts, has the syllables so disposed that the whole of the first half reads the same straightforward or downwards; and the whole of the second half reads the same beginning with the first syllables forwards and the last syllables upwards; as

\[ \text{श भे क म तिके नेबे भी ता न न्द्र ख गा म ने}.
\]

\[ \text{क न ख का म भे ना के म न्द्र का म क म ख ति} \]
The stanza arranged in its common form reads thus—

\begin{verbatim}
श्रम्भीकर्तिकाम् भो भोताखण्डक्षणां।
कालस्खकारपाणके मन्यत्कामकुम्भित।
\end{verbatim}

The field of battle is enlightened by the fearless; but destructive to the pleasures of the fearful: on it the brave shout for victory, and the base are put to flight.

3.—The सर्वत्राभ त भाषा has each पदा the same, whether read forward or backward, or from the centre to each extremity; while all the पदास together read the same either downwards or upwards, whether we commence at the centre or at each extremity: as

\begin{verbatim}
दे वा का नि लि दे वा लि का स ख का दे लि
का का रे भ रे का का रे भ य च ख नि
\end{verbatim}

The verse in its usual form stands thus—

\begin{verbatim}
देवाकालिनिन काश अधिकास्थाय बायकानिन।
कालिस्त भ रे का का नि ख ब्य ब्य ख नि।
\end{verbatim}

O dastards; (see where) the rutting elephants are contending, exciting the gods to war, carrying the proud foes to warlike deeds, and shining (under the conduct of those who) save the conquering and the conquered.*

4.—The सुरजयस्य has the syllables so arranged, that when the stanza is divided into its four component parts, each part reads the same straight forwards, or crossways, like the braces of a drum; whence its name.

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* Literally the poor and the prosperous.

20
The verse in its regular form stands thus:

साश्चाणमनाराण्य, रहिनाथीदनारता।
तारनाद्यनाम्नध धौराणमनासय।

The army at the commencement of the expedition was full of spirits; and with its infuriated elephants, vociferous and well conditioned.

5. The चक्रवज्र admits of the letters being arranged in the form of a wheel or discus, from which it takes its name. The letter that is repeated forms the axle from which the reading commences; reading first to the right, then downwards, again to the left and then upwards; afterwards from the top round the periphery. The first line of the verse forms the radii; and the second line, together with the letters at the end of each of the radii, forms the circumference; as—

The verse in its regular form reads thus—

करुकुक्कुकुङकलिंकलहकरहिष्ठत।
वर्तकुक्कुकुङकलिंकलमधामत।

(A pond) adorned with deer, geese, quails and teals, and having its winds impregnated with the moist odours of the tender lotuses.

The महाकङ or कुशाकङ, the great or Potter's wheel, differs from the preceding in being read from the axle along the radius upwards, then along the periphery to the left, and down the next radius to the axle. Then
commencing from the axle again it proceeds in like manner through the other three parts of the wheel—as will appear from the following example:

राधाकृष्णदिवसि श्रीरामचरितमाला विद्वानोदयः।
राधाकृष्णदिवसि श्रीरामचरितमाला रामदीपः परमदुर्गीतिसुधाः॥

Radha hearing the words of her companions, and going joyfully according to appointment at the time of the festival, was dishonoured: and being truly devoted to her lord, was suffused with tears of grief that she was not rather killed.

6.—The पद्मम् is so composed that the stanza may be arranged in the form of a lotus, from which its name is derived. There are various kinds of it according to the number of petals assigned to the lotus. In this the syllable that is repeated forms the seed vessel, from which the reading commences towards the side E. and passing from thence (except at the cardinal points) to the next petal towards N. &c. In the petals to the cardinal points, the letters are read twice, once forwards and one backwards; as
If the size of the lotus is enlarged by the admission of two stanzas into its composition, the construction is more simple, as in the following example, which is read right across according to the figures one, two, three, four. This was given me by a pundit applying for a situation as a teacher; and the syllables beginning at one and going round to eight, form the motto चामाके मने वरिष्ठ which in Bengáli means, *Forget me not.*

The following is the regular form of the stanzas and their rendering—

चांसा सङ्गीत्व्र कर्मया: चुललाल्लष्ण कर्णानि।

मायारे मतवाणिला न रजत् न संस्करं सुभक।

कैपालिकारिण्य वदमा नरसहा रक्षा प्राप्तिः।

ममालीण्य विपुरान्ते चरणमयां द्वीप्य कवि।

*I, having heard of your great fame*

*By the hearing of the ear, have come (to see you);*

*I do not request of you either elephants or horses;*

*Neither, O Preserver! do I desire silver or gold;*

*I do not seek the infelicity of others;*

*But, Sir, your lasting prosperity.*

*You will understand, O Poet! the sum of all my desires,*

*By reading the first and last syllables of these stanzas.*
Compare with the preceding figure the stanza, which in its regular form reads thus—

माथे प्रतिमारार रथाभावतचतवाला।
मालिन्यात्मा गुप्ताभावादित्वाभावानसेतमाला।

O excellent for wisdom, your assembly shines distinguished for taste, full of splendour, high in spirit, expert at repartee, and divinely resplendent.

7. —The ख्रिबिष्ठ admits the stanzas to be thrown into the form of a sword, whence the name. The first stanza forms the blade, and the second the remaining part of the sword. Read first round the blade, and then the right, left, and central parts of the hilt.

The following is the regular form of these words with their rendering:—

मारारिग्रिवरसम् मुखरात्वरर्षय।
शारारस्ववान्त तदर्शिरषण्य।
मातामानाटांगठ्ठं जियाग्वाधितस्त्रेम।
मातामाहीसारामाण्यं श्यं दिस्यात्मारिः।

May the great Umā, who is continually praised in powerful strains by Śiva, Indra, Rāma, and Ganesha; who is able to take away their pain; who is the mother of the devout, the
concentration of excellencies, the remover of fear, the venerable goddess, the glory of women, command my prosperity.

8.—The घनुर्वंच presents the stanza in the form of a bow. The reading commences from the centre letter of the bowstring within the arrow, first to the right hand and then from the same letter to the left. After, from the centre letter of the bow, first to the right hand and then to the left; as will be seen by comparing the verse which follows with the artificial form:

May the excellent goddess Tárú, the constant giver of good and the remover of all hindrance, though tremendous and unattainable by your works, promote your welfare.

9.—The कण्ज्वथ is made in imitation of a necklace or rosary. The reading commences from the foremost bead, pearl, or jewel, and passing from that to the upper line goes round the string according to the figures. The letters in the first gem and all in the upper line, are read from the left to the centre, then upwards, downwards, back again to the centre and to the right, every syllable being repeated with the centre one. All in the second line from 7 to 12 are read from the right hand to the centre, then
downwards, upwards, back again to the centre and to the left, as will appear from comparing with the artificial form the stanza that follows:

तावहि वस्ववनि सकल्जनासिना रामानायाचिना
स्मात्यातास्तात भं सुरहरुचरण आविष्णु विद्वं विन्दी।
नैवस्मृतिग्राहार्याय हिमवंसगमनं पापहर्ष्यक्षं
आश्च आश्चारिकाराविव भवववं याति नातिप्रतिष्ठेत॥

Know, O wise man, that those who come to the brink of the river of the gods, and repeating the name of Ráma depart to immortality, are absorbed in Vishnu; they, like cold in winter, do not return to this sinful world; their hope, like the horizon bright with the setting sun, obtains liberation from the world, and is no more disappointed.

10.—The वृचवन is of a more extensive form, and I am indebted to the Calcutta Christian Observer, August, 1835, for a specimen of it: it was composed by a pandit at Nadiya, and addressed to a Missionary. It is not quoted for the sense it contains, but as furnishing an example of a number of stanzas arranged in the form of a tree. The stem of the tree beginning from the top व, and going to the bottom च, forms the first stanza. By taking the left hand side, and joining all the letters with the stem, other stanzas are produced, as चर्मेश्वर, and so forth to the bottom of the stem.
THE REV. W. YATES' ESSAY

Then झटमेचर, &c. &c. Afterwards by taking the right hand, and joining all those letters with the stem, other verses are produced, as चरमेचर and चघमेचर, &c. &c. In this manner thirty-four stanzas are contained in the small compass of this tree. The accompanying is the figure of the tree, copied from the original Sanscrit manuscript as nearly as it can be imitated in type.

This has been literally rendered, and, as far as possible imitated in form, in the subjoined English version:
ON SANSKRIT ALLITERATION.

To the ultimate Being To the ultimate the To
To the Lord of the lowliest's To all-wise conscious the To
To the universal Ruler's serv- To service just good Bestower's the To
ice ev. er
To the enjoyment of agreeable food ever To the ear-destiny proper your weigh to
To the worship of the Supreme Deity ear. ear-
To reposing on beautiful couches, laudable ly
To wandering in places of retirement
Full of merit, peaceful, grave, to good deeds in-
Clad in neat garments, with mind to wisdom devout ed
Protector of the poor, prosperous, meditating the Shasters in-
Faring abundantly, right-spoken, and ever pure in
Removing the griefs of the poor, with mind fixed on God
Delighting to aid others, slow to unbecoming behaviour, ex-
Devoted to virtue, following the instructions of the Shasters, excel-

To God's holy Being's ultimate the To
To Being's all-wise conscious the To
To Deity's preserving all the To
To service just good Bestower's the To
To Deity redeeming great the To
To most Inestimable the of worship the To
To ear-limly just-enjoyment every of sweetness the taste To

In addition to the different kinds of Alliteration which have been specified there is one other worthy of notice: it is that of forming stanzas with any given number of consonants. Verses are formed, from which half the letters of the alphabet are excluded, and others in which only one-fourth part of the consonants occurs. These are again reduced to three, two, and even one consonant. It might appear altogether impossible to compose an entire and intelligible verse by the aid of a single consonant; yet in Sanscrit this has been achieved. In the following stanza no consonant is used save र d, and it occurs no less than six and thirty times.

\[
\text{दासदे दुहुधारी दासदे दुहुधारी} \\
\text{दुहारां दरमे दुहे दरमददरे} \\
\]

(Krishna) the benevolent, the troubler of the injurious, the purifier, whose arm is destructive to the impious; who gives both to the liberal and the wiser, and is the destroyer of destroyers, discharged a weapon at the enemy.

2 9
In reference to the artificial specimens it may be observed, that since every form which pleases the imagination of the Poet may be selected as a kind of mould into which the verse may be cast or shaped, it is manifest that many other forms, beside those given, might be produced. Among these are commonly enumerated the flag, the dove-cot, the boat, the serpent, the earth, the door, the curls, the pond, the chain, the chariot, the sun or moon, and constellations, &c. Of all these I have not been able to obtain good specimens, and as most of them are of modern invention, and may be formed and increased at the pleasure of the Pandits, I have not deemed it of much importance to seek after them. The examples that have been supplied will be sufficient to explain the nature of this kind of poetry; and taken in connection with the other ten orders, to shew that alliteration in Sanscrit, is a subject of no inconsiderable extent. I have not yet seen any thing in print on this curious topic; it would be vanity therefore to suppose that I have exhausted it in this short attempt. Should what has here been advanced lead some scholar, better capable of fulfilling the task, to discuss it at a greater length, I shall consider that I have done more service to the cause of literature, and the objects of the Asiatic Society by prompting that individual to write, than by any thing I have written. The little information I have collected, has been gleaned with some trouble from different native works, there not being to my knowledge even among them a complete treatise on the subject.

I cannot conclude without observing, that the very ingenious specimens of alliteration which have been brought forward, must convince every unprejudiced mind that the natives of this country are by no means deficient in intellect. No nation has ever penetrated to a greater extent the
arcana of literature than the Hindus; and no other nation has ever yet presented an equal variety of poetic compositions. The various metres of Greece and Rome have filled Europe with astonishment; but what are these compared with the extensive range of Sanscrit metres under its three classes of poetical writing? Whilst we thus place the Eastern sages far above all the Western bards for their skill in poetry, it must at the same time be regretted, that their attention to those parts of learning which required great ingenuity, diverted their minds from that correct and dignified style of prose composition in which the Greek and Latin writers so much excel them, and which to a nation is of far greater importance than all the embellishments of poetry.

The past ought to yield a lesson for the future. From the past the Hindus may learn that they have no reason to be discouraged in any literary undertaking, from the apprehension that they shall fail through the want of talent: only let them cultivate their minds to the extent of which they are capable, and they have nothing to fear from competition with any nation upon the earth. But for the future let them learn how much more it will be to their interest, both as individuals and as a people, to employ their talents in the noble pursuit of science, rather than in the abstruse, though ingenious parts of literature. Past experience has shewn, in the character of the English, that science can do more for a nation than literature; and that both of them combined can work wonders. There was a time, as in the days of Aldhelm, when the English, like the Hindus, were more devoted to the recondite parts of school learning, than to the acquisition of sound scientific knowledge; and had they continued so, they had never been what they are at the present period. Those dark ages have
rolled away, and the light of science and literature are now shining forth in their strength. That light has dawned on this land; the Hindu youth are opening their eyes to behold its glories, and are commencing a career which will conduct them to honor and prosperity. Let them pursue their noble course with ardour and perseverance; and may the time come, when they shall as much excel Europeans for their improvements in science, as their forefathers excelled them in the dark and deep parts of literature.
V.

TRANSLATION

OF AN

INSCRIPTION IN THE BURMESE LANGUAGE,

DISCOVERED

AT BUDDHA GAYA, IN 1833.

BY LIEUTENANT-COLONEL H. BURNEY,

British Resident in Ava.

The accompanying paper, (Plate I*) is a fac-simile of an ancient Burmese inscription, which was discovered at Buddha Gaya by my brother, Captain George Burney, of the 38th Bengal Native Infantry, when he accompanied to that place in January 1833 the two Burmese Envoys who were lately residing in Bengal, on the part of the king of Ava. The black marble containing the inscription is fixed against the wall of the inner

* The original fac-simile having by some accident been lost, Mr. V. Hathorne, Judge of Gaya, was kind enough to have three more impressions taken with great care from the stone, which he states to be fixed into the wall in an inverted position. From these the present lithograph has been executed, marking the exterior margin of the letters as they now exist. This has been done with the greater care because a doubt exists as to the date on the stone; the short account given by myself in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, May 1834, from Ratna Paula's reading, (without any knowledge of Colonel Burney's having taking up the examination of it) making it 200 years more recent than appears in the present translation.—J. P. Sec.
court of the convent of Sanyásís, mentioned in the 2d edition of Hamilton’s East India Gazetteer, under the article Buddha Gaya. That building is called on the spot Guru Māth, and Captain Burney was informed, that this inscription was discovered near the large Buddhist temple about forty years ago, whilst some labourers were excavating the earth for bricks with which to construct the convent, in the upper part of which lives the chief Sanyási or Mahant who now has charge of all the religious edifices and monumental relics of Gaudama to be seen at Buddha Gaya, and who receives presents and almost royal attentions from all Buddhist pilgrims.

The character in this inscription is styled by the Burmese, Kyounk-tsa,* or stone letter, and it bears something of the same resemblance to the Burmese character in common use, as our own print does to our hand writing. The letters are square, whilst those of the common alphabet are round, and most of the inscriptions among the ruins of the thousands of temples in the old Burmese capital Pagín, as well as a remarkable inscription 183 years old, to be seen near the great pagoda of Kyoung M,hoodau-gyee opposite the city of Ava, which were supposed by former English travellers to be in the Pali character and language, are now known to be in the common Burmese language, but in this square alphabet. The following is a specimen of the difference between the two characters:—

\[\text{.ta-youk}, \text{a man, in the common Burmese writing, is } [\text{ta-youk}] \]

in the square character. It does not appear, that this kind of writing was ever in general use in Burmah, but there is one work now always written in a square character, slightly differing from that in this inscription. It is the Kammua-tsa (\(^1\)), or rules for inducting a Burmese into the order of priest-

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* The letter here expressed by ts should, on analogy with the Devanāgari, be written čh. In the same way the th should be s; the z should be j; the y frequently r; and the d, t. The author prefers the English rendering which gives the pronunciation nearest to the original, and his orthography has accordingly been preserved throughout the present paper. Sec.

\(^{1}\) The 4th line of the inscription contains this word.

\(^{1}\) Sanscrit. Karmma-vâchya.
hood, translations from which are given in the Appendix No. 5, to Symes's embassy to Ava, and in Dr. (Buchanan) Hamilton's essay on the literature and religion of the Burmans, published in the 6th volume of the Asiatic Researches. The writing exhibited in Symes's plate of the Burman alphabet as the Pâli or religious text of the Burmans, is in the same square character; indeed, it is a sentence copied from the Kammua-tsa, which is usually written on plates of ivory or other substance with the Burmese varnish boiled, the plates being often gilded.* The learned imagine that the square form of the letters rendering this character more easy to be cut, it was invented for lapidary inscriptions; or perhaps its closer resemblance to the ancient Pâli alphabet may have led to its adoption. The Burmese possess eight or ten different kinds of Kyounk-tsa, but most of them differ from the character in this inscription chiefly in ornamental additions.

As I possess and have read through a complete copy of the Burmese History in 39 volumes,† I have been enabled, with the assistance of some

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* Symes has not copied the sentence quite correctly, and has omitted the first syllable of the first word. In the accompanying paper B. (Plate II.) the sentence may be seen written in both the square and the common Burmese characters. The Kammua-tsa is composed entirely in the Pâli language, and held in great reverence, being used to administer an oath upon to a priest, and sometimes on solemn occasions to laymen. Those vowel marks which are placed above consonants in the common character, are often placed, slightly altered, on the same line with the consonants in the Kammua-tsa character, apparently because the lines in that kind of writing have very little space between them. This Kammua-tsa character is called "Mag-yeze-ye."; Tamarind seed writing, because the letters are supposed to resemble that seed.

† The Burmese possess several histories of their own kings, as well as of the kings of Prome, Pagan, Pegu, Zemay, Toung-ngoo and Ta-t-houng, relating fairly enough their disasters as well as successes, and bearing strong internal marks of authenticity, often supported by ancient stone inscriptions. About four years ago the present king of Ava appointed some of his most learned priests and officers to compile a new edition of the large Burmese History, called Maha Yazawen-bau-gye (†). I possess a copy of this work in 39 volumes. It commences with the creation of the world, according to the Buddhist system of cosmogeny, and after giving

† Perhaps a corruption of Magadhî, from the country where the writing was current. Sec.

(†) Mahâ Râja Wendegri.
learned Burmese at Rangoon, to give my brother the following translation with explanatory notes of this inscription. The letters do not appear originally to have been neatly or quite correctly cut, and some of them, as well as two of the numeral figures, are not formed according to any of the Kyook-tnsa known at Rangoon. Still as no word contains so many of these unknown letters as to render it impossible to be made out, the learned at Rangoon have had no difficulty in deciphering the whole inscription. The paper marked B. (Plate II.) contains a copy of it in the stone character, with all the letters made perfect and complete, as well as a copy in the common Burmese writing, and the following translation is as literal as the idioms of the two languages will admit. Not a single word of the Burmese is omitted, but it will be seen that several words in English have been added in order to preserve a grammatical construction. All such additional words are included within brackets:

"(The temple of) Payatha-bhat, (‡) place of (Gaudama’s) eating charitable offerings, (which was one) among the 84,000 temples of the great king named Theeri Dhamma Thauka, (†) who ruled over Zaboodipa (‡) island, subsequently to (the year) 218 (‡) of the Lord God’s religion, having

some account of the kings of Magadha and Central India, and of the life of Gaudama, relates a history of the kings of Tagoung, Prome, Pagan, Pegu and Ava, coming down to the year 1621. The ground work of this compilation is taken from other histories written at various times, and principally from two works, copies of which I also possess. One is a very popular history in 20 volumes, comprising a period from the creation of the world down to the Burmese year 1073, (A. D. 1721) written by a private individual named Mouna Kula, who is said to have died about the time that the Peguers took Ava in 1751. The other is a continuation of this history, compiled by an officer named Pana Mengyee or Mouta Mengyee, and comprises a period from 1711 to 1819, to the death of the late king, in 13 volumes. What Mr. Crawford reported as to the account of the late war written by the royal historiographer at Ava, is a very good story, but I have the best reason for believing that he was incorrectly informed. There is no such officer at Ava as a special historiographer, and the portion continuing the history from 1821 to 1830 in 8 or 9 volumes, has only lately been completed by a committee of officers and learned men, whose labours have not yet been published. An abstract of the large history was prepared for me in 1830, by order of the king of Ava, and I then made a translation of it."
been destroyed for a long time, the Lord who repaired (it) was one Penta-
Goo-gyee (*). When afterwards (it was) again destroyed, king Thado (*)
built (it). When afterwards (it) was again destroyed, and the Lord of the
white Elephant, (?) the great king of righteousness, deputed (as) his repre-
sentative the teacher Theeri Dhamma Pada Raja Goona, (?) (he) was
accompanied at the time by (his) disciple Theeri Kathaba (*). There was
property to do (it), but (it) could not be done. Let the lord priest Warada-
Thi fulfil his engagement, and let Pyoo-ta-thein-men (?) (or chief of 100,000
Pyoos,) assist, and have (it) done. Authority was given to Pyoo-Thakhen-
Nge (?) and to the great officer Ratha, (and the temple) was re-built on
Friday, the 10th day of the waning moon of Pyatho, (?) in the year 467 (12).
On Sunday, the 8th day of the waxing moon Tazoun-Mhoun (12), in the year
468 (12), worship was paid (to the temple) with various flags (12) worthy to
be presented. Worship was paid repeatedly with offerings (12) of food and
a thousand lights. Reward was prayed for with 21 (12) young persons
considered as our own sons and daughters, and worship was paid with a
Padetha (12) (tree), bearing flowers, cups and cloths. In order that the
duty of (making) religious offerings might continue without interruption
throughout all time, purchase was made with the weight of our bodies (12),
and bestowed (on the temple). May such good works become (our) aid
(to obtain) the thing Neibbn (12), and (we) desire the reward of becoming
Rahandas (12) (or inspired apostles), in the days of the Lord God
Arimadeya (12).”

Explanatory Notes.

1.—Páyathá-bhat † are said to be Páli words, meaning boiled rice and milk. The
first charitable offering which Gáudaña received after he issued from the wilderness,
where he had been performing austerities during six years, was in a village called Thena-
Nigoun, from a rich man’s daughter named Thoozáta. It consisted of boiled rice and

† S. Páyana. (*) Sri Kasgapa.
milk, and the spot where he ate (†) it was called Payatha-bhat afterwards. That spot was close to the right bank of the Nareenjana (§), now called Nilajan stream, into which GAUDAMA cast the gold plate containing the food, after having eaten forty-nine mouthfuls of it. The plate floated up the stream and gave a proof that GAUDAMA would become a Buddha. On this same spot a king of Magadha named THEERI DHAMMA THAUKA, built one of the 84,000 temples, which he raised to the memory of GAUDAMA 218 years after that Buddha’s death. The monuments usually called, as in this inscription, Tsedi or Zedi (‡), are now generally built in Burmah, of a round and solid form, like that of the Dagope in Western India, but in former times, as may be seen particularly at Pagán, they were much handsomer structures, being arched, and containing highly ornamental apartments within them. At Pagan there still exists one pagoda called Them-bau-zedi (‡), or ship-temple, probably from the circumstance of the form having been taken from that in use in countries beyond sea, which is something like the large Buddhist temple at Buddha Gaya, described in Hamilton’s East India Gazetteer as “a lofty brick edifice resembling at a distance a huge glass house.” The Burmese envoys had a picture taken in order to be presented to the king of Ava of this edifice, and of most of the surrounding objects at Buddha Gaya. THEERI DHAMMA THAUKA (†) built a monastery as well as a temple in 84,000 different parts of his empire, and as the temple now standing at Buddha Gaya called by the Burmese Mahā Baudhi Paribangsa Zedi (f) (temple in which all offerings to Buddha’s sacred tree are deposited), is considered by the Burmese vakeels to have been originally built by the king of Magadha, they suppose that the inscription refers to the monastery which was built at the same time, and which might have been styled Payatha-bhat, but of which there are no remains now. The words of the inscription do not however quite warrant such a supposition.

2.—THEERI DHAMMA THAUKA was the grandson of TSANDA-GOUTTA, (‡) who must be the same as CHANDRA-GUPTA, king of Magadha of Sanscrit authors, and SANDRAOPTOS, or SANDRACOTTOS of the historians of Alexander the Great. According to the Burmese history, TSANDA-GOUTTA reigned for 24 years, between the Burmese

(†) The term used for GAUDAMA by any priest’s eating is, “giving it glory.”

(§) S. Nairanjana

(‡) S. Chaitya?

(§) Sri Dhammasoka.

(‡) Sembojeti.

(‡) Paribboga jeti.

(‡) The Burmese letter Զ is often pronounced as ch, and is used always for the ch in Pāli or foreign words, but the usual sound given to it is more like a hard s pronounced with the tongue pressed against the roof of the mouth.
sacred year 162, and 186 or B. C. 382 and 358. He is also described as having been of the race of Mauriya, as having killed his predecessor Dhanananda, the last of the eight Nandas, at the instigation of a Bramin named Zanekka, (*) and as having been consecrated king of the whole earth, implying that he possessed extensive power. The Burmese history also applies to this king Tsanda-goutta, and not to Nanda, as Colonel Wilford gives it from Sanscrit authors, the tale of his lifeless corpse having been re-animated and actuated by his presence—but by the soul of a Bheeloo or monster, and not by that of a magician. The son of this king, who was called Bheindo-thara (†), from the circumstance, it is said, of his body being covered with some eruption, and who appears to be the same as the Varisara of Sanscrit authors, killed the Bheeloo by a device, and ascended the throne in the Burmese sacred era 186 or B. C. 358. He reigned 28 years and was succeeded by his son Theeri Dhamma Thauka, who is also styled Athauka, in the Burmese sacred year 214 or B. C. 330. The Burmese always use a soft th for s, and hence Athauka is evidently the same as Asoca-verdhana and Asoca in Sir Wm. Jones's and Colonel Wilford's lists of the kings (‡) of Magadha. This prince appears to have restored or established more extensively the religion of Gaudama, and hence the Brahmins of India have probably destroyed all accounts of his government; but the Burmese possess copious details, and the latter half of the 2d volume of the Myamma Maha Yazawen-dau-gye (§), or large Burmese royal history of kings, is filled with an account of this king's reign. He is described as a Mauriya king of Magadha, as the grandson of Tsanda-goutta, and as having held his capital at Patalipout, which the Burmese consider with Major Rennell to have stood on the site of the present town of Patna. He is described also, as having been consecrated, or as having received the sacred affusion as king of Zaboodipa (¶) island, four years after his accession to the throne, in the Burmese sacred year 218 or B. C. 326. It was after such consideration, as this inscription mentions, that he resolved upon building, and he carried his resolution into effect, a monastery and monument to the memory of Gaudama Boeddha, (†) in 84,000 different parts of his empire; and he selected that number, it is said, because one collection of the precepts of Gaudama, called Dhamma Khanda, is divided into 84,000

(*) Chanayya of Sanscrit authors.  
(†) See vols. 2d and 9th of Asiatic Researches, Octavo edition.  
(‡) Bindusara or Bimbisara.  
(§) Burma mahā Rajawendogri.  
(¶) Jambu dwipa.  
(†) Gautama Buddha.
sections. One of the 84,000 temples then constructed is supposed by some Burmese to have been this Páyatha-bhat, which was re-built and on which this inscription was placed, 1430 years after. There are several temples in Burmah mentioned in the Burmese history as having been re-built by different monarchs, on the ruins of those built by Théeri Dhamma Thauka (*) on this occasion. In the 23d year of this king's reign, in the Burmese sacred era 237 or B. C. 307, the third and last rehearsal of the communications of Gaudama took place at Pátalipout ("), under the protection of this sovereign and superintendence of Mauggali Poutta-teitha ("). The Burmese history has no account of any king of Magadha or Central India subsequent to this prince, whose dynasty is supposed to have become extinct with him, as his brother, son and daughter all assumed the priesthood and rejected the throne. The son, prince Mahéinda, ("') proceeded to Ceylon and established the Buddhist religion there, and it is curious to observe that according to the native historians of Ceylon, the name of the person who introduced Buddhism into that island is Mihendoo (*). Théeri Dhamma Thauka reigned forty-three years, between the Burmese years 214 and 255, or B. C. 330 and 289. One Burmese history relates, that in consequence of his having died in a fit of passion, his soul upon his death entered the body of a large serpent, and that his son, prince Mahéinda, having preached to and converted him, he died again and proceeded to the Nat country or celestial regions. But the large Burmese history contradicts this statement and asserts, that his Majesty immediately upon his death proceeded to the Nat country. It is possible, that this tale was invented by the Brahmins, as they tell a similar one of a king of Cashmere, who according to them, was turned into a serpent for having delayed feeding some hungry Brahmins ("');—and at all events, the learned will recollect, that some among the ancients believed, that the marrow of the back bone in a wicked man turned into a huge and fierce serpent. Sir Wm. Jones and Colonel Wilford have shown, that Chandra-gupta, or Tsanda-goutta of the Burmese, is the same as the Sandra-coptos, with whom Seleucus entered into alliance, and the learned Colonel has also shewn, that this alliance took place in the year 302 B. C., thirteen years after Chandra-gupta had ascended the throne, and that he reigned twenty-four years, and died 292 years before our (") era. According to the Burmese

 (*) See M. Joinville's paper on Sinhala or Ceylon in the 7th vol. of the Asiatic Researches.
(*) 9th vol. of the Asiatic Researches, octavo edition, p. 96 and 100.
historians, the date Tsanda-goutta is said to have ascended the throne is 382 years before Christ, and the date of his death 358 B.C., being sixty-six or sixty-seven years earlier than the periods fixed by Colonel Wilford. This is a small error in an Indian date, and it is most probably an error on the part of the Burmese; for we can scarcely suppose that, in the time of Seleucus, Theeri Dhamma Thauka was known also by the title of his grandfather, as Colonel Wilford has shown that the names given by old authors to the son and grandson of Sandra-coptos, namely, Allitrochates and Sophagesimus, apply to Varisara alias Mitra-gupta, and Asocavardhana alias Shivacansena (1). Theeri Dhamma Thauka then must be the same as the king Sophagesimus for renewing the alliance with whom Antiochus the Great went to India; and the date of his ascending the throne must be 264 years before Christ, and not, as the Burmese have it, 330 years. Theeri is the same as the Sanscrit Sri, excellent — Dhamma is law, and religion too — and Thauka, which means care and anxiety, is said to have the privative initial particle a drop in composition, but being understood, the word here implies freedom from care and anxiety (1). When Theeri Dhamma Thauka's mother was pregnant, she dreamt that she had one foot upon the sun and the other upon the moon, and that she was eating the stars. The dream was interpreted, that her child would bring the whole of Zaboodipa (2) island, which is equal to the sun and moon in beauty and splendour, under subjection, and that he would kill all his brothers. The latter part of the interpretation proved correct enough, as Theeri Dhamma Thauka is described as having killed no less than ninety-eight of his brothers, upon the death of the father, when they disputed the crown with him.

3.—Zaboodipa or more properly Zamboodipa (3), the island of the Jambú or Eugenia fruit, is one of the four great islands, the southern one in the Buddhist system of the universe. It is so named from the circumstance of a tree of that species growing on the extreme north end of the island;—it is the same as this our earth, and hence, "king of Zaboodipa" means, king of the whole earth.

4.—This is the Buddhist sacred era commencing, according to the Burmese, 544 years before Christ, and our present year 1834 is their 2378th religious year. On the death of Gaudama, a king of Magadha named Ajáta-tháth (4), assisted by one of Gaudama's disciples Mahá Kathaba (7), resolved upon establishing a new epoch commenc-

(1) P. 286, vol. 5th Asiatic Researches.
(5) 2 T
ing from the year of that Boodh's death. The name of this king resembles most that of Ajata-satru in Sir Wm. Jones's and Col. Wilford's lists of the kings of Magadha, but Ajata-satru is supposed by the Colonel to have reigned many years later, than what is given in the Burmese history as the date of Ajata-that's reign or about the year 450 B.C. According to the Burmese, the father of Ajata-that was Peim-bha-thara (8) and his successors in relation were—

His son Ajata-that, who reigned until the sacred year, .................. 24
His son Oodaya-bhaddha (9), who reigned until ....................... 40
His son Anooroudha (10), .................................................. 0
His son Moudha (11), who reigned until ................................. 48
His son Nagadhara, (12) who reigned until .............................. 72

Each of the above mentioned five kings killed his father who preceded him; and the last, Nagadatha, was deposed by his subjects, who placed on the throne an officer or minister, Thoothoonaga. This king, whose name resembles so closely Sisunaga in Sir Wm. Jones's list of the kings of Magadha, was succeeded by his son Kala-thauka (13) in the sacred year 90. Kala-thauka was succeeded in 118 by his son Bhaddha-thena, (14) who is described as having reigned with nine of his brothers during a period of 22 years. The last brother, Peenza-maká, (15) was killed in 140 by Nanda, said to have been a chief of robbers, and to have usurped the throne with the title of Oukha-thena (16). He died very shortly after his usurpation, and was succeeded by eight brothers, the last of whom, named Dhana-nanda (17), was killed, as mentioned in a preceding note, in the sacred year 162, by Tsanda-goutta, the grandfather of Theeri Dhamma Thauka.

5.—Penthago-gyee, or the great Penthagoo, is supposed by the Burmese to have been some follower of the religion of Gaudama, probably a priest; but he is not mentioned any where in their history. At present it is not customary to say of a priest, as in this inscription, ta youk, but ta ba; in former times, however, it is said, priests as well as laymen were styled youk.

6.—Thado Men, or king of Thado, was the family title of a race of kings whose capital was at Tagoung, a city which once existed on the left bank of the Erauadi in

(16) Ugrasena. (17) Dharmananda.
north latitude about 24°. The beginning of the third and twenty-second volumes of the large Burmese history contains some notice of these kings, who were of the race said to be descended from the sun, and also of the Thakee or Thakya (19) race, like Gaudama. An account of the origin of this term Shakyā, or as the Burmese write and call it Thakya or Thakee, is given in the first volume of the Burmese history, and it corresponds a good deal with that translated by M. Csoma de Koros from the Thibet work, and published in the 20th volume of the Journal of the Asiatic Society. According to the Burmese version, a king of Baranathi or Benares, named Oukkakareet, expels from his capital four of his sons and five daughters, who go and found the city of Kappilawot (19), where Gaudama was afterwards born; and the four princes, the eldest of whom named Oukkamoukkha, appoint the eldest sister to take the place of mother, and marry the other four sisters. When the father hears of this proceeding he observes to his courtiers, "my sons have ability indeed (thakee tau in Pāli) to take care of our lineage;" and thence, all kings of Patalipout were styled of the Thakee or Thakya race. The first king of Tougung, Abhirajā, came from Central India long before the birth of Gaudama, and a list is given in the Burmese History of the sovereigns of Tougung, most of whom are designated Thado. The queen of one of these kings, named Thado-men-kyee, was delivered about the sacred year 40 or B. C. 504, of twin sons, Maha Thambawa (20) and Tsoola Thambawa (21), both of whom were born blind. The father directed them to be put to death but the mother placed them upon a raft with provisions and floated them down the Erawadi. An account is given of their voyage down the river, and the sites of some of the towns now in existence, Tsu-gain, Tsu-ken, Myedé, are said to have then received their names. The two princes receive their sight on the passage down, and stop at last off Prone, close to the spot where an uncle of their's, who had some time before been led so far from Tougung in pursuit of an immense wild hog, had taken up his residence (1).

The eldest prince, Maha Thambawa, here built a city called Thare Khettara in the sacred year 60 or B. C. 484, and established the Prone dynasty, which flourished 578 years. Some remains of that city are still to be seen a few miles to the eastward of the present town of Prone, and Colonel Symes, who visited the spot, gives a description of


(1) There are many places named after this Hog—Wet-ma-zwot, or Hog not wet, a place where he crossed the Erawadi without the water reaching his belly;—Wet-ye-gen, Hog tank, the Waitygoom where our army met with one of the most serious disasters during the late war;—and Wet-kywoon, Hog island, a spot near Prone, where the Hog was at last killed.
it. When Thare Khettara was destroyed A. D. 94, one portion of the inhabitants removed and settled at Pagán, where another capital was built, and another dynasty of kings established, which flourished 1176 years, and lingered 80 years longer. Pagán was destroyed by the Chinese, and 80 years after that event, a chief and descendant of the Tagoun race of kings, named Thado-Men-bya, conquered the last remains of the Pagán dynasty, and founded the city of Ava and a new dynasty of kings, about the year of Christ 1364. Hence, the kings of Ava to this day consider themselves as descended from the Tagoun line of kings, and one of their titles Ne-dew-Bhuree, erroneously translated by us (king of the rising sun), means a king come out of or descended from the sun as the Tagoun kings were considered. In the same manner the kings of Ava pride themselves upon being of the Thakya or Thakee race, and the late king Mendara-gyee, when he married his eldest son to his eldest daughter referred, according to the 31st volume of the Burmese history, to the established custom among the Thakee royal race. The term Thado may be derived from Tha-dau royal son, although some Burmese consider it to be the same as Tha-to, a son in addition. At present, it is conferred as a title on princes and the highest ministers of state. The old Kyee Woongyee is a Thado. Tagoun is described as having been destroyed by the Tartars and Chinese, but there are to this day some remains of an old city said to be visible there.

7.—The Lord of the white Elephant and great king of righteousness, or Tshen-byoo-thaken tara mengyee, are common titles of the kings of Pagan and Ava. In the Burmese years 467 and 468, or A. D. 1105 and 1106, the person who bore these titles was a king of Pagan named Aoung Tser Thoo, and the latter half of the fourth volume of the large Burmese history contains an account of his reign, and refers particularly in one part, to an old inscription which is said to be still extant at Ava, commemorating some charitable gifts made by this king to a temple called Shwe Mouthan, in which inscription he is styled “Lord of thirty-six white Elephants.” He is also described in the Burmese history, as having reigned for the long space of 75 years, between the Burmese years 455 and 530 or A. D. 1093 and 1168; as having exercised dominion over Arracan, Bassein and Tinnasserim as well as over Ava, Pagan and Prome; and as having travelled more than is usual with Burmese kings,—having visited China overland and Acheen and Ceylon (*). On the day of his birth, the large honorary drum or gong, which agreeably

(*) This king also visited on shipboard, but by what route does not appear, the Jamboo tree on the northern end of this island—our north pole!
to a custom that still prevails at Ava, was hanging within the palace, emitted a sound of itself without being struck. This phenomenon was considered as prognosticating the infant’s future power and glory, and hence he was called TSEE SHOO, the first word being the name of this kind of drum, and the last an imitation of the sound heard on the occasion. In process of time TSEE-SHOO was changed into TSER-THOO. ALOUNG is a name of far more importance. It means the rudiments of a Boodh, or an Embryo Boodh, and is applied to a being who is hereafter to become a Boodh. GAUDAMA was so called during millions of years and during his 550 different states of existence, whilst he was completing the measure of good works, which was to perfect him into a Boodh, agreeably to a prophetical annunciation that he had received from the Boodh DIPENGARA(1). This title was given to ALOUNG-TSEE-THOO in the same manner as it was afterwards given to ALOUNG-PHRA (ALOMPRA), by his subjects of their own accord, as a mark of their profound veneration and respect, believing, as they did, that these kings were not common mortals, but beings destined in some future state of existence to become Boodhs. The genealogy of ALOUNG-PHRA, after he had become king, was very carefully traced up to this ALOUNG-TSEE-THOO, and through him to ABHIRAJA, the first king of Tagoung. The Burmese history relates the fact of this king of Pagan, ALOUNG-TSEE-THOO, having sent an army to invade Arracan, and place on the throne of that kingdom, a prince named LET-YA-NAN, regarding whom mention will be made in a succeeding note.

8.—THEERI DHAMMA PADA RAJA GOONA (2) is supposed to have been a priest who died in Arracan on his route to Gaya. His disciple, MAHA KATTARA, (3) in consequence of his youth and subordinate rank, is supposed to have been afraid of proceeding on the mission by himself. A priest probably residing in Arracan offered to accompany him, and a reference must have been made to the king at Pagán, when, it is imagined,

(1) DIPENGARA predicted, that after four Thenkhye and 100,000 worlds, GAUDAMA would be perfected into a Boodh. A Thenkhye is a numeral, consisting of an unit with 140 cyphers! DIPENGARA was the fourth and GAUDAMA the twentieth of the Boodhs, who have last appeared in this world according to the Burmese. The sculptures and paintings seen in Burmese temples and monasteries of a man lying prostrate at the feet of another, who is addressing him, are intended to represent GAU- DAMA as the hermit THOOMEDA (4) receiving the prophetical annunciation from DIPENGARA.

(2) Sri Dhama pada raja Guna.      (3) Mahá Kasyapa.      (4) Sunita.
the royal order was sent back, "Let the lord priest Waradathi fulfil his engagement, and let the chief of the 100,000 Pyoos assist and have it done." Some persons at Rangoon fancy, that the form of many of the letters, as well as some idiomatic expressions, proves this inscription to have been put up by a native of Arracan.

9.—Pyoo-ta-thein-men, or chief of 100,000 Pyoos, is supposed to have been the prince of Arracan, Let-ya-nan, whom A loung-tsee-thoo, king of Payán, assisted to recover the throne of his ancestors, and who is said to have established his capital at a place called Parein. A loung-tsee-thoo sent an army of Talains or Peguers by sea, and one of Burmese by land, but the water force being defeated, the land force retreated without attempting any thing. The king sent the land force a second time, and it then succeeded in conquering and killing Thenkhyea's grandson, Moung Badi, the king of Arracan at the time, and establishing Let-ya-nan on the throne. This last mentioned prince was the grandson of a king of Arracan, named Men Bheeloo, who was killed by an Arracanese noble, Thenk-haya, who usurped the throne under the title of Waroung-nghe-tzsare. The son of the deceased king of Arracan, named Men-ye-bha-ya, took refuge with A loung-tsee-thoo's predecessor and grandfather, Thee-thain-shen-kyan-zeet-tha, who reigned at Payán between the Burmese years 426 and 455, or A. D. 1064 and 1093, but who took no measures for establishing the young Arracanese prince on his father's throne. A loung-tsee-thoo was induced, as above described, to assist this prince's son and the grandson of the murdered king of Arracan. The Burmese history observes, that some difference exists among the historians of Pagan and Ava as to the exact date when Let-ya-nan was placed on the throne of Arracan, and refers to a copy of the Arracan history in Arracanese, in which mention is made that this aid was given to Let-ya-nan after the year 480, or A. D. 1118. It quotes also some verses written in Arracanese, in honor of the sister and wife of Let-ya-nan, wherein it is distinctly stated that A loung-tsee-thoo had established Let-ya-nan on the throne of Arracan with 100,000 Talains and 100,000 Pyoos.

When Prome was destroyed, the inhabitants separated themselves into three divisions, part of one of which styled Pyoo, sixteen years afterwards, established themselves at Pagan and founded the Pagan empire. Hence, the people of Pagan were often called Pyoo, and whilst the Kings of Ava pride themselves as being descended from the Tagouny race, the Burmese commonalty to this day consider themselves as descended from the Pyoo race.
The figures in the two dates 467 and 468, are not very distinct in the inscription.* The six also in the first and the eight in the last date are not quite clear. If the learned Burmese at Rangoon are correct in their reading of the figures, considerable doubt will still exist, how far they are right in considering Pyoo-ta-thein-mien to be the King of Arracan, Let-ya-nan, who they assert, although it is not mentioned in their large history, was styled chief of 100,000 Pyoos, because he was born at Pagan and had been established on the throne by 100,000 Pyoos. The Arracan history, as before quoted, states that Let-ya-nan was assisted by Aloung-tsee-thoo, after the year 480, that is, at least twelve years after the date of this inscription, in which this name, Pyoo-ta-thein-mien occurs. It is more probable then, that this title was given to the chief or general of some Pagan army on the frontiers of Arracan, and it appears that the first army sent against that country by Aloung-tsee-thoo was forced to retreat.

On referring to the chronological table of the kings of Arracan given in Mr. Paton's Historical and Statistical Sketch of Arracan published in the 16th volume of the Asiatic Researches, it will be seen, that there are several names similar to those mentioned in the Burmese history. Manick Phalong may be the same as the Burmese Men Bheeloo; Samkyang as their Thea Khaya; Manik Zadi as Men Badi; and Leyya as Let-ya-nan. This last king of Arracan is described in Mr. Paton's list, as having reigned between the Mug, which are the same as the Burmese years 498 and 500, or A. D. 1138 and 1140; and as those dates will be 31 and 32 years subsequent to the dates given in this inscription, here is another ground for doubting the accuracy of the Burmese at Rangoon, in considering Pyoo-ta-thein-mien to be Let-ya-nan.

The account given by Mr. Paton of the deposition of Manick Phalong, by his own Minister San Kyang; of his son's taking refuge with the king of Ava; and of an army from the king of Ava invading Arracan, killing the king at the time, Manik Zadi, Sankayang's grandson, and placing on the throne Manick Phalong's grandson, Leyya, corresponds very closely with the account given in the Burmese history.

The 32nd volume of the large Burmese History enumerates a list of the kings of Arracan from the earliest times down to the date of the Burmese conquest in 1784. This

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* The four is made more like a six of the present style of writing—but Burmese scholars inform me, that this numeral four was formerly often written as in this inscription. If we take the two dates to be 667 and 668, the inscription cannot refer to any of the kings of Pagan, as that capital was destroyed by the Chinese in the Burman year 616, A. D. 1284.
list differs from that given by Mr. Paton, and many of the names cannot be made to agree. A circumstance owing probably as much to the careless and inaccurate manner in which Burmese and Arracanese copyists transcribe names, as to the difference between the two languages.

10.—Pyoo-thaken-nge, or little Pyoo-thaken, is supposed to have been a priest, and some imagine that it was a name given to the disciple Theeri Kathaba, who had come from Pagan as a subordinate in the mission from the king.

11.—Pyatho is the Burmese month, which usually falls partly in our December and partly in January.

12.—This is the Burmese vulgar era, styled by them Kauza-thakkareet. The epoch was established in the year of Christ 638, by a king of Pagan named Pouppta-tsaup-raham. The calendar had been once before altered by Thoo-moun-daree, a king of Prone, in the year of Christ 78, or 622 years after Gaudama's death. It is remarkable, that the Siamese vulgar era, called by them Chooli Sakarat, was established in the same year of Christ 638 as the Burmese; and by a king of their own named Phaya Krek Miloon, and Phaya Chooli Chakkap,hat.

13.—This month falls, usually, partly in our October and partly in November.

14.—The present Burmese year is 1196, and if this inscription be considered as having been put up in the year 468 or A.D. 1106, it will now be 728 years old.

15.—Flags made of cloth and paper, of round cylindrical and of flat forms, curiously cut and adorned, and often having prayers and requests written upon them, are presented to temples, and hung up near them and near monasteries as ornaments.

16.—Plates full of boiled rice, with fruit and fish, are laid before temples and images of Gaudama, as religious offerings, and this food is afterwards eaten by the pagoda slaves, or by dogs and birds. Lights are also offered and placed as ornaments. They are intended to illuminate the good works of a Buddhist. The word joined to lights in the inscription is read by some Burmese as 'a thousand,' a number often said to be offered, and by others as 'set up,' a common expression applied to lights.

17.—The sense here is not very clear in the original, whether these twenty-one young persons composed the suite of the mission, or were purchased at Gaya and allotted as slaves to the temple, agreeably to the custom in Burmah, in order to reside constantly near the building, to take charge of it and keep it clean and in order. The Burmese vakeels take the latter sense, and assume that the Jogees, who are now at Buddha Gaya, are lineally descended from the young men placed in A.D. 1106 to take care of the edifice then
rebuilt. The vakeels also read the number in the inscription as twelve and not twenty-one.

18.—Padetha is a tree said to exist in the Nat mansion, and in the northern of the four islands forming the Burmese world. It is said to bear clothes and every other article of necessary use, as well as fruits and flowers, and imitations of this tree are made by the Burmese with bamboos having flowers; cups, umbrellas, cloths, &c., hanging to the branches, and presented to temples and monasteries. These trees usually form a part of religious ceremonies in Ava, and for a further account of them reference may be made to Dr. Buchanan’s paper in the 6th volume of the Asiatic Researches.

19.—It is a very common custom with the kings of Ava to have themselves weighed in gold or silver, and to apply the amount to some religious purpose. The "our" in the inscription is supposed to mean the king Aloung-tsee-thoo, the chief of the 100,000 Pyoos, and the priest Waradathi. The weight in silver of the bodies of these three personages could not have amounted to so considerable a sum as one might at first imagine, for allowing that their average weight was 11 stone 462 lbs. avoirdupois or 561 lbs. imperial troy weight, the whole would not have exceeded 1274 viss of Burmese dain silver, or about sicca rupees 16,507. In the year 1774, the whole of the great Dagon pagoda at Rangoon was gilded with gold of the bodily weight of the then king of Ava, Tshen-byoo-yen. The weight of his majesty on that occasion is stated in the 30th volume of the large Burmese History to have amounted to 47 viss and 37 ticals, that is, about 12 stone 3 lbs., and in sicca rupees the value would be about 94,080. This pagoda is now being again gilded, and the sum collected for the purpose from the inhabitants of the country is said to be equivalent to a lac of rupees.

20.—Neibban is the Burmese heaven—literally, emancipation from the round of existence to which all animal life is supposed to be doomed, until liberated by good works and placed in a state of quietude like that of annihilation.

21.—Rahandas, or as usually pronounced Yahandas, are inspired apostles of Boodh, possessing miraculous powers, such as, being able to sit upon water without sinking, to drive through the earth, &c. It was only five or six years ago that a Burmese priest pretended to be a Yahanda. He was summoned to Ava and treated with great respect, until he was prevailed upon to give a proof of his holy character, by performing the miracle of sitting upon water. He was fool enough to try to perform this feat, and of course soon sunk down. The king ordered
the other priests to remove his sacerdotal garments and drive him out of their
community.

22.—Arimadeya is to be the 5th Boodh in the present system. He is to appear in
this world hereafter. No oath is considered by a Burmese with more awe and solemnity,
than to make him declare that in the event of his failing in truth, may he never see the
Boodh Arimadeya.

Extracts from the Journals of the Burmese Vukeels on the subject of the
foregoing Inscription.

Since writing the above, I have obtained a copy of the report which
the Burmese vukeels submitted to the king of Ava of their visit to Buddha
Gaya, and I annex a translation of this curious document, together with a
copy of a picture, representing the peepul tree and surrounding scenery at
Buddha Gaya, made by a Burmese painter in the suite of the vukeels and
presented to the king of Ava. Having also obtained a copy of a journal of
the late Burmese mission kept by the junior envoy, I add a translation of
the passage containing his account of this visit to Buddha Gaya.

Translation of a Letter addressed to the King of Ava by the Burmese Vukeels,
from Calcutta, in March, 1833.

"Your slaves Men-gyee Maha Tsee Thoo, commissioner, and Menthan-
anda-gyau-den, secretary, making obeisance from under your excellent
royal feet, bear your Majesty's orders upon their heads (meaning most
humbly and respectfully petition).

Having made circuit beyond Hindoostan to the extremity of the
English dominions, to the city of Furrukhabad at the head of the Ganges
river, and to the city of Agra, at the head of the Jumna river, and having executed your Majesty's service unhesitatingly, devotedly and assiduously, we believed that to bear in mind respectfully our gratitude and obligations to your Majesty, and to fulfil your Majesty's religious duties (literally duty relating to future states of existence), would be a better proceeding. Accordingly, on our return from Agra, finding when we arrived at Patna that the Maha Baudhi or excellent Boodh's tree at Buddha Gaya (the peepul tree or ficus religiosa, under which Gaudama is supposed to have become perfected into a boodh) was only three days journey distant, we proceeded thither, and after worshipping and making various offerings in the name of our two sovereigns (king and queen), and prince and princess, consisting of gold and silver padetha trees, gilded and silvered candles, common wax candles, other lights in a tazoung (a portable pyramidal structure), a gilded umbrella and thengan (priest's upper garment), gold and silver pouk pouk (imitations of parched grain), and tagwon, koukka, and moo-lebua (flags and streamers of various forms), myooda (pots with a long neck and open mouth), cold water, rice and other food, together with a hundred rupees in cash, we prayed that your Majesty's glory may be great—that your Majesty's age may exceed 100 years, and that every wish of your Majesty may be gratified and every service accomplished. The merit attending all these acts of charity and worship we humbly present to your Majesty.\(^2\)

After making these offerings to Boodh's excellent tree and worshipping it, your Majesty's slave, Mengyee Maha-tsee-thoo, repeated the whole of the Thamanta\(^3\) and Yatanathout prayers, and, agreeably to their tenor,

\(^2\) According to the Buddhist religion, a person may divide with others the merit attending good works performed by him—and thus allow others to share in the future reward. But the loyalty of the Burmese vukeels induced them to tender the whole merit and reward to their sovereign.

\(^3\) These are two long prayers used as a preventive of evil. Thamanta meaning "the surrounding," is the first word of one of them.
having summoned all the *Nats* in the ten millions and hundred thousand worlds, (through which the authority of a *Boodh* is said to extend,) made a solemn appeal in the following eight terms:—*Boodh* is truly excellent in the three worlds (of *Byamhas, Nats* and *Men*). His precepts are excellent. His disciples are excellent. (I) trust in *Boodh*. (I) trust in his precepts. (I) trust in his disciples. (I) have always worshipped the three objects of adoration (*Boodh*, his precepts, and his disciples), as well as kept the five commandments (not to kill, steal, commit adultery, tell lies, or use intoxicating substances). (I) have always been grateful to my royal master. Proposing then to invite a piece from the western branch of *Boodh’s* excellent tree, to proceed to the Burmese kingdom, to the spot where religion shines and where the protector of religion dwells, your Majesty’s slave, *Mengvee Maha-tsee-thoo*, walked round the tree from right to left and poured out some rose water, when owing to the great virtues of your Majesty, worthy to be styled protector of religion, your slave beheld within the brick platform of five gradations, which surround the body of the tree as high up as the point where the branches strike off; what was wonderful, never having happened before, most curious and most excellent, and what contradicts the common saying, that a small *peepul* tree does not grow under a large one:—it was a *Boodh’s* adorable tree, of the size of a Chinese needle with only four leaves, and evidently produced by and of the same constituent part as (the large) *Boodh’s* excellent tree. Delighted with joy, your Majesty’s slave repeated his solemn appeal, and carefully gathered this plant. It is growing in (your slave’s) possession, but in consequence of the stem and leaves being very delicate and tender, it cannot now be forwarded to your Majesty. (*c*)

(*c*) Appeals of this kind often making a future good or evil depend on a certain specific condition, are very common—and the truth and virtue of the appellant are considered to be proved, if any remarkable or unusual circumstance occurs, or if any event, which he desires,
The guardians of Booh's tree also delivered for the purpose of being worshipped by your Majesty, some boughs leaves and fruit from the western branch of the tree, and these are now in the charge of your Majesty's slaves, Mengyee Maha-tsee-thoo and Men Cha-nanda-gyau-den, secretary. The chief of the guardians of the tree, Muhunt Jogee informed us, that in former times the dominion of the Burmese kings extended to this tree; and that the Jogees are the proper descendants of Burmese; and requesting to be allowed to write and solicit your Majesty to become the protector of Booh's excellent tree, he delivered a letter for your Majesty written with ink in the Devanagari character, which (your slaves) now forward.

The good and excellent Nats directing us, the captain (Captain G. Burney) and your Majesty's slaves discovered that that spot was formerly a part of the Burmese kingdom, as the chief Muhunt Jogee had stated, and your slaves submit a copy of an inscription in stone in the Burmese character, together with its meaning. The captain also copied this inscription, and on showing it to the governor general, he observed it is true the Burmese have cut and put up this, but you must ascertain from Mengyee Maha-tsee-thoo and Men Cha-nanda-gyau-den, the secretary, at what period and in what king's reign this was done. When the captain came to ask your Majesty's slaves, they stated that as the date mentioned in the inscription is 467, it was done in the reign of Aloung-tsee-thoo, king of Pagan:—that in that king's reign the city of Parein in Arracan was built by 100,000 Talains and 100,000 Pyoos;—that that king possessed from Arracan to Delhi;—that he held Arracan also;—and that in consequence of his having such possession, it was said in the Arracan song—

Loung-tsee-thoo-khain, under orders of king Aloung-tsee-thoo,
Ayoo-thain-ruce, who extended his views,—
Talain-ta-thein, 100,000 Talains
Pyoo-ta-thein-nhen, with 100,000 Pyoos—
Tewt-gein-kha-gein, at the proper time
Pyikka-dein-lyouk, corresponding to astrological calculations,
Parein-myo-theet, the new city of Parein
Tee-cha-lect-thee, did duly build.

happens to take place. In the present case, the Burmese envoy evidently considered the little peepul tree as a miraculous answer to his appeal, proving his own truth and virtue, although he pretends to owe such an extraordinary incident to the great virtues of his royal master.
Your Majesty's slaves thus showed by producing and reciting an apposite quotation, that Arracan and all the Kula countries had formed a part of the dominions of the Burmese kings.*

On this occasion, agreeably to the Pali text, "he who takes care of religion, religion takes care of him," and agreeably to the phrase, "by fulfilling religious duties secular duties also will be fulfilled, the time having arrived when a reward for your Majesty's having attended so much to charity, religious duties and all the virtues, was to appear, "good works bring reward in the present world" (a Pali text), all the good and excellent Nats duly directing your Majesty's slaves, a stone inscription and ancient record, which is most curious and which had not been found before during the reigns of so many kings, was brought to light.

The meaning of the inscription is—that near the temple of Mahabodhi Paribanga, your Majesty's ancestor Theeri Dhamma-thauka had first built the monastery of Tshuon-tsa (eating charitable food) :—that afterwards the priest, the great Penthagoo, had repaired it :—that afterwards king Thado had repaired it :—and that afterwards the master of the White Elephant and lord of righteousness repaired it. During the whole line of the fifty-five kings of Pagan, the race of Thado, kings of Tagoung, was not extinct; and accordingly, it was a Thado-men-bya, son of a Thado-tshen-t,heen, who founded the city of Ava. The king Thado mentioned in the inscription (your slaves) take to be the king reigning in Tagoung at that time. With respect to the term "master of the White Elephant and lord of righteousness," referring to the date 467, (your slaves) suppose king Aloung-tsee-thoo to have been so called. That king was born in the year 440, and he ascended the throne in 455. Deducting 455 from the date mentioned in the inscription 467, gives the 12th year of king Aloung-tsee-

* It is difficult to understand how the vukeels made out that all the Kula countries were once a part of the Burmese dominions, unless they gave to the words in the second line of the Arracan song a very extended meaning.
thoo's reign, in which he deputed the teacher Theeri-dhamma-rajagooroo to repair (the building). That teacher having died before (the work) was finished, and his disciple, Theeri-kathara, not going on to complete it, Waradat-thee-thakhien engaged to do so, and (your slaves) suppose that orders were sent to Pyoo-tatthein chief, who had built the city of Purein, to send Waradat-thee to perform this service. With respect to the twelve young men then presented for the purpose of attending to the duty of burning lights and making offerings of food, as mentioned in the inscription, (your slaves) consider the descendants of these men who were presented as guardians (of the edifice) to have come down uninterruptedly to the present Mulunt Jigees.

Near Booodh's excellent tree there are also many images of Gaudama, which have entirely the form and countenance of Burmese. The captain came and asked, if the king called Theeri-dhamma-thauka was of the Burmese race, and your Majesty's slaves answered, that that king was of the Thakee royal race, and that the Burmese kings are of the same race.

Owing to your Majesty's exalted virtues, the large image of Gaudama, worthy of being invited (to Ava), and worshipped by your Majesty, has been obtained; and together with Booodh's excellent tree and the branches, leaves and fruit (of the large tree), your Majesty's slaves will bring in the ensuing month of September, when they return agreeably to the petition which they have submitted, a picture of Booodh's tree and the seven places surrounding it, and a map and description of the rivers, Nareenjara, Ganges, Jamna and Anuma—of the hills, Wengabe, Maura, Koodabo, Mengaladewee and Tharagaudika, and of the city of Yazagyo; and when your slaves deliver all these into your royal hands, the whole will be exactly explained and understood."

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* This image was formerly in the Asiatic Society’s grounds.
† These five hills are supposed to have encircled the ancient city of Rājagriha, which the Burmese call Yazagyo.
Extract from a Journal of the late Burmese Mission to Bengal, kept by the Junior Envoy.

"After stopping three days in the city of Patna, Kappitan Theeri Yaza Nauratha (Captain G. Burney's Burmese title) came to our boat and said, agreeably to the promise which I formerly made that I would ask the governor general to allow you to go and see Boodh's excellent tree on your return from Hindostan, I have obtained his permission and you may, if you please, set off three days hence,—on Friday next. We replied, that we should like to go, and palankeens, bullock carts, and tents having been provided, we set off from the ghât at Patna, on Friday, the 25th January, 1833.

After travelling five taings,(*) we came to the little river of Poonassoonanadee: three taings farther, we saw the Mawrahat-nadee, and half a taing farther, we came to the hill and village of Animau, where we halted (for the day.) Resuming our journey, we came in six taings to the Daradli river and village of Zahánat, where we again halted. Departing from Zahánat village, we came in four taings to the village of Meggadwonpoo, near the little river Zamoonee, and saw (from thence) six taings to the southward, the five mountains which encircle the city of Yazagyo (Râjgrîha.) We halted five taings beyond Meggadwonpoo, at the village of Thela. On the next day, we came in seven taings to the city of Gara-thee (Gaya,) and after travelling three and a half taings farther, we arrived at Bouddha Gara, (Buddha Gaya,) and Boodh's excellent tree, and put up to the eastward of that tree in a garden on the bank of the Nareenjara river. Boodh's excellent tree is thirty-four taings distant to the south-southwest of Patalipout(‡) or Patna city.

Of the seven places in which the most excellent Gaudama rested, the four following only are now visible, and they were seen by us. The village

(*) A Burmese taing measures nearly two English miles.
‡ The ancient name of Patna according to the Burmese.
of Tzyapala or Tsheit-kyoung, goat’s grazing ground—Yatana Zengyan—Aneimmeittha hill—and the lake of Mounzaleinda. The remaining places—Lenlwon tree, Yatanagara or Shweain, golden house, (and Baudhipallen, or throne of gold under the Peepul tree,) have disappeared and could not be found on enquiry. With respect to the four places now visible, the lake of Mounzaleinda is above ten tas (5) to the south-west of Boodh’s tree. Yatanazengyan with its temple is seven tas to the eastward of the tree. The hill of Aneimmeittha with its temple lies to the north-north-east of the tree. The Nareenjara river is upwards of forty tas to the eastward of the tree. The Kulas call that river Nilazala, (Nilajan) and on its eastern bank is the temple, Tsheit-kyoung-myong, in the village of Tsheittan, which the Kulas now call Bagaroo-gown.(4)

After seeing and examining every spot and object, we prepared handsome and suitable flowers of pure gold and pure silver, gilded and silvered candles, gilded priest’s garments, umbrellas, and flags and streamers, with all of which, together with 1000 (*) lights, we worshipped and made offerings to Booodh’s excellent tree, in the name of the most glorious and excellent sovereign lord (king of Ava). The principal guardian of the tree, Muhunta-zee-zangyee, (Muhunt Joge) took charge of the gold and silver flowers.

This Muhunt Joge told us, that the English chief has given him twenty-seven villages contiguous to Booodh’s tree, and that he lives on the revenue derivable from the same. He occupies a three-storied brick-house, with all his disciples and subordinate Jogeis, living in the lower and uppermost portions of it. He dresses himself in gold and silver Kinkhab, with gold and silver flowered muslins, and uses a rosary consisting of beads of pure gold of the size of the stone of the Tshee-byou fruit. On asking him how many disciples and followers he had, he said upwards of five hundred, some near him and some at a distance. The subordinate Jogeis who constantly,

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(5) A ta is a measure of length equal to seven cubits.
(4) See note at the close.
(5) In figures in the original.
throughout the day and night, remain on guard near Boodh’s tree, are Lwot-tsän, Khara, Yante, Hatra and Gomyen, which five men are appointed to this duty by the principal Jogee.

The circumference of Boool’s tree on a line with the top of the encircling brick platform of five gradations, which forms its throne and is thirty-five cubits high, measured nineteen cubits and ten fingers breadth. The tree rises forty-four cubits above the brick platform. From the top of the tree to the terrace on the ground on the eastern side, may be eighty cubits, or a little more only, apparently, the boughs and small branches, which once grew upwards, have in consequence of the great age of the tree spread out laterally, and this is the reason why the present height of the tree does not correspond with that mentioned in the scriptures. It was fresh and young when Gaudama was perfected into a Boool, and some of the boughs and small branches must then have been growing straight upwards, as well as some laterally—hence, we must believe that it was truly said in the scriptures to be a hundred cubits high—After going round and round Boool’s excellent tree, and offering our devotions to it during three days, we gave the guardian of the tree the Muhunt Jogee 80 rupees, and a present of 20 rupees to his disciples, and the subordinate Jogees, and returned (to Patna.)"

Note.—According to the Buddhist scriptures Gaudama, after he had become perfected into a Boool under the Peepul tree, rested seven days at seven different places in the neighbourhood of that tree. These seven times seven days are called Thatta Thattaha, and the seven places Thatta T,hāna—which are described as follows:

1st. Baudhi pallen gan, pat,huma t,hāna—Place of the golden throne which had miraculously risen from the ground under the shade of the Peepul tree, and upon which Gaudama sat immovable seven days.

2d. Ancimmettha koun, dootiya t,hāna—This was a spot on a rising ground at a short distance from the tree, at which Gaudama stood immovable, looking at the golden throne “without winking or blinking,” during seven whole days.

3d. Yutana zen gyan, tatiya t,hāna—This was another spot near the tree where Gaudama walked backwards and forwards in the air during seven days.
4th. Yatana gara, or shwe ain, chadout, ha t,hana — A golden or gilded house which appeared miraculously near the tree, and in which GAUDAMA remained seven days.

5th. Izapala isheit hyung nyung beng, punjama t,hana — Peepul tree growing on a piece of ground where goats usually grazed, and under which tree GAUDAMA remained seven more days.

6th. Mounzaleinda ain, tohattama t,hana — Lake or tank of Mounzaleinda, in which dwelt a Naga or Dragon, in the coils of whose body GAUDAMA sat seven days, covered by its hood completely from incessant showers of rain.

7th. Yaza yatana, or len lon beng, thattama t,hana — A tree called Len lon, under which GAUDAMA lastly sat during seven days, and whilst seated here, two brothers, merchants of a city called Onkalaba, near the site of the present town of Rangoon, paid their devotions to GAUDAMA and presented him with some bread soaked in honey. He delivered to them in return eight hairs which he plucked out of his head, and when they returned home, they built a temple depositing in it some of these hairs, which temple, but enlarged and improved by different kings, is the present great Shwe dagoun temple at Rangoon.

Boodh’s Peepul tree had originally five large branches—but the southernmost was broken off by king Thekri-dhamma-thaukha, and sent as a present to a king of Ceylon, called Dewanan-peeya-teitt, ha.

The above note will elucidate the accompanying copy of a picture, representing Boodh’s tree and the temple at Buddha Gaya, which was painted by a Burmese painter in the suite of the mission, and presented to the king of Ava.

Rangoon, June, 1834.

H. BURNEY.

POSTSCRIPT.

Having ventured, on the authority of Ratna Paula, a Ceylonese Christian, well versed in the Päli and Burmese languages, whom I employed to correct the lithograph of the facsimile, and of the Burmese version, of the inscription received from Colonel Burney, to insert or alter such letters as appeared on comparison with the stone, to be wanting or erroneously written in the Burmese transcript, I have thought it incumbent on me to append a list of these corrections, although the greater number are of no importance. The only two indeed which it is material to notice are those marked (E) and (I,) where the change makes a difference of 200 years in the date of the inscription, being read at Ava 467 and 468 respectively, whereas Ratna Paula reads them 667 and 668. I have taken particular care that the facsimile should be correctly copied in these two places, and I confess, that although the first figure of the upper date is a little doubtful from the tail not being carried up so high as in the second, the first 6 of the lower date seems to
me quite plain, and essentially different from the 4, which occurs in the second line of the inscription, (h.) In the translation published in the Journal, Vol. III. page 214, the latter date was adopted: and I had since imagined that the circumstances of the frequent destruction of the building, and its final completion in the year 1305, A. D. were in some measure borne out by the fact noticed in Colonel Tod's Rájásthán, of frequent expeditions made from Mewár in the 13th century "to recover Gaya from the infidels." Before venturing however to allude to my own reading in opposition to Colonel Burney's, I referred to the author at Ava, remitting him the portion of facsimile including the date, for his re-examination. I now subjoin his reply, to which every deference is due; yet it appears to me possible that the Burmese may have a bias in favor of the date which can be best reconciled with their history; in reading 667 they must have conceded the honor of rebuilding the temple, as Colonel Burney states, to the King of Arracan. -- J. P. Seg.

"Your letter of the 16th October reached me yesterday, and I lost no time in showing to the Myawadee Woongvée (the most intelligent and learned Minister here), to the late Burmese Vukeel Maha-tee-thoo, and to a whole company of Burmese Savans, your facsimile of the figures in the Gaya inscription, which however do not differ in the least from those in the copy we had here before. My friends still insist upon it, that the first figure in both dates is a 4, such as is commonly written in the stone character, and not a 6; and referring to another 6 in the inscription, that denoting the day of the week, Friday, they ask me to observe the difference. In the figure 4, the last portion of it does not rise so high or above the line as the same part does in all the three sixes, and the body of the figure is rounder and more upright, and the elbow more marked than in the 6.

I cannot see also how your "collateral evidence from Tod's Rájásthán" is applicable. Both Missions to Gaya, that which met with impediments, and that which succeeded in repairing the temple, appear to have taken place during the reign of the same King, Tshen-byoo-thak,hen-tara-men, and the period between the two Missions could scarcely have been so great as that which elapsed between "the crusades of the Ráiputs to recover Gaya from the Infidels in 1200-1250," and your date 1305. These crusades might have occurred after the temple had been re-built.

"Again, the capital of Pagán was destroyed by the Chinese in the Burmese year 646, A. D. 1284, and for several years after this country appears to have been divided into several little principalities—In 667, 668, A. D. 1305 and 1306, a King named Thee-ha-thoo, reigned at Penya, a town to the south of Ava, permitting, as the Burmese Chronicles say, Tsau-neet, the grandson of Taroup-pee-men, the King who fled from the Chinese, to reign at Pagán. Adopt your reading of the inscription, and we must believe that this King of Penya, or (which I think is more probable), some King of Arracan sent these Missions to Gaya. These Burmese Savans, however, insist upon giving the credit of this good deed to Aloun-tee-thoo, King of Pagán."

H. B.

"Ava, 8th December, 1835."
INSCRIPTION FROM BUDDHA GAYA. 189

Note of the alterations introduced in Version II. of Plate II. (the Transcript of the Facsimile, Plate I. in the Kyouk-cha, or square stone-letter,) on comparing the Copy received from Ava with the three fresh Facsimiles taken by Mr. Hathorne, from the original stone at Gaya.

J. P.

The figures denote the commencement of each line in the original:—The letters mark alternations of reading, as follows:—

Ava transcript. Lithographed transcript.

a. ṭś r, altered to ṭś ra.

b. ṛ ṅá, ....... ṛ ṅá.

c. ᴩ ni, ....... ᴩ nhui.

d. ᶙ n, ....... ᶙ n.

e. l, o, p, the letter ᶙ w, omitted in the Ava transcript.

f. ṭś r, altered to ṭś y.

ɡ. ṭś hi, ....... ᵇ ri.

h. ᶙś 4, this figure is here correctly used in the Ava text as 4.

i. ᶙś m, altered to ᶙś y.

j, k, n, q, s, թ, ո, v, w, x, չ, ա, ը, դ, հ, ո, ս, ո; in all these cases the form ᶙś is used for the letter r, in lieu of ṭś, which latter agrees better with the facsimile.

r. in this the latter form of r (ṛya) is used in the Ava version.

b. ṫš tu (grandson) altered to ṫš hu (by)—this may be a fault of the sculptor.

l. E. ṭś (4.) altered to ṭś (6) on the authority of the facsimile.

j. F. ṭś y, ....... ṭś ry; it does not alter the sense.

ɡ. ᴩ ś n, ....... ᴩ ś ni.

k. caret ......... ᴩ ś lha.

M. caret ......... ṭś thiw (pronounced do.)

L. ṭś, 21, ......... ṭś 2 (men); this reading is doubtful.

P. caret ......... ṭś k.

R. ṭś H, koa, to ..., ṭś ṭś mriy, earth—doubtful reading.

T. ṭś ṭś aym, ......... ṭś ṭś; does not alter the sense.

2z
VI.

RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE

LAW OF MORTALITY,

FOR

BRITISH INDIA,

DEDUCED FROM THE REPORTS AND APPENDICES OF THE COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY THE BENGAL GOVERNMENT IN 1834, TO CONSIDER THE EXPEDIENCY OF A GOVERNMENT LIFE ASSURANCE INSTITUTION;

BY CAPTAIN H. B. HENDERSON,
Ass't Mly. Audr. Genl., Secretary to the Committee.

From the enquiries set on foot during the operations of the Committee appointed by Government to enquire into the state of Life Assurance in India, a variety of curious and interesting documents have come to hand, and possibly a greater number of statements tending to elucidate the rate of Mortality of British India, than have been before accumulated. To consolidate or abstract the results of the information thus obtained, it is hoped the following will not be unacceptable.

With respect to the Natives themselves of the vast regions under the British Rule in India, there are few general tabular statements available, and no extensive or sure data in our possession of a nature to exhibit the
general ratio of mortality, compared with that of the population of other parts of the world. A statement lately published in the Delhi Gazette, giving the population, births, marriages, and deaths of that city for the past year (1833), throws some light on the subject, but the term is too short to afford a proper view of the state of the case, and the numbers and details not sufficiently precise to give a positive result for other similar places. From this statement, it would appear that the mortality at Delhi, though much greater than that experienced in the northern latitudes of Europe, is somewhat more favorable than that of the Roman States and Ancient Venetian Provinces, being a fraction less than one in twenty-eight souls per annum; the latter being stated at one in twenty-seven. The ratio, however, greatly exceeds that of Europe altogether, which by some recent returns is one in forty-four for the north, and one in thirty-six for the south; for better immediate reference, the Delhi statement, just referred to, is here given as published by the Civil Authorities of that City.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Males.</th>
<th>Females.</th>
<th>Total.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>39,592</td>
<td>41,526</td>
<td>81,118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>20,553</td>
<td>18,189</td>
<td>38,742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Population</strong></td>
<td><strong>60,145</strong></td>
<td><strong>59,715</strong></td>
<td><strong>119,860</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>2,002</td>
<td>2,168</td>
<td>601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1,731</td>
<td>2,080</td>
<td>527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,733</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,248</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,128</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>DEATHS.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Males.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Females.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Total.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At 1 year and under</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>1,109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 years</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years and under</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>1,930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deaths</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,168</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,080</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,248</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above it appears that rather more than 3½ per cent. per annum is the general rate of decrement; and that more than one-fourth of the deaths occur in the first year of infancy; which, however, is a more favorable result for that tender period, than London could exhibit 50 years back, when nearly one-third of its native-born population were found to decease in the first twelve months after birth. More than half of the total deaths at Delhi in 1833 seem to have occurred under 10 years of age; while the excess of mortality in males keeps pace with the observations of other countries: among adults, generally, one dies yearly from a number of forty-two, and one from every sixteen below the age of ten. In some remarks added to the table itself, it is said that a small number from the deaths may be deducted for strangers and foreigners, and a large proportion for the small-pox in Delhi, since the abolition of the Vaccine Institution. The calculation does not include the royal palace, said to contain twenty thousand souls.

Application having been made to Delhi for information regarding any period prior to former years, it was stated in reply that the enquiry had not been instituted for 1833. In future, it is hoped, these bills of mortality will be regularly exhibited.

The native soldiers on the Bengal Establishment are particularly healthy under ordinary circumstances. It has been found by a late enquiry, embracing a period of five years,* that only one man is reported to have died per annum, out of every one hundred and thirty-one on the actual strength of the army. So injurious, however, is Bengal Proper, to this class of natives, in comparison with the Upper Provinces, that although only one-fourth of the troops exhibited, are stationed in Bengal, the deaths of that fourth are more than a moiety of the whole mortality reported. It cannot be affirmed that this Table affords any criterion

* Vide Table No. 1.
of the decrement of the population at large; the very best periods only of life, (generally speaking from 20 to 45) are received in the statement which gives these results; the Sepoys are healthily employed, well clothed and attended, while many unrecorded deaths occur at their own homes, where, as a last resource, bad cases are allowed to proceed on medical certificate. It would seem by other documents* that out of about eighteen thousand invalid fighting men, of the Bengal Army pensioned by the State, six hundred and eighty deceased during the year 1831-32, or one out of 26½; while the average duration of the pension enjoyed by this class of men for a period embracing from May 1828 to October 1830, was 7 years 8½ months, and from May 1831 to the same month in 1832, the duration of pension was only about 5 years 4½ months.

It is to be regretted we are in possession of so little other information regarding natives. In common circumstances we may presume there is a tolerably uniform rate of mortality in most situations; but, perhaps, in no climate is there less tenaciousness of life in times of pestilence or famine than among the too delicate mass of our native population, and more particularly in Bengal Proper. The vast number that perish under these calamities, or under visitations of Providence, such as the late inundations, would defy all calculation or attempt at tabular exhibition. In the statistics of British India it is still, however, a grand desideratum,—the possession of an accurate census of the large populous cities, with regularly published annual statements of the births, marriages and deaths, and all other information on this important point.

The Committee was able to afford more accurate and extensive information of the rate of mortality of Europeans frequenting this country, and although the ever-fluctuating character of the Calcutta European population, or that of the other seats of Government, left them in uncertainty

* Vide Tables Nos. 2 and 3.
as to the real ratio of decrement in their immediate communities; yet from the regular constitution of the public covenanted services at large under each Government, there were greater facilities for obtaining scrupulous accuracy in India, in every thing relating to the periods of arrival, the ages, and dates of death, of the Company’s Civil and Military Services, than can be found perhaps in any other country or scattered community.

The enquiry may commence with the common soldiery among whom the greatest mortality necessarily shews itself, from their habits, greater exposure, and the absence of much of the comfort and protection enjoyed by the higher classes. But it is scarcely needful to remark here that in the present paper there has been essayed no investigation into the causes of mortality, nor has any enquiry been instituted except into mere results and figured statements, called for to assist the Committee in calculating the correct value and expectation of life under the various circumstances of European residence in India. It would appear from a military work, published in England in 1832, on enlisting, discharging, and the pensioning of soldiers, by Mr. H. Marshall, Deputy Inspector General of Army Hospitals His Majesty’s Service, that our Inspector General, Dr. Burke, has stated, that coming to India at the mature age of 24 or 26 is the most favorable to health in the soldier, and we beg to call attention to a statement* furnished by the latter officer in confirmation of his opinion. By it we learn that in 1824, a Regiment employed in Ava, experienced a ratio of mortality among the young men who went out with the corps, to the extent of 38 per cent., or 1 in every 2½, while among the Volunteers from other Regiments, who were considerably older, the mortality was 17 per cent. or 1 in 6. In 1825, (still on service in Ava) it was 305 per cent. or 1 in 3½ among the former or younger class, and only 6 per cent. or 1 in 16 in the latter or older.

* Vide Table No. 4.
The Committee were favored with a complete report from Dr. Burke himself, embracing in addition to earlier information, the casualties of the last four years for the whole of His Majesty's Army in Bengal. The rates of mortality generally for that term he makes to be 4.99 per cent. per annum with reference to the mean number of the troops. But he exhibits a curious distinction in the rate of danger at the different stations; viz.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Deaths to strength</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fort William</td>
<td>7.59 per cent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berhamore</td>
<td>6.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinsurah</td>
<td>6.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cawnpore</td>
<td>4.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boglepore</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinapore</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghazipore</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurnaul</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meerut</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Deaths to strength.

With respect to the ages of the deceased, the Inspector General has now given more ample information. During the four years 1826, 27, 28, 29, the ratio of deaths was—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 to 20</td>
<td>16.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 to 25</td>
<td>9.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 30</td>
<td>10.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 35</td>
<td>6.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 45</td>
<td>9.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above term were included the extraordinary casualties of the war in Ava and the siege of Bhurtpore. But in the four succeeding years of peace and non-exposure of the troops; viz. 1830, 31, 32, 33, the ratio grows more regular, and assumes the generally steady progressive
increase of danger with increasing years, the same as in all the other Tables in possession of the Committee of officers and others; viz.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 to 20</td>
<td>0.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 to 22</td>
<td>2.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 30</td>
<td>5.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 45</td>
<td>6.78%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It should be remarked that from 18 to 20, during these four years, the class above represented, consists of recruits enlisted in India, the sons of soldiers of the regiments.

The whole of Dr. Burke's Report is very valuable. It enters into the causes of the sickness, the difference of seasons, situations of barracks, &c., and other points which cannot fail to be useful. It was forwarded to the Government, and it is to be regretted it could not be appended to this abstract.

The Committee also received from the Secretary to the Medical Board, Quinquennial Table of the Sickness and Mortality of the whole of the European Troops of the Bengal Army, including not only His Majesty's Troops reported on by the Inspector General—but also the men of the Artillery and Honorable Company's European Regiment.* The Tables confirm Dr. Burke's Report.

In ordinary circumstances it would seem that about one dies per annum in every 18½ throughout Bengal, but in Bengal Proper the yearly percentage is nearly 7—or one in about 14, while in the Upper Provinces it is considerably less. At one post,—Agra, the percentage has not been 2, or one in 50 per annum, out of a garrison of one thousand men, a more favorable result than shewn in any Table hitherto prepared in India.

* Vide Table No. 5.
The next Table is that of the Calcutta Burials, European and East Indian, at the Park-street Burial Ground.* From the impossibility of ascertaining, with the means at the disposal of the Committee, the births and periodical accession of strangers, and the difficulty of separating the classes, it was impracticable to prepare from these data an accurate, or even approximating, expectation of life for the city of Calcutta.

It may be presumed that the accessions chiefly experienced, by arrivals from England, include between the ages of 18 and 25, and that thenceforward until the later ages of retirement and return to the native country, there is not much fluctuation in numbers, except in the yearly uncertain and temporary addition of seamen and commercial visitors. This, of course, applies to the European part of the community; the East Indian inhabitants being throughout more permanent and stationary. Under the foregoing supposition, it will be found from the numbers exhibited in the Table that out of a radix of population of both classes to the extent of near three thousand souls of the age of 20 to 25, about one hundred die annually, or, as the real decrements shew, 3.84 per cent. For the next ten years the annual percentage is 5.49. For the ensuing same term, or from 35 to 45 it is 6.7 per cent. From 45 to 55, it is 6.18, while from 55 to 65, (though this term is little to be relied on from the frequent secession of persons retiring to England) the percentage is 8.4. Out of four thousand seven hundred and thirteen burials altogether recorded in 20 years, two hundred and seventy-nine are seamen, who died on a visit to the port—swelling the ratio of decrement, it may be supposed, at the middle ages. It is to be regretted that this Table could not be rendered available for any useful purpose to the Committee: all that could be gathered from it was a picture of Indian mortality, probably in its concentrated, worst, and most appalling character.

* Vide Table No. 6.
It might be supposed that the experience of the late Life Assurance Institutions would have afforded some data for guidance, and have exhibited a fair estimate of the ratio of decrement, among the insuring classes at least; but a little consideration and advertence to the facts before us would explain the difficulty and danger of relying upon the results of the different offices. The insured were chiefly, or a large portion of them, debtors in the services; men, it may be supposed, improvident in their life and habits; a few were adventurers, or others embarked in speculations, either necessitated unwillingly to incur the expence of a Life Assurance, or, as the figured Tables would sometimes lead to the suspicion, urged into the Society by the apprehension of approaching death. Thus, in the Fifth Laudable Society existing from 1822 to 1827,* there were one hundred and eighty-seven lapses out of one thousand three hundred and ninety lives; no very considerable mortality it would appear at first sight, as it ranges under 3 per cent. per annum,—but on a closer inspection of the Table it will be seen that seventy-five of the one hundred and eighty-seven deaths occurred in the two years immediately succeeding the Assurance, while the remainder of the lapses, one hundred and twelve in number, are traced to have lingered through ten years from the period of entrance into the Laudables. Such a misproportion of early lapses must have arisen from other cause than mere accident.

The Sixth Laudable Table† in the possession of the Committee, gives only the total number of lives and lapses without classing them by years of entrance or decrement; the former were nine hundred and ninety-six in number, and the deaths one hundred and eighty, or 3.6 per cent. per annum—the common average; but by apportioning the presumed periods of lapses among the five years of the Laudable, the more correct yearly per centage would be exhibited at 3.89.

* Vide Table No. 7.  † Vide Table No. 8.
The Oriental has existed for a longer term, and has incurred engage-
ments up to 1833, on so many as one thousand seven hundred and eighty-
one lives; out of which, during twelve years, it suffered to the extent of three 
hundred and seventy-three lapses. But unless, as will be understood by the 
more accurate and certain Tables to be hereafter referred to, there have been 
some extensive frauds at times practised on the Society, it is difficult to 
account for the very heavy rate of mortality it has experienced. It insured 
on an average seven hundred and eight lives yearly, losing of these with 
more or less regularity, more than thirty-one persons in the year, or an 
actual percentage of 4.39. Its greatest percentage of lapses during one 
year was 6.89, and its least 2.78. We believe here also some of the hea-
viest lapses occurred in certain cases shortly after the parties had effected 
insurance.

Although the Committee were unable to avail themselves of the expe-
rience of the Calcutta Life Insurance Offices to form a true estimate of the 
mortality, it may be remarked that the deaths exhibited by them nevertheless 
 wonderfully bear out the fact shewn in all the general Tables prepared from 
the Honorable Company's different services of the regularly progressive 
 ratio of danger (with a trifling exception only in some of the Tables,) from 
increasing years and prolonged residence in India. The ratio in the Army is 
generally under 3 per cent. for the first years of exposure, and increases to 
about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. at 30: 4 per cent. at 40: more than 4$\frac{1}{4}$ at 50, and con-
siderably higher at the next decennial period, while shortly after this time 
of life the longevity of the surviving Anglo-Indians almost keeps pace with 
the Northampton and other Tables, prepared during the last century in 
Europe. In the Civil Service the percentage of mortality for the last forty 
years has been somewhat under 2 per cent. for the first twenty years of 
residence in India; a result far more favorable than that of the other services. 
After the age of 40, the ratio of decrement would appear to keep pace with 
that of the Army.
At Bombay a Table* has been received from England, prepared by an eminent Actuary on data furnished from that presidency, which would have been valuable, but that throughout the document the Actuary, in the absence of more correct data, has erroneously assumed, that the probability of living any one year up to the age of 58 is correctly expressed by the fraction \( \frac{3}{4} \); or in other words, that from the age of 18 to 58, one person uniformly and regularly dies per annum from every twenty-seven members of the service. This error, which it appears the Actuary had no means of rectifying, has vitiated the Table and calculations throughout, as it is at variance with the positive fact of the increasing danger of every five or ten years' residence in India. The progressive ratio of age holds good here as in Europe, with an increased impetus from the effect of climate. The result of this error has made the expectation of life in the Bombay Table nearly 20 per cent. too favourable for all ages above 30 or 35, diminishing the probable value of life for all ages below it. The fraction \( \frac{3}{4} \) it is believed may accurately represent the average annual decrement at Bombay for the entire service, but it varies necessarily with the age and rank of the individual, much in the same manner we presume as has been actually experienced in the last twenty years in the Bengal Army; where 2.34 per cent. has been the ratio of yearly mortality for Ensigns, 2.75 for Lieutenants, 3.45 for Captains, 4.10 for Majors, 4.84 for Lieutenant-Colonels and 5.94 for Colonels. We may assume the general ages of the Ensigns to have been under 22, the Lieutenants under 33, the Captains and Majors 45, the Lieutenant-Colonels 55, &c.

In the last twenty years (as recently ascertained†) there have died one thousand one hundred and eighty-four Officers of the Bengal Army, or 59.2 per annum, out of an average number of one thousand eight hundred

* Vide Table No. 10.  
† Vide Table No. 11.
and ninety-seven persons, or about 3.12 per cent; the mean ages of the deceased were as follows:—

81 Colonels, deceased, mean age, .................. 61
97 Lieut.-Cols. ditto, ditto, ...................... 51
78 Majors, ditto, ditto, ........................... 40
277 Captains, ditto, ditto, ......................... 36
651 Subalterns, the mean age not ascertained, but it ranged from 18 to 33.

It may be as well here to exhibit in a simple comparative Table the difference of the rate of mortality at the three Presidencies, Bengal being clearly less inimical to the health of the European than either Madras or Bombay.

**Comparative annual percentage of Mortality of the Officers of the three Armies of Bengal, Madras and Bombay.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presidency</th>
<th>Colonels</th>
<th>Lieut.-Colonels</th>
<th>Majors</th>
<th>Captains</th>
<th>Lieutenants</th>
<th>Cornets and Ensigns</th>
<th>Surgeons</th>
<th>Assistant Surgeons</th>
<th>Total or General Percentage</th>
<th>General Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rate of mortality in the Bengal Pilot Service† has been accurately registered for the past thirty years. Its numbers are not sufficient for any general Table, as the annual effective strength of the Department has averaged only about one hundred and forty individuals. Out of these

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* Vide Tables Nos. 11, 12 and 13.
† Vide Table No 14.
have demised 3.36 per cent, while as many as 31 more, (or 0.73 per cent) have been drowned; this mode of death having occasioned nearly one-sixth of the entire mortality. On the examination of the Tables of the Pilot Establishment which have been compiled in the Master Attendant's Office, under orders of the Marine Board, several curious circumstances have come to view. Presuming them to be correct, we find their rate of decrement, generally speaking, does not exceed that of the Officers of the Army, but the periods of service and the ages of the deceased are much less than those of the Europeans elsewhere exhibited. Thus while the Branch Pilots or seniors whose time of life corresponds with that of Field Officers, have demised at the percentage of 4.46 per annum, the extreme age of the oldest has been 47 only, the mean age being 44 of all who died. The oldest Pilot on the list had only served thirty years, the mean of servitude for the whole casualties being only twenty-three years. Thirty-two Masters have died in thirty years, the percentage being 4.30, their mean age at the time of death being thirty-six, after a mean of service of seventeen years. The deaths in the First Mates (the most exposed class probably) have been heaviest of any, or 5 per cent.: their mean age was 28, and their period of service ten years. The Second Mates deceased only at half that rate, their mean age being 28 also, their service eight years. Among the Volunteers, the casualties by drowning are twenty; while the natural deaths are only fifty, the total percentage per annum being 4.10, the mean age of the deceased of this rank was 22, and their average periods of service three and a half years.

The Committee received separate Returns of the decrements among the Officers of His Majesty's Regiments stationed respectively at Bengal, Madras and Bombay.* At the first mentioned place the decrements on the whole are found to be 3.37 per cent. per annum; at Madras 3.55,
and at Bombay 3.28. These results would seem to keep pace with the
deaths in the Company’s Army, but there is reason to believe that there are
some discrepancies in the Returns of the strength of His Majesty’s Officers,
and that many are included (such as Officers with Depôts in Europe and
others) who are not exposed to an Indian climate, and whose appearance
therefore in the Table would tend to vitiate the correct ratio of mortality
throughout. In the Table furnished by Dr. Burke for the last four years,
the percentage has been 4.12 per annum, and in Returns originally sent to
the Committee by the Adjutant General of His Majesty’s Troops,* the
percentage was as high as 5.40 for the last twenty years. In explanation
of this apparent excess the Adjutant General has justly observed that
King’s Regiments come “to India bodily, the Officers being of different
ages from 16 to 50,” and the twenty years shewn in the Tables being those
of peace in Europe, Subalterns “are from 30 to 50 years of age, while in
time of war their age would scarcely exceed 25.” In explanation also of
there being more deaths among His Majesty’s Officers than those of the
Hon’ble Company, the Adjutant General states the fact of all the Bengal
Regiments having been sent to Ava, while few Hon’ble Company’s
Troops were employed from Bengal. He also observes that Europeans
always compose the heads of columns in attacks of fortified places
and consequently are the greatest sufferers. The whole of these reasons
are sufficient to explain why there should seem a greater ratio of mortality
with His Majesty’s Regiments, but it is to be remarked, that the casual-
ties in action are much less in either service than is generally presumed. In
Bengal, out of two hundred and eighty-four deaths in His Majesty’s
Regiments, only fourteen, in those Returns, appear to have been killed
in action, or about one in every twenty of those whose deaths are reported;

* In the Original Returns, out of an average of 261.20 lives yearly exposed to the climate,
the decrements were 14.15 per annum. The corrected Returns, it is believed, contain the
Depôt Companies and others in Europe.
at Madras out of three hundred and twenty-four deaths, only ten are returned "in action," or one in every thirty-two; and at Bombay, four are reported out of one hundred and thirty-four deaths, or one in thirty-one. There may be some inaccuracy, however, in this point in the Returns.

In the Honorable Company's Bengal Army the deaths in action have been equally or more rare during the last twenty years, thirty-nine only being reported out of one thousand one hundred and eighty-four casualties, or about one in every thirty; in the Madras Army forty-three out of one thousand three hundred and eighty-seven casualties, or one in every thirty-three; and in Bombay eighteen out of eight hundred and fifty casualties, or one in forty-seven. There is very little difference in this respect between the two services in India, with reference to the total strength of each, as will be seen in the following calculation, shewing the very small percentage per annum of Officers who have been killed out of the average yearly strength of Officers of both services at the different presidencies:

**His Majesty's Officers.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage per annum killed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Honorable Company's Officers.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage per annum killed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The foregoing explanation is necessary to shew that the adoption of the rates of mortality in the Military Service, as data on which to base a general Table, is not materially affected by deaths in action. It is true the
Civil Service are proved to be less exposed to death by one-third than the Army, and particularly in the junior ages. Yet, for the community at large, including all classes, the Army casualties may be taken as a fair and reasonable criterion.

The Committee, it should be mentioned, in preparing their rates of premium for Life Assurance, availed themselves entirely of Mr. Curnin’s data and calculations. This Table of Mortality it is not deemed right to publish here, as Mr. Curnin would probably desire to bring it forward under his own illustrations and details of the process of its laborious compilation. His calculations exhibit the accurate results of research and patient enquiry into the periods of service and dates of death of a greater number of well known individuals than it is believed, have ever been exhibited in any extant Table of Mortality. These calculations alone would have been sufficient to guide the Committee safely to fix the rate of premium, but it was thought fit to adduce at one view in the Appendix to the Report, the whole of the general Documents in the separate and previous possession of the Committee. The whole will be found wonderfully to bear out Mr. Curnin’s calculations when that gentleman may find it convenient to publish them.

A valuable paper by Mr. H. T. Prinsep, of the Civil Service, which appeared in the Journal of the Asiatic Society for July 1832, has been made use of. It embraces a period of forty-one years. It appears that between 1790 and 1831, there were nine hundred and four Civilians, who safely reached Bengal, so as to be included in the enquiry. From this number two hundred and seventy-five lapsed in forty-one years, or at the average rate of 2.25 per cent. of the lives yearly ascertained to have been exposed to the decrement.

Another document referred to was a Table by Major De Haviland, of the Madras Army, of the numbers, ages, and mortality of the Honorable Company’s Officers under Fort Saint George, from 1808 to 1820 inclusive:
it shows the deaths to have been six hundred and forty-seven in that period, at the rate of 3.16 per cent. per annum, or one lapse in thirty-one and a half lives.

A third also referred to is a statement of the Bengal Army, shewing, as the above, the numbers, ages, and deaths at our own Presidency, (compiled several years ago by Mr. G. J. Gordon) from the year 1760. It gives four thousand one hundred and thirty-eight lives, from which number two thousand one hundred and thirty-five deaths are exhibited. These deaths we find by reference to the Table occurred at the rate of about 3.33 per cent. per annum.

It is unnecessary to republish the three Tables just spoken of, as it is believed, they have all elsewhere appeared—but from the information afforded by them—a general Table* was prepared by the Secretary of the Committee—which is appended for the sake of comparison, with the Committee’s final Table now to be brought to the notice of the Society.

Several of the Committee, it seems, had been led to believe that if accurate Tables of the Indian Army could be obtained for the last twenty years only, a more favorable picture of the law of mortality for Europeans in British India would be obtained, than that exhibited by Mr. Curnin; that his data from their very copiousness—the number of names exhibited, and the extent of time gone back into—must have included every variety of Military Servants from the earliest employment of regular Troops by the Company, and the result in consequence might be less favorable than what is at present experienced. Mr. Curnin’s researches—by exhibiting the casualties of the last century—embraced a period of wars, exposure, and ignorance of proper means of protection from the climate, from which the more recent servants of the Company have been generally exempted.

* Vide Table No. 18.
In a word, it was thought desirable to shew the Government, not only that Mr. Curnin's Tables were perfectly safe, but that a lower rate of premium than that fixed by him might eventually be adopted with confidence—and although the Committee were not prepared, from obvious considerations of caution, to recommend the lower scale in the first instance, still it would be satisfactory for the Government to see upon what sure grounds the State was solicited to proffer its guarantee.

Under these impressions the Adjutants General of the three presidencies were called upon, with the sanction of Government, to furnish correct Returns, with the names and ages of all Officers who had deceased year by year at the different presidencies since the year 1814—together with the strength of the respective Armies for the twenty years exhibited. The information so obtained, it is not deemed requisite to publish here—particularly as the statements were found insufficient without further details; but these last were effectually procured by a form,* which the Adjutant Generals' Offices were requested to have filled up—and which it may be useful to print with the other Tables, as they will enable any one who enters into these enquiries to prepare Tables from the data thus given after his own mode of calculating; and, as there are various formula for obtaining the expectation of life, to follow that most approved of by himself. From the new form of statements, and on the assumption that every Cadet's age averages eighteen on his first arrival in India,† it was easy to ascertain how many persons of any given age had passed through,—(and what was the number of decrements in,) any given year of exposure to the

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* Vide Tables Nos. 19, 20 and 21.

† Mr. Curnin has established from the result of a reference to one thousand two hundred and six Baptismal Certificates obtained by him, that eighteen years, less a few days, was the mean age of that number of Officers on their reaching India. No general calculation therefore can materially err in assuming the age in question.
climate. Thus Tables, Nos. 22, 23, 24* were prepared for each presidency respectively.

From these last a general Table was correctly made out; half the number of Officers yearly retiring, or otherwise quitting the service, being deducted from the number of lives yearly exposed to the climate, on the principle that the retirements themselves were probably scattered through the year in which they occurred, and a portion of them only exposed to Indian mortality for the whole period. With such extensive data, thus rendered available, the Table No. 25,† was at length compiled; and this may be deemed a fair criterion of the law of mortality and expectation of life under existing circumstances in India. At the more advanced ages, as individuals are for the most part in Europe, the Northampton Tables are adopted, which being less favorable to life than the Carlisle ascertained law of mortality, may more faithfully represent the state of the case as applicable to the Anglo-Indian community.

The calculations themselves in the greater portion of the Tables, were made by Mr. Fergusson, Auditor, King’s Troops’ Department, in the Military Auditor General’s Office, and the result of these Tables generally, after due allowance for the errors, which must creep into tedious and voluminous operations of this nature, may be the more confidently relied upon when it is understood that, although wrought separately and perfectly apart, they will be found to agree in all main points with Mr. Curnin’s more elaborate Tables, and particularly so if reference be had to his data of the last twenty years only.

* Vide Tables Nos. 22, 23 and 24.  † Vide Table No. 25.
TABLE I.—ABSTRACT showing the strength, the proportion of Sick to strength, and ratio of Deaths to strength, per cent., for the undermentioned periods of Native Corps at the several Stations of the Army where European Troops are cantoned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Period of Corps remaining at Stations</th>
<th>Total Strength by Monthly average</th>
<th>Average Strength</th>
<th>Average of Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick in Well.</th>
<th>Number of Deaths</th>
<th>General Ratio per Cent.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Proportion of Sick to Well.</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Ordinary Diseases.</td>
<td>Chickenpox.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6720</td>
<td>1344</td>
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<td>171</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>406</td>
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<td>270</td>
<td>1 to 15</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>7126</td>
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<td>2 to 19½</td>
<td>174</td>
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<tr>
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<td>For 5 years</td>
<td>12200</td>
<td>4328</td>
<td>2943</td>
<td>1 to 17</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For 2 years</td>
<td>2922</td>
<td>1861</td>
<td>1392</td>
<td>1 to 15</td>
<td>46</td>
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<td>For 1 year</td>
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<td>11052</td>
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<td>3 to 49</td>
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<td>For 5 years</td>
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<td>612</td>
<td>1 to 10</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>110</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>1 to 12</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>967</td>
<td>870</td>
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<td>53</td>
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<td>For 5 years</td>
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<td>750</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>1 to 21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For 2 years</td>
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<td>821</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For 1 year</td>
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<td>2126</td>
<td>1379</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>2126</td>
<td>1379</td>
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<td>1 to 31</td>
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<td>4660</td>
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<td>3705</td>
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<td>92</td>
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<td>For 5 years</td>
<td>2327</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>233</td>
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<td></td>
<td>For 4 years</td>
<td>579</td>
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<td>53</td>
<td>1 to 22</td>
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<td>For 3 years</td>
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<td>650</td>
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<td>1 to 33</td>
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<td>1372</td>
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<td>For 1 year</td>
<td>1682</td>
<td>841</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>1 to 25</td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
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<td>Chunar</td>
<td>For 1 year</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>291</td>
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<td>1 to 16</td>
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<td>1231</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>For 1 year</td>
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<td>2050</td>
<td>723</td>
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<td>Average Strength</td>
<td>Average of Admissions during the Year</td>
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<td>Ordinary Disease</td>
<td>Cholera Morbus</td>
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<td>----------</td>
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<td>---------------------------</td>
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<td>170</td>
<td>1127</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
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<td>5308</td>
<td>2392</td>
<td>1 to 26</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td></td>
<td>For 3 years,</td>
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<td>15</td>
</tr>
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<td>For 2 years,</td>
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<td>1457</td>
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<td></td>
<td>For 4 years,</td>
<td>6590</td>
<td>1784</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>1 to 50</td>
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<td>For 3 years,</td>
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<tr>
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<td>For 2 years,</td>
<td>4249</td>
<td>2124</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>1 to 27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>For 1 year,</td>
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<td>3568</td>
<td>1094</td>
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<td>4 to 125</td>
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<td>For 4 years,</td>
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<td>997</td>
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<td>1 to 54</td>
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<td>7029</td>
<td>2350</td>
<td>1333</td>
<td>1 to 50</td>
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<td>For 2 years,</td>
<td>2657</td>
<td>1378</td>
<td>842</td>
<td>1 to 23</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td>For 1 year,</td>
<td>1610</td>
<td>1610</td>
<td>828</td>
<td>1 to 19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>16904</td>
<td>6689</td>
<td>3972</td>
<td>5 to 229</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
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<td>For 5 years,</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>1 to 15</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>For 4 years,</td>
<td>7459</td>
<td>1864</td>
<td>1159</td>
<td>1 to 21</td>
<td>45</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For 3 years,</td>
<td>13056</td>
<td>4649</td>
<td>2141</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For 2 years,</td>
<td>3086</td>
<td>1643</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>1 to 22</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For 1 year,</td>
<td>10246</td>
<td>10246</td>
<td>4544</td>
<td>1 to 27</td>
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<td>33777</td>
<td>18569</td>
<td>8614</td>
<td>5 to 100</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Grand Total**

| Monthly Average, ... | 190604 |

|                      | 1522   | 0.78 |

*Medical Board Office, 5th Feb. 1834.*

J. HUTCHINSON, Sec. Medl. Board.
**Table II.**—STATEMENT showing the number of Deaths in the Invalid Pension Establishment (of Fighting Men) reported from 1st May 1831 to 30th April 1832; also the average of Age when pensioned and the duration of Pension.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Deaths</th>
<th>Mean of Age, when Pensioned</th>
<th>Mean of Number of Years of Duration of Pension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Years</td>
<td>Months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subadar Majors</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subadars</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jemmadars</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Havildars and Naiks</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trumpeters and Drummers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troopers, Sepoys and Privates</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total and General Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>690</strong></td>
<td><strong>49</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
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</table>

**Table III.**—STATEMENT showing the actual Deaths in Pension Establishment (Regular Army) reported from May 1828 to October 1830, or 2½ Years, also average of Age when pensioned and the duration of Pension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Deaths</th>
<th>Mean of Age, when Pensioned</th>
<th>Mean of Number of Years of Duration of Pension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Years</td>
<td>Months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subadar Majors</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subadars</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jemmadars</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Havildars and Naiks</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drummers</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sepoys, Privates and Troopers</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total and General Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>730</strong></td>
<td><strong>51</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Tab. IV.—RETURN of the Strength of the Regiment when it arrived in India in 1823; the numbers of Men who joined the Corps, and the numbers who died till 31st December 1829.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Year</th>
<th>Strength and Numbers who joined</th>
<th>Died in the following Years</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1823</td>
<td>1824</td>
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<tr>
<td>Corps when it arrived in India</td>
<td>653</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruits who joined in</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. in</td>
<td>1824</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. in</td>
<td>1825</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. in</td>
<td>1826</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. in</td>
<td>1827</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers from Regiments leaving India in</td>
<td>1828</td>
<td>1520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. in</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. in</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Tab. V.—STATEMENT shewing the amount of Casualties by Death in the European Troops, at the several stations of the Army, when European Troops are stationed under the Presidency of Fort William, distinguishing those by Cholera Morbus, from those by ordinary Diseases and general proportion of the Sick to the Healthy, for the preceding 5 years, up to 31st December 1832.

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<tr>
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<th>Average Strength for 13 Months</th>
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<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Diseases</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Fort William</td>
<td>H.M.'s 59th Regt,</td>
<td>924</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>1 to 5½</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td></td>
<td>Do. 16th Regt,</td>
<td>954</td>
<td>2079</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>1 to 6½</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Do. 6th Regt,</td>
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<td>56</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Diseases</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
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<td>H.M.'s 59th Regt,</td>
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<td>2021</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>1 to 5½</td>
<td>96</td>
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<td>2079</td>
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<td>1 to 6½</td>
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<td>14</td>
</tr>
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<td>Do. 6th Regt,</td>
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<td>1055</td>
<td>103</td>
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<td>1197</td>
<td>99</td>
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<tr>
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<td>54</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1 to 6½</td>
<td>274</td>
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<td>Ratio per Cent.</td>
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<td>183</td>
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<td>6</td>
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II. Transcript of the Facsimile in the Square or Stone Character; Kyouk-cha.

The numbers denote the commencement of lines on the stone, the letters mark corrections.

III. Version in common Burmese, as read by the learned at Ava.

IV. Specimen of the Kammua-trā (Karma-vācha) form of Pāli.
### BARRACKPORE

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<th>Proportion of Sick to All</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
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### DINAPORE

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<th>Proportion of Sick to All</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
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* H. M.'s 13th Regiment proceeded from Dinapore to Agra, during which no Returns were received for the months of November and December, 1831, consequently calculations are made for that year for 10 months only.
RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE

TABLE V.—Continued.

BERHAMPORE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Corps.</th>
<th>Average Strength for 12 Months</th>
<th>Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
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ALLAHABAD.

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<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
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**AGRA**

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**BENARES**

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### RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE

#### TABLE V.—Continued.

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<th>Average Strength for 12 Months</th>
<th>Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Diseases</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
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<td>Do.</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>3266</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>1 to 7</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>2045</td>
<td>3059</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>1 to 8</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>3319</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>1 to 7</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Cawnpore</td>
<td></td>
<td>10307</td>
<td>16640</td>
<td>1395</td>
<td>1 to 7 ½</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2079</td>
<td>3308</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>1 to 7 ½</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio per Cent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4 ½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Ratio.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>41 ½</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Meerut

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Corps</th>
<th>Average Strength for 12 Months</th>
<th>Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Diseases</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1828</td>
<td>Meerut</td>
<td>H. M.'s 16th Lancers, 31st Foot &amp; Arty.</td>
<td>1845</td>
<td>3283</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>3283</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>1 to 8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2813</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>1 to 8 ½</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1716</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>1 to 10</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>H. M.'s 26th Foot, 11th Lt. Drag. &amp; Artillery</td>
<td>1418</td>
<td>2105</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>1 to 11</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Meerut</td>
<td></td>
<td>9410</td>
<td>12904</td>
<td>1091</td>
<td>1 to 8 ½</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>136</td>
<td>12 ½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio per Cent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2 ½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Ratio.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 ½</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TABLE V.—Continued.**

**KURNAUL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Corps</th>
<th>Average Strength for 12 Months</th>
<th>Average Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td>Kurnaul</td>
<td>H. C. Arty.</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td>Kurnaul</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>Kurnaul</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Kurnaul</td>
<td>H. M.'s 31st Regt. Arty.</td>
<td>1196</td>
<td>1558</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>Kurnaul</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>1289</td>
<td>1650</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3154</td>
<td>4289</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>630</td>
<td>858</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio per Cent,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>138</td>
<td></td>
<td>11½</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Ratio,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SAUGOR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Corps</th>
<th>Average Strength for 12 Months</th>
<th>Average Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Morbus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td>Saugor</td>
<td>H. C. Arty.</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>Saugor</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Saugor</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>Saugor</td>
<td>Do. do.</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>526</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio per Cent,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>250</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7½</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Ratio,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7½</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE

TABLE V.—Continued.

NUSSERABAD, FOR 1828, 29 & 30.
NEEMUCH, FOR 1831 & 1832.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Corps</th>
<th>Average Strength for 12 Months</th>
<th>Admissions during the Year</th>
<th>Average Admissions for 12 Months</th>
<th>Proportion of Sick to Well.</th>
<th>Deaths by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera &amp; Murrain.</th>
<th>Deaths by Cholera Mortis.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1828</td>
<td>Nusserabad and Neemuch</td>
<td>H. C. Art.,</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1 to 7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1829</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1 to 5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>927</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Do</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>507</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1183</td>
<td>3148</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>236</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio per Cent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>285</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ABSTRACT, shewing the several Ratio per Cent. of the within Statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stations</th>
<th>Strength for 5 Years</th>
<th>Of Sick to Well according to Total Admissions for 5 Years</th>
<th>Of Sick to Well by Monthly Average</th>
<th>Death by Ordinary Disease</th>
<th>Days, by Cholera Mortis to Sick</th>
<th>General Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fort William,</td>
<td>4533</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dum Dum,</td>
<td>4397</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiassurah,</td>
<td>2390</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rambhampore,</td>
<td>5063</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhaugnpore,</td>
<td>5063</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinapore,</td>
<td>4767</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chunar and Buxar,</td>
<td>1418</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benares,</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghazipur,</td>
<td>4801</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad,</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cawnpore,</td>
<td>10397</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meerut,</td>
<td>9410</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra,</td>
<td>5516</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muttra,</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurnahl,</td>
<td>3154</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagar,</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neemuch,</td>
<td>1183</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

J. HUTCHINSON,
Fort William, Medical Board Office.
Secy. Medical Board.
Table VI.—Statement of Burials of Europeans and East Indians at the Park Street Protestant Burial Ground, for the Years mentioned, with the Ages of the Deceased, from 1814 to 1833, both inclusive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1814</th>
<th>1815</th>
<th>1816</th>
<th>1817</th>
<th>1818</th>
<th>1819</th>
<th>1820</th>
<th>1821</th>
<th>1822</th>
<th>1823</th>
<th>1824</th>
<th>1825</th>
<th>1826</th>
<th>1827</th>
<th>1828</th>
<th>1829</th>
<th>1830</th>
<th>1831</th>
<th>1832</th>
<th>1833</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at which the Death took place</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Burials in</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Deaths at the different Ages</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>562</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>688</td>
<td>751</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>877</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>983</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td>1089</td>
<td>1142</td>
<td>1195</td>
<td>1248</td>
<td>1301</td>
<td>1354</td>
<td>1407</td>
<td>1460</td>
<td>1513</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V.O.L. No. - 22
RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE
TAB. VII.—FIFTH LAUDABLE SOCIETY—1822-27.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>Lapsed within, from Insurance,</th>
<th>Total Lapsed.</th>
<th>Total number of Lives Insured.</th>
<th>Rate per Cent. of Lapse.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Year.</td>
<td>2 Years.</td>
<td>3 Years.</td>
<td>4 Years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 a 20,</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 a 35,</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 a 50,</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 a 70,</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shares.
Age 20 a 35 — No. of Lives lapsed 101 on which 206 Shares were held, average 2.04 each Lapse.
" 35 a 50 " " " " 59 " " " " 261 " " " " 4.42 ditto.
" 50 & upwards " " " " 27 " " " " 147 " " " " 5.44 ditto.
Total, ... 187 lapsed Lives. 614 Shares. Average 3.28

TAB. VIII.—SIXTH LAUDABLE SOCIETY.

STATEMENT shewing the number of Shares which were transferred from the 5th to the 6th Laudable Society on the 1st January 1827—also the number of Lives on which those Shares were held, and the Lapses which have taken up to 31st December 1831.

| Number of Shares transferred from 5th to 6th Laudable Society, | 2741 |
| Number of Lives on which the above Shares were held, | 996 |
| Number of Lives Lapsed up to 31st December 1831, out of the above, | 180 |
| Number of Shares held on the above Lapsed Lives, | 529 |

"The above 529 Shares being held on 180 Lives lapsed out of 996 Lives and 2741 Shares, gives an average of 2½ Shares on each Lapsed Life, and a ratio of Lapses of 18 per Cent. in 5 years."

18 per Cent. in 5 years gives 3.6 per Cent. per Annum.

TAB. IX.—NUMBER of Lives Insured at the ORIENTAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, with the Lapses from ditto, from 1822 to 1833, or a term of 12 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Under 25 years of Age. From 25 to 30 years of Age.</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>35</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>45</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>55 &amp; upwards.</th>
<th>Total.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number Insured.</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto Lapsed,</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage,</td>
<td>8.018</td>
<td>17.44</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>22.09</td>
<td>43.29</td>
<td>46.09</td>
<td>45.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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## LAW OF MORTALITY, FOR BRITISH INDIA.

### Tab. X.—BOMBAY MILITARY SERVANTS.

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# Results of an Enquiry Respecting the

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### Tab. XI.—Table showing the Casualties among Officers of the Bengal Army, (Hon. Company's Service) from the year 1814 to 1833, with the average percentage for each class and for each year.

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<th>Captains</th>
<th>Lieuts.</th>
<th>Cornets and Ensigns</th>
<th>Total</th>
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Memo. of the number of Officers who were killed or died from wounds received in action, included in this Table—

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Total: 39
TABLE shewing the Decructs among the Officers of the Madras Army, (Honorable Company's Service) from the year 1814 to 1833 inclusive.

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Percentage, 5.40    5.42    5.11    5.40
TAB. XIII.—TABLE showing the Decrements among the Officers of the Bombay Army, (Honorable Company’s Service) from the year 1804 to 1833 inclusive.

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<th>Lieuts.</th>
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Total of each Rank... 557 32 971 53 928 35 4359 165 8091 341 3072 97 1029 42 2017 85 21572 850

Percentage, 5.74 5.45 3.77 3.78 3.96 3.15 4.08 4.21 3.94

Remarks:

1. Captain and 1 Ensign killed in action.
2. 2 Captains and 1 Lieut. do. do.
3. Lieut. ditto ditto.
4. Lieut. ditto ditto.
5. Assists, Surgeon do. ditto.
6. Lieutenants and 1 Surgeon do. do.
7. Captn and 1 Assits, Surgeon ditto.
8. 18 Officers killed in action or died from wounds.
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<th>Seamen, or Volunteers</th>
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<p>| Percentage of Natural Deaths | 3.90 | 3.75 | 4.58 | 2.49 | 2.93 | 3.36 |
| Total percentage, including Drowning | 4.45 | 4.30 | 5.00 | 2.77 | 4.10 | 4.09 |</p>
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**Total:**

| LIEUT.-COL. | 13 960 |
|            | 13 960 |

**Percentage of each Rank:**

| MAJOR-GEN. | 15.15 |
| COLONEL    | 5.15  |
| LIEUT.-COL. | 5.15  |

**VETERINARY SURGEON:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Adjutant General:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Que. Majors:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Patrols and Ensigns:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Cornets and Esquines:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Lieut.-Col.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Capt.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Majors:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Lies.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Cornt. and Est.**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Siegw.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Debal.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Dale.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |

**Siegw.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
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**Debal.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
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**Dale.:**

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**Debal.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
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**Dale.:**

| 1814 | 13 960 |
|      | 13 960 |
### RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE

**Table XVI.** — **TABLE showing the Decrements among Officers of His Majesty's Regiments on the Madras Establishment, from the year 1814 to 1833 inclusive.**

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**Percentage:**

- **Deaths:** 4.26
- **Stenog.:** 4.30
- **Major:** 3.20
- **Lieut.-Col.:** 2.98
- **Capt.:** 3.20
- **Lieut.:** 2.07
- **Ens.:** 2.07
- **Bomb. & Eng.:** 2.07
- **Adj.-T.-s:** 2.07
- **Qu.M.-s:** 2.07
- **Art. & S.-m.:** 2.07
- **Vet. & M.S.:** 2.07
- **Nos. killed:** 2.83

**Total officers killed in action:** 4.35

**Note:** The table shows the decrements among officers of His Majesty's Regiments on the Madras Establishment, from the year 1814 to 1833 inclusive.
TABLE showing the Decrements among Officers of His Majesty's Regiments on the Bombay Establishment, from the year 1814 to 1833 inclusive.

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LAW OF MORTALITY, FOR BRITISH INDIA.

229
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<th>Major DelHaviland's Table of the Bengal Civil Service, for 12 years.</th>
<th>Bengal Army from 1769</th>
<th>Total of the Three Tables</th>
<th>Quinquennial Rate</th>
<th>Graduated Rate on a</th>
<th>Age at which the Life was terminated.</th>
<th>Expectation of Life.</th>
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| 18            | 728                                            | 3603              | 4331            | 122             | 0.032
| 19            | 868                                            | 4050              | 4918            | 132             | 0.037
| 20            | 1004                                           | 4903              | 5906            | 137             | 0.042
| 21            | 1162                                           | 5692              | 6854            | 142             | 0.047
| 22            | 1326                                           | 6579              | 7905            | 147             | 0.052
| 23            | 1495                                           | 7664              | 9159            | 152             | 0.057
| 24            | 1677                                           | 8884              | 10661           | 157             | 0.062
| 25            | 1872                                           | 10186             | 12058           | 162             | 0.067
| 26            | 2071                                           | 11587             | 13658           | 167             | 0.072
| 27            | 2275                                           | 13107             | 15482           | 172             | 0.077
| 28            | 2479                                           | 14726             | 17405           | 177             | 0.082
| 29            | 2690                                           | 16456             | 19146           | 182             | 0.087
| 30            | 2907                                           | 18293             | 21120           | 187             | 0.092
| 31            | 3130                                           | 20253             | 23283           | 192             | 0.097
| 32            | 3356                                           | 22319             | 25575           | 197             | 1.002
| 33            | 3586                                           | 24465             | 27851           | 202             | 1.007
| 34            | 3811                                           | 26616             | 30127           | 207             | 1.012
| 35            | 4039                                           | 28875             | 32564           | 212             | 1.017
| 36            | 4269                                           | 31134             | 35003           | 217             | 1.022
| 37            | 4501                                           | 33403             | 37554           | 222             | 1.027
| 38            | 4736                                           | 35790             | 40126           | 227             | 1.032
| 39            | 4974                                           | 38176             | 42750           | 232             | 1.037
| 40            | 5218                                           | 40652             | 45532           | 237             | 1.042
| 41            | 5468                                           | 43130             | 48308           | 242             | 1.047
| 42            | 5722                                           | 45618             | 51140           | 247             | 1.052
| 43            | 5984                                           | 48120             | 53904           | 252             | 1.057
| 44            | 6249                                           | 50622             | 59151           | 257             | 1.062
| 45            | 6517                                           | 53124             | 62639           | 262             | 1.067
| 46            | 6791                                           | 55626             | 66617           | 267             | 1.072
| 47            | 7063                                           | 58128             | 69791           | 272             | 1.077
| 48            | 7337                                           | 60630             | 73967           | 277             | 1.082
| 49            | 7614                                           | 63132             | 78346           | 282             | 1.087
| 50            | 7894                                           | 65634             | 83130           | 287             | 1.092
| 51            | 8178                                           | 68136             | 88118           | 292             | 1.097
| 52            | 8467                                           | 70638             | 93305           | 297             | 1.102
| 53            | 8760                                           | 73140             | 98775           | 302             | 1.107
| 54            | 9057                                           | 75642             | 104457          | 307             | 1.112
| 55            | 9358                                           | 78144             | 109342          | 312             | 1.117
| 56            | 9663                                           | 80646             | 114437          | 317             | 1.122
| 57            | 9972                                           | 83148             | 119642          | 322             | 1.127
| 58            | 10285                                          | 85650             | 124957          | 327             | 1.132
| 59            | 10603                                          | 88152             | 130372          | 332             | 1.137

* Aged 63 years of age in the Northampton Table, which has been adopted from this year.
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<th>Total of the Indian Army</th>
<th>Quinquennial Rate</th>
<th>Graduated Rate of Life</th>
<th>Radio of 10,000</th>
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*From the age of 75 the Northampton Table is adopted.*
RESULTS OF AN ENQUIRY RESPECTING THE

TAB. XIX.—STATEMENT shewing the number of Officers, Cadets of the different Seasons, who were on the strength of the Bengal Army at the beginning of the years specified, with the number of Retirements, Dismissals, &c. and of the Deaths during the year in question.

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<th>In 1816</th>
<th>In 1817</th>
<th>In 1818</th>
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Note.—No Returns for the years 1794—9 and 1791—2, which lines are consequently omitted to save space.
ERRATA

In the articles from Mr. A. C. Körösi.—Parts I. and II.

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<table>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
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<td>19. ...sends ...cedes or yields</td>
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<td>At the bottom, after the note, add: See ७३३, ३७, leaf 631.</td>
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PART I. (continued.)

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<td>1. ...at the bottom ७३३, ३७ ...७३३</td>
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<td>Add at the bottom: These Notes and references, in form of answers had been written (or were written) to the queries of Mr. H. H. Wilson.</td>
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<td>8. ...from bottom ७३३ ...७३३</td>
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<td>6. ...fr. bott. and cotton ...of cotton</td>
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<td>14. ...Bréno dang ...Bréno dang</td>
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NOTE.—The Sanscrit words in the titles of the treatises, mentioned in this volume, have been rendered in Roman character according as they were expressed in the Tibetan (letters), without endeavouring to correct them according to the rules of Sandā of Indian and European grammarians. Also in the list of Errata, such mistakes in printing, as the intelligent reader himself may easily correct, have not been included.
SECOND PART
OF THE
TWENTIETH VOLUME
OF
ASIATIC RESEARCHES;
OR,
TRANSACTIONS OF THE SOCIETY
INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,
FOR INQUIRING INTO
THE HISTORY, THE ANTIQUITIES, THE ARTS AND
SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE
OF
ASIA.

CALCUTTA:
Bishop's College Press.
1839.
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ON THE

GOVERNMENT OF SIAM.

BY CAPTAIN JAMES LOW,
M. A. S. C.

Note.—The orthography of such words as are of Pali origin has been subjoined in foot notes with the assistance of Mr. R. Paula, a Pali Scholar. Sec.

The Government of Siam is monarchical and perfectly despotic in practice, but in principle it affects to be regulated by strict impartiality and by justice.

At the head of the nation is the King, whose national designations are Phraya Thai, ‘Lord of the Thai race,’ or Kho-ung Lo-ang, (the supreme ruler.) He is also both the protector of the Phra Satsana (°) or Buddhist faith, and the chief judge in the Empire, to whom ultimate appeals are made from inferior judicial departments. He is not however the head of the Church, the Hierarchy being under a Phra Phoottha-ong (°) or high priest, who merely regulates ecclesiastical discipline, without interfering in matters of state.

The King ought to be guided in his public conduct by his Phra Maha Rachakhroo (°) or spiritual guide and his chief ministers; and it is to

(°) Pali, Pra sasana. (°) P. Pera Buddha angga. (°) P. Pra mahā rāja guru.
be suspected from the nature of past events, that when deficient in talent and energy he becomes a mere puppet in the hands of a yet more despotic (if such be possible) aristocracy.

From whatever source the legislative power proceeds, it appears to be enforced with less regard to public opinion than was generally exhibited by the ancient Dynasties and Princes of Hindooostan, even while in the plenitude of sovereign authority; because they felt that their subjects if they did not actually rebel against oppression, could, upon a fitting occasion, easily transfer their allegiance to a domestic rival or to a foreign invader.

The succession in Siam is hereditary in the male line. Women are not admissible to the throne, which is one political feature distinguishing the Siamese from the natives of Hindooostan. The eldest son succeeds, although it has not apparently always been thus,* next to him other sons, then the brothers of the King. But any one of these may be set aside from incapacity. It does not unfrequently happen that the King previous to his death nomi\n
ates a successor, hoping thereby to prevent a civil war. The motives, however, which urge him to such a measure being generally unjust, partial or fanciful, and to the exclusion and prejudice of the Somdet P.hra Chāāu lok t.hoo—or heir apparent, they consequently defeat the object.

It rarely happens that a new reign is not begun in disorder and blood. But the evils which here follow a disputed succession are little felt beyond the precincts of the palace, and the spheres of the respective contending parties. These last seldom embrace, or come in contact with, the mass of the people, which finds its best safety to consist in neutrality. It is this culpable apathy which rivets the chains of the subject, and is the surest bulwark of the oppressor's throne; for the new King rises triumphant over the ashes of his slaughtered brethren, and finds equally in this case, as he should have experienced in a quiet succession, that the machinery of

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* Kemfer, vol. 1, p. 23
Government has not been disturbed, and that it is yet as rigid, formal and energetic as before.

It must be confessed that their system of government is in many respects well adapted to the genius and locality of the people; that it is minutely, as well as extensively efficient, cannot be denied. It is to these causes, and to the constant tension preserved throughout the various sinews of the State, that Siam is entitled to rank amongst the kingdoms of the East; for neither her population, since that is but limited, nor her territories, large though ill-peopled as they actually are, would confer a right to such an honor.

The Government penetrates by its spies into the domestic circle, and even punishes those, who having the opportunity do not become informers; never trusts an individual, however low in office or high in favor and dignity, with any degree of solitary and unchecked power; suspects every subject to be a disguised enemy; and exacts from the bulk of the male population their personal service, and from the higher ranks the homage of slavery and fear; monopolizes wealth; cripples and confines trade both domestic and foreign by senseless, unprofitable and perverse restrictions, and mean, narrow minded regulations, and is frequently for a time indulgent to delinquency, that in the end it may satiate its cupidity and shew itself unsparing, as it always is, in retribution.

There is a strong affinity betwixt the Siamese and Burman plans of government. But in their details it would seem that a firmer chain of responsibility has been wrought throughout the body politic in Siam than in that of Ava.

Were the T'hai nation as bold and militant as they are crafty, plausible and ambitious, they might well from their unanimity be deemed dangerous neighbours, even to European settlements. For what else than their unity of purpose could have enabled them, until checked partly by European influence with inferior numbers, to overawe the Malayan States of Kedah, Perah, Patani, Salangore and others. They are perfectly aware
of the ground on which they stand; for while collectively affecting to
despise the Malayan character in every respect, they yet as *individuals*
behold them with a dread which is quite ludicrous. This feeling may have
arisen from their experience of the determination generally evinced by
seafaring and piratical Malays, for the agricultural Malays are generally a
quiet set of people. If *combination*, destitute of patriotism, or true military
spirit, can give to Siam the power to controul those possessing perhaps more
personal courage though less organized means of defence, to what a distance
may we suppose they would be cast behind European troops, should they
ever be so unfortunate as to lead themselves into a war where these may
be encountered.

It were vain to indulge in the belief that the Malays will ever firmly
join to repel their invaders. They have never been united and have never
constituted a nation since they sent off colonies from the original body,
whatever transitory power insulated States may have at different periods
of history possessed.

Were Siam to relax her system of rule, and to admit of her outer pro-
vinces being governed by irresponsible chiefs, instead of controlling each
by a council of two officers specially nominated at court; and were she
to permit foreigners freely to resort to all her ports, we should soon witness
the result of such policy in the dismemberment of her Empire. We must
believe that those chiefs would speedily imbibe from their European visi-
tors, new ideas on every subject, and principally on commerce, and that
having once leaped the barrier to improvement they would hasten to join
with those, or to employ the knowledge they had gained, in asserting inde-
pendence. Such considerations however do not perhaps weigh so much
at the court, as the dread of *losing revenue* by fairly opening the trade of
inferior ports.

Unless Siam unalterably adheres to her present scheme of policy,
extension must weaken her, for she is not in the condition of a State borne
down by a superabundant population to which emigration is a relief; a fact
sufficiently apparent from the care with which she prevents the migration of her subjects and especially of women—although I am free to confess that the same reason will not account for a similar prohibition in China. Her main territory is so thinly peopled in comparison with its extent of surface, that instead of being able to support and spare a drain from its numbers, she is forced to check emigration by sumptuary laws. A man may indeed obtain permission to leave the country, or may quit it without leave having been granted, but in neither case (unless he happens to live on the boundary) will he find it possible to take his family with him.

If the restriction was to be removed the greatest part of Lower Siam would soon be abandoned by its inhabitants.

When the King of Siam is spoken of by a subject his real name is never mentioned. The usual designation on such occasions is Phrā pong.

His titles however are very numerous, and in the following which have been extracted from authoritative law digests, and authentic letters, the Sanscrit scholar will probably find allusions to more western regal titles.

In one work he is entitled Phrā Karunā prabānt Sondetcha ēka t,hots-ūrūt Esō-ūn bāromma būp,heetrā Phra Phootthee Chān yo hoa-khroo ong sondetcha Phrā Narai song mekk,ha Racha tham an maha prasæt.(1)

"The pre-eminently merciful and munificent, the soles of whose feet resemble those of Boodd,ha—the exalted, the one; he who claims descent from the mighty father of Rama [Thotsaro]; and who may be compared with Isvāra, who is supremely blessed in the possession of all that mortal can desire, and who like Boodd,ha the Lord, is head over all. He is like Phrā Narai (a title of Rama), and his piety and virtue transcend in brightness the magnificence and lustre of his imperial state."

It must not be supposed that the Siamese are such idiots as to believe that these outrageous titles are with justice applied. They candidly allow

(1) P. Prā karunā prā pāda ḍhakkhattra oṣa ṭsvara parama .... prā Buddha .... prā nārāyana .... rāja dharmā .... māhā prasittha.
them to be the phrases of adulation. Again we have in another place the following addition to the quotation just made:

_Somdetcha P.hra Eka t,hats-ong Eeso-an barommanarot P,hra Chaau na-yoooha, (') which means "he who is in possession of all that mankind covet and desire, and who is famed for virtue and dignity."

And _P.hra maha Krasaat Chaau fia, Chaau p,hén deen Chaau p,heep,hop Chaau Cheewet. (')

"The greatest of princes; firmly established in justice and virtue; lord of earth and sky, of life and death, whose sway is unbounded."

"And Chakkrap,hat somdet _P.hra Chaau Kroongsee Ayott,haiya theppa " maha nak,hon song _P.hranam P,hra T,heenang. (') The wielder of the " mighty discus of the Gods, the great Lord and King of Kroong see Ayoot-

"thaiya(" (the old capital—the name being officially applied to the new one,) " which in brilliancy and splendor vies with the bright abodes of the " Gods. He who is privileged to sit on the exalted _P.hra T,heenang " (throne.)"

_P.hra P,hoott,hee Chaau yoooha settanakaan naa Racha Aat _P.hra Cheen At,heet, (') _P.hra t,heenang sooveeraam reenthan, _P,hra K,hoon lo-ang (or Khong or _K,hoang Lo-ang.)

"He who like Boodd,ha is exalted above the heads of mortals; who " reclines on the regal chair, fixed in the west. He is the mighty ruler of " nations and resembles _Ráma."

He is also termed—

Chaau kroong _P,hra nak,hoon.

Kroong Krasattrra. Lord of the country.

_P,hra Maha Krasat. The mighty and the just.

(') _P. Pra eka chhatta anga Issara parama narotana pra....

(') _P. Pra mahá khattiya .... vibhaau jivita.

(?) _P. Chakkaavatti .... _Pra .... Sri Ayuddha deva mahá nagar .... pranáma ....

(') Ayodiya, or Oudh.

(') _P. Pra chanda ádichcha ; Sansc. Chandraáditya.
Baromma Krasat

Chaau k,haau deng. The Lord of the red rice. (')

This title is bestowed on the King, because he distributes, or ought to distribute dressed rice to all ranks during the three days on which is held the great festival called Wan troot le wan Songkhraan, (2) It happens about the middle of the fourth month. Much state is displayed on the coronation of a king.

The account which is now to be given of the ceremonies which took place on one occasion when a Siamese king voluntarily resigned the sceptre to his legal successor, has been principally extracted from a MS. in the Thai language.

"The illustrious sovereign of earth and sky having publicly announced his intention to pass the remainder of his life in the service of religion, and to resign the crown into the hands of the Chaau lok thooy yai, or heir apparent, named Chaau faa da dooa, the astrologers were therefore required to fix a day for the august ceremony of installation.

"All the officers of state in the capital, and all the governors of provinces and their subordinates, who could be spared from their important functions, were summoned to the presence, that they might behold, and swear allegiance to, their new king, and be gratified by laying their heads beneath the sublime feet. They were also directed to bring their wives to court in case of their services being desired as attendants on the queen.

"As the fortunate day approached the populace were entertained with feasting and every kind of revel, and the priests were sumptuously fed and clothed.

"The prince went frequently in procession round the city [or that part of it which is fortified.]

(') Perhaps rather Chaau khau din, lord of cultivable land.
(2) Sankranti, the entrance of the Sun into the zodiacal sign aries.
On the morning of the auspicious day he went abroad in a dazzling state; and on his return bathed in consecrated water [nam mon]. This water was mixed with lime juice and exquisitely scented. Having bathed, he perfumed himself with the peng-hom [this paste is composed of rice flour, sandal and lignum aloes.] Attendants now presented the regal robes and dress, consisting of a gold-en vest with tight sleeves [Salong Phra-ong]; and an embroidered under garment, below which depending from the girdle and reaching down the thighs hung deep and richly embroidered and ornamented slashes of cloth [or Chai Kreng]. These resemble in some degree the ornamental dresses worn by Chinese actors when representing on the stage Tartar heroes of old, and in the same respects may remind us of the Spanish costume. He put on likewise the Cherbat and Khem Khat of broad waist belt and plate, and the golden configurated apron (called P, ha hoe naa), and the mantle (or P, ha t,heep), and he threw gold chains around his neck. From his shoulders depended the Eenthano [or jewel flowered shoulder ornament],* and a splendid Thapsonwang [or gorget of gold set with jewels] adorned his breast. Richly embroidered belts [Sai] crossed his body diagonally from the shoulder to the side [to the ends of these are attached golden ornaments called Eeng: Su-eeng is the name of whole]; his arms were encircled with massive and costly bracelets [Krong khen and rat kheng], and his fingers shone with diamond rings. On his feet were the Salang prabaat or royal slippers.

Thus gorgeously apparelled the sublime prince passed into the hall and placed himself in the midst of a ring of prostrate dignitaries and officers. The astrologers now came forward and raised the wén kēo teen t,hiyan [or mystic tablet], on the edge of which lighted tapers had been fixed, and invoked the supernal powers to vouchsafe their protection to

* It will be found in that drawing of the Prabaat in the account published in the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society.
"the prince, and to bless the kingdom which he was about to rule. The "tablet being then laid down, the astrologer took a leaf of the betel vine, "and held it over the flame of one of the tapers, which he also extinguished "with it.

"With this blackened leaf he made nine mystic marks* on the forehead "of the prince. And now appeared the Phra maha mongkoot or tiara, "which was brought forth supported on a golden staff!"

Of this tiara a drawing is exhibited in the drawing of the divine foot already before the Royal Asiatic Society. Its pyramidal shape is in allusion to the Oonnaheet Sancha of the Bali, the tiara of Boodd,ha, and may probably be typical of the solar ray; for it has been stated by Maurice that the same shape was retained in the Persian diadem, and in the Phrygian bonnet, which adorned the statues of Mithra, and that the Druids (who were followers of the elder Boodd,ha) wore a similarly formed cap.

His Siamese majesty wears his crown only on occasions of very particular ceremony.

"The chief astrologer, (he is frequently a Brahman) next approached "the crown and made to it three several obeisances."

These are thus performed. The person rests on his knees, joins his open hands, and raises them until the tips of his fingers are on a level with his forehead, and then, without removing them from that position, bows his head to within about two inches of the ground.

"When the prince had been crowned by the astrologer, he took the "son phrakhan or bow and sword of state in his right hand, and seating "himself in his palankeen (bootsabok) was conveyed amidst the astounding "chorus of all manner of musical instruments to the hall where the throne "rested, shaded by the sekkachat or seven-tiered umbrella. The Bali "formulae ordained to be read on such solemn occasions were duly "attended to."

* Typical of the nine evacuatory organs of Boodd,ha.
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ROYAL APPURTEINANCES.

There are five things especially appertaining to royalty. The Setta chatra (') or seven-tiered umbrella; the P.hatchanee (") or fan; the P.hra khan (') or sword, the diadem, and slippers. But it is also essential to regal dignity that it should be attended by the Amancha, (') which comprehends a (') Montree or prime minister, a Parohita (") or astrologer, an Ak.khalt,hatso or person through whom the King is addressed [etiquette not permitting that he should be personally spoken to in public]—a land surveyor, a Chattok,haho (') or umbrella bearer, a K.hatta k.haho (') or armour bearer, Chattant,ha (') an elephant, Atswa (") a horse, Phra t,hammarong noppharat ("') a ring, set with nine kinds of precious stones; bearing perhaps allusion to the churning of the ocean by the Gods, or to the nine gems of Vieramaditya's Court; and lastly and ungallantly an Ak.khamahesee ("') or queen, herself of royal blood. Should a lady of equal rank not be obtainable, the King may marry one of inferior or plebeian rank; but she is not then entitled to the above appellation. She can only claim the title of Phra Sanom. It is owing to this punctilio that Siamese kings, rather than disgrace and confound their line by an unequal alliance, prefer marrying distant scions of their own family; and, when such cannot be obtained, their own sisters, like the Egyptian princes of old.

It would be only repeating what has been narrated by those who have at various periods, some of them recent, visited Siam, were a description to be here given of the state maintained at Court on common occasions of ceremony. The historical account of the country by M. D. L. LOUBERE in the 16th century; Mr. CRAUFURD's mission; and the late Dr. FINLAYSON's account in 1821-22 may be consulted with advantage.

(') P. Satta chhatta. (') P. Vijani. (') P. Khagga. (') P. Amaochcha. (') P. Mantini
(') P. Parohita. (') P. Chhattagahó. (') P. Khaggagahó. (') P. Chhaddanta. (") P. Assa.
(") P. Navaratana. ("') P. Aggamahesi,
These are sufficiently decisive of the fact, that the Court is equally
devoid of real splendor, as its inmates are of taste, feeling and honor; and
that a paltry affectation of rating their knowledge, institutions, and
strength as a nation, at a level beyond that to which other people of other
regions have attained, and a morbid, fantastical and delusive imagination,
have insensibly nursed and matured in them the belief, that their country
and all that appertains to it, are collectively or individually superlative,
or as they would express it—ek "the one," than which nothing is greater.

To pull them down from this high vantage ground to which a sickly
fancy has raised them would be no easy task. The events of the Burmese
war has no doubt shaken the basis of their pampered vanity. Yet nothing
has transpired in the measures and ostensible policy of their Court to shew
that it has wrought a very salutary change: and if such a palpable, and
it might be thought fearful, example has proved no obvious stumbling
block to them, but has only contributed to render them greater bigots to
former systems, there is no likelihood of their soon emerging from demis-
barbarism, or of a field being opened on which either enlightened philan-
thropy can labor with any prospect of success—or policy calculate for the
issue of the future.

Still the existing defects which we cannot but deplore, belong more to
the Government than to the people; who are naturally cheerful, imagina-
tive and charitable. Their poetry, romances and dramatic works have all
a powerful tendency to soothe the mind, and even to take from the bitter-
ness of the thraldom they endure. Living in the utopian land of fancy,
and viewing every thing as if it were actually what it ought to be, and not
what it really is, truth, and particularly that sort which is apt to destroy the
illusory mirage which surrounds them, becomes to them an unwelcome guest,
divested in their sight of every attraction which endears her to civilized man.

It will be well for Siam if schemes of conquest do not lead to her ruin.
She was not long since in the high way to military supremacy over the
whole Malayan Peninsula, although conscious that she must in her course
have trod on the delicate political relations of the power which but lately humbled her most ancient and potent adversary; and to conclude;—is it certain that the nation does not now think in its blind pride that it was formerly deceived in its high estimate of the strength and courage of that adversary? and are we sure that the contempt which such an erroneous conception must always create, does not fortify it in a belief that the British are less powerful than had been represented?

The rules by which Siamese kings affect to regulate their public and private conduct have been chiefly derived from the Bali religious moral and civil codes. Access has been obtained to several of these, and from them have been extracted the rules for kingly governance which occur in these pages.

The people look up to the king as to one by whose conduct they are to regulate their own, and it is to be regretted that so long as his behaviour does not manifestly and direfully affect their own happiness, they are about equally disposed to follow a bad as a good example. But this last is a moral truism in every half civilised country. The king ought to practise patience (Khantee') when occupied in state affairs, rigidly observe the rules of justice and truth (Sachha') and be possessed of a discriminating judgment (Dheetee') regarding mankind. He ought to be punctual, decided and unremitting in business, and be ever alive to the interests of his subjects; refraining from extorting or exacting from them with rigor what he may even rightfully claim as his due. He must faithfully observe the Seelang ('e') or eight moral obligations, and prove his worth by generosity, disinterestedness (Panee Chakang') and attention to the reciprocal duties betwixt man and man, (Aweekang'.) He should beware of repaying hastily injuries by revengeful actions, and rather increase his fame by the display of calmness and forbearance (Moothoowang'.) Harsh and petulant expressions must

('e) P. Ayégan. ('e) P. Muduvan.
be avoided by him, nor ought he to visit slight offences with severity of punishment. Every animated thing will claim his tender solicitude and compassion, and his enmity ought to be as open as his friendship.

The Parohita dhamma (*) are instructions which were given to Malintha, a renowned king of old.

\[\text{Soot,ha b,ha-chané weesoo t,haiya.}\]
\[\text{Soot,ha b,hachané ma-Keeleeng.}\]
\[\text{K,hatang j,hapetee-D,hammany.}\]
\[\text{Anoosa sattee-Satsamed,hany.}\]
\[\text{Pareesame d,hang-Summa pasang. (\textasteriskcentered)}\]

Under these heads it is enjoined that a king must strenuously persevere in the duties imposed upon him by his exalted station—and in those enjoined by the precepts of Boodd,ha. He ought to strive to subdue his passions—seeing that temperance and impartiality are required from a prince.

He must constantly study the religious and moral codes, and the law code of the Empire, and regulate his mind and his behaviour by what these contain. If he desires knowledge let him gain a thorough acquaintance with the P,hra D,hamma or Bali (Dharma, moral code.)

A sovereign ought to be indulgent to the husbandman, and lend him money, or make advances to him of grain, receiving in return one-tenth part of the produce of the harvest. He should regularly issue pay to the officers and servants of the State, with every class of dependents, yearly by two equal instalments. [Siamese officers it is notorious do not receive regular pay—hence oppressions.]

It is incumbent on a king to visit the sacred pagodas and the Wat or temples. His Siamese Majesty goes once a year in t,hatkatheen or holy procession to the chief of these. On entering one he takes off his shoes.

(*) P. Paróhita dhamma.  (\textasteriskcentered) P. Buddhā bhōjane wesodhiya suddha bhōjane makilan khāldan jahōpeti dhamman anūsā sati sassa medhan Pūrī samedhan sammāpāsan.
The candles and incense tapers having been lighted, and the crystal vases full of flowers being arranged, the king approaches the shrine of Boodd,ha. Then having taken tapers and flowers in both hands he falls on his knees and, having raised his hands with what they hold above his head, repeats some particular prayers.† These finished, he spreads part of his robe on the floor before him, and placing on it his opened hands with the palms downward, he makes three several profound obeisances, at each of which his head touches the backs of his hands. He concludes by performing three similar obeisances to the superior, and making such gifts as are customary. The superior, and the rest of the priests sit unmoved during the ceremony, assuming the attitude said to have been the favorite one of Boodd,ha when he instructed his eighty-four thousand followers.

The king is cautious of exhibiting such humility oftener than custom prescribes—and waves it when he can.

When he goes abroad he uses the precaution of sending heralds in advance to warn all priests to keep out of his sight; since were he to meet one the customary homage must be paid, which it is believed would tend to diminish the respect which the multitude pay to his person.

The Siamese do not supplicate Boodd,ha, and rarely any other divinity, for riches or any other good in this life—at least they suppose that entreaties for such would not be attended to.

They deprecate evil rather than implore good—and their exorcisers of possessing spirits, and expounders of the Nangsa tamradoo or horoscopes, candidly allow that unless the faith of the applicant be lively their arts are of no avail. There is no doubt that in hypochondriacism such a belief might be of assistance in effecting the cure of a patient.

In their plurality of Dewattas or inferior divinities, a Siamese sometimes

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* Generally as follows: akk, hee t, hawayang p, haho hoop, hang chênê t, hattawa. Seetee kappako teeyo ap, heeropo t, harento wee takkatayang paromang sook, hang.
selects one whom fancy makes him think will be propitious, and who bears the brunt of his intercessions. He does not however when unsuccessful treat the god with such abuse as an ignorant catholic vents towards his unkind saint.

Intercessions for benefits to be derived in a future state of existence are supposed to be most successful, especially if charity be superadded to them. The forms most in use belong to the Hindoo ritual of ancient times; and in the Bali, range under the following heads. (1) P.hra P.hoo'tt,ha boocha (priya) maha dechaavunto—P.hra d.hamma boocha pranyo—and P.hra sang-k,ha boocha maha P.hakk,hawaho—being respectively to Boodd,ha for power, riches, knowledge, and superhuman qualities, in subsequent states of the metempsychosis. To Phra dhannya [which is Dhurma, and in the Bali of Siam seems to comprehend the word or holy writ personified] for wisdom, knowledge and scientific acquirements, and expertness in the arts conducive to comfort; and lastly to the priesthood [whether any member of it be present or not] for a superfluity, in the next state of migration, of all that mortal can desire.

To return to the subject—when the king has concluded his obeisances and devotions as described, the superior priest blesses him; and we may give him credit for pronouncing it heartily, since it becomes manifestly his interest to encourage the return of so substantial a votary. The terms in which the priest repays the king for his pious visit are these—as taken from the Bali.

(5) "Yat,hawree wahwa poora paree pooreento teesa k,harang eamé waeeto, "theenang petanang ooppa kappatee eecheetang pat,heetang tooweehang-

(1) P. Pra Buddha, pújá mahatejavanto—Pra, dhamma pújá pangyo .... Pra sangha pújá maha Bhoqavanto.

"keepamee a samenee sangkapaa chanto pannaraso yathasapp, hee teeyowee
meewatchanto sapp, haroko seenatsantoo mahate bhawa [this sentence or
from sapp, hee to bhawa is thrice repeated] ab, hewa tanaseeleet sameetchang
P, hootdi, ha. Pacha eneo d, hamma wathantee ayowanna sookkk, hang p, ha-
long b, hawattoo sapp, hamong k, halang rak, hantoo sapphat, he wata sapp, ha
P, hootdi, ha noopphawkena sat, ha sotee bhawantoote sapp, ha d, hamma noopp-
hawena, &c. sappha sang'k, ha noopp, hawena, &c."

The king concludes the ceremony by pouring out a libation of pure
water on the ground repeating the while the following Bali invocation of
the powers of heaven, earth and hell, the names of his ancestors included—
to witness the virtuous resolves which fill his mind.

(1) "Eemeena boonya-kamé mata peeta p, hawantooté k, hroo ooppacha-achu-
riyé-nà metta peecha EenTra, Yommaraatcha Nak, ha—K, hroottie, ha Chak-
keennaree—chakkeennara—P, hra T, horanee K, hong'ka—Supp, he T, he-
wa—Manootsa—maha sattha—Teeneeya—sett, hee—Chamaha racha anooma
't, hantoo."

A sovereign of Siam is rarely seen abroad, and to guard against trea-
chery he is difficult of access. He must however be almost daily visible to
his ministers—and attend to public affairs in open hall.

The Government affects publicity on all occasions; and matters of state
policy are often openly discussed. If the wisdom in the councils of a nation
might be measured by the length of deliberations, those of Siam might
claim a high station. But the tediousness of the deliberative proceedings
at its Court is the effect of pride, rather than of any anxiety to bring talent
and collective wisdom to bear on every part of a subject under discussion.
It is the finesse of a petty spirit, which sooner than forego the silly for-
malities which incumber its motions—and the paltry advantages which it

(1) P. Imin'punyakammena, mätépítá bhawantute, guruupajjhāchariyā mettāpicha, indray-
amarājā, nāga, garudhācha, kinmaricha kinnara, pra dharani, gangā, sabbēdevā, manussā, mahā-
sattha setthi cha, mahārojā anumōdantū.
hopes delay will give it over those with whom it has to negotiate—will
consent to delay or even forfeit present valuable and pressing interests.

When the king goes abroad he is preceded by the Tamraat or bamboo
bearers, in files of two each. They proclaim, by the Bali word sadet the
approach of majesty, and they clear the way by a hearty application of
their bamboos to the backs of the throng. It is consequently the
interest of every one, not in office, to keep at home when the king
takes an airing. No acclamations rend the air on his advance. The
old adage "that a cat may look at a king," would scarcely apply here.
The people must squat in the mud or dust, and remain with prostrate body
head averted and downcast eyes until the cavalcade has passed. A band
of music also precedes the king. He is generally in a sort of palankeen,
carried by eight bearers, and close to him are the Chaan seng dap or state
sword bearers; the tamroat hak or spearsmen, and other officers. Behind
him follow the Mahat lek or honorary attendants. They have been called
Pages by some writers,* and they are so in several respects. They here
carry such articles as the king may want for immediate use, such as his
betel box, his smoking apparatus, clothes and arms.

The rest of the cavalcade consists of guards and inferior attendants,
while here and there are persons with pellet bows to shoot earthen balls at
those who do not get quickly out of the way, or are wanting in respect.

The King of Siam keeps numbers of elephants, although he rarely
rides on one. The white elephants have been described by many travellers.
Their color is by no means pure white, but has a slight admixture of grey
or brown in it, and may perhaps be best compared with that of the Malacca
peninsular white buffalo. The former however owes its color to some organic
defect, as that of albinos in the human species does, while the latter is
of a distinct species.

* M. D. L. LOUBERE.
It is well known that the Siamese believe that the royal elephants are receptacles for migratory souls of kings. For this reason they may not be rode on. The white elephant is in Bali MSS. described as lineally descended from the famous Chatt.hanto (?) or preternaturally gifted elephant of Himala, which of old bore on its back the renowned Raja, or P.jhaya, Bārommā chakkra, he who could throw the mighty Chakkra, the fiery discus of the gods. Ibn Battuta informs us that when he visited Ceylon white elephants were venerated there—next to the white elephant, in estimation, are white monkeys and horses. We may by the way remark that the Siamese have not yet thought fit to be so consistent as to include the white race of men amongst their predilections. But they go by cold scholastic rule, and not by reason or feeling, and will waste more mistaken humanity upon a tiger or muskito than they are always willing to shew towards one of their own species.

From all that can be gathered there is no great degree of state kept up in the interior of the palace. The king (if he does his duty) rises at day break. Having dressed, he prays and bestows food on the priests; and then drinks some rice gruel. Proceeding next to the hall of state he transacts the business of the morning. Breakfast succeeds, the assembly dispersing to their houses for the purpose. The king's cooks, and his immediate private attendants are women. If his queen is an (?) Akk,hamahesee or of royal descent, she may eat with him, and if not, then only by special request and permission.

The trays on which his food is served up have wooden covers; over these cloths of silk are put in shape of a purse, the cords of which having been drawn, the chief cook affixes his seal. The king breaks the seals himself, when the dinner is placed before him—such a custom evinces at a glance, the instability of the throne. The dishes usually consist of butcher's

(?) Chhaddanta. (?) Aggamahési.
meat, chiefly venison, fish and other food—these are boiled, broiled, roasted, stewed and chopped:—perhaps thirty dishes (China cups gilded) are served up regularly. Tea is a beverage which amongst the higher ranks is always on table, but it does not form as in Europe an essentially component part of a breakfast. Having breakfasted the king takes the betel and the pipe, and towards the afternoon he proceeds to the great hall where he hears the reports of his officers regarding the internal administration, the resort of shipping to his ports, and the condition of surrounding states. He dines at 8 or 9 and retires to rest.

There is a Rong So-at mon or Ha So-at mon—a sort of chapel in the palace where the queen and her attendants go to pray. The king's is separate.

Every written mandate emanating from the king must bear an impression of the royal seal, without which it would be invalid. The impression is either that of the (1) K, hotchasee or fabulous tusked lion—or it is of the (2) Rachasee, another fanciful species. Every public officer has his seal of office. That of the P, hra K, hlang, the minister for foreign affairs, has a lotus engraved on it, and the same kind is employed by the P, hriya or governor of Ligor.

It is affirmed by intelligent natives that the temper in which the Court may be for the time, is evinced by the nature of the seal affixed to a document or letter. The king's seals are preserved with great care, nor are they entrusted beyond his presence. A seal bearing the impression of a yak or Rakhsha* is indicative of a hostile feeling. The yak is the Rakhsha of India—a sort of Pan at times—but with few exceptions a malicious monster.

THE HIERARCHY.

The Church holds actually the second civil rank in the state and is under the governance of the P, hra Phoott, ha ony or high priest. But no priest can hold a lay appointment.

(1) Gajiaha (or Sinha) (2) Rajaha.

* A sort of sylvan deity—half human, gigantic, and of mixed moral qualities.
The titles and designations of public officers are capriciously bestowed—Loubere not unaptly calls them eulogiums—but his description of them is unmethodised. The great stumbling block to those who travelled in his day was the necessity they fancied themselves to labor under of appreciating the nature and merits of Asiatic institutions by the standard of those appertaining to European countries.

The influence of the (1) P,heekhoo or priesthood, opposed, it might be thought in some measure to the power of the king, is entirely dependent on public opinion. This expression may perhaps sound strange after the arbitrary nature of the government has been so frequently insisted on—but it may be observed in explanation that here, where the pivot is religion, popular feeling may prove destructive as in several other despotisms of the individual ruler, without materially deranging the coercive system by which he governs or the condition of the governed.

The king, whether he be a hypocrite or a conscientious supporter of the hierarchy must, to save appearances, bow to it. Were it not that we must be aware how large a share ambition had when creating such distinctions, we might be startled to find virtue, or at least its undetected semblance, taking amidst a half polished people its proud stand above earthly dignities. The P,heekhoo claim superiority over the rest of mankind because they are the vicegerents of Booddha, and observe (if we are to believe them) two hundred and twenty-seven moral precepts (or (2) Seenla.) The king’s inferiority consists in his only observing five on ordinary, and eight on extraordinary occasions. These last are facts, whether voluntary, or enjoined by the calendar. The body of the laity are nearly on a level with the king in these respects.

Third Class.

The third class in the state comprehends the civil and military officers. Immediately below them is the body of the people; there being no distinct

(1) Bhāikkhā, (2) Sila.
middle class. The consequence is that there is often but one step betwixt abject penury and the acme of exaltation; and the grovelling slave of to-day spurns to-morrow the man who was but yesterday his equal.

Offices are hereditary—but not absolutely so. The holders receive small salaries—inadequate for their support, which are paid once in a year, although two periods of payment are enjoined in Bali writ. The king bestows on them slaves, goods, and land, and they make up for limited incomes by capacy and venality, which it can hardly be doubted are connived at in the main, although an occasional example ostensibly on public grounds, but really to gratify private pique and the avarice of the court, may be made.

The king addresses an officer by his title and not by his name; and to an untitled subject he calls out hae ai nan—"ho you there," or he uses the second personal pronoun, meong, thou!

The following scale of ranks in Siam has been framed from their codes of civil and criminal law; and from various MSS. in the Thai language, received from natives of the capital. It is probably still imperfect—and I pretend not to determine how far its operation may be really modified in practice.

Next in personal and civil rank to the king is the Akkhamahese, (1) or queen and the princes of the blood.

These last are, the Kho-ang lo-ang wang na, or lords of the interior division of the palace—amongst whom ought to be the Somdet P.hra Caunlok tho, or heir apparent. The last heir apparent was termed Chau Khrommachet.

The K,ho-ang wang k,hleng, or lord of the centre division—and Khoang wang lang, Lord of the rear division. The term Chau includes all other scions of the royal stock. It must be discriminated from the word Chau—which is less dignified—and often means plain Sir. Nang is

(1) P. Aggamahesi.
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equivalent to Madam. Cháu T, hai, the Siamese people; and Cháu P, kama, the Burmese, are familiar terms—Cháu Krommasac is a title sometimes given to a general.

P, ho raksa moo-ung is a viceroy. When the Siamese conquer a country a dignitary of this class is appointed, either until the former prince is restored, or a new one installed.

Next are officers of the state who rank according to a scale of Náá or fields. The real possession of landed property is not essential. They are a nominal aristocracy. The náa is sapda (') or mere formality.

Rank. 1st. The highest rank—or of 10,000 Náá fields. Of this there are many officers—their titles differing greatly. The following are all Somdet Chau P, hraya, viz.

S. C. P, hraya Ap, hai t, han. (')
S. C. P. Sooreewong Montree. (') The minister for shipping and superintendent of foreigners.
C. P. P, honlathep. (') Collector general of the land tax and other assessment on fixed property.
C. P. Chetchamnong p, hakdee. (')
2d. Chau P, hraya, 10,000 Náá.

The Yomnaraat (') or chief criminal judge is a Chau P, hraya. But in one of their law digests he is placed 3rd on a bench of judges which were assembled on a particular occasion.

The president of another bench which was assembled in the 1146th year of the Choona Sakkarraat, (') or Thai Esa, was Chau P, hraya, Phet P, hee Chai. (')

(1) P. Yamarója. (') P. Chulla saka rája. (') P. Wejja wijaya.
The governors of Mooung Ek, or provinces of the first rank, are termed Chau P,hraya—of these there are at least eleven, exclusive of that in which the capital is included, and as follow:

1st.—Mooung P,hra samoott,ha P,hra Kaan, (') which embraces districts in the vicinity of the embouchure of the Ménam.

2d.—Mooung P,hitchabooree. (')

3d.—Ratphree.

4th.—Chant,haboon, (') a flourishing province on the east coast of the Gulf of Siam, abounding in pepper.

5th.—Mooung Lo-ang Prabang—ranging along the northern frontier.

6th.—Nopp,haboree (')—(the nine gems.)

7th.—P,hee cheet. (')

8th.—Sokkat,hai, (') which once formed the capital as it is said.

9th.—K,horaat, or K,horaatchasema (?)—literally "the bearer the lion's skin comes," a fanciful appellation alluding to the imagined good fortune to be derived from the possession of a Ratchasee's skin.

10th.—Ditto Camp,héng P,het.

11th.—Ditto Nakhän, See T,hammasookkaraat (') or Ligor.

The proximity of this last province to Prince of Wales Island, has brought its Governor or Chau P,hraya sufficiently into notice. Nakhän is the proper name of Ligor, and See (or Srij) T,hammasookkaraat is a title he derives from the independent prince who governed the country at a remote date, and who was subdued by T,haá Oothong, a King of Siam. In a letter to the Envoy* from the Penang Government in 1824, he styles himself P,hrä nåhōá Chau t,han Chau P,hraya. See T,hammasookkaraate—chatdee chooa Dechochai mà nai soreeya t,heet—būdee p,haiya p,heeree bara kromma p,haho Chau Phraya Nakhan see Thammarat àn maha-

(’) P. Samuddapákāra. (”) P. Wajjrapurī. (”) P. Chandapunnā. (”) P. Nawapuri. (”) P. Wijita. (”) P. Sökandaya. (”) P. Gōrajsēmā. (”) P. Nagara siridhammāsoka rōjjja

* The Writer of this Memoir.
The P.hra who is exalted above "the heads of others—the "Chau P.hraya illustrious in rank, like the P.hraya, who founded the "princedom of old, T.hammasookhu Raja (of Awadeeraat)—the descendant "of supernaturally endowed ancestors, mighty as the sun—casting its rays "beneath it—whose subjects at the sound of the great drum become walls "of defence against enemies; the ruler, viz. the most illustrious Chau "Phraya See Thammarat."

The P.hraya has two councillors who are appointed by the Court of Bankok—and there can be little doubt that it looked formerly and may now look upon his province and the conquered Malayan states as the key to territorial aggrandizement in a southern direction—and that he has every disposition to second its views.

The Phrayas of these Mooung P. K. have the privilege, not granted to inferior governors, of using the K.hlông prakom, or great drum of ceremony, the nobut and nagari of Hindoostan. It is kept generally in the t.heem prakom yam, or apartment where the water horolce is regulated—and it is struck eight times in twenty-four hours—being the periods for the reliefs of watches.

The Chau Phraya of Ligor was once a mahat lek, or attendant, whose province it was to light the king’s pipe. His father was Tak, the famous Chinese usurper of the throne of Siam, and his mother was a Siamese. The latter after P.hraya Tak was killed, was given in marriage by the new king to the then governor of Ligor, who married her. The present P.hraya was born soon after.

Other officers of this rank are variously employed, and are in high offices—

Chau Phraya, Monthiyan ban.
C. P. Ra Montree. (7)

(1) P. Pra .... sirī dhāmmāsoha rajajātī .... Tejōjaya .... suriyadesavāśi ....
wireparāvkramabāhu .... nagara sirī dhāmmarāja .... mākāprasettha. (7) P. Rajamantini.
C. P. Ra-rong mooong, often bestowed on an officer of the criminal bench.
C. P. Phayat, han, generally a treasurer.
C. P. Kalahoum, a chief officer of the war department.
C. P. Sri Krailat, (*) a police superintendent.
C. P. Wongsa sooreesak. (*)
C. P. Sooreewong, (*) premier.
C. P. Rat P, hakdee, a financial officer, and head collector of revenues, assisted by a P, hra Chai yot. (†)
C. P. Kosa, seems to be in the foreign office.
C. P. Kamp, heng, superintendent of elephants, assisted by a P, hraya
See Sarap, hap.
C. P. Sawat, attends the hing pursuivant.
C. P. Amat, (*) who seems to be of equal rank with the Seena and Montree.
C. P. Cheetcham nong p, hakdee äk-k, ha maha Seena chang wang mahat lek, (‡) controller of the pages.
C. P. Song praseet, captain of the king’s barges or rooa.
C. P. T, hai nam, waits behind the king.
C. P. Fangam deen.
C. P. P, hra K, hlang, chief minister for trade and foreign affairs. He was lately a Portuguese or Native Portuguese, and styled himself in his correspondence—“ Chau P, hraya P, hra K, hlang, primeiro ministro da “ cidade T, hep, ha maha nak, hon Sejuthiya.” (‡)
In the law digest termed Kot p, hra-ayakädän, he is only designated the P, hraya P, hra, k, lang—and is rated as 10th in the list of grandees who are therein stated to be directly or incidentally connected with the practical

administration of justice. These last are P,hraya maha Oopparaat chattee sooreewong p, hongsa p, hakdee bâdeen thân. (c)

Chau P, hraya Seenyatee Rachak, hroo, (c) or spiritual guides.
C. P. Parohita, or astrologers.
C. P. Soopp, hawadee, (c) connected with the revenue department.
C. P. See Barommahong. (c)
C. P. Wongsa.
C. P. Booreelok, ha oodom. (c)
C. P. P, hrammana the Brahmini-cal tribe.
C. P. P, hrookt, ha chan K, hlang connected with the ecclesiasti-cal department.
C. P. Sree T, hammaraat. (c)
C. P. Decho, (c) War department.
C. P. Chattee Amat.

C. P. Tayamoocheet.
C. P. T, heep, heet ratana.
C. P. Rocha Kosa.
C. P. T, heebâdee.
C. P. P, hraya App, hay p, heeree. (c)
C. P. P, hrakrom p, haho.

To conclude, there are the—
Phau P, hraya. Seena.
C. P. Fângân deen.
C. P. Khem kap, superintends for- reigners if natives of India.
C. P. Rârâng san.
C. P. Sooreen.
C. P. Rayo.

Officers to whom it were difficult to assign distinct places.

All the Chau P, hrayas at Court take precedence of those who are governors, or occupy other stations at a distance.

The highest ministers of the state are generally chosen from amongst the officers of these two classes. Four of the first class or Chau Phrayas would seem to be deemed enough to compose a privy council.

3dly. Phrayas of 5000 fields.

(c) P. .... mahâuparâjajîtisugawangsacati (c) P. Râjagurû. (c) P. Subhâvatî.
(c) P. Siri paramabhasa. (c) P. Purîlōkuttara. (c) P. Siri dhama raja. (c) P. Têjô.
(c) P. Abhayabhēri.
This title is somewhat indefinite, since it applies to individuals of widely different ranks.

The king is simply P.hraya T.hai, the lord of the Thai race. P.hraya Ra-rong mooung, is one of the inferior judges. P.hraya Maha Rachak.hroo (?) is recorded in digests to have presided over courts of justice, and his place there would seem to rank him as a holder of 10,000 fields. His proper sphere would appear to be that of chief spiritual guide to the king and privy councillor. P.hraya P.heechai no-reet (?) is an officer of the army, and P.hra Decho is the title of a general.

P.hraya Thai nam is a war minister, and if the king goes to battle he accompanies him.

P. Cheetnai rong,
P. Rasong k.hraam, (?) war department.
P. Ram k'am hing
P. Sooreewong montree, (?) the prime minister's coadjutor.
P. Prasert. (?)
P. See P.hee.phat, (?) attached to the P.hraklang.
P. Ratyai kosa,
P. Maha Oopparaat chattee Sooreewong p.hongsa p.hakdee badeenthān.

(?) He is viceroy during the king's absence from his capital.

It would seem that Siamese kings have rarely moved of late years far from the city, being afraid of commotions.

P.hraya Kalahon, a war minister.
P. See, Sarap.ha. (?)
P. Tumangong. [The Malayan Tummungong is a police officer generally.]

P. Ra p,hakdee, (') in the revenue department.
P. Chakkrارد. (')
P. Pam roop,hak, attached to the frontier duty posts.
P. P,hra Raam. [Sri Rama.]

We have also the P,hraya Rachasee, the spotted lion, (apparently intended for the royal tiger.)

P,hraya Hong, (') the goose, the ensign of Ava, hunza.

P,hraya is a title bestowed on governors of the Moo-ung T,hō, or secondary class of provinces, such as Moo-ung choomp,hōn, and Chaiya on the west coast of the gulf of Siam. Moo-ung mé K,hlang, or the river of that name—Moo-ung P,hee chai (') Moo-ung Kanbooree, (') north west of Bankok—Moo-ung Sop,han, (') northward of it, and Raheng, P,heetseektok, and P,hetchabooree (').—Daloong on the peninsula—T,hoong yai—and perhaps now, Kedda; although the son of the raja of Ligor, its chief, entitles himself P,hra P,hak deebারerak.

The raja of Ligor, in an official letter addressed me while agent of the Prince of Wales Island Government, at the breaking out of the Burman war, excuses certain palpable inconsistencies or duplicities in his conduct by avowing that he was fettered—for his phrase directly implies it—by certain officers—who had been appointed by the king of Siam to relieve him from some of his toils of state. These were Phraya Sooreesena, P,hraya P,hee chaiya song k,hraam K,hoonmang (') and others, amounting in all to forty-two persons.

The Phraya Rachathot (') is the title of the officer who is sent on embassies to first rate courts.

The Phraya Ooppat,hot (") is next in rank to him, and is also employed on such services.

(’) P. Rājabhatti. (’) P. Chakka. (’) P. Hangsa. (’) P. Wijaya.
(’) P. Kannapuri. (’) P. Suwanna. (’) P. Wejjanpure. (’) P. Sūrasenā, wijaya-
sanggāma. (’) P. Rājadōsa. (”) P. Upadōsa.
P,hra or officers of 3000 Nāā.

The word P,hra is capable of very extensive application. In the first instance it was probably exclusively used when alluding to Buddha—as it seems to be now in Burma: priests next assumed the title, and kings soon claimed equal right to it. Standing alone it means divine, or great, or dignified. A few examples will best shew its meaning when conjoined to other words.

P,hra Chaau is Buddha—and P,hra Prabaat, his foot—P,hra d,hamma, the sacred text of the Bali—P,hra Sangha, priests—P,hra Ayakan anyākāra, a code of laws—P,hrasat, the royal quarter, including palace and houses attached—P,hra (²) Racharot, his carriage. The name of every member of the king's person must have P,hra prefixed, as Shooee, golden, is applied in Ava on like occasions.

P,hra Chauthan, (²) the king's elephants. They are magnificently housed and ceremoniously attended by officers appointed for the purpose; being fastened with gold or silver chains, and eating out of receptacles composed of precious metals. P,hra t,heenang, chair of state, splendidly gilded and painted.

The P,hra khroo pheeram (²) is an officer who occasionally presides over a tribunal of justice—but when the P,hraya maha Rachak,hroo (⁴) presides, he takes a station below him.

P,hra see Mohosot (²) is a title appertaining either to the president or a member of a tribunal, according to its importance and dignity. In one assembled in 1783 he is ranked as fourth member.

P,hra krom p,hako is a sort of secretary of state.

P,hra Satsadee (²) is the title given to two law advisers—and to the keeper of the census of population.

P,hra Yok,kabat is a kind of attorney general and acts as a spy on a governor or other dignitary.

(²) P. Rājaratha.  (⁴) P. Para chhaddanta.  (⁴) P. Para guru wirāma.
(²) P. Mahārāja guru.  (⁴) P. Para siri mahosadha.  (⁴) P. Para sāsati.
ON THE GOVERNMENT

P.hra Rachaneekoon, (1) descendants of the former princes of Siam.
P.hra P.hoot, haông (2) supreme judge in the ecclesiastical court. The
supreme criminal court however take cognizance of crimes of magnitude
committed by priests. This high priest delivers the offender to the
P.hra Sudet, who punishes him according to law.
P.hra Sudet-prasong, a judge whose province it is to settle all matters
relating to the priesthood, and to adjust differences amongst the members
of that body.
P.hra P.he chai (3) Racha assists him.
P.hra chuiyet, (4) an assistant revenue collector.
P.hra chai dook (5) is an officer under the P.hra K.hlang.
P.hra laksa mon, theun. (6) His name appears second in a list of members
composing a civil court.
P.hra K.hro weechet. (?) (consultor of the planetary aspects?)
P.hra see veo rot. (?) He is superintendent of the gaming farms.
P.hra Aphai waree, (?) superintends the fisheries, which bring about
50,000 rupees to the treasury annually, if accounts of the natives may be
credited.
P.hra P.hoot is Booddha.
P.hra Satsana, (10) the religion of Booddha.
P.hra Sangk.ha, (11) the priesthood.
P.hra Siwa, the mighty tiger.
P.hra Een makan, custom-house officers.
P.hra Alak, librarian to the king.
P.hra see sombat (13) is an officer of the granaries. The Siamese, like the
Burmans, keep depôts of grain in various parts of the country to supply

extraordinary demands in war or famine. Hollow perforated bamboos are placed at intervals in a vertical position throughout the granaries to prevent the grain from heating. It is sold when about three years old, and its place supplied with fresh grain.

P.hra Raho, (') the great dragon. P.hra Chettee, (') a pagoda.

LO-ANGS OR LO-UNGS OF 2000 FIELDS.

Officers of this rank are very numerous—and to state them all would be tiresome, even if it were possible, with our present information.

The following have at different periods sat on the bench* of judges. Lo-ung yama p.hakkaat(2)—Lg. T.hep.ha Rachada(3)—Lg. T.hammasat(2)—Lg. Racha th.ada(4)—Lg. Att.huya(5)—Lg. Ya prakaa(6)—Lg. K.hoon raat.phaneet.chai(7)—Lg. Maha T.hepsai(8) and Lg. Maha Montree(9) are ministers respectively of the left and right hand. The Siamese, always, in conversation and in writing, place the least important object or subject first, and they are extremely fond of recapitulations. But they do not seem to cavil as the natives of Hindostan do about the rights supposed to belong to either. Lo-ung Wang is a kind of governor of the palace.

Lg. P.heng—Is a registrar and clerk to a court. He reads the sentence of a judge.

The following Lo-angs are under the P.hreea Kamp,heng or governor of the Fort, Lo-ung-narereet.(11)

Lg. naree det.(12) Lg. naree seeet.(14)
Lg. naree sak.(13) Lg. song-bat.(16)

The Lg. sawat(17) and Lg. T.hangso are under the master attendant.

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* Kot phra Ayakann Digest.

(1') P. Para rāha. (2') P. Para cīti. (3') P. Yāmapahāsa. (4') P. Devarajata.
(5') P. Dhamma Sācheha. (6') P. Rājadātā. (7') P. Adayā. (8') P. pahāsa.
(12') P. Narēriddhi. (13') P. Nareteja. (14') P. Naresetthā (15') P. Naresakha.
(16') P. Sampatti. (17') P. Swatthi.
Lg. chamroon sombat, (1) and Lg. soom chān p, hee-mon (2) are assistants to the superintendent of gaming farms. The Lg. seena p, haneet (3) and Lg. chamnang p, hakdee (4) are under the P, hra Ap, hai nari, (5) or fisheries' superintendent. The fisheries of the sea shores and rivers throughout the country, except near the city, are farmed out.

Junkceylon, when I was deputed on a mission and was there in 1824, was under a Lo-ung Bamrong.

Lo-ung Krai. Lg. Thep. (6)

Lo-ung ma-ung, are officers, the exact duty of which have not been learned.

The following are generally in the military department.


The next five may have offices; but their nature has not been discovered. Lo-ung Rachreen, (13) Lg. det, (14) Lg. P, hra rom bāreerāk, (15) Lg. Seenee, (16) Lg. P, hee Chai. (17)

The Lo-ung maha noopp, ha, (18) are assistants to the elephant superintendents.

Lo-ung k, hlang, is the king's warehouse-keeper. It ought to be a responsible situation, and is no doubt one admitting of considerable peculation.

The Lg. T, hepparaksa (19) is keeper of the palace storehouses.

Lo-ung Seeya p, hakdee (20) is a spear bearer of his majesty, who has nine Mōons under him. Lg. Thangsoo, is in the Custom House office. Lg. Sawat attends the collection of shipping duties.

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Lo-ung Ramdecha (') was one of three commissioners deputed by the P,hraya of Ligor to confer with the envoy from Penang, when he was sent into that country. *

Lo-ung mé chaau, is the chief housekeeper in the Palace. She is aided by Lg. Aya, Lg. Plat, and Lg. Rong. She likewise controls the P,hra P,hee Lee-ung or female attendants, and the Me nom or nurses.

Siamese ladies of rank are very scrupulous in doing aught which may tend to diminish their charms, and to attain this end sacrifice the earliest maternal affections and cares, children are often suckled for two and three years by nurses, and amongst the lower classes by mothers—and this last fact may account perhaps in some degree for the stationary nature of the population.

The following Lo-ungs may be put down although their duties are not clearly defined. P,hetchaloozen, (") Lg. Sak, (") Lg. Seethee P,hrom, (") Lg. Praseet, (") Lg. Eent,hamat, (") Lg. P,hon, Lg. Khrang, Lg. Det, Lg. Reett,han, Lg. Chai seena. (")

Awk, kya or âkya is an honorary title which may be given to governors of provinces and some courtiers. It seems to have fallen much into disuse. It is prefixed occasionally to the titles P,hra Palat, P,hra Yokkabat or great law officer, P,hra Satsadee or the keeper of the rolls, P,hra Maha T, hai Loang Rabang.

**KHOON.**

Respectively of 1600—1400—or 1200 fields.

The word Khoon means beneficent, humane, charitable, and is used in common speech by those who wish to be particularly respectful to a superior, or to endear themselves to an individual. Thus Chauk, hoon, "your excellency," Phiek, hoon "my worthy father," &c.

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(') P. Ramateja.

(*) P. Ramateja.

("') P. Wejjalūsena. ("') P. Sakka. ("') P. Settha. ("') P. Siddhi Brahma.

("') P. Pasettha. ("') P. Indha madda. ("') P. Jayasena.

* (In 1824.)
In the law digests, officers holding the rank of K,hoon are noticed as having on many occasions sat on benches in the lowest ranks of judges. On one occasion where a court was composed of nine judges, and which assembled in the Saan Lo-ung (the supreme court house) there were five K,hoon in this number. They ranked as under—

1st. K,hoon Rat P,hu neet Chai. (') 4th. K. Racha Reet t,hanon. (')
2d. K. Ayachak. (') 5th. K. T,heppa Aya. (')
3d. K. Lo-ung P,hu Kr aisee. (')

And in an inferior bench of four judges (the Koon or reporter not being reckoned) two were K,hoon, viz. P,hechana t,hep and see Sangkõn. (')

The third and last member of another court was K,hoon see Rachabat.

(') It would appear from the digests that officers below this rank are not entitled to sit as judges.

K,hoon Aksän (') is an officer attached to the Raja of Ligor as a sort of secretary. He was well known in Penang, as he was long the confidential political agent in commission with Nae e nee um, of the Ligor Governor or P,hraya, in his communications with the British Government.

K,hoon p,heep,hat ph,ok,ha (') is an officer connected with the gaming farm.

Khoon nong is a general title equivalent to dignity.

The governors of provinces give titles to their officers affecting the style of the court, but they are looked down upon by those appointed by the king.

THE MOON.

Of the rank of 1000 fields and down to 600 fields.

A Mõôn if in the army commands a body of men. Officers from the rank of 200 fields upwards of 1000 are the champions of the country—they

are the mōōn p, hlaan p, honla men. Wherever any great enterprise is to be undertaken the mōōn must be engaged.

They are tamers of elephants in times of peace, and are special boxers, fencers, and swordsmen. When boxing they wrap cotton tape around their knuckles to preserve them—and not out of regard to the adversary, for the tape or string is soft inside and hard outside. All sorts of advantages are taken, as it is allowable to use the knees and feet. Three rounds only are permitted. The victor receives a gift from the entertainer.

They fence with sword and shield, but the former is for the prevention of wounds, generally a wooden one. A band plays sprightly airs during the exhibition. Single stick is also a favorite game.

They fence occasionally with a sword in each hand, that one in the left hand serving chiefly for defence.

The sword is nearly off the same construction as the Burman one. The handle is without a guard, and so long that it serves to fend off a blow.

The Cha-mōōn wai warranat, has charge of the guards or pages—and under him are the C. Mn. Sau rak, C. Mn. See sarap, het, and C. Mn. Samōō chai.

The following bear spears when the king goes abroad in state, and are of higher rank than the Mōōn.

C. M. Theepp, ha raksa. (*)
C. M. Chau t, han.
C. M. Chau p, hosa.
C. M. Racha mat. (*)

C. M. Racha han. (*)
C. M. Sa t, han montree. (*)
C. M. T, hcepp, hasena. (*)
C. M. Samoo p, heeman. (*)

Men of these ranks are sent as special messengers and agents to distant provinces on affairs of consequence.

(*) P. Dibbarakkha. (*) P. Rājamachea. (*) P. Rājahanza. (*) P. Chhad-dantamantini. (*) P. Dibbasena. (*) P. Samowimala.
ON THE GOVERNMENT

P, han.

500 fields, and downwards to 200 fields. P, han T, hanai, inferior officers.
The P, han in the army command 1000 men—they are addressed by
their own names.

THE NAAE.

Nai signifies "officers," and is joined to other names and titles, therefore
it is difficult to assign to them here their proper place. Naae seep is a com-
mander of 10, Naae rae of 100, Naae p, han of 1000. Moom, commander
of 10,000.

The following seem to be of a rank varying from that of 200 fields to 10.

Naae chang wang, a court officer, attends in the palace. He commands

Their rank is superior to the

Naae wen and P, alat wen.

Naae ying.
Naae yo-at.
Naae ko-at.

Petty officers of the palace.

Naae knan.

The Chang wang has charge of the king's boats. The forecastle is
commanded by a P, han hoa, the stem by a P, han Thaai. The rowers or
Seep, hai, are seated on benches, their feet reaching the hold or lower deck.
They sing the He roo-it, or boat song, keeping time with their oars.

Naae Samoo banchi, head clerk of the palace.

Naae sarat, hee, master of the equipages.

Naae Saneet—Naae Sane—Naae Yam, keepers of the horologe and
head watchmen. They also command the Mahat lek or pages. These
last are sons of men in office, and are eligible like the pages of the Sultan
of the Sublime Porte, when grown up, to high situations, as has been
before observed in noticing the P, hraya, or Governor of Ligor, who was
one. There are four Naae Yams.

The word Chau is a term also of very general application. It may be
rendered by Sir, Mr. The word Nang is used when the person spoken to,
or of, is a female. It may be thus exemplified in conjunction. It will
hence appear that the Siamese language does not contain any exclusively
and distinctly feminine appellatives. They must place nang—lady—
woman—before to distinguish the gender of a name.

Chau or nang—Boon see. Chau or nang: Thāng.
Ditto Ditto Boon maak. Ditto Ditto Ngoon.
Ditto Ditto Boon k, hon. Ditto Ditto Naak.
Ditto Ditto Noo. Ditto Ditto Kēō.
Ditto Ditto Chan. Ditto Ditto Do-ung.

are all and each names of men and women in Siam.

Chau Krom, an officer of rank next to the Palat Krom.

Chau Mao-ung—a governor, ruler—but not in his own right.

Chau Khā, your slave!

Chau K, hon, my lord! your excellency.

Chau noooee, “the young gentleman,” is the title given to the son of
the P, hraya of Ligor, who visited me when envoy as before noticed from
Penang.

P, horang, retired governors.

T, haaro yots-amon, thi yeen, lady governess of the Palace.

T, hādu doots-ādā p, heerom, (') may be interpreted chief duenna; eunuchs
are not here in fashion.

The duennas are very severely punished if they betray the trust repos-
ed in them.

T, hādu Warachan wacha; (') and T, haau T, heppak, dee wacha, (') are
ladies of the queen’s bedchamber. Under them are the Chau and K, hon,
the upper and under waiting women. The Nangsaau Chai are maid
servants.

(’) P. Thāvara, dosādivirama. (”) P. Thāvara, warachanda wächha. (’’) P. Thāvara,
devapakatīvācha.
There are no men servants in the interior of the palace.
The lady of the king’s wardrobe is T, haau P, hoosa mala. (1)
Male children are admitted to the palace.

OATHS.

The oath of fidelity which is administered to Siamese officers, whether
civil or military, does not differ materially from that administered to a wit-
ness in a court of law. Both are little better than imprecations for evil of
every description to happen to the perjured and the unfaithful public
servant.

The mode and terms in which evidence are sworn will be described
under the head of oaths in my “account of Straits cultivation and accom-
panying notices.” It will only therefore be requisite to shew what addi-
tions are made in tendering the civil and military oath.

Previous to its being administered, a large jar (k, han) full of holy water
(nam p, hee p, hat sachha (2) or nam Ongk, haan) is placed before the party,
waen candles and incense tapers duly lighted and placed in order, flowers
of the lotus, and of other plants, are also produced.

The adjurer (Satthak, hon) (2) comes forward accompanied by four
P, hraam (1) or persons if possible of the brahminical tribe—certain war-
like weapons are then dipped in the holy water,* and the person
repeats the oath. It begins as before with I, his majesty’s devoted
slave, &c.

“I ——, slave of P, hra P, hoot t, hee Chaau (Boodd, ha properly, but here
“meaning his majesty) cha rap p, hra Rachu p, hra than, (2) having accepted

(1) P. Thāvura, Bhūsamālā. (2) P. Wibhāgasachcha. (3) P. Sudhāgūna.
(1) P. Brāhmana. (2) P. Sārawirājapathāna.

* This form is practised by several Malayan tribes in the Malacca Peninsula. It was
observed at Perak by the writer while on a mission there—and has been described in the
publication above alluded to.
"the king’s gift do solicit that I may be permitted to take the binding oath
of allegiance to his sacred majesty in presence of this holy water, and of
the panoply of war, and further being conscious that I am acting in pre-
sence of P.hra P.hoot,hee Chau or Boodd,ha, &c. &c. the words " prove
"faithful to his majesty" stand in lieu of " will speak the truth" as in the
"other oath.

"If I betray Barommachak* (') may his majesty’s weapons of war be
"directed against my bosom—and may the lash of the sky† cut me in two,
"&c. &c.

"If I shall become a traitor to his majesty Chau k,hau deng, Lord of the
"red rice, or if I shall addict myself to peculation—or if when sent to a
"distant province I shall be guilty of oppressing his majesty’s subjects
"—or of levying unauthorized taxes for my own emolument—or if
"I shall accept of a bribe to deliver my opinion upon any matter at
"legal issue—or if I shall give a false report of the state of the depart-
"ment committed to my charge—whether civil or military as the case
"may be—then may the spirits and Devottas of the country, &c. &c.
"and destroy me, &c. &c.

"If his sacred majesty should take the field then if I shall prove
"a coward or a traitor to him, may the weapons of the enemy reach
"my heart, &c.

"Should I act with pride and presumption—and ingratitude—and
"prove grinding towards the poor; or if I should lend my ear to or sanction
"any cabals by which the safety of his majesty and his government can be
"in the least degree affected and injured—or if I should treacherously coun-
"tenance the king’s enemies, then let me suffer death accompanied by the
"severest tortures, &c. &c."

* The Possessor of the Chakra.  (') P. Paramachakka.  † Lightening.
It is only the officers of the state who are obliged to take this oath. All below the rank of the lowest officer are exempted from it—on the supposition perhaps that it would prove a weak barrier to the impulses of fear. They apply to the lower classes the argumentum ad hominem in a manner quite intelligible to them, and quite preservative of their fidelity. The inferior Siamese officers are undoubtedly good servants in so far as zeal to carry their master's orders into effect can make them be so considered. But fear forms undoubtedly a large component part of this zeal—and as their families are generally in the power of government they are thereby restrained from negligence or treason.

Province Wellesley; revised
1st January, 1836.
NOTICES
ON THE
LIFE OF SHAKYA,
EXTRACTED FROM THE
TIBETAN AUTHORITIES.

BY M. ALEXANDER CSOMA KÖRÖSI.
siculo-hungarian of transylvania.

The two principal works treating of the life of Shākya, are the “rgya-ch'ér-rol-pa” (श्रीमते र्ग्याच्रेर्हल्प) Sanscrit: Lalitavistāra; and the Mnun-par-Hbyung-va.” The first is contained in the ⁷ or 2nd, and the latter in the ２ or 26th volume of the M,do class in the B,kah hgyur.

Many of the facts or anecdotes of the life of Shākya, that occur in these two works, have been also introduced in the Dulca class, especially in the third and fourth volumes. Passages from the same works are likewise to be found in several Shāstras relating to the life of Shākya.

According to the authority above cited, the principal acts in the life of Shākya are the following twelve; designated in Tibetan by the term mksad-pa-Bchu-gnyis, or “the twelve acts (of Shākya.).”

I.—He descended from among the gods.

II.—He entered into the womb.

III.—He was born.
IV.—He displayed all sorts of arts.
V.—He was married, or enjoyed the pleasures of the conjugal state.
VI.—He left his house and took the religious character.
VII.—He performed penances.
VIII.—He overcame the devil, or god of pleasures, (Kāma Déva.)
IX.—He arrived at supreme perfection, or became Buddha.
X.—He turned the wheel of the law or published his doctrine.
XI.—He was delivered from pain, or died.
XII.—His relics were deposited.

The notices will be made according to these twelve heads, thus:

I.—He descended from among the gods.

Before his last incarnation, Shākyā resided for a long time in Galdan (S. Tushita, one of the heavens of the gods) whither he had ascended through his former moral merits, especially through his having been accomplished in the six transcendental virtues; viz. charity, morality, patience, &c., when Kasivapa, his predecessor, was about to leave Galdan, and to descend to be incarnated for the purpose of becoming a Buddha, Shākyā was at that time a Bodhisatwa of the tenth degree of perfection. He was chosen by Kasivapa for his Vicegerent in Tushita, to be the instructor of the gods, and was also inaugurated by him with his own diadem. As a Bodhisatwa under the name of “Dam-pa-tog-dkar” (胆央嘓崩) he remained afterwards in Tushita for a long period, or till the time, when men lived only one hundred years. At a certain occasion, when the gods in Tushita were exhibiting all sorts of musical entertainments, out of respect for him, he was exorted by the Buddhas of all the corners of the world, to descend from Tushita, and to endeavour to become a Buddha.

He acquainted the gods with his intention respecting his descent into Jambu dvipa. They, knowing that there were at that time many atheistical teachers,* endeavoured to divert him from his purpose: but in

* See No. 1, of the Extracts in the Appendix, Dule 3rd Vol. leaf 419—478; and 4th Vol. leaf 1—106.
vain. He assured them that he should overcome them all, that his doctrine would be established and flourish in Jambu dwipa. And he recommended to the gods, that whoever among them might wish to taste of the food of immortality, he should be incarnated among men, in the same division of the earth.

The gods in Tushita, after having agreed on Bodhisatwa's descent, consulted about where he should be incarnated, in what country, nation and family. They all agreed that it should be in central or Gangetic India. But with respect to the tribe and family they differed among themselves. Some proposing one, some another from the ruling tribes or family in central India; but some objection was started to each of them. The ruling tribes or families enumerated by them, were residing, at that time, in Ujjayani, Hastinápura (the Pándava race,) Mathurá, Vaishali or Prayága (the Lichabhis,* in Kaushambhi, Rájabriha; Shravasti, in Kosala; and the Buda Raja.† Not being able to agree among themselves, they ask Bodhisatwa himself (Shákya) where he would be incarnated. He tells them in the house of Shudhodana (Tib. Zas-gtsang) a king of the Shákya race, residing at Capilavastu; on account of the purity and celebrity of his family, he being a descendant of the ancient universal monarchs.

Before leaving Tushita, he appoints Maitreya (Tib. རྡུལ་འབྱུར་ དབུན་པ་) to be his Vicegerent (sku-tshab, སྐུ་ཚབ) in the same manner as he himself had been appointed by Kashyapa. Maitreya is still residing there, and he is the saint who first will become a Buddha hereafter.

II.—He entered into the womb, or was incarnated.

There was a consultation again among the gods in what form Bodhisatwa should enter into the womb or body of the woman whom he had chosen to become his mother. A young elephant with six adorned trunks, such as has been judged proper in brahmanical works, was preferred. He therefore, leaving Tushita, descends, and, in the form of an elephant,

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* See No. 2.  † See No. 3.
enters by the right side, into the womb or cavity of the body of Māya Devī* (Tib. Lhāmo-sgyu-phrul-mā) the wife of Śuddodana. She never felt such a pleasure as at that moment. Next morning she tells the king the dream she had respecting that elephant. The Brahmans and the interpreters of dreams being called by the king, they propound that the queen shall be delivered of a son, who will become either an universal monarch or a Buddha. The king greatly rejoicing upon hearing these predictions, orders alms to be distributed, and offerings or sacrifices to be made to the gods for the safety and happy delivery of Māya Devī, and for the prosperity of the child that was to be born: and he himself is very solicitous to do everything according to her pleasure. The gods render her every service, and all nature is favourably disposed on account of Bodhisatwa, or the incarnated saint.

III.—He was born.

Māya Devī† was delivered of Bodhisatwa or the child, on the fifteenth day of the 4th moon of the Wood-Rat year; when she was in the garden or grove Lumbini whither she had gone with great procession for her recreation. The child (Shākya) came out by her right side, she being in a standing posture, and holding fast the branch of a tree, Indra, and other gods, assisted her. Soon after his birth, Shākya walked seven paces towards each of the four cardinal points, and uttered the name of each of them, telling what he was about to do with respect to them. Several miracles happened at his birth: for instance the whole world was illuminated with great light or brightness; the earth quaked, or trembled several times; the blind saw, &c. &c.

There were born at the same time with Shākya,‡ the sons of four kings in central or Gangetic India. At Rājagriha in Magadha; at Shravasti in Kosala; at Kaushambi, and at Ujjayani (as Vimbasara or Shrenika, Prasenajit, &c. &c.)

* See No. 4. † See No. 5. ‡ See No. 6.
Likewise, at Capilavastu, there were born of the Kshatriya tribe 500 male and 500 female children; 500 male and 500 female servants; 500 young elephants, 500 young horses or colts, 500 treasures also opened; all the wishes of Shudhodana being thus fulfilled, he gave to his son the name of Siddhārtha or "Sarva Siddhārtha" (Tib. Don-grub or Don-thams-chad-grub'pa.)

Seven days after the birth of Shākya, his mother dies, and is born again among the gods, in the Traya-strimsha (33) heaven.

From Lumbini Shākya is carried with great solemnity to Capilavastu, is taken to the temple of a particular god of the Shakyas* to salute him; but it is the god himself who shows reverence to him. Hence, one of the many names of Shākya is Dévata Déva, Tib. Lhahi Lha: god of gods. He is entrusted to Gattam (his aunt), who, together with 32 nurses, takes care of him. On a certain occasion it was found that the strength of Shākya, (when yet a child) equalled that of a thousand elephants.

The Brahmins and other diviners observing the characteristic signs on the body of Shākya, foretell that he shall become an universal monarch, if he remains at home; or a Buddha, if he leaves his house and assumes the religious character.

An Hermit or Sage, called Nag-po (or according to others Nyon-mongs-med) admonished by the great illumination of the world, together with his nephew Mis-byin (S. Narada) goes to Capilavastu, to salute the new born child. He has a long conversation with Shudhodana, and foretells to him that his son shall not become an universal monarch (Chakravarti) as some have foretold of him, but a Buddha. He laments that being too old, he cannot reach the time, in which he shall teach his doctrine. He recommends to Narada to become his disciple.

IV.—He displayed all sorts of arts.

On a lucky or auspicious day, (according to the observations of the Astrologers) Shudhodana intending to send his son (Shākya)† unto a

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* See No. 7.  † See No. 8.  ‡ See No. 9.
school to learn his letters, ordered the city to be cleansed and decorated; offerings or sacrifices to be made to the gods, and alms to be distributed. But, when brought to the school-master, he shews that, without being instructed, he knows every kind of letter shown by the school-master. And he himself enumerates 64 different alphabets (among which are mentioned those of Yavana and Huna also; but they are mostly fanciful names) and shews their figures. The Master is astonished at his wisdom, and utters several slokas expressive of his praise. Likewise, in Arithmetic and Astronomy, he is more expert than all others. He is acquainted with the art of subduing, or breaking in, an elephant, and with all the 64 mechanical arts, with military weapons and machines. He excels all other young Shakyas in the gymnastic exercises; as, in wrestling, leaping, swimming, archery, throwing the discus, &c. He clears the roads from an immense tree that had fallen down.

V.—He was married or enjoyed the pleasures of the conjugal state.

Afterwards, when grown up, Shakya, being desired by his father to marry, expresses in writing the requisite qualities of a woman, whom he would be willing to take for his wife, if there be found any such. The King orders his Ministers to seek for such a damsel. They find one (S. Gopā; Tib. Sa-htsho-ma) the daughter of Shakya Pe-chon-chan, but he declines to give his daughter except the young Prince be acquainted with the practice of every mechanical art. Shakya therefore exhibits his skill in all sorts of mechanical arts, and by this means he obtains Gopā, who is described as the model of prudent and virtuous women. He marries afterwards Yashodharā (Tib. Grags-Hdshin-ma) and another of the name of Ri-lags-Skyes (Deer-born.) The two first are much celebrated. But it seems that frequently both the names are attributed to the same person. By Yashodharā, Shakya had one son named Rahula (Tib. Sgra-Gchan-Hdshin.)

* See No. 10.
VI.—He left his house and took the religious character.

Shākya is stated to have passed 29 years in the court of Shudhodana his father, enjoying during that time all worldly pleasures. Afterwards the following circumstances determine him to take the religious character.

Riding in a carriage to the grove for his recreation, he observes at different occasions—an old-man;—a sick person;—a corpse, and lastly a man in a religious garb. He talks with his groom about those persons, and turns back at each occasion, and gives himself to meditation, on old age, sickness, death, and on the religious state. He visits a village of the agriculturists, observes their wretched condition, meditates in the shade of a Jambu tree. That shade out of respect for him, ceases to change with the progress of the sun. On his way home, many hoarded treasures open and offers themselves to him. He rejects them.

Notwithstanding all the vigilance of his father and of his relations to prevent him from leaving the court, (since according to the predictions regarding him they hope, that he shall become an universal monarch) he finds means for leaving the royal residence. At midnight mounting his horse called the "Praiseworthy" (Tib. Bsnags-ldan) he rides for six miles; then, dismounting, he sends back, by the servant, the horse and all the ornaments he had: and directs him to tell his father and his relations not to be grieved on his departure; for when he shall have found the supreme wisdom he will return and console them. Upon the servant's return there was great lamentation in the court of Shudhodana.

With his own sword Shākya cuts off the hair of his head; he then changes his fine linen clothes for a common garment of a dark-red colour, presented by Indra in disguise of a hunter. He commences his peregrination, and successively goes to Rājagriha in Magadha. The King Vimbasāra of Shrenika (in Tib. Gzung-chun-smying-po) having seen him from his palace is much pleased with his manners. Afterwards being informed of him by his domestics, visits him; has a long conversation with him, and offers him means for living according to his pleasure. He will not
accept of any thing. On the request of the King, he relates that he is of
the Shakya race that inhabit Capilavastu in Kosala, on the bank of the
Bhagirathi river, in the vicinity of the Himalaya. He is of the royal
family, the son of Shudhodana (Tib. Zas Gtsang) and that he has
renounced the world, and now seeks only to find the supreme wisdom.

VII. —He performed his penances, mortifying his body or living a
rigorous ascetic life.

Leaving Rájagriha he visits afterwards several of the hermits living
in the hills. In a short time he becomes acquainted with all their practices
and principles. He is not satisfied with them. He tells them that they
are mistaken in supposing such practices to be the means of emancipation.
Afterwards, he goes to the bank of the Nairanjana river,* and during the
course of six years performs his penances, subjecting himself to great
austerities and privation of food, and giving himself to continual medita-
tion. Three characteristic signs formerly unknown, now appear on his
body. Perceiving afterwards privation of food† to be dangerous to his
mental faculties, he is resolved to make use of necessary food for his sus-
tenance. He bathes or washes himself in the Nairanjana river. On the
bank a branch of the Arjuna tree, bows down to help him out of the river.
He refreshes himself with a refined milk-soup presented to him by two
maids.§ His five attendants desert him now,§ saying among themselves—
"such a glutton and such a loose man as Gautama is now, never can arrive
"at the supreme wisdom" (or never can become a Buddha.) They go to
Váranasi, and in a grove near that city, continue to live an ascetic life.

VIII. —He overcame the devil or the god of pleasures (Káma Deva.)

After having bathed in the Nairanjana river, and refreshed himself
with food, Shákya recovers his strength, and purposes to visit the holy spot
(called in Sanscrit Bodhimanda; Tib. Chang-chub snying-po, or Sans.
Vajrásana Tib. Dorjedán) the place where now Gaya is. He therefore

* See No. 11.   † See No. 13.   ‡ See No. 12.   § See No. 14.
proceeds to that place, sits upon a couch of grass, gives himself to earnest meditation, overcomes all the hosts of the devil, or triumphs over all the temptations of Kâma Deva.*

IX.—He arrived at the supreme perfection or became Buddha.

Remaining fixed in his meditation at last he arrives at the supreme wisdom, or he becomes Buddha. After having arrived at the supreme perfection, the gods from the several heavens† successively present him their offerings, adore him, and in appropriate verses sing praises to him, concerning his excellent qualities, and his great acts in overcoming the devil. For seven weeks he remains at Gaya, and perfected is for his great purpose.

Gagon and Yang-po, two merchants, entertain him with a dinner, and hear his instruction. They are so firm in their faith that they are said by Shâkya to become Bodhisatwas. The four great kings of the (fabulous) Rirab (S. Meru) offer him each a begging plate. He, being somewhat ill-disposed, the devil advises him to die; but, being presented by Indra with a fruit of the Jambu tree, he recovers. He is defended by the Nâgas against the injuries of bad weather with their expanded or hooded necks.

X.—He turned the wheel of the law, or published his doctrine.

After having found the supreme wisdom, Shâkya, thinking that men cannot understand his profound doctrine, refuses to instruct them except he be solicited by Brahma, and other gods to do so. They appear; and on their request he commences to teach his doctrine.‡ He reflects to whom he should first communicate his principles. Several of them whom he judged fit to understand him, are dead. He proceeds to Varanasi—five persons, formerly his attendants, being now convinced of his having found the supreme wisdom, pay homage to him and become his disciples. Their names, Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follows:

1.—Ajñâna kondinya: Kun-shes-kondinya. 2.—Asvajit: Tu-thul.
3.—Pâshwa: Langs-pa. 4.—Mahâ nâma: Ming-chi'hen. 5.—Bhadrika:

* See No. 15. † See No. 16. ‡ See No. 17. § See No. 16.
Byang-po. Shakya instructs them in his doctrine:* explains the four excellent truths, as they are styled (Tib. Hphags-pahi-Bden-pa-Bzhi.)

1.—There is sorrow or misery in life.
2.—It will be so with every birth.
3.—But it may be stopped.
4.—The way or mode of making an end to all miseries.

Five other persons likewise become his disciples: as also many others follow him. On his way to Rājagriha, at once 60 persons take the religious character, and follow him. The King of Magadha, Vimbasāra (Tib. Gyugs-chan-snying-po) invites him to Rājagriha,† and offers him a Vihara (Tib. Gisng lag-k'hang) called after the name of a bird, Kalantaka. Shariputra and Mongalyana, (afterwards styled a part of his principal disciples enter into his religious order. Kātyāyana becomes his disciple, and is sent afterwards by Shakya to Ujjayana to convert the king and his people. He there meets with great success.

A rich householder (Tib. K'hyim Bdag) at Shravasti in Kosala, having adopted Buddhism, makes a religious establishment with several large buildings, in a grove called the Prince's grove (S. Jetavanam; Tib. rgyal-bu-rgyal-kyi-ts'hal) He invites thither Shakya, and offers him and his disciples the buildings for their residence. Shakya passes 23 years: there and the greatest part of the Sutras was delivered or propounded by him at this place, or as generally is stated, at Shravasti (Tib. Mnyen yod.)

Prasenajit (Tib. Gsal-rgyal) the King of Kosala, residing at Shravasti, adopts Buddhism. There are several stories of him, both in the Dulva and the Do class.

Shudhodana, the father of Shakya, successively sends eight messengers to invite him to Capilavastu. They all remain with Shakya and take the religious character. At last he sends Charka, one of his Ministers. He also takes the religious character, but he returns and brings intelligence to

* See No. 19. † See No. 20.
the King respecting Shákyá's intention to visit him. He orders therefore the Nyagrodha convent (S. Vihara: Tib. Gtsug-lag-khang) to be built, near Capilavastu.

After an absence of 12 years Shákyá visits his father. Several miracles are displayed on the occasion of the meeting of the father and of the son. There are told several stories of how the Shakyas adopted the Baudhá faith,* and how they, mostly, took the religious character.

Both in the Dulva and in the Do class, there are many stories concerning Shákyá's peregrination; and how several individuals either singly or in company turn Buddhists: but, it seems, many of the stories are fanciful. The scene of the principal transactions in the life of Shákyá, is generally, in Central or Gangetic India, or the countries from Mathura, Ujjayana, Vaishali or Prayága (Allahabad) down to Káma Rupa, in Assam; and from the Vindhya mountains to Capilavastu in Rohilkhand.

The two Kings of Panchola, on the Northern and Southern side of the Ganges, are reconciled by Shákyá, and are stated to have adopted Buddhism. The King of the Northern Panchola becomes an Arhan, and that of Southern Panchola is foretold by Shákyá to become a Bodhisatwa of the first rank.

On a certain occasion Shákyá sends the half of his sitting couch or pillow to Hod-srong-ch'hen-po (S. Mahakashyapa) one of his principal disciples, to sit on with him, by which act he tacitly appoints him his successor, as an Hierarch after his death.

XI.—He was delivered from pain or he died.

The death of Shákyá, as generally stated in the Tibetan books, happened in Assam, near the City of Kusha (Tib. Sa-chan or Sachok) or Cáma Rupa, under a pair of Sál trees.

This event is told at large in the 8th (or Nya) volume of the Do class in the Kahgyur. As also, in two other volumes following the

* See No. 21.
Do class, titled *Maháparinirvanam* (Tib. Yongs-su—Mnya-nan-las-Hdas-pa-ch'hen-po) the "great final deliverance from pain."

All animal beings, admonished by a mighty voice of the approaching death of Shákya, haste to present him their last offerings, to ask him about the doubts they had on some articles of his doctrine, and to hear his instructions thereupon. The substance of his doctrine is repeated in these volumes, with respect to some metaphysical subtleties. There are many discussions on the nature or essence and the qualities of *Tathagata* or *Buddha* (God), as also on that of the human soul. On the state of being under bondage and liberated. On the means of obtaining final emancipation. On the six transcendental virtues, especially on charity. On casual concatenation, and on several other articles.

Previous to his death, Shákya tells how anciently the universal monarchs were used to be burnt, and orders his disciples to do the same with his body. Accordingly, after having washed the corpse several times with all sorts of scented or perfumed water, they put it into an iron chest, fill it with sweet scented seed-oil, and keep it so for seven days, then taking out the body, they envelope it first with soft cotton, and wrap it up afterwards in several (five hundred) whole pieces of cotton cloth; then they replace the body again in the chest, fill it with sweet scented seed-oil, and after having kept so for seven days, they burn it with sandal and other precious sweet-scented woods.

XII.—*His relics were deposited.*

The corpse being burnt in the above manner, they gather together the ashes. There are found 8 measures (of *Vré* or Sans. *Drona*) of them. They are put in 8 urns. These 8 precious vessels being placed upon 8 richly adorned stately seats or thrones, sacrifices and adorations are offered up to them during several days, after which they are deposited in a magnificent pyramidal building (S. *Chaitya*; Tib. *Mch'i-hod-rten*; vulg. *Chorten*) in the City of *Kusha* or *Káma Rupa*. 
The princes in central India, among whom Shākya had lived, hearing of his death, and being desirous of obtaining his holy relics, some of them go themselves, others send their men to take a portion of them. The people of Kusha permit them to visit the Chaitya, and to pay their respects to the holy relics, but they refuse to give them any share of those remains.*

After the death of Shākya his doctrine was first compiled by his principal disciples: Kāśyapa (Tib. Hod-srung) who succeeded him in the Hierarchy, compiled the Prajñāpāramitā class (Tib. Sher-chin) or the metaphysical works. Ananda (Tib. Kun-gāvo) the Sutras, or the Do class. And Upāli, (Tib. Nye-var-khor) the Vinaya or Dulva. These compilations were called Tripitakā (Tib. Sde-nod-sum; the three vessels or repositories.) And also Prabachana (Tib. Lung-rap) chief precept. All these works are now too voluminous. The extent and contents of them show evidently that they are the works of several successive ages although they are referred all to Shākya. One hundred and ten years after the first compilation, there was made a second in the time of Asoka, a celebrated King, who resided at Pataliputra. A third compilation was made again in the time of Kanishka, a celebrated King in the North of India, after there had been elapsed more than four hundred years from the death of Shākya. The Buddhists were divided about that time into 18 sects, under four principal divisions, as followers of Shākya's 4 disciples, viz. Rahula, Upali, Kāśyapa, and Kātyāyana.

The Sanscrit and Tibetan Names of the Masters, Divisions, and Sub-divisions extracted from the Vocabulary, in the Stan-gyur, are as follows, Vid. युज्य घुगर, मश, शा.

* It is somewhere stated in the Tib. books that these relics were divided and deposited at eight different places, but I cannot cite the vol. in which it is stated. See note on the Death of Shākya.
### MASTERS.

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### DIVISIONS.

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### SUB-DIVISIONS.

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<td>d. Lokottala Vādināh. e. Pranjarpitā Vādināh.</td>
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<td>c. Abhaya giri vāsināh.</td>
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## NOTES AND REFERENCES.

**Note 1.** — Atheistical teachers. — This name शिक्षक in Sanscrit Tirthika, by the Tibetians, is applied to the Hindus in general. At the first beginning of Buddhism in Central India, it was applied to those Sophistical teachers that opposed Buddhism. There are mentioned six principal teachers of them, in the Sanscrit and Tibetan Vocabulary; viz.

1. **Purna Kāshyapa.** शिक्षक पूर्ण or महाशिक्षक in Sanscrit Tirthika.
2. **Maskari Goshāliputra.** मासकारी गोशालिपुत्र in Sanscrit Tirthika.
3.—Sanjayi Vairahiputra. [Translation not provided]
4.—Ajita Keshakambalab. [Translation not provided]
5.—Akuda Katyayana. [Translation not provided]
6.—Nirgrantha Jñātisi. [Translation not provided]

Their gross atheistical principles or tenets (according to the representations of the Buddhists) may be seen in the first volume of the Duleva class of the Kah-gyur, from leaf 33-40, told by themselves, on the request of Shāriputra and Mongolyana (afterwards Shākyā’s two principal disciples.)

In general, according to the Kah-gyur and Stan-gyur and all Tibetan authorities, among the several Hindu systems the Tirthikas are those that are most extravagant in their tenets and practices, and that have been always the greatest antagonists of the Buddhists.

The above mentioned six teachers resided mostly at Rājagriha and Shrāvasti. They had frequent contests with the disciples of Gautama, by whom, at last, they were entirely defeated at Shrāvasti, and afterwards they dispersed in the Mountains near the Himālaya.

They were surpassed by Gautama, especially in the performance of miracles.

2. Vidita or Bidita, [Translation not provided] tall body, or one with a tall body, is a family name; as also, it is the name of the fabulous great continent to the East from the Rirap or Meru. Lus-p'hags-rigs, signifies one of the Videa tribe or family.

Note 2.—The name of Litsabyi ཤི/tsi or Lichavī, is applied to a race or tribe of men, whose principal city is stated to have been at Vaishāli वैशालि Prayāga, or the modern Allahabad. They are frequently mentioned in the Ka-gyur and Stan-gyur, and are described as rich and very splendid in their equipage and furniture.

Tibetan writers derive their first king རི་གུ་འཁོར་ བོད་ Nyā-khri-tsān-po, (about 250 years before Jesus Christ) from the Litsabyis; stating that there have been three kinds or tribes of the Shākya; as 1. Shākya Chhen-po, 2. Shākya Litsabyi, and 3. Shākya Rikkrot-pa (living in the mountains); and that Nyakkri-tsampo was of the Shākya Litsabyi tribe, who, being expelled took refuge in Tibet.

Note 3.—The name and residence of this prince are thus expressed. Udayana Vadsavāja, the son of Shatānikah at Kaushambi.

Note 4.—I do not find any mention in the Tibetan books of Māya Deśi’s virginity, upon which the Mongol accounts lay so much stress.

Note 5.—Shākya’s birth day is differently stated in different authors. The birth day of the Shing-byi or Wood-rat year, is the 50th year of the Cycle of sixty years. The Mouton terrestre, or Sa-lug, is the 53rd of ditto. The Dragon de feu, or Mé-bruk, is the 50th of ditto. The Fer-singe, Chaks-spré, is the 54th year of the Cycle of 60 years.
NOTICES ON THE LIFE OF SHAKYA.

This last is sometimes followed in Tibet. I have not met with the two others. But I think authors may be found to whom they may be referred.

Note 6.—The names of the four princes, &c. are:

1. Vimbasa or Shrenika, the son of Mahā Padma, King of Magadha, at Rajagriha.
2. Prasena Jit, the son of Aranemi, King of Kosala, at Shrowasti.
3. Udayana Vadsa Raja, the son of Shatanika, at Kaushambi.
4. Pratyota, the son of Anantanemi, King of Ujasin.*

Note 7.—The divinity Lha of the Shakya. It was an idol representing a divinity of the Yaksha kind, and was kept in a Temple. The do, kh, leaf 94, states that the inanimate images of several gods, as of Gulang, Skemchet, Lusnam, Dāva Nyima, Rnam-thos-bu, Indra, Brahma, Jigten Skyung, as soon as Bodhisattva (Shakya) put the sole of his right foot into the Temple, stood up and prostrated themselves at his feet.

Note 8.—Gautami was of the Gantama tribe—an aunt, of Shakya.

Note 9.—His precise age is not stated; it is said only, that when he grew up he was sent into the school to learn his letters. And that there was celebrated a great festival on that day, the whole city being cleansed and decorated, &c. The teacher's name is thus expressed: v. ches-pi lopan kunche she-nyen, teacher of children, friend of all.

The superior education of a courtesan in India, as in Greece, is marked by her being versed in the Shastras.† leaf 107 the text is thus:

"Who, like a harlot, is wise in understanding the rites of the Scriptures."

Note 10.—It is stated in general terms that Shakya excelled all others in the letters and mechanical arts. He had shown his skill in arithmetic, and his knowledge of several kinds of letters. But it was especially in the athletic exercises that he surpassed all other young men of the Shakya race, at Capila—especially in archery, and in throwing the discus. It is frequently mentioned, that, in all these exhibitions Devadatta was one of Shakya's rivals, and that he looked on him with great indignation and hatred, on account of his superior talents. But there is no mention made of any rivalry with respect to the damsels whom Shakya had married.

* The gods in Tushita, when seeking for a pure tribe for the birth-place of Shakya, and finding fault with each enumerated tribe or family, objected against the Pandava race that they have brought great confusion into their family descent, by calling Yuddhisthira, Dharmaputra; Bhima, Vayaputra; Arjuna, Indraputra; and Nakula and Sahadeva, the Aswinis.

† See the paper on the requisite qualities of the woman whom Shakya was willing to marry—printed in the Journals, As. Soc. Vol. III. page 57.
Note 11.—The Nairanjana river must have been not far from Gaya, since it is stated that Bodhisatva (Shākyā) went on foot to that river, and being much pleased with the situation of an inhabited place or village, called घைङ्ग, (abounding in tanks or ponds) having a turfy or grassy ground, and many shady or bushy trees, he remained there for six years, devoted entirely to meditation, and using very little food.

Note 12.—Some Tibetan writers say that his five first disciples were sent to Shākyā from Capila, by his father and grandfather (on the mother's side) to attend on him. But in the kha vol. of the Do class of the Ka-kyur, leaf 180, it is stated that he had found them at Rājagriha, as the disciples of a certain teacher रधान (v. lak-shot) whom he had visited, to learn his metaphysical theory. Shākyā having perceived in a short time his whole system, these five persons, admiring his great talents, and supposing that he would soon arrive at the supreme perfection, and that they would have then an opportunity to be instructed by him, when he left Rājagriha to live an ascetic life, accompanied him, and remained afterwards with him, until he gave up his abstinence from food.

Note 13.—Shākyā’s mortifications differed from those of other penitents, in as much as others mortified only their bodies, by subjecting themselves to several sorts of rigid practices, without exercising their understanding. Shākyā abstained from food, and exposed himself to the vicissitudes of weather in order that he might keep in subjection his body during the exercise of his mental faculties in his meditations. (श्रवण leaf 194.) Shākyā declares to the Gelongs, out of his own experience, that the mortifying of one's body, as some ascetics do, is not the right way to obtain thereby perfection or emancipation. But that it is only by the right application of one's understanding to meditation and reflection, that one may be freed from the sorrows of birth, sickness, old age and death in a future life.

Note 14.—These maidens are differently spoken of in different places. In one place it is said that they were the daughters of a headman of the village in the vicinity of which Shākyā lived. In another place it is said that he was presented with a refined and honeyed milk soup by a maiden of that village, and that her name was घरण्णण्ण "Well-born." There are mentioned ten other maidens of the neighbourhood, who visited frequently Shākyā, and prepared his victuals after he has commenced to take food regularly.

Note 15.—With respect to Shākyā's temptations by the Devil: श्रवण leaf 192-194: Shākyā tells to his Gelongs that, during the six years of his ascetic life, he was continually followed by the Devil or Satan (S. Māra, Tib. दुत, or कूम, the god of pleasures. He is called also दुम, the lord of death; and his host दुम्नल्क the troops of the lord of death) who sought every opportunity of seducing him, but that he never could succeed;
NOTICES ON THE LIFE OF SHAKYA,

although he used a very sweet language, and employed every means to persuade him to enjoy worldly pleasures, and to renounce his abstinence, since it is difficult to subdue entirely one's mind or passions. Satan thus said to him: "Give alms, offer sacrifices of burnt offerings; by these means you shall acquire great moral merits. But to what purpose is abstinence?"

Bodhisatwa (SHAKYA) said to him: "I must soon triumph over thee Satan: thy first troop is wish or desire;—the second is displeasure;—the third is formed of hunger and thirst;—in the fourth stand passions or lust;—in the fifth dulness and sleep;—in the sixth fear or dread;—the seventh is thy scripule or doubt;—the eighth are anger and hypocrisy. Those that seek only for profit or gain, for praise (bestowed in verse), honour, (ill got) renown; men praising themselves, blaming others. These are the troops that belong to the army of the black Devil."

He said farther to the Devil: "To such Priests and Brahmans, who have subdued their passions, who possess self-preservation, who apply well their understanding, and do every thing conscientiously, what canst thou do? Ill-minded!"

After having said thus, the Devil vanished much dejected, on account of his ill success.

But Bodhisatwa (SHAKYA's) final victory over the Devil (or the troops of KAMA DEVA) was under the holy tree (चंचुबस्किंशङ्ग Chancubsking: fusc Indica) sitting on the spot of the essence of holy wisdom (चंचुबस्किंशङ्ग Chancub skyingpo, called also Torjedan टॉर्जेदान Sans. Vajrasana, the diamond seat,) at or in the neighbourhood of the modern Gaya, in south Behar.

SHAKYA after having recovered his strength, leaving the Nairanjana river, visited that spot with the intention to become Buddha, as his predecessors had done. He sat down there under the holy tree, or a seat of grass, with the resolution or vow, not to rise from that seat, till he had found the supreme wisdom. The Devil seeing, that, should he become Buddha, all animal beings instructed by him, will grow judicious and wise, and then they will not obey his commands or orders, endeavours by all means to thwart his object. But all his efforts are in vain. Bodhisatwa cannot be overpowered—SHAKYA, after being victorious over all the assaults of the Devil, passes through several degrees of deep meditation and ecstasies, and at last, about day break, arrives at the supreme wisdom (in the 36th year of his age.)

In the 21st chapter of the "GYA-cher-rolpa," Sans. "Lalita Vistara," there is a long description, both in prose and verse, how the Devil (S. Mora, Tib. छ्वृद्र D:d, or the Ishwara of the Caramdhatu) was informed of Bodhisatwa's approaching exaltation. Of his (the Devil's) thirty-two auspicious dreams—of his hosts—of the monstrous and horrible forms of the fighting angels—of the several kinds of their weapons—of the manner of their fighting—of the desertion of KAMA by several gods—of the dissensions of his sons—of the two parties: the white and the black, standing on the right and left sides of KAMA. Those of the first party under
Kārtikeya, their leader, stand for Bodhisatwa, and endeavour to dissuade their father (or Kāma) from attacking that saint, since he cannot be overpowered. These on the left side remain with Kāma, and exhort him to fight, since it is impossible not to conquer with such troops. On both sides, there are uttered, alternately, by different individuals, many ingenious verses:—Kāma being defeated with all his troops, sends his daughters to endeavour, by their charms and female craft, to seduce Bodhisatwa. But all is vain.

Hymns or Praises of Tathāgata (Shakya) are uttered by the gods of several heavens successively, commencing with the gods of the highest heaven, down to the gods that dwell on the surface of the earth.

Leaf 259. The gods of अधिग्निक्षेत्र (the pure or holy mansion) after having circumambulated Tathāgata, sitting at Bodhimāndā, (the holy essence) and having caused a shower of divine sandal powder, thus praised him, in verse.

"There has arisen the Illuminator of the World—The World’s Protector—the Maker of light, who gives eyes to the world that has grown blind, to cast away the burdens of sin. Thou hast been victorious in the battle. Thy intention is accomplished by thy moral excellence. All thy virtues are perfect. Thou shalt now satisfy men with good things.

"Gautama is without sin. He is out of the mire. He stands on dry ground. He will save other animal beings also that are carried off by the mighty stream.

"Great Genius! thou art eminent; in all the three worlds there is none like thee. To this world sleeping for a long time, immersed in thick darkness, cause thou the light of understanding to arise.

"The living world has long been suffering the disease of corruption. The prince of physicians is come to cure them of all their diseases. Protector of the world! By thy appearance, all the mansions of distress shall be made empty. Henceforth, both gods and men shall enjoy happiness. None of those who came to see thee, the chief and the best of men, shall for a thousand ages (Kalpas) go to hell (or see the place of damnation.) They who, hearing thy instruction grow wise and sound, shall not be afraid at the destruction of the body. They having cut off the bonds of distress, and being entirely freed from all further incumbrance, shall find the fruit of the greatest virtue (or enjoy the greatest happiness.) These are the persons on whom alms may be bestowed, and that may receive them. Great shall be the reward of such alms—they shall contribute to their (the offerers) final deliverance from pain."

Leaf 260. SHAKYA addressing the priests, says: Gelongs!

The gods from the त्रिश्रृंग: Ne,tumg heaven, after having thus praised Tathāgata, saluted him, by putting their hands together, and then sat aside.
NOTICES ON THE LIFE OF SHAKYA.

2. Then came the gods from the ऋतुश्रुति Hotsul (S. Abhisrava,) Heaven, and after having presented their several offerings, and having their circumambulated Tathāgata, thus praised him.

"Reverence be to thee, Oh Muni! whose mind is profound, whose instruction is very pleasing. Thou art the prince of Munis. Thy instruction is sweet (or pleasing) like the melody of the daughter of Brahma. Thou hast found the highest degree of perfection. Thou art the most Holy. Thou art our shelter, our refuge and our aid. Thou, with a loving kindness, art the Protector of the world. Thou art the best physician that takest away every pain and cures all diseases. Thou art the maker of light. Lord! do thou assuage the afflictions of both gods and men, by pouring on them a shower of the food of immortality. Thou art immovable, firm, fixed like Rīrap, (Meru, or Olympus) or the sceptre in the hand of Indra. Thou art constant in thy vow or resolution. Thou, possessing all good qualities are like the Moon, &c. &c.

3. Leaf 260. Then came the gods from भृगुनाथन the Heaven of Brahma, and said—

"To thee, whose virtue is immaculate, whose understanding is clear and brilliant, who hast all the 32 sacred characteristic signs; who possessest a good memory, discerning understanding, and foreknowledge, and who art indefatigable; reverence be to thee, we adore thee falling down with our heads at thy feet.

"To thee who art clean or pure from the taints of sin, who art immaculate, spotless; who art celebrated in all the three worlds; who hast found the three kinds of science, who givest an eye to know the three degrees of true emancipation; reverence be to thee.

"To thee, who with a tranquil mind, clearest up the troubles of evil times, who instructest with a loving kindness all moving beings in their destination, reverence be to thee.

"Muni! whose heart is at rest, who delightest much in explaining every doubt; who hast undergone rigorous suffering on account of moving beings, thy intention is pure, thy practices are perfect. Teacher of the four Truths! Rejoicer in emancipation! who, being liberated, desirest to set free others also; reverence be to thee.

"The powerful and industrious Kāma (काम S. Māra) coming to thee, when thou overcomest him by thy understanding, diligence, and mildness, thou hast found at that time the supreme standard of immortality. Reverence be to thee who hast overcome the host of deceit.

4. Leaf 261. विद्यानाथन Then came the white party from among the sons of Kāma, or the good angels that favoured Bodhisattva (Shākya) and said—

"O Mighty one! who by thy great power, without moving thyself or standing up, and without even uttering a single word, hast defeated in a moment our strong, fierce and dreadfu
FROM THE TIBETAN AUTHORITIES.

host, O most perfect Muni! to whom all the three worlds pay homage with sacrifices; reverence be to thee.

"The innumerable troops of Káma, that surrounded the Chang-chab shing (ficus Indica) the prince of all trees, were unable to disturb thee—(or not could remove thee.)

"Now, sitting under this tree, after having suffered innumerable hardships thou appearest this-day most beautiful.

"Since during the course of thy Châng-chab life (holy life) thou hast parted from thy dearest wife, child, servants; as also thy gardens, towns, countries, kingdoms, thy head, eyes, tongue, feet, &c. to-day thou appearest most beautiful.

"Thou hast now obtained thy wish, as thou hast desired to become a Buddha, that thou mightest save, in a vessel of true religion (or faith) those that have been carried off into the ocean of distress. Thy wish is fulfilled. Now they will be saved by thee.

"Chief of men! Giver of eyes to the world! We all rejoice in thy moral merits and final happiness, and pray that we ourselves, after being accomplished in perfection, such as all the Buddhas have praised, and having triumphed over the hosts of desire, may arrive at omniscience and final beatitude.

5. Leaf 262. Then came the gods of ƅ素质教育 ែេជេ េរុកោទេ េសមម and said:

"Thy instruction is without fault. It is exempt from all confusion. It is free from the principles of darkness and contains the precepts of immortality. It is worthy to be revered both in heaven and on earth. Reverence be to thee possessed of such a brilliant discriminating understanding. Do thou make glad both gods and men by thy delightful instruction. Thou art the patron, the refuge, the shelter of all moving beings, &c. &c."

6. Leaf 263. Then came those of Rapprul េរុកោទេ េយមេ and said:

"Having put off the three kinds of spots or impurities, thou becamest an excellent light of religion. Those that delighted to walk in a wrong way, thou madest enter into the true path of immortality. Sacrificial offerings are made to thee both by gods and men. Thou art a wise curer of diseases. Thou art the giver of immortal happiness. Thy wisdom is wonderful. We, bowing down with our heads, do adore thee."

7. Leaf 263. Then came the gods of ែេជេ េកុក្ម (S. Tushita,) and said:

"When thou wast in Tushita (Gáldán) thou hadst then fully instructed the gods in many moral virtues. All thy precepts are there still in continual use. We cannot be satisfied with looking on thee, not with harkening to thy instruction. Ocean of good qualities! Light of the world! We bow down with our heads and hearts before thee. At thy descent from Gáldán, all the disagreeable places of future birth were cleared up by thee. At the time when thou comest to sit under this holy tree (ficus Indica) the afflictions of all moving beings were assuaged. Since thy wishes have been fulfilled, having found the supreme
perfection (as thou soughtest for) and having defeated Kapāla also, run now thy religious course, turn the wheel of the Law. There are many who wish to hear thy moral instruction. Many thousands of animal beings are waiting here. We beg, therefore, that thou wilt be pleased to run thy religious race, and to instruct them at large, and to deliver them out of the orb of transmigrations, &c. &c.

3. "Leaf 264. Then came the gods of तप्प्राल, Top-pral, and said:
"There is none like thee, in morality, meditation, and wisdom; where is then thy superior? To thee, O Tathāgata! who art wise in the means of piety and emancipation, be reverence. We bow down with our heads at thy feet.

"We have seen the great preparations made by the god of the holy tree—such sacrificial offerings, made by the gods and men, belong only to thee (there is none other worthy of them.) Thou art not disappointed in having taken the religious character, and in having lived a rigid life; since, having overcome the deceitful troops (of Kāma) thou hast found the supreme perfection. Thou hast shed light on the ten corners of the world. Thou hast enlightened, with the lamp of understanding, all the three worlds. Thou art become a dispeller of darkness. To thee, who givest to man an eye like that of the supreme intelligence, no praise can be sufficiently said, even through the course of a whole Kalpa. Ocean of perfections! Tathāgata! the most celebrated in the world! We prostrate ourselves with our heads at thy feet; we adore thee."

9. Then came Indra with the other gods of the Tārayāntrika heaven, and said:
"Muni! who art undisturbed, spotless, who remainest always in a graceful sitting posture like the mountain Rūrap (S. Meru,—or Olympus.) Who art renowned in the ten corners of the world, on account of thy shining wisdom and brilliant moral merits; reverence be to thee.

"Muni! thou hast offered in old times, pure sacrifices to many hundred Buddhas; by the merits of those offerings thou becamdest victorious over the hosts of Kāma, at the foot of the Holy Tree. Thou art the source of morality, of law, of meditation, of ingenuity, and the standard of wisdom. Thou art the overcomer of old age and of death. Thou art the true physician, the giver of eyes to the world. Muni! thou hast put away the three blemishes or spots. Thy senses are quiet, thy mind is at rest.

"Śākya! the chief of men! the spiritual king of all walking beings (men)! We repair to thee for protection (or we take refuge with thee.) By thy diligent application thou hast acquired the infinite good practices of the eminent saints (Bodhisatvas) thou hast the powers of wisdom, method, affection, and prosperity, at thy first becoming a Bodhisatva; now sitting at Bodhimāda (Holy essence, or the essence of wisdom) thy ten powers are complete.

"The gods were in much fear and anxiety, seeing the infinite hosts that were surrounding thee, saying among themselves: will not that prince of the priests, who is sitting at Bodhimāda (trānasūri) be overpowered?"
"Thou hast not been afraid of those evil spirits—thou wast not even moved. By knocking with thy hand upon a heavy load, they were all afraid, and thou becamest victorious over all the hosts of Kâma. As the former Budhas had found the supreme perfection (on this holy spot) by sitting on their thrones (lion-chair) thou having followed their examples, hast equalled them both in mind and spirit, thou hast acquired omniscience by thyself. Therefore, thou art the holy, the self-produced of the world, the ground on which all moving beings may rest their prosperity (or moral merits,) &c. &c.

10. Leaf 265. Then came the four great kings न्यायः(gods residing on the four sides of the Sumeru or Rîrap) and said:

"Thy instruction is agreeable; thy voice is pleasing—thy mind being very placid, is clear like the moon. Thou hast a cheerful countenance. Prince of Munis! that maketh us glad; we adore thee.

"When thou dost speak, the melody of thy voice surpasses all those of both gods and men. All the distresses, caused by lust, passion, and ignorance, are assuaged by thy words. They produce in all animal beings the purest joy. All they, that hearken to thy instruction, will be liberated. Thou dost not disdain the ignorant. Thou never wast proud with the superiority of thy wisdom. Neither art thou puffed up (in prosperity) nor dejected (in adversity.) As the Rîrap arose from among the waters, so thou art eminent from among men."

11. Leaf 266. Then came the gods of the enlightened void space above, or atmosphere, महामन्दिर and said:

"We come to see thee, O Wise Muni! after having observed carefully the practices of moving beings. Pure animal being! when we look on thy behaviour, it is only thou (from among all) whom we find with an undisturbed mind, &c. &c."

12. Leaf 267. Then came the gods residing on the surface of the earth, नरहोर, and said:

"Thou having enlightened every atom in the universe, all the three thousand worlds became a temple of sacrifice for thee, how much more so thine own person!"

"We take up the whole body of water below, all moving beings on the surface of the earth, all earths in the three thousand worlds, we offer them all to thee, and beg thee to use them according to thy pleasure: and we wish that at every place where thou sittest, walkest, or liest, or the spiritual sons of Gautama, the Sugata (thy spiritual sons) shall preach the Law, all the hearers and believers of the word, on account of our moral merits, may find the supreme perfection or beatitude."

(Note: of some of the hymns or praises under the above 12 heads, a part only has been translated; and the specification of the several offerings presented to Tathâgata by each class of gods at their arrival, has been left out.)
NOTICES ON THE LIFE OF SHAKYA.

Note 17.—The substance of Brahma’s address is: “It is unbecoming to him (Shakya) to remain so indifferent after having acquired such great perfection and wisdom. There are many in the world who both desire to learn and can understand his doctrine. Brahma, therefore, with Indra and several other gods, beg him that he will please to teach his doctrine (or that he will beat the drum, blow the shell or trumpet, and kindle or light the lamp of religion, and cause to fall a shower of religious instruction.) And that he will please to save or deliver men out of the ocean of transmigration, to cure their moral diseases, to assuage their afflictions, to bring into the right way those that are gone astray, and to open the door of emancipation (or final liberation from bodily existence.)

Note 18.—The Mongols say he ascended a throne at Varanasi. There are at Varanasi (according to the dreams of the Buddhists) one thousand (spiritual) thrones (Sengchi-khari, lion-chair) for the 1,000 Buddhas of this happy age (S. Bhadra Calpa) four of whom have appeared, and the rest are to come hereafter. Shakya after becoming Buddha, when first visited Varanasi, paid respect to the thrones of his three predecessors by circumambulating each of them, and then he sat down on the fourth throne.

These 1,000 Buddhas are described in the first volume of the Do class of the Kagyu, to which beg to refer. Some wealthy Tibetans delight to keep the images of these 1,000 Buddhas, made of silver or other metal, and to pay respect to them.

Note 19.—With respect to the four truths little further explanation is afforded.—Ignorance is the source of almost every real or fancied misery; and right knowledge of the nature of things, is the true way to emancipation; therefore, they, who desire to be freed from the miseries of future transmigrations, must acquire true knowledge of the nature of divine and human things.

Note 20.—Shakya had accepted the Vihar (in the Kalantaka grove, near Rajangriha) offered him by Vimbasara; where he passed afterwards several years, and many of his lectures were delivered in that Vihar (or Behar.) There was, likewise, another place near Rajagriha, called in Sanscrit the Griddhrakuta parvata, where he gave several lectures, especially on the Prajnaparamita.

Note 21.—The principal female persons of the religious order established by Shakya, were: Gautami (his aunt) Yashodharā, Gopa, and Upalavarnā (his wives.)

Lechin أسر (Lhas-byin; Sans. Devadatta) and Shakya (or Siddhartha) were the sons of two brothers. This of the eldest, that of the youngest. Each had one brother. Lechin had Ananda (in Tib. Kungdvo) Shakya had NANDA (Tib. Gado).

In the Dulva, and in several Sutras, Devadatta is represented always as inimical to Shakya. He slew with his fist an elephant sent by the Lichevies of Vaishali as a present to Shakya, when he was yet at Capita. He hired some persons to destroy Shakya by hurling on him a large stone. He caused many times dissensions among his disciples.
ACCOUNT OF THE DEATH OF SHÁKYA.

Translated from the Dulea, p. 77.—༄༅། པ་ རྣམ་ཐུགས་པ།

As soon as Sangs-gyas Chomdánás (སེང་གིས་ཆོམས་དཔོན་ས་) Sanga-gyas Behomdan-hdas. S. Buddha Bhagaván (ས. བཱུད་སེ་བ་) was delivered from pain (was dead) this great earth shook, ignis fatuus also fell, the corners of the world also were burning (with meteors), and from the enlightened void space above (from the air or heaven) there was also heard a sound of drums made by the gods.

At that time the life possessing Hot-srung ch'hen-po (ཧོ་ཟྲུང་ཞེ་ཧེ་པོ་, S. A'yuhamán Mahá Káṣyapa) being at Réjagriha, in a residence in the grove called after the Kalantaka bird, was awakened by that earthquake, and reflecting on what it would signify, he perceived that Chomdánás had been entirely delivered from pain.

And knowing the nature of things, he said: "This is the case with every compound thing."

He, reflecting within himself, that the king of Magadha (མག་དཀར་པོ་, Maskye's-Dgra; S. Ajáta Shaturu; the son of ཕྲུལ་པོང་, Lus-k'ha-gs-má, his mother) not being yet well grounded in his faith, (having a faith without roots) should he hear of the death of Chomdánás, he would certainly die in vomiting out warm blood; therefore he thought of means to prevent it.

He said thus to Yarchet (ཉིད་ཐར།, Dvyar-byed, a Brahman, the chief officer of Magadha: རྒྱུ་དྲི་, S. Mahá Mántra): Yarchet, may it be known to you, that Chomdánás being delivered from pain, if the son of Lus-k'ha-gs-má, the king Ajáta Shaturu, whose faith has not yet taken root, should he hear that Chomdánás is delivered from pain, he may die by vomiting warm blood; therefore be you instructed in the means of preventing it.

He (Yarchet) said: Venerable Sir, please to command or tell the means one after another.

He said: Yarchet, come, go speedily into the king's garden or grove, and make to be represented in painting, how Chomdánás was in Gádánán (S. Tushita); how he, in the shape of an elephant descended into the womb of his mother. How he, at the foot of the Changchubshing (ficus Indica) has found the supreme perfection, or become Buddha. How he, at Váranási, at three different times, turned the wheel of the law of twelve kinds (has taught his doctrine). How he, at Shravasti, displayed great miracles. How he, at the city of Sgra-chen, descended from the Trayaustrinsha (93) heaven of the gods, whither he had gone to instruct his mother; and lastly, how he, after having accomplished his acts in taming and instructing men, in his doctrine, at several places, went to his last sleeping bed, in the city of Sö-chen (སྟོད་ཆེན་; of Kusha. S. Cámarupa, in Assam.)
NOTICES ON THE LIFE AND DEATH OF SHAKYA,

Take you seven long basins or troughs filled with fresh butter and one filled with Tsandan goshiri'ha (a kind of sandal wood or resin) and place them in that part of the garden. When the king shall come out to the door then beg him that he may be pleased to go and see the garden. If he take notice of the picture and ask of you: what is this? then tell him, at large, thus: Sire! (Lhā) This place is Capilavastu; in this corner here has been born Chomdāndás. This, here, is the bank of the Naranjana river. This, here, is the spot where Chomdāndás, sitting on a diamond-seat (S. Vajrásana, Tib. རྡི་བྱུར་, Dorjé-dan) arrived at the supreme perfection, or became Buddha. This, again, is the city of Vāranāsi: Chomdāndás three times passed over to this spot, and turned the wheel of the law of twelve kinds. Here is the city of Shravasti, where Chomdāndás displayed his great miracles. This, again, is the city of Śrā-chen. It is here that Chomdāndás alighted, when he came down from among the gods in the Trayāstrinsha heaven. This, again, is the city of Kusha where Chomdāndás, after having accomplished his acts in disciplining men, at such and such places, went to his last sleeping bed! Tell him so, and when, upon hearing these, he shall faint, then plunge him into the long basin filled with fresh butter, and when the butter shall be melted, then lay him in the second basin, and so on, till the 7th basin, then take out and lay him into that filled with Tsandan-goshiri'ha, and so he will recover. After having said this, the Ayusmān Mahā Kāshyapa departed for the city of Kusha.

Yārčhet having soon got the pictures ready, when the king appeared abroad, begged him that he would please to go and see the garden. The king entering into the garden, and seeing the pictures, asked of Yārčhet, what is this? He answered, and told him at large, (as above has been described) till: 'This is the city of Kusha (Ts-chen city, so called from the Kusha grass) where Chomdāndás went to his last sleeping bed.' He said: 'What say you! Yārčhet; what! Chomdāndás has been delivered from pain? he said he: but Yārčhet remained silent. Then the king (Añatudhastru) having fainted fell motionless to the ground. Yārčhet laying him successively in the long basins or troughs filled with fresh butter, and afterwards taking out and laying him again in a long basin filled with Tsandan goshir'ha, he then recovered.

As soon as Chomdāndás was dead, at the foot of the pair of Śūl-trees, which scattered over him their flowers, and he was sleeping like a lion, a Gelong thus said, in verse:

"A pair of beautiful Śūl-trees, in this grove of excellent green trees, are scattering flowers upon the Teacher delivered from pain."

As soon as Chomdāndás was dead, Indra (Yung-gna, Br. gya-byin) said, in verse:

"Alas! the compound thing is not lasting; from its being produced it is of a perishable nature. Since it is produced, it perishes. It is a happiness for such to be at rest (to be assuaged)."

As soon as Sānru-gyās Chomdāndás was delivered from pain, BrahmA (Tshang-pa) the Lord of the Universe (S. Sahalo-seesha, Tib. Mjed-kyi dākpo) thus said, in verse:
"All things gathered together in this world by all creatures, must be relinquished. The man, who had no equal in the world, Tathāgata, who has found great powers and clear eyes, such a Teacher also, at last, has died."

As soon as Śāṅg-gyä Chomdāṅdās was delivered from pain, the life possessing Māgāgs-pa (མགྱེ་སྟོངས་པ།) (S. Agyusmān Amiruddha) said in verse:

"He who with a firm mind was a protector, he that had found steadiness and tranquillity, the letting out and taking in of breath (respiration) being stopped, the clear eyed, at last, is dead. When the Teacher, who was excellent in every kind, was delivered from pain, I was very much troubled; my hair stood on end. He was without fear; he was above the senses (or the objects of sense) his mind was evolved. Such a light is now extinguished."

As soon as Śāṅg-gyä Chomdāṅdās was delivered from pain, some Ge'longs rolled on the ground; some clasping their arms, uttered great ejaculations; some being depressed by sorrow, sat still; some depending on religion, said: Chomdāṅdās, who instructed us in many things, that were pleasing, agreeable, and delightful to the hearts of all, is now separated, annihilated, destroyed, and divided from us.

Then the life possessing Māgāgs-pa said to the life possessing Kun-gávo. "Kun-gávo (S. Ananda) if by degrees and by soft means you will not appease the Ge'longs, the gods that live for many hundred kalpas, will reproach, revile, and say contemptuously: there are many priests (Ge'longs) that took the religious character according to the excellent precepts of the Dulem, but that are without judgment and reflection."

Kun-gávo asked of Māgāgs-pa: 'Do you know how many gods there are present?" Kun-gávo, in all the space that is from the city of Kusha to the river Yig-dän, (ཡིག་དྲན་) from the grove of the pair of Sál-trees to the Chaitya (ཆེན་པོ་དཔོན་) Mehdod-ten, adorned with a head ornament by the Champions) 12 miles, (each of 4,000 fathoms) in circumference, there is not a single spot left which is not occupied and filled by wise gods of great power; there is not left so much place by the inferior gods where you could fix a staff. Some of these gods roll on the ground; some grasping their arms utter ejaculations; some, being oppressed by great sorrow, sit still; some depending on religion (or on the nature of things) thus say: Chomdāṅdās, who instructed us in many things, which were pleasing, agreeable, and delightful to the hearts of all, is now separated, annihilated, destroyed, and divided from us."

In that evening the life possessing Māgāgs-pa, after having expressed some moral reflections, sat down in the manner of a venerable wise man keeping silence.

Then, the night being over, the life possessing Māgāgs-pa thus said to the life possessing Kun-gávo:

Kun-gávo, go you, and tell thus to the Champions, the inhabitants of Kusha: "Inhabitants, (citizens), this evening, at mid-night, the Teacher has been delivered from pain, with respect
to the five aggregates of his body: perform now your duty, and work out your moral merits." And tell them not to take into their minds to say: "Men dwelling in the neighbourhood (environs) of our city (or beloved brethren) our Teacher being dead, henceforth we cannot make him sacrifices (offerings) and do other things that are required." After Mâgâs-pa had said this, Kun-gâvo putting on his religious garb ( OMAPNa'm-jâr) accompanied by other priests or Ge'longs, went to that place, where the Senate-house of the Champions, that inhabit Kusha, was, and where there were assembled at that time about 500 Champions of the City of Kusha to consult about some affairs. Then Kun-gâvo said to them: 'Intelligent citizens, assembled Champions of Kusha, please to hear: At midnight, this evening, the Teacher has been entirely delivered from pain, with respect to the five aggregates of his body. Perform now your duty, and make your moral merits. Do not take into your minds to say: "Men dwelling in the neighbourhood of our city, our Teacher being dead, henceforth we cannot make him sacrifices and perform other rites that are required." After Kun-gâvo had said thus, some of the Champions that inhabit Kusha, roll on the ground; some clasping their hands, utter ejaculations; some being oppressed by sorrow, sit still; some depending on religion say: 'Chomdändâs, who taught us so many things, that were pleasing, agreeable and delightful to every man's heart, is now separated, annihilated, destroyed, and withdrawn from us.'

Then the Champions of Kusha taking to themselves from the whole City, flowers, garlands, incense, sweet scented powders, and musical instruments; together with their children, wives, male and female slaves, labourers, publicans, their friends, relations, magistrates or officers, and their kindred, going out from the City of Kusha, and proceeding to the grove of the pair of Sal-trees, after having arrived there, show every kind of respect, reverence, honour and worship to Chomdändâs (who was sleeping like a lion) by sacrificing to him with myrrh, garlands, incense, sweet scented powders, and with music.

Then the principal men from among the Champions of Kusha thus said to the life possessing Kun-gâvo (S. Āyumân A'ṇanda) Venerable Kun-gâvo, (or Reverend Sir).

We are willing to sacrifice to Chomdändâs (or show honour to his memory) please to instruct us how we should perform the funeral ceremonies." "Citizens! in like manner with those of an universal Monarch (S. Chakravarttt) Tib. ﻶ祤祂祤祤祤祤祤 Khor-lo-gyur-té-gyel-po). 'Venerable Kun-gâvo! how they are performed to an universal Monarch?' 'Inhabitants! (citizens) the corpse of an universal Monarch is wrapped first in cotton and cotton-tree (made into flat leaves or blades) and afterwards it is wrapped up in 500 pieces of cotton cloth, then it is placed in an iron coffin filled with seed-oil; and from above it is covered with a double iron covering; then heaping together all sorts of sweet scented woods, it is burnt with them; and the fire is extinguished with milk; then his bones being put into an urn of gold, and building a Chaitya for the bones, on such a place where four
roads meet and fixing an umbrella, banners and long narrow hanging pieces of stuff or cloth, they show respect, reverence, honour and worship, with myrrh (or fragrant substances) garlands, incense, sweet scented powders, and musical sounds, and then they celebrate a great festival. Citizens! such things are performed at the funeral of an universal Monarch. For Thathá-gata, the Arhat, the most accomplished Buddha, you must do yet more.'

'Venerable Kun-gávo! we will do accordingly as you have commanded; but as it is not easy to get soon together the things required; in seven days hence, we will make every thing ready, and then we will perform our funeral sacrifices with fragrant substances, garlands, incense, sweet scented powders, and musical sounds, showing respect, reverence, honour and worship to Chomdándás, who sleeps on the lion-throne (or lies on the stately funeral bed).'

'Do you, therefore,' said Kun-gávo, 'accordingly.'

Then they went away, and in seven days prepared every thing. And on the seventh day, having prepared also golden biers (or frames, &c.) bringing together all fragrant substances, garlands and all sorts of musical instruments that were found within the space of 12 miles, from Kusha to the Yig-dán river; from the grove of the pair of Sal-trees to the Chaitya with a head ornament, (ornamental pinnacle) they came out from the City, and proceeding to the grove of the pair of Sal-trees, paid respect, reverence, honour and worship to him, who was sleeping on the lion-throne with all sorts of fragrant substances, garlands, incense, sweet scented powders, and musical sounds.

Then the principal Champions of Kusha thus said to the Champions that crowded together from all parts: 'Hear ye, intelligent citizens! the wives and the maids of the Champions, shall make canopies of cloth over the corpse of Chomdánás; the wives and lads of the Champions shall carry the bier of Chomdánás; and we showing respect, reverence, honour, and worship to him, with fragrant substances, garlands, incense, sweet scented powders and music, so we shall enter at the western gate of the City, and after having perambulated the whole space within, we shall go out by the eastern gate of the City; and after having passed over the Yig-dán river, we shall stay by the Chaitya (called the Chaitya that has a head ornament tied on by the Champions) and there we will burn the corpse.'

The Champions answered them, and said: 'we will do accordingly.' The wives and the maids of the Champions formed canopies of cloth for the corpse of Chomdánás; but the wives and lads of the Champions, wishing to lift up the bier of Chomdánás, could not take it up. Then Mágás-pá said to Kun-gávo: 'Life possessing Kun-gávo, the wives of the Champions of Kusha could not lift up the bier of Chomdánás; and why?' 'Since such is the will of the gods.' 'Life possessing Mágás-pá! and what is the will of the gods?' 'That the bier be carried by the Champions and the young Champions of Kusha.' 'Life possessing Kun-gávo! it must, therefore, be done accordingly as the gods will have it.'
NOTICES ON THE LIFE AND DEATH OF SHAKYA,

Then as soon as the bier was lifted up by the Champions and the young Champions, the gods dwelling in the enlightened ethereal space above, scattered about divine flowers, such as Utpala, Pâma, Pâdmapâra, Kumuda, &c., sweet scented powders of Akara, Tamala; and made divine music, and let down many cloths or garments. Then some of the principal Champions said to the others, ‘let us lay aside the music of men, and the other things, and let us perform the funeral ceremonies with divine music, and divine flowers and incense.’ Afterwards they performed the funeral ceremonies accordingly (as has been stated above) till they reached the Chaitya, where the corpse was burned.

At Kusha there fell at that time so much of the divine flower Mandaraka, that it reached up to the knees. A man, taking with him a great deal of that divine flower, went to the tower of Dig-pachen (致します), on some business.

At that time Mahâ Kâstapa (Hot-srung-ch’hen-po), together with a train of 500 persons, (or priests) was on his road to Kusha, to pay his last respects to the inviolate body of Chomândás. He, having met that man on the road between Kusha and Dig-pachen, asked of him, whence he came, and whither he was going. He answered to him: ‘Venerable Sir, I come from Kusha, and, on some business, I go to Dig-pachen.’ ‘O man! do you know my Teacher?’ ‘Yes, Venerable Sir, I know him; it is Ge’lkhong Gautama (S. Shrâmanah Gautama). There have been now seven days elapsed, since he is dead. This Mandaraka divine flower I have taken from among those flowers with which sacrificial respects were paid to his relics.’

The Champions of Kusha, wishing to burn the body of Chomândás, could not kindle the fire. Then Mâgâgs-pâ said to Kun-gâvo: ‘Kun-gâvo, the Champions of Kusha cannot burn the body of Chomândás, and why?’ ‘Because it is the will of the gods. Mâgâgs-pâ, according to the will of the gods, Hot-srung-ch’hen-po, with 500 other persons, is on his way between Dig-pachen and Kusha, and wishes to pay his respects to the inviolate body of Chomândás, before it shall be burned. Mâgâgs-pâ! we must do accordingly as the will of the gods has been.’

Then Kun-gâvo thus said to the Champions of Kusha: ‘Hear ye, O assembled multitude of the Champions of the City of Kusha. The Corpse of Chomândás could not be burnt, and what was the reason thereof? because the gods would have it so.’ They said: ‘we must, therefore, do accordingly as the will of the gods has been.’

Afterwards Hot-srung-ch’hen-po arrived at Kusha; from a far he was perceived by those of his followers, who went before him with fragrant substances, garlands, incense, sweet scented powders, and all sorts of musical instruments, and after having prostrated themselves at his feet, they followed him. He, accompanied by an immense number of people, went to the place where the Corpse of Chomândás was. And removing all the sweet scented woods, he opened the iron coffin, took off all the wrappings (consisting of 500 pieces of cotton cloth and of cotton) and then he paid his adoration to the entire or inviolate body of Chomândás,
There were at that time, on the whole surface of this great earth four great hearers (Shravakas) of Shākya: 1, Kohu-dinya: (S. Kaun-dinya.) 2, Skul-chet: (Chunda.) 3, Stöbschu-hot-srung: (Dasa-bala Kāshyapa.) 4, Hot-srung-ch'hen-po: (Mahā Kāshyapa.)

Among these, Hot-srung having more knowledge and moral merits than the others, had found many garbs, (or clothes) alms, beddings, medicaments, and necessary utensils. He thought thus within himself: 'I myself will make a sacrificial offering to Chomdānās. Therefore, instead of the former wrappings, &c., he made all new, and then laying the body in the iron coffin, he covered it with a double covering; then heaping together all sorts of sweet scented woods, he went aside, and the wood was kindled by itself.

Then the Champions of Kusha extinguished the fire with milk, and the relics were put by them into an urn of gold, placed on a golden bier or frame, and after having paid to it all sorts of respect (as has been described above) they carried it into the City, and deposited it in the middle of the City of Kusha.

The Champions inhabiting the country or town of Dig-pāchhen, being informed that there have elapsed seven days, since Chomdānās has been delivered from pain, and that the inhabitants of Kusha have built a Chaitya for his relics; therefore putting on their armour, with four kinds of troops (elephants, horse, chariots, and infantry) they go to Kusha, and thus say to the Champions of that City: 'Hear ye! O assembled multitude of the Champions of Kusha, Chomdānās being from a long time dear unto us, and now being delivered from pain while he was tarrying in the neighbourhood of your City, we desire and request of you that you will give us a share of his bodily relics, that we may take them to Dig-pāchhen, and build a Chaitya there; then we shall pay all sorts of respects and worship to them, and will establish a great festival to the memory of Chomdānās.' The Champions of Kusha answered them: 'Chomdānās has been dear also unto us; he died in the environs of our City, we will give to you no share of his relics.' They said: 'If you will give, well, if not, we will take by force, with our troops.' Then the Champions of Kusha said: 'we will do accordingly.'

There were, besides those of Dig-pāchhen, six other pretenders to share in the relics of Chomdānās; their names are:

1. The Buluka royal (or kshetriya) tribe, residing in Togs-pa-g-yed (of wavering judgment).
2. The Kroṭṭya royal race, in the City of Sgra-Sgrogs.
3. A Brahman residing in Khya-hjug-g Ling (Vishnu's region.)
4. The Shākya royal (kshetriya) tribe, at Sers, kye, or Capila.
5. The royal (kshetriya) tribe, Litsabgyi, residing at Yangs-pāchhen (S. Veshali or Prayaga.)
6. The King of Magadha, Ma-skye-s-dora (S. Ajāṭa Shatru).

The King of Magadh, Ajāṭa Shatru, wished to go himself and conduct his troops; but remembering Chomdānās, (Shākya) he fell down motionless from his elephant. Then he was
put on horseback, but he again fell down. Then he entrusted his troops to Yarchet, a Brahman and chief officer, and directed him to give his salutation to the Champions of Kusha, and to ask of them a share of the relics of Chomdândás; since he had been dear to him: and he would build at Rájagríha a Chaitya for those relics and pay every kind of respect and worship to them, and would establish a great festival for them. Yarchet did accordingly as he had been directed, by the King: but the Champions of Kusha will give no share to him. They say: 'Yarchet! Chomdândás has been dear to us also from a long time; he became our Lama (Guru) and he died in the vicinity of our City; we will, therefore, give you no share of his relics.' Then Yarchet said to them: 'If you will give, well; if not, we will take by force, by our troops.' They said: 'we will do accordingly.'

When the Champions of Kusha saw the great multitude of troops that came to take away, by force, the relics of Chomdândás, they exercised their wives and children in shooting arrows. And when their City was besieged by those seven different troops, they came out to fight with them. But a Brahman, called Brivó-tang Mnyám-pa, (or the Brahman with a droma in his hand:—a measure, the 20th part of a bushel) seeing the bad consequences of coming to blows, endeavoured to persuade the Champions of Kusha to share with them the relics of Chomdândás' body; since Chomdândás Gautama had been from a long time very patient, and had many times praised the virtue of patience. And he told them that it was unbecoming that they should kill or destroy each other's lives, on account of the relics of Chomdândás. He reconciled afterwards both parties, and made them agree that the relics of Chomdândás should be divided into eight parts.

Leaf 651. He therefore divided them thus:
1. One part to the Champions of Kusha.
2. The 2d part to the Champions of Dig-páchen.
3. The 3d part to Buluka of the royal or kshetriya tribe, residing in Togs-pá-gyová.
4. The 4th part to Kroo'tya of the kshetriya tribe, residing in the City of Sgra-sgrogs.
5. The 5th part to the Brahman residing in Khyáb hjug-gLing.
6. The 6th part to the Shákya royal tribe, in Capila.
7. The 7th to the Litsabbyi royal tribe, in Yang-pá-chén (S. Vaishali or Prayáya).
8. The 8th part to Yarchet, a Brahman of Magadha, the King's Envoy of that Country.

And they all built Chaityas in their respective countries, and shewed all kinds of respect, reverence, honour and worship to them; and established each of them a great festival in honour of those relics.

The urn or vessel, in which the relics were first deposited in the Chaitya, was given afterwards to that Brahman, who acted as Mediator between the different parties. He took with him the vessel, and in his own City, called the City of Brivotáng Nyámpó, built a Chaitya, and
paid all sorts of respects to the relics of CHOMDÁNDÁS, and in honour of them established a great festival.

Afterwards a young Brahman called NYAGRODHA, requested the Champions of KUSHÁ that they would cede him the ashes or coals of the fire in which the dead body of CHOMDÁNDÁS was burned. Having obtained his request, he built in the village of NYA-grodha-trees a CHAITYÁ called that of the Coals; and paying all sorts of reverence and worship to them, he established a great festival in honour of them.

Leaf 652. There were now in JAMBA-dwipa ten CHAITYÀS of the relics of CHOMDÁNDÁS eight were styled those of the remains of his body; one that of the Urn or Vessel, and one that of the Coals.

The four eye teeth of CHOMDÁNDÁS were thus divided: One was taken up into the TRAYA-strinsha heaven of the gods. The 2d was deposited in "YU-du-hong-wá" (the delightful town.) The 3d is in the Country of the King of Kalingha. The fourth is worshipped by a NÁGARÁJA in the City of Sgra-spyogs.

The King "MYÁ-nān-mēt," (S. ASHOKA), residing at PUTALIPUTRA, has much increased the number of CHAITYÀS of the seven kinds.

Leaf 652. CHOMDÁNDÁS (SHÁKYÀ) was born at KAPILA. In MAGADHA he arrived at the supreme perfection (or became BUDDHA). At KÁSHI he turned the wheel of the Law (or promulgated his doctrine). At KUSHÁ he was delivered from pain.

Leaf 653. In this is related how, after the death of SHÁKYÀ, HOT-SRUNG-CHAEN-PO (S. MAHA KÁSHYAPA) made arrangement for the compilation of the doctrines of SHÁKYÀ, contained in the DULTA, DO, and MÁMO (or CHOCH-Muón-pa, or SHER-chhin) (S. Viniya, SUTRA and MÁTRI ABHÍDharma, PRajnyà páramitá.)
THE subject of this poem has been one of the peculiar interest to Indian poets. The celebrated Vyāsa deva has dressed it in language elegant and simple; the paragon of all the Eastern poets, Kalidāsa, has ornamented it with pearls drawn from the very deepest recesses of the sea of oriental learning; while Shri Harsha, the author of the present work, has adorned it with a variety of metres, in a very flowing style.

A concise account of the principal incidents which have rendered this story so interesting, may be agreeable to individuals who have not leisure to read it in the language of the original, which is both diffuse and difficult. The story in epitome is this. Nala, king of Nishadha, and Damayantī or Bhāmi, daughter of Bhīma king of Vīdarbhā, are represented as being in love before they had seen each other. It is not uncommon in Eastern Romance for youthful minds to be fascinated with the image of the person which their own imaginations have formed. The Poets have described
these feelings as being excited and increased by the intervention of birds, who going from place to place, describe to each the qualities of the other lover. To some this mode of representation may appear ridiculous; it is, however, the best method that could be adopted to describe that sympathy of feeling which often exists between persons at a distance, and which appears unaccountable, except under the idea that some bird or secondary agent has been employed in making communications from the one to the other: and it has the sanction of antiquity and of the wisest man that ever lived; for Solomon has said: "A bird of the air may carry the voice; and that which hath wings may tell the matter."

The King's daughter pining for the imaginary being on whom she had fixed her heart, excites the pity of her father, who immediately makes a proclamation to the neighbouring princes, inviting them to a feast, and informing them of his intention to give his daughter in marriage to the suitor whom she may choose. In India daughters are commonly disposed of by their parents when children; but in a few instances princesses have been permitted to grow up and choose for themselves, at an assembly convened for that purpose. On such occasions a bard or encomiast proceeds round the assembly and announces the name and qualities of each princely suitor, and of whomsoever the princess makes choice, to him a garland is presented.

The king having convoked the princes, the gods are represented as assuming the shape of men and presenting themselves at the feast. This is an artful device of the poet, to set his hero in the fairest point of light, as excelling not only human but divine competitors. Before the meeting, one of these divinities employs Nala to declare his passion, and furnishes him with the means and directions necessary for the accomplishment of the object. Upon seeing him, however, and hearing the tale of love which he related on behalf of another, the king's daughter fell in love with him, as the very substance of that ideal form upon which she had long doted. He was next acknowledged in the public assembly; and after being married, returned in triumph to his own capital and reigned in great splendour.
At this point Shrf Harsha, the writer of the Naishadha, stops; while Vyasa Deva and Kalfasa, though they have written much less, have carried the story to a greater length, and have supplied a greater variety of incidents. They have stated that after reigning for some years in the greatest happiness, king Nala became devoted to gaming. The origin of this passion is ascribed to demoniacal influence. Kali, the personification of the iron age or of vice, is described as infatuating the mind of the monarch to such a degree that nothing could divert him from his destructive course. In him are exhibited the reckless effects of gaming. His kingdom was lost, his wife and children abandoned, and himself an exile subjected to incredible privations and sufferings. After he had been taught by the most painful experience the folly of his conduct, he is represented as being restored to his kingdom; like Nebuchadnezzar, after he had been driven from men to reside with the beasts of the field, till he had learned that the most High ruleth in the kingdom of men, and giveth it to whomsoever he will. On his restoration to his empire, he is described as being happy and as reigning prosperously to a good old age.

The Naishadha is divided into two parts called the Pauraneyag and the Uttaranayathy. This division is, however, entirely artificial; there being nothing in the nature of the topics discussed that requires such a distinction. The whole work consists of twenty-two books, and the whole subject is the marriage of Nala. Great credit must be given to Shrf Harsha for the ingenuity displayed in lengthening out his story by minute delineations. We should have concluded it impossible for the poet to write nearly three thousand lengthy stanzas that would be generally interesting to the reader, on the courtship and marriage of a King, unless he had furnished us with ocular demonstration. The word Adventures in the English title of this work, would lead the reader to anticipate other events than those of a happy courtship and marriage; and on this account, it is not fitly applied in the present instance. In the seventeenth book we have an account of the gods returning and Kali coming to try Nala. In the twenty-first book we have an account of the king’s procession to
the temple, his hours for bathing, worship, repasts, and amusements. In the twenty-second an account is given of his evening devotions, together with a description of the beauties of a summer’s eve, of the moon and starry heavens; but with these exceptions, all the books are amatorial, or such as are connected with the marriage of the king.

In order to form a correct estimate of the nature and value of this poem, it is necessary that the reader should have a correct knowledge, not only of the subject discussed, but of the different metres employed by the poet. The metres used in the Naishadha are numerous; each book commences in general with a metre differing from the one immediately preceding it; besides being diversified by the introduction of other metres at the close. These, it is true, are of the first class, and, with one exception, of the first order, while the genera and species employed are common and not difficult to be ascertained; but though they present little or no perplexity to the reader, it must be allowed that they display the powers of the writer. A few specimens of what may be denominated the generic metres used in this work, without descending to specific ones, will be sufficient to shew that Śrī Harsha was capable, if he chose, of writing in metre of any description. In addition to the Anushtubh,* or common heroic measure used in Sanscrit poetry, consisting of 8 syllables to the pāda or 32 to the stanza, the following generic metres are commonly employed in the Naishadha.

(1st) Class वृत्त Order गम दश दश दश श्रृङ्खलाविनि as

The flowing stream of history like his,
Removes the guilty stains of this dark age,
And how much more the poor composer’s faults.

* For examples of this see the seventeenth and twentieth books.
The first, ninth, twelfth and fifteenth books are written in this metre. The fourth book is written in another species of the same class, order and genus called खागाम.

(2d) Class बृज Order चक्रसृंग् Genus सुन्दरी Species सुन्दरी as

The city was the wonder of the age,
Adorned with domes of varied size and form;
And in its middle, low, and upper rooms,
Was like the middle, low, and upper worlds.

(3d) Class बृज Order सम Genus विलक्षण्य Species रंग्रंचा and उपन्रंचा as

From the report of his more beautious form,
The moon,° oppressed with shame, now hides his head,
Amidst the sun or sea or wandering clouds.

The third, sixth, seventh, eighth, tenth, fourteenth, sixteenth, eighteenth and twenty-second books are written in these metres. The fifth and twenty-first books in another species of the same genus called खागाम.

(4th) Class बृज Order सम Genus श्रवंरी Species वसन्तविनाश वर्ण as

The charming BHAUMI to obtain her wish,
Entered the court divine when full of Kings;
And there attracted by her lovely form
The looks and smiles of all within the place.

The eleventh and thirteenth books are written in this metre.

° The moon with Sanscrit writers is always masculine.
The nineteenth book is written in this metre.

Besides the above which sometimes vary in their species, several other longer metres are used at the end of different books, as First Class and Order,—Genus चलित्तित Species श्रांविकीविण्वत्; and Genus प्रकृति Species बहसरा &c.; but these are used to the extent of only a few stanzas.

There are several characteristics in the style of this poem worthy of observation. It is diffuse, descriptive, figurative, often playful, and occasionally interspersed with excellent remarks and moral reflections.

It would be superfluous to adduce examples to prove that the style of the Naishadha is diffuse: it is sufficiently proved by the fact that what is comprehended by कालिदासa in two books, is here extended to two and twenty. It is to be remarked, however, that each poet aimed at an opposite extreme; the former labouring to reduce his narrative into as small a compass as possible; and the latter to expand and adorn it with a great variety of poetic composition.—There are advantages to be derived from the perusal of works which treat of the same subject in a different style, the one amplifying and the other condensing it to the greatest extent: yet we are of opinion, that he is most to be commended for correctness of style, and most likely to amuse and instruct his readers, who avoiding these extremes, steers a middle course. It is in the description of female beauty and charms that Shri Harsha is prolix. When he enters the haram, &c. he lingers, expatiates, and reveals, till intoxicated

* For a specimen of this see the last Stanza quoted in this piece.
with delight, he scarcely knows how to find his way out. Hence the remark made by Mr. Colebrooke, is very correct, when he says—"This poet, with a degree of licentiousness, which is but too well accommodated to the taste of his countrymen, indulges in glowing descriptions of sensual love." This renders many parts of the poem disgusting to persons of refined taste, or religious sentiments.

Though barren of important incidents the poem is not deficient in descriptions. When a prominent subject is introduced, the poet proceeds immediately to descant upon it, and does not leave it till he has exhausted the resources of nature, and the powers of invention. Thus when the beauty of Bhāmi's person, the excellency of Nala's character, and the grandeur of Bhīma's city, palace, grove, &c. come under his consideration, he ransacks the universe to adorn his favorite.—Even on minor themes there are not wanting some fine descriptive pieces; such for instance as the account of Nala's steed or Bucephalus, and the lament of the bird which he caught, as related at the close of the first book: we select the latter as a specimen.
As he admired and praised its golden wings,
The bird imprisoned in his hand replied,
Fie on the King allured by golden wings,
To covet me. Say, art not thou thyself
A sea of wealth? and by a drop like me
What increase to the ocean will be made?
My death will more than simple murder be,
A lasting stain upon thy memory.
For on thine honour I reliance placed:
And sages say, it is a barbarous deed;
To kill a foe who trusts to thee for life!
In every place thine armies are immense,
And is thy soul so bent on cruelty,
That all their slaughters cannot thee suffice?
O let the valour be accursed, that spends
Its force on a defenceless wretched bird.
Will not the world cry shame upon the man,
That kills an innocent like me who live
As sages, on the produce of the earth?
He then addressed the King in plaintive notes,
And poured into his heart, the sea of love,
A flowing stream of pitiful distress.
I am my mother's only darling son,
My wife has lately borne a son to me,
And wilt thou not in pity spare me now?
My friends, indeed, will mourn my fate awhile,
And loud lament the vanity of life;
Yet after that will soon repress their tears;
But, O my mother dear! thy poignant grief
Will be a sea, that never can be crossed.
O my beloved wife! what wilt thou feel,
When asking those thou meetest on the road,
If they have seen thy husband hastening home,
With large provisions stored, and travelling slow,
Thou seest them burst into a flood of tears,
Before they tell the dismal tale of woe?
O gracious God, how could thy beauteous hand,
That formed her plastic, kind and tender heart
Write such hard things within the book of fate?
O my dear wife! what feelings will be thine,
When like a thunder bolt this fatal blow
Shall strike thy heart, thy brightest prospects blast,
And turn the world into a wilderness!
Thou lovely fair! if grief for me should break
Thine heart, then I shall feel a second death;
For from that time my family will die.
When thou art gone who will take care of them?
The children then of many prayers, distressed,
And rolling in their nest, and crying out
For food, with sunken eyes will soon expire.
O offspring dear! to whom will you extend
Your gaping bills, when parents are no more?
Alas! alas! your fate will soon be sealed,
On saying this the bird had swooned away.
Had not the flowing tears from Nala's eyes,
Recovered him to sense and life again.
The King, with pity touched, the bird dismissed,
And said, since I have seen thy handsome form,
And on thy bright and varied plumage gazed,
No more complain to me, but go in peace.
When liberated from the monarch's hand,
His friends around him flocked, and they
Who mourned before with burning tears of grief,
Now followed him with melting tears of joy.

Most of the descriptions in the Naishadha relate to works of nature and art, or to the passions of the mind, particularly of love. The sun, moon, stars and night; groves, trees, rivers and ponds; cities, palaces, houses and shops, together with the varied emotions of the soul are depicted in lively colours. There are many passages in the seventeenth book in which the bad passions are personified with considerable effect. When Kali is met by the gods, he is represented as attended by lust, anger, avarice and folly, his leaders or generals, together with a large army of other passions. The leaders are described, and in perusing the account, the classical reader is strongly reminded of the picture of Eavy drawn by the hand of Ovid in the second book of his Metamorphosis.* The following is the representation given of folly:

* To save the trouble of reference and enable the reader to compare for himself we quote these striking lines.

Vepis carnivae, vitiorum alimeta suorum,
They saw the horrid monster *Folly* there,
Bereft of sight, refusing kind advice,
Embracing vanity; determined too
That nothing shall the union dissolve.
His Votaries know, to-morrow they must die,
And yet forgetful of themselves and God,
They run to all excess in rioting,
And sink into the mire of sensuality.
Thus he contaminates his active train,
And putting out the lamp of knowledge bright,
Makes all their foolish minds as dark and black,
As tho' with lamp-black they were foully smeared.
He so infatuates their stupid souls,
That tho' awake they sleep; and tho' they see,

Invidiam: visaque oculos avertit. At illa
Surgit humo pigra: semisarumque relinquit
Corpora serpentum: passuque incedit inerti.
Utque Deam vidit formaque armisque decoram,
Ingemuit: vultumque imo ad suspiria duxit.
Pallor in ore sedet: macies in corpori toto:
Nusquam recta acies: livent rubigine dentes:
Pectora felle virent: lingua est suffusa veneno:
Ritus abest, nisi quem visi movere dolores.
Nec fruitur somno, vigilaribus excita curis;
Sed vidit ingratos, intabescitque videndo
Successus hominum; carpitque et carpitur unà
Supplicium que suum est.
Yet they are blind; and tho' they plainly hear,
Yet are they deaf; and tho' the vivid light
Around them shines, they grope as in the dark.

In these descriptive pieces compound words are necessarily used, and it is not uncommon in the Naishadha for one of these to make a whole line or half a stanza. The first page of the work furnishes an example,

The halo of the fame of his glory bright as the white canopy of the Chhatra of state supported by a golden rod.

The use of figures and images is another striking characteristic of the Naishadha. It is impossible to open the book in any part without seeing figures of varied form and size—Shri Harsha does not commence in a style which he is unable to continue, and the following is the first stanza of his work which may therefore be regarded as a pattern of the whole.

The history of this King the wise esteem,
And drink with greater zest than nectar sweet.
The white and royal chhatra’s canopy,
But feebly shews the halo of his fame:
In him a thousand glories are combined.

His figures are so numerous that they pervade every subject he touches, and even simple incidents and common topics are adorned with these ornaments of speech. One instance will be sufficient to illustrate this remark. The following passage occurs in the 16th book.

The King conducted Nala and his wife
Unto the borders of his wide domain;
And then with mind distressed and speech confused;
Bade them adieu, and to his court returned:
Just as a wave by a strong wind impelled
Rolls from the bank into the pond again.
His parting words were these; “My daughter fair,
The tie that binds us, must be now dissolved;
Henceforth may virtue be your parent kind;
Forbearance your preserver from distress;
True peace of mind your undecaying wealth;
And Nala all beside that you may need.”

Many of the figures and comparisons used are very catachrestical, and many of the ideas singular and extravagant. In showing what an ornament Bhami was to her partner, the poet in the verse following the one above quoted, says—

चतुष्कोणार्धाय भाष्यमयोऽर्थं सम्बन्धायभवनात्राः
भूषण कुरुक्षेत्रदत्ताय श्रीमानं भरवासेवया

Her eyes were like the deer’s; her stately pace
Was like the elephant’s; and so the King,
Adorned with gold, seemed like a mountain huge,
Near which the elephant and deer repose.

In speaking of the rising sun he remarks:

भरतिस समस्यां भान्तिक्रमं ग्रहणमयोऽनुसारमिथुम
विषये प्रमाणान्तरायं विश्वसंस्कारार्थं

The moon beheld the hawk of day fly up,
And with his bright and heavenly rays give chase,
Unto the raven night; alarmed with fear
For the dear hare* reclining on his breast,
He fled precipitate; and all the stars,
Like doves afraid, betook themselves to flight.

The play upon words is another characteristic which we have mentioned as belonging to the Naishadha. This is regarded by Eastern Writers as an important article in ornamental compositions: It was not therefore

* Orientals speak of the hare in the Moon as occidentals do of the man in the Moon.
to be expected that in a work like this, it would be neglected. The taste of Europeans would have been more gratified had it been less employed, but in proportion to their gratification would have been the disappointment of Asiatics. When I find a number of instances of this play upon words in our own Scriptures and that too on solemn occasions,* I am the less disposed to censure it by wholesale in other writings; tho' it is certainly to be regretted that it should have been carried to such excess in some splendid oriental productions. Most of these puns upon words in the Naishadha apply to nouns and adjectives: the noun being used in a double sense, and the adjective being equally applicable to each of two nouns very different in their nature. A few examples will be sufficient to explain this.

\begin{verbatim}
इति पिं चीर्यसे न कुबेरसे यथानु धनुपाकाणु कीर्मन्यारान्।
गुणेन सुकृतिविनिमेय समग्रमुद्वारविचारान्तिवेश।

Wilt not thou who art the nymph of this world act the heroine over these Kings who conquer by arrows, bows, and bowstrings (गुंगा) and conquer this one by excellence alone (गुंगा)।

हंसिवतारा मुनिशिचमसा जाता हिंसिवतानबक्षः तसः।
तत्तात्त्वं समरभेद्यानु सत्तात्त्वं विश्वितरस्य यथा॥

The Moon's father had but one pupil of the eye (तारा) but he is much richer and has twenty-seven constellations (तारा।)

दिनावसानि तरंगावकामादिवज्ञानानि विश्वाश्च नागानि।
अन्यप्रसादादुक्ष्या नागं तिमान्तादीपवत् तदनि॥

In the evening, from the sinking of the (तरंग) sun or boat, the eyes of all pass (तमामन्तदीपवत्) the river of darkness or the dark river, by means of (उद्यु) the stars or a raft.

Examples of the double application of the adjective occur in the following lines.
\end{verbatim}

* See the 49th Chapter of Genesis in the original Hebrew, for the play upon the words is lost in the translation.
The night and his bed were witnesses of his wakeful distress. सांचिन्तिष्य witness and मङ्गलकामण्ड soft as a hare’s breast, or beautiful by what has a hare in its bosom, apply to both निम्न and श्रण्या.

विवेय गम्य संविस्तरणतित सोतय श्रावते श्रावतेन्द्रितित्सलुक्ष्या।
प्रवासमन्त्रितं स्वयंश्चष्ट्यां चृतीभण्डायांमयवानसांगिनिन्धिः।

Then the King entered the pleasure ground with a desire to compose himself as HARI entered the overshaded deep. Here the adjective प्रवासमन्त्रितत्व applies to कायमं the wood and श्रावतेन्द्रितित the deep: signifying for the first, variegated with new leaves, and for the second, variegated with coral.

दैवेन तत्तियिः च श्रावतेन्द्रित साध्य संमीतिभण्डायांभाला।
श्रावतेन्द्रिति सुरिचाताति च दुस्तं निम्नौ नवनक्रियायं।

The similarity between the Moon and Garuda being seen by VISHNU, they were both properly engaged in his service. प्रवासमन्त्रित applying to the former signifies having phases; to the latter having wings. So श्रावतेन्द्रिति applying to the former means Lord of the Kshatriyas; to the latter Lord of birds. So रिमालित having on it a deer, or having on it VISHNU. And so निम्नौ नवनक्रियायो appointed for an eye* or for carrying.

To such an extent is this play upon words sometimes carried that in the Thirteenth Book, where Saraswati, the goddess of speech, is describing the character of individuals of very opposite qualities, one being human and the other divine, she is exhibited as possessing such power over language as to make each verse tell alike upon the character of one and all, and hence though several are spoken of, each one supposes himself the person intended. This of course could be effected only by a choice of such nouns and adjectives as have several different meanings, and such it is by no means difficult either to find, or manufacture in Sanscrit.

* The Moon is regarded as one of VISHNU’s eyes.
The last peculiarity of style in the \textit{Naishadha} which we shall consider is the occasional insertion of appropriate \textit{reflections} and \textit{moral maxims}. It is very agreeable in a work of this nature every now and then to be interrupted with beautiful and appropriate remarks, or with moral sentiments which seem naturally to arise out of the subject under consideration. Sometimes these reflexions are made in a single stanza, or in a part of one, while the poet continues to pursue his main object; but at others, he pauses and carries them on through a number of couplets—as

\begin{quote}

बुद्धि ध्यान साधवे नदु जगदेन निजिनवषयाकर्षितम्।

By deeds and not by words the virtuous shine.

धनिजित्तस्य: सत्यां प्रमेयवतसंगतिः किल धनिकस्य।

Above all wealth is friendship with the good.

अँधेरे ब्रह्मादात्र्य समस्ति बाध्योवरङ्गे दिव सत्।

In deepest lakes and hearts the most profound,

त्रिवेदे घा श्रद्धा चापसात्व दल्ल्यिनिरीच्छ ज्ञानदाधीयां।

The wise in crossing shew their greatest skill.

यातायामाः भिन्न चेतनोपि भिन्नं तर्केण ज्ञातिक्षणं।

Tho' ignorant the mind, yet if sincere,

यातेन चेतना यथेष्ट अति निषेधायो ब्रह्मवेदाया।

It may acceptance find with the Supreme.

\end{quote}

\textit{Damayanti} thus mingles reflexions and observations with her orders to her little messenger.

\begin{quote}

अङ्कादिविष्ठ स्वरूपाः विवेका तार्केः भिन्न सैन्यंसूचि विशाराः।

All dangerous is delay: for time is swift:

गृहवयौः प्रतिभवे तीथ्या प्रवेषाति वातु न कर्मवसी।

And long deliberation is reserved

हृदि श्रद्धा चाहे रंगील अनुभववर्ते चंससुकुलवतसं।

For grave affairs. The sharpest intellect

लयः निरोणार्थ निर्मिति विद्यामयी सहायकवर चुर्मचित्रः।

May wait advice; but pain can never wait.

वन्दे शिवाय।

\end{quote}
Then go, but tell him not of this affair
When he has freely drunk of pleasure’s cup:
For to the man whose thirst is quench’d, the cool
And sweet refreshing draught no zest affords.
And do not speak to him of this affair
When rage inflames his mind; for to a man
With gall upon his tongue, nothing is sweet;
But even sugar bitter to the taste.
And do not treat with him on this affair
When deep immersed in other weighty cares;
For then attention sleeps, and by her nod
A flat denial gives to what is sought.

The following are said to be the reflexions of Nala within himself
when solicited by the gods to confer a favour.

दुर्ब्रह्मंदिगत्वः क्षीरमीमाश्चायूः कथमदीदी मद्धिं भूति।
दृश्यमणि  doping विदेहेऽदः सामस्तिके चिह्नाय।
जीवनाचार्य वनीयकमाचार्यः प्रथमवर्गः सत्यम् चत।
वर्यर्थे परसौद्याय सुरारायं विकारित्य ममतयं चेतः।
भीममजाः च छविदे मैयासे जीवनाधिप धनादिप मुखते।
न श्रमेभ मम साधृति यथा वर्यर्थे प्रियोमिन्यात्मा किं चेताः।
भीतां वनीयकमाचार्यः श्रीमान् नमस्त्याचित्तमेव।
तं धिमस्तु कयायणं वाचायाचित्यवाचस्य सत्यम् च।
प्रारीतेन चतुर्युक्तिः विषमीर्य चतुर्युक्ति वदयाचित्यवाचय।
वर्यर्थो वदावचार्यम दानामात्र जुल्लिकं विच्छल्य सदान।
तदुप्रदेशविलयी वदावचार्यमः श्रीमानं धिमस्तु च।
साधनेनाचित्यवाचित्यवाचायः चतुर्युक्तिः पितामुखिः।
वर्यर्थे न तदवचाराणां विशिष्ठु जीवनाधिप प्रतिपादव।
वर्यर्थाः कुन्यवर्चारार्यः श्रीवचारविविषयकं निश्चितः।
पितुः प्रकारविविषयविदाः न खिया: कषुवाचारार्यः।
वर्यर्थो विविषयवाचायः चतुर्युक्तिः त्यादित्य सिद्धेश्व।
वचारार्यान्तरसंस्कृतः पुरावार्यत वष जनम न वेष।
तेन भूसिददात्मानन्तायं न दुस्मेणसिद्धिभिः समुद्रः।
Then Nala long within his mind revolved,
What can I have, which these do not possess?
All that I have, I willingly will yield
To such petitioners; nor will I spare
My life, if that will satisfaction give.
But far more dear to me than life or wealth
Is Bhaimi whom they seek: the world with her
Is not to be compared; if her they ask
I then must say—"She is not mine to give;"
O that I knew their wish, that I might give
Without their asking me; for woe to him
That long postpones to answer fair requests.
If thro' delay the suppliant is ashamed,
Then all that he can give, will not wipe off
The stain indelible of such a crime.
A gift conferred in time, like water cool,
Revives the hearts of those about to faint
From apprehension of a sad repulse.
The gen'rous man will give his gold like straws,
Nor spare his life, if that should be required:
So say the Shastras for his use designed.
The wise regard the hand of him in need,
As far more fit for fortune's resting place,
Than that expanded lotus in the pond,
Where she is said her residence to fix.
By him who never knew the happiness.
Of satisfying needy craving souls,
The earth is made to groan; and not by weight
Of mountains high, and spreading trees and seas.
That misers should, while life remains, hold fast
Their precious wealth, is nothing wonderful;
But that in death, they should refuse to give,
Is what may justly fill us with surprise.
I am most highly honoured by the gods,
In being asked before all other men
A favour to confer. The fruit is great,
Which I by liberality may gain.
The man who on the poor his wealth bestows,
Tho' doomed to pass the lonely road of death,
In heaven shall find a happy safe abode;
And there the gifts upon the needy poured
Shall be repaid more than a million fold.
Hence all the wise should so their riches use,
As to secure this future recompence.

We conclude our quotations from the *Naishadha*, with those stanzas with which the author has concluded his performance, and in which he has ventured to express his opinion of its merits. Though not so arrogant as Ovid when he said—

> Jamque opus exegi; quod nec Jovis ira, nec ignes,
> Nec poterit ferrum, nec edax abolere vetustas;

yet it is evident he contemplated his work with great self complacency.

> मदुलिकिरपतिः सुधिं सुधियः जिसमाणामस्वादरस्वपुष्पात्माधरभरीः।
> यथा युमक्षतस्म भरस्वादीयांमलोचनवाजुवातृविस रूपसमनवः।
> दिपितो दिपितो गिरिरागास्वस्तं वमनं सरस्वतीं तुषयिति चिक्षोऽथायापातुपश्चात्सिद्धां।
> नसलसः प्रसरसिद्धाः सरस्वतीं मधुरस्वस्तं सेवाय प्ररक्षितप्रमोदसादाः।
> यादेव निधिदेशः कवित्वमधुरं न्यायस्य प्रमोदसादाः प्राध्य मन्यमन्या च चेतनमाप्पूरिता सत्त्वेषा।
> अन्तःराजुमुच्यायुष्ठकुस्तिन्द्रदिशः समासत्वकथितं काव्यसिद्धिमंगनसुचेतोम्यमर्यम्यन सच्चनः।

If this my work should please the wise in heart,
The scorn of fools will nought with me avail;
The charms of beauty are concealed from boys;
But seen and felt by men of age mature.
Altho' my language sounds sonorously,
'Tis not the empty sound of falling rocks.
Its meaning will be found a sea of milk,
Which to the churner, will abundance yield
Of nectar most delicious to the taste.
It is confessed that knotty points exist,
And such it was my object to present.
Let not the reader in conceit despise,
What all at once, he cannot comprehend;
But rather let him seek a skilful man,
Who can explain what seems to be obscure,
And bathe himself in the poetic stream.

It would be easy to institute a lengthened inquiry into the merits of Shri Harsha in comparison with some of the Latin Poets; we shall satisfy ourselves with a single remark. In glowing descriptions of the passions and particularly the passion of love, he resembles Ovid; in the easy flow of his language he is Virgil's equal or perhaps superior; in the variety of his metres and moral reflexions, he competes with Horace: while in pomp of expression, diversity of imagery, and minuteness of delineation he far exceeds them all.
ON SIAMESE LITERATURE.

BY CAPTAIN JAMES LOW,

M. A. S. C.

[Letters used in this Paper—in expressing Siamese sounds:

ä—broad a.
ä—short a.
ä—d short prolonged.
ä—ditto, answering to a long vowel.

ü—the French ú which may be used for it.
i and i—as in police, it, long or short.
ai—as y in my.
ei—as i in pine.]

This Paper cannot be better begun than by quoting a passage from "Leyden's remarks on the languages and literature of the Indo Chinese nations." (*) "The Siamese or Thai language contains a great variety of "compositions of every species. Their poems and songs are very numerous, "as are their Cheritras or historical and mythological fables. Their "books of medicine are reckoned of considerable antiquity. Both in "science and poetry, those who affect learning and elegance of composi-

"tion sprinkle their style copiously with Bali. Their Cheritras or roman-

"tic fictions are very numerous, and the persons introduced, with the "exception of Ra'Ma, have seldom much similarity to those of the Brah-

"mans;" and he justly observes that several out of a list of forty-one enumerated by him, "contain the same stories and incidents which are current among the Rat, chéng, Barma and Malayu nations."
This latter circumstance naturally follows from the fact that most of the stories alluded to are founded on events or legends derived from Western India.

The generality of these compositions are spun out to an intolerable length to an European taste—and in those of a dramatic nature the characters introduced often make a whimsical display of their own feelings and opinions, which bear no reference to the main action or its accessories—a fault from which our own drama has not long been free.

1. The Ráma-ke-un is a poetical version of the famous Rámâyana of the Hindoos—and relates of course the adventures of Rám or Phra Rám and his brother Phra Lák [Laksamana of the Malays] or the General—and their wars with Sotsakan or Dushkantha [one of the names of Rávana] Tyrant of Ceylon, who carried off Nang Seda [or Sita], wife of Ráma.

The version adheres pretty closely to the original text in so far as incident is concerned. It is composed in the style termed Răng lé Phâk—and when dramatised, takes up about ten days for the representation.

2. Radin.—Leyden's remark is correct, that this book is a translation from a Javanese story.

It is the history of Raden Montri (Mantri) or Eenau, then son of Thaukhô Repan, of Kôsepan, who having lost his wife in a whirlwind, disguises himself and proceeds in quest of her. She however is also in disguise; many adventures befal him in the country of Daha, the King of which has a lovely daughter named Bôtsaba, and also in Gagalang, and Sinyasari. This work consists of seventy volumes, or rather chapters.

3. Somanakhodom is a history of Buddha in mortal shape. It is also termed Wetsandân—in Baili, Wesantara. It consists of thirteen volumes, each of which relates events which have happened to that deified personage during just so many separate states of existence, agreeably to the metempsychosis—These are—

   1 Shotsaphan, .......... 19 stanzas of 8 lines each.
   2 Heemmaphâdan, ...... 134 stanzas.
8. Thûman, .......... 101 lines.
11. Mahâ Ratchâbab, .... 69 ditto.

4. Rû-ung Phriä or Wetyasundân is the history of a Prince of this name, who, struck with a fit of devotion, turns ascetic, and performs many notable deeds of charity. It is written in the style termed Nangsiîthet.

5. Wûrâwong is a history in verse of a person of that name, and of a Princess Nang Kharawi. His elder brother was Chettha Singhana Rachaski.

This person possessed an enchanted diamond, which was stolen from him one day as he lay asleep in the forest by a Rûsi [Rishi]. The Rûsi in escaping through the air with his prize soars rather too high, for he enters the region of the fierce wind Lomkrôt, which blows off his head. The diamond falls to the ground, is afterwards picked up by the Commander of a Chinese Junk, and at length reaches Wûrâwong.

6. Mohosot, in Bali Maha Satta, contains, under the former title, as Leyden described, the wars of Maha Sot and Chorni, and is the same as the Burman Mahâ Sutha.

The following appears on a cursory examination of the book to be the outline of the story.

Mohosot is prime minister to Raja Thawître, who is opposed to Raja Thau Choulani and his Minister Takwût. The whole of the
incidents relate to military strategy, and a trial of skill in sapping and
mining betwixt the parties.

Monosot after a long series of mining and countermining operations
contrives to seize Choulant, and to carry off his daughter for his master
Thawythe. The latter however restores to the vanquished king the
government of his country.

This Cheritra is strongly indicative of the peculiar mode of warfare
practised by the Indo-Chinese nations, where self-defence, and a studious
endeavour to shun all open danger, are primary circumstances.

7. Unnarut is a Dramatic Opera, or musical dramatic work, in ten
volumes. Oounarut, according to Leyden, was the Grandson of Crishna
or the Hindoo Anirudha.

It has been composed from a history with a similar title, and it is
perhaps one of the most finished of Siamese compositions, whether con-
dered with reference to the language or sentiment, both of which are as
refined as the present state of literature and of society in Siam can be sup-
posed to admit of. It is not exempt however from that blemish which unfor-
tunately pervades the Dramas of more civilized people,—indecent, and too
frequently gross, allusions. The summary of the story is as follows:

Phra-fn or Indra descending from the sky in form of a deer, allures
the Raja Oounarot from his palace, who pursues the supposed game to
the precincts of the palace of Thau Krong Phaan, a Yak or Ratchsha:
next follow the loves of the Raja and the adopted daughter of the Yak,
and the recital of their cruel separation after a very short acquaintance.
The lady is inconsolable, but as he is determined to find out who her
lover is, a thing she had neglected to enquire of himself, she asks the
advice of an attendant; this female draws a likeness of him from memory,
and gives it to her. A faithful attendant is then directed to search both
earth and air for the Raja, and that the latter may credit what is to be
communicated to him, she also carries a box of the perfume used by his
mistress. The Raja is after some time found and eagerly follows the
attendant back to the Yak’s palace, where having gained access to the
apartment of the lady he is in act of vowing, as lovers are wont to vow, when the Yak’s son unluckily enters and seizing him, binds him with a coil of snakes, and then with one end of this he suspends him from the ceiling. Oounarot’s Uncle Beromma Charkht learning the deplorable fate of his Nephew mounts on the back of Khrüt (the Hindoo eagle Garuda) and speedily arrives on his flying charger at the Yak’s palace. Bursting into the apartment the snakes are alarmed at sight of their inveterate foe Khrüt, and quit Oounarot, who seizing a spear engages the Yak in single combat. He afterwards carries off the lady to his own country.

8. Malay is a book quoted by Dr. Leyden and relates, he observes, to the benefits of Malay, the being whose office it is to allay the torments of Naraka or hell. I have not perused it.

9. Marée.—An account of a daughter of a Ratchsha.

10. Chattri.—A Drama in the rāṅg Lakhān or Ligonian strain.

11. Chālāwān—Is a History of Chālāwan, prince of alligators, who under illusive forms allured to the banks of the river the two daughters of a Siamese, and then conveyed them unhurt to the deep. These were Nang Tap, hau kua, “the princess of the diamond ship,” and Nang Tap, hau Thang “the princess of the golden ship.” King Chau Khrai Thang fascinated the alligator, which coming on shore was slain by him after two fierce engagements.

12. Phom Hāām.—The story of “Phom-Hāām,” or “she with the fragrant locks,” the daughter of an elephant. She cuts off one of her ringlets and gives it to the winds. It is wafted across the ocean to the country of a certain king who finds it while bathing—being directed to where it lay by the perfume it spreads around. He consults soothsayers regarding the original wearer of this precious ringlet, and is directed by them to the residence of Phom-Hāām. With her he elopes, followed by the elephant, which subsequently dies of grief, bequeathing his tusks to Phom-Hāām.

* Some mortal in a stage of the Metempsychosis.
Prā-thōm.—This has been stated generally by Dr. Leyden to be 'a mythological account of the origin of the universe, according to the principles of the Buddhist Sect.' I find on examination that it is nearly a transcript of a Bali work. The contents may be briefly described.

The world is consumed by the presence or contact of seven suns.

Indra, (God of the firmament) with many inferior deities, are also consumed along with their mansions. When one sun had gained the ascendant a great deluge fell from Heaven. This deluge was tossed and conglomerated by the force of mighty and conflicting winds—after which this earth emerged from the chaos—diffusing the most exquisite odours. These were wafted from the Virgin Sphere to the heavenly regions, and allured the Gods to descend to observe whence they proceeded. They tasted the perfume-exhaling soil, and prepared to re-visit their exalted abodes.

Many of the female deities however had become pregnant from the effects of what they had eaten, and being then too heavy to wing their flight back were compelled to remain on earth. Here they gave birth to beings who subsequently spread the race over the habitable globe.

In the latter part of this narration we have an allegorical allusion to the evils which follow too eager a pursuit of sensual gratification—and there is something in it which agrees with the scriptural accounts of the flood and with the Hindu description of the fall of the once angel-like, or devata-like, progenitors of the human race. In another chapter it has been shewn that the Siamese are acquainted with Than Manoo, the Hindoo Mēnu or Noah.

Nāng Prathom.—Is a story of a wonderful lotus—which a Reosi (or Rishi) saw in a tank—and which after some time increased to such a size that he was induced to open it. To his great surprise he found a female child in the cup which he accordingly brought up.

The curiosity incident to the sex prompted her when grown to woman's estate to court society. She wrote on a slip of paper an account of her solitary mode of life with the hermit, and tying it to a nosegay cast it to the winds.
Raja Phra Sowat of the country Ulum pancha, has a dream in which he is directed to go in quest of a certain bouquet of flowers. He awakes and mounting a pegasus flies towards the east. Passing over the Rishi’s house he is attracted by plaintive and exquisite vocal music. Pegasus instinctively descends to the earth.

The Raja inquires at the lotus born damsel if she knows to whom the nosegay belonged. She abashed at the strange sight of a youthful person of the other sex rushes into the house and shuts the gate. The Raja pretends to be faint from fatigue, and at his humble intercession is admitted to the house,—where he so gains on the affections of the fair that she consents to become his wife. The Rishi returning from the forest unites them in marriage.

Nang Sothān.—The history of a queen who was wife to a Yak prince. This latter carried off the wife of a neighbouring prince, whose residence was in the hollow of a tree. This lady who was called Nang Thepphalinla, was fiercely assailed, as might have been expected, by Nang Sothān—who was obliged however to return to her parents. The Yak is afterwards slain by the injured husband.

Nok Khūm—is described by Leyden as a mythological account of the celebrated Hamsa.

Nok Khūm however means the quail—Hong or Phria Hong being the Hamsa.

This story I have not examined.

Pokkhāvādi—Seems from the above authority to be a history of the Hindu Bhagavati.

Theppha lin thāng is the history of a prince of this name, who to escape the fury of a Ratchsha, turned himself into a golden fish. It is in 4 vols. containing 80 pages each.

Phā-nān sān nāng, or Phali sān nāng, contains the instructions of the Ape General so called to his brother Sook Krip. They were in the service of Rāma in his attack on Lana or Ceylon. These brothers quarrel and fight, when Sri Rāma ends the combat by killing the latter with an arrow.
Makkali phon is stated by Leyden to contain the adventures of the son of a chief who possessed a wonderful cow resembling the Hindu Kāmaduha.

Supha-sit, by the above authority, is a book of moral instructions. It may more properly be designated a compendium of maxims and instructions for conduct in every situation of life, addressed to all ranks.

Phrā Suwanna hong—Relates to a prince of this name, who dreams of a garland of flowers which entwines round his wrist—out of which crawls a snake. The snake bites him and he dies. On awaking he tells his dream to a soothsayer who gives the following interpretation of it. That the prince would marry a beautiful Princess—be afterwards slain and then re-animated. The prince falls in love with the daughter of a Yak—who suspecting an intrigue lays a spring spear in his path—by which he is mortally wounded, and just reaches home to expire. The funeral procession is ready to move off, when the princess arrives with a phial of elixir of life which Indra had sent down to her. With a few drops of this liquid her lover is restored to life and her.

Prang thāng, according to Leyden, relates to the adventures of the persons who went to the land of the Yaks or Rakshas in search of the fruit called Prāng thāng (the buah sittr of the Malays) for which a certain princess being pregnant had a longing. The Hesperian boon was granted by the Yaks on condition that they should have the child when born. They receive the child—but it is subsequently restored to its parents.

Nāng sip sāng.—The twelve Princesses. It is related in this book that twelve children were exposed and left in the forest to perish by their parents who were pressed by famine.

A Yak finds them and educates them (for there are good Yaks, although the term implies generally a creature partly human, partly bestial, a satyr, or a wood demon or giant.) When grown up there these his protegés elope, and being pursued by him they enter the skin of a huge buffalo and lie concealed—next in that of an elephant—and after various adven-
tures reach the kingdom of Phra Rotthasen—who takes the liberty of making all of them his wives. It so happens that a female Yak who has assumed the form of a lovely woman, arrives in His Majesty’s dominions. The king is captivated as may be supposed.

She becomes the favorite in the palace—and being determined to get rid of all her rivals works by a stratagem the ruin of the king’s twelve wives. Feigning a dangerous illness she persuades the infatuated Monarch to order the eyes of his other wives to be torn out on the plea that she cannot recover unless the eyes of twelve persons by one mother are applied to her body. The Princesses are cast into prison after their sight is destroyed—and this barbarity is noticed in the story to be a just punishment—because they had been accustomed to string the fish—caught in angling—through their eyes!* The youngest Princess it seems spiked only one eye of the fish she caught—and it was owing to this circumstance that the executioners accidentally left one of her’s uninjured. These Princesses bear children in prison much about the same time—and all but the youngest devour their offspring through excess of hunger—Phra-rot, the son of this younger Princess, grows up to manhood, but the cruel Queen hearing of his adventurous disposition lays a snare to get rid of him.

She feigns a second illness and alleges that she cannot recover unless the enchanted oranges and mangoes which a distant region produces are plucked and brought to her.

The King orders the great gong to be sounded, and a reward is proclaimed for whoever will undertake the perilous journey. Phra-rot at once, as the Queen foresaw, offers to go—and then she pretending great anxiety for his safety, gives him a letter to her daughter Mart, a Yak—in which the latter is directed to slay and devour the bearer. Phra-rot sets out, and in passing through a forest encounters a Roosee (or Rishi).

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* It were well if the Siamese or even other more enlightened nations would put the humane sentiment herein implied into practice.
ON SIAMESE LITERATURE.

The holy man invites him into his cell—and upon enquiring whether the youth is bound, is shewn the letter to Marf. He suspects some deception, and therefore opens and reads the letter, for which he substitutes another, directing therein the Yak to shew every degree of kindness and attention to the stranger bearing it, and to consider him as precious as a diamond. Rot reaches in due time the Palace of the Yak, who treats him with consideration and eventually falls in love with, and marries him contrary to the advice of her soothsayers. Phra-rot happens to be walking one day in the garden reflecting on what he ought to do, when melodious strains of music strike his ear—and on arriving at the spot whence these proceed, he finds a tree loaded with the fruit which he had come in quest of. He now returns to the palace and plies Marf with wine in which a soporific drug has been steeped—and during its operation he steals a sufficient quantity of the fruit, and conveys it off, together with the eyes of the twelve Princesses which he found suspended on a bough—also an enchanted rod—a bow with unerring arrows, a drug which could restore lost vision, and others which could produce fire, water, and various requisites at the will of the possessor.

Marf awaking from her sleep, pursues the fugitive, again contrary to her soothsayers advice. Already she seems to have him within her grasp, when a portion of one of the drugs being cast on the ground by Rot, innumerable sharp stakes start up and oppose her progress for a while. She gets the better of these by counter spells, and again approaches Rot who by assistance of another drug hurst an upturned mountain at her. This also is removed by a counter drug. Rot now interposes a sea betwixt him and his pursuer, who not being provided with more counter spells is consequently foiled.

Rot arrives at his father's palace and presents to him the Hesperian fruit. It is carried to the Queen—who immediately feels that the spell which gave her the assumed shape in which she had ensnared the Monarch in the meshes of love was now dissolved. Instantly her features enlarge—huge tusks project from her mouth and she stands confessed before the King in all her natural deformity.
The King aghast at the sight calls on Phra-rot for assistance, who touches the Yak with one end of the enchanted rod—and by thus killing her enables the twelve Princesses to regain their places in the palace, together with their eyes which Phra-rot replaces in the sockets and heals up with one of the drugs brought with him.

However extravagant or puerile this story is, it still affords traces of the prevalent ideas of the people amongst whom it originated—and it has seemingly been derived from Indian legends.

Nang Champa-thang, or the Princess of the golden champa flower. This Princess finds an alligator's egg which she keeps until it is hatched. The alligator grows large, and then escapes to the river, and afterwards distresses the peasants, killing and devouring numbers. The people inform the King of the country that the animal will not leave the river unless he sacrifices his daughter to appease it. To save his people the King orders the Princess to descend to the bank of the river. She takes with her a favorite cat Nang-wila, and entices the animal on shore, which follows her beyond her father's territory. Here she plunges into a lake and is received into the cup of a lotus. The alligator pursuing falls on the spikes of the huge flower and is killed. The cat dissuades the Princess from returning home after the cruelty shewn towards her. She is caught by Chang Thau Singhon Yaksa, a Raksha, who adopts her as his daughter. Phra Chaiya Chet, King of a neighbouring territory, having gone upon a hunting expedition gives chase to a golden deer which crosses his path. This deer is Indra in disguise, who leads the King to the Yaks palace where he disappears, and as usual, a love scene ensues, which ends in the Princess returning with the King to his city. The Queen of the latter becomes jealous and falsely accuses her rival of having been brought to bed of a log of wood:—matters are however amicably adjusted.

Lok suā kho—The young tiger and bull. Leyden notices this as an account of the friendship which existed betwixt a tiger and bull, and of their being afterwards changed into men by a Rishi.
Phra phim Sawan—History of a King of this name and his Queen Nang Sang Suriya.

Phria Phali, and Sukkrip, or the adventures of Bali and Sugriva.

Thau kroong Son—History of a Raksha who stole a Princess.

Khun phen relates the adventures of the famous Siamese general of that name. His wars with Laos and other states. He leads into captivity Nang sa-e faa “the princess of the jewel necklace,” daughter of the King of Laos—who is given in marriage to the general’s son. He also surprises the prince of Sokkothai (the latter now an integral province of Siam) and carries off his daughter Nang kao khríya—lit. princess of the inestimable diamond of Prangi.

Treí Wong—History of a prince who caught a white elephant.

Chein-narāt.

Phrä-Photisat—History of one of the incarnations of Buddha.

So-thín.

Hāe-sang—Leyden observes that this book relates the adventures of the Prince, “who was born in a shank or shell and remained in it until maturity.” The Prince however came into the world, only along with a shank shell. He is exposed in the forest, is miraculously preserved, is adopted by a chief of the Nágas, or snakes. The Thewaldas or Dwás send him afterwards in a gold ship into the regions of the Rakshas, a seven days passage beneath a mountain. He returns and goes through many adventures.

Sang sin Chai, or history of a prince who came into the world along with a shank shell and a bow and arrow. He travels into the country of the Rakshas in search of his aunt Ke san Samunta, who had been carried away by evil genii. His battles with them are related, the death of the Yaks—and his visiting the Prince of the Nágas in his palace beneath the waters. Here he plays a game of chess with the prince; the stakes are the shank with the bow and arrows on the one hand, and the country of the Nágas on the other. The prince loses. Sang sin Chai
wishes him to give his wife in lieu of his kingdom. This he refuses. The former draws the bow and sends an arrow forth which instantly assumes the form of Garuda or Khrut, the terror of the snake tribe. The bird tries to pounce on the prince, who however makes his escape. Sang Sin Chai then carries off Nang Suphan, the Snake Queen.

Waranut and Wāranet—The history of two twin brothers.
Nang Oothai—History of a princess of the Nāgas.
Maha Chinok is derived from the Bali history of a prince, one of the Avatārs of Buddha
Mlitang—History of a Yak princess.
Nang on.
Wārāche-in.

PROSE.

Prose is amongst the Siamese confined almost entirely to treatises on Law and Physic, and to writings connected with the common details of business.

They are exceedingly methodical and tedious in their epistolary style. And when the correspondence is of a political nature, each successive letter minutely records the substance of all the preceding ones and of such conferences as may have taken place.

They have a few fables in prose.

Nang Champa-thang, or the Princess of the golden champa flower.

POETRY AND MUSIC.

It would be foreign to the present purpose were any attempt here made to compare Indo-Chinese poetry with that of the more western world. It will be sufficient to exhibit such extracts from the most approved Siamese poetical works as may allow the reader an opportunity of drawing his own inferences respecting the real rank which they are entitled to hold. The late Dr. Finlayson who accompanied Mr. Crawford's mission to Siam very correctly observes that the vocal music of the Siamese is plaintive and the instrumental lively, playful, soft and sweet. The few
Siamese airs which accompany this paper were after a great deal of trouble written out for me by a well known Malayan proficient of Penang named Primus (since dead), assisted by Siamese musicians. Mr. Crawford I believe has observed that Siamese music is pitched on a key unknown to barbarous nations.

The groundwork of the Thai prosodical system seems to me to be that of the Sanscrit, although it has been modified in some measure by the peculiar structure of the new medium to which it has been adapted. Such a system could not fail to undergo a change when forced from the service of an attenuated syllabic into that of a monosyllabic language. M. De L. Louere in his historical relation of Siam considered that if the poetry of a language (*) consisting of monosyllables, and full of accented vowels and compound diphthongs, consisted not in rhyme, he could not comprehend how it could consist in quantity as did the Greek and Latin poems.

The Thai language is not exactly in this predicament, for it contains an inexhaustible source from which dissyllables and compound words may be drawn, namely, the Bali; but, granting that such an advantage did not exist, the Siamese language is competent to yield poetry without rhyme, and that by an artifice combining the quantity employed by the Greek and Latin poets (who pronounced their words either in a high, low or middle tone, or in tones intermediate to these by an union of the high and low) with the accentual system of the English. For as the Thai language is pronounced according to a nearly invariable scheme of long and short vowels, and is assisted by a powerful body of tones and accents, it is clear that it must be free from any uncommon restraint of the nature alluded to.

If again verse consists chiefly in the arrangement of the syllables into feet, and the proper and harmonious distribution of the pauses by means of which the recurrence or rather identity in respect of certain qualities of the lines or stanzas, of which the poem is composed,

(*) He here treats of Siamese language.
enables the ear to distinguish the close of each series of feet, and to
anticipate that close at stated intervals, then is the Thai language per-
f ectly capable of such a combination. The Thai poetry is so supplied
with rhythm that it might and frequently does exist without rhyme.

There are two prominent styles in the poetic works of this language—
the epic* and the dramatic.

The greatest proportion of the Nangsu So-wt, or heroic poems,
resemble the Cheritras of India. They are not confined to one species
of measure, as shall be shewn.

The unities are not often much attended to—and the generally diffuse
style of their works is unfavorable to the action.

As most of the different sorts of metre used in their poetical works
consist of a great many feet, there is an opportunity afforded of correcting
the consequent heaviness, by a proper distribution of the pauses, or the
Yùt hai chai as they are termed. These most commonly divide the lines
into two equal parts, excepting when they approach to the hexameter,
when two or more pauses in a line are required for the melody. A word
is very rarely divided by a pause—an advantage, if not a beauty, peculiar
to the monosyllabic system. The sense too is seldom disjoined to assist
in the movement of the feet.

There appears to be no cæsural pause where the preceding syllable is
long. The last word of a verse, or of a stanza is usually pronounced in a
lengthened tone—and there is no arbitrary cadence† observed. This
prolongation of the tone in some instances appears to supply the want of a
long syllable, although it certainly is attended with the disadvantage of
increasing the chime. The capital accent is in most cases laid upon the
word immediately preceding the cæsure. Some strongly accented or in-
tonated syllables are short by rule—thus Phrà. It requires a strict
attention to the verse to distinguish in many cases the vowels u, ã, e, ai.

* Called Nithan—or Niyai and rú-ang rau.
† Long bot.
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The prevailing tone in which the Heroic or Epic poems are recited and read is high; but there is too much chiming in the whole to please an European ear.

Although the accent may fall on a consonant, the word in which it occurs is short under any circumstance, if its chief vowel be short.

THE BOT-RANG OR DRAMA.

The Siamese have attained to a considerable degree of perfection in dramatic exhibitions—and are in this respect envied by their neighbours the Barmans, Laos and Cambojans, who all employ Siamese actors when they can be got.

The Bot-rāng may be translated a melo-dramatic opera. The subjects are taken from their romantic histories. They are acted on many occasions of ceremony and at the great festivals—and the performance of one piece will sometimes last for ten days. Princes have a hall appropriated for such public exhibitions—but temporary sheds are most commonly erected with stages inside for the actors, when the populace are to be gratified. The Lok lo or actors are not always speakers; for it sometimes happens that they have only to adapt their gesticulations to what is spoken by the prompters, and so well is this conducted that the deception is not easily discovered at the distance where the spectators stand: nor was I aware of it until an attendant pointed it out to me.

A chorus of twelve or more persons, and aided by a full band of music attends. The female characters are generally represented by boys in women’s attire. The dresses are rich and becoming, and the dances graceful and easy, surpassing in every respect the shuffling of the feet, and frequently distortion of the body exhibited in the Indian nāṭch—and which is only supportable when it shews off to every advantage the fine shapes and handsome features of the Hindu female votaries of Kāndeō.

The music would be very pleasing were one or two of the wind instruments laid aside, especially the Pī chanai, a harsh sort of hautboy.
The *Sticcado*, composed of a number of metallic bowls disposed on a circular frame of bamboo which are beaten by a muffled stick, is an instrument of considerable compass.

The *Bot-rāng* employs every variety of Siamese measure—and the greatest attention has been paid to suit the language to the actions, feelings or subjects displayed. To each style also distinct and apposite musical airs are appropriated. These airs are not all of Siamese origin:—thus there is the *Laū* or *Laos* air, the *Lakhān* or *Ligor*, and the *Mon* or *Pegu-an* airs. The music, vocal and instrumental, of the Siamese is more pleasing, because more natural than that of the Chinese. A Chinese when singing strains his voice, pitching it at so high a key at the outset, that forced and unnatural tones must be afterwards resorted to; and as if aware of its effects, he immediately rings a brazen peal from deafening instruments, which at once and without further comment convinces a foreigner that he is as far behind many Asiatic nations in harmonic feeling, polish and taste, as he is superior to most of these in many of the acts most conducive to public prosperity and to private convenience and luxury. The Siamese seem to have no idea of written music: so that in reading one of their operas or dramas much of the effect which a knowledge and use of them would produce is lost on a stranger. Above each particular stanza or chapter the name of the air to be used is noted.

Amongst the other kinds of *Thai* composition are the *Mū phātkan*—a sort of heroic verse depending more on the order of the syllables (called *Kham-ti tāng*) than on rhyme or *Klān*. This kind is generally used in sacred works. They have likewise *Phlēng* or lyric verses or songs, *Plēngnā* pastorals, *Plēngō* or elegiac verses—and *Plēngōt* or *lamentations*. The note below* will shew that the *Thai* are a people who delight in poetry

* Nangsa vo-āt, ... Romance—history.  
* Bōt rāng, .......... Dramatic opera.  
* Ni than, ..........  
* Ni yai, .......... Epic or heroic composition.  
* Ru-ang rau, ...  

Phōt thām tou, ... Tropes—figures.  
— o-at tou, ... Allegory-fables.  
— yoh tou, ...  
— chōm, .... Metaphor—similitude.  
Khā nūng, .... Division of a subject.  
Kān nūng, ...... Unities.
—the birthright of all rude people, and the elegant refiner of the mind in polished life—and that they have improved what nature has bestowed by confining it within established rules.

Their musical instruments are well enough adapted to their style of composition. A list of them will be found at the end of this paper.

**History of Narinthom Phomi and his queen Kaphpa.**

*Bot-Nangsu So-at or Yani.*

In this we find verses of four lines each, the latter having alternately five and six words or syllables. Metre is not essential to this species of verse at the close of each line, but the last word in the first line rhymes with that which immediately precedes the caesure in the second—while the last words of the second and third line rhyme together. It may appear affectation to make use in a disquisition on the poetry of a rude nation, of the prosodial terms applied to Greek and Latin poetry, but without their adoption it would be impossible to afford the means of comparing the Siamese system of prosody with that of other Asiatic nations.

The order of the feet in the four first lines is thus—

| 1st line, Trochee—Amphimacer. | \_\_ _\_ _\_ |
| 2d ditto, Bacchius—Daecyl. | \_\_ _\_ _\_ |
| 3d ditto, Spondee—Amphibrach. | \_ \_ \_ _\_ |
| 4th ditto, Amphimacer—Daecyl. | \_ \_ \_ _\_ |

| Bót, .......... | A chapter—a stanza—also poetry—story. |
| Kham, .......... | Word—sentence. |
| Wák, .......... | Line—or member of a sentence. |
| Khán, .......... | Rhyme. |
| Klán maí phat kham, .......... | Verse—depending on quantity. |
| Kham khlông, .......... | An acrostic. |
| Sopha, .......... | Measured composition used for religious books. |
| Khán bot, .......... | March of the feet of a line. |

| Long bot, .......... | Close of a verse. |
| Plái wák, .......... | Last word of a line. |
| Khramaí bot, .......... | Hemistic. |
| Sâng wák, .......... | Distich. |
| Kham yaà, .......... | Length of syllables. |
| — Sán, .......... | Quantity. |
| Mítá, .......... | Power of vowel sounds. |
| Thái nák, .......... | Tones—in the key. |
| Hai bau, .......... | Tone and cadence. |
The following is a quotation from the above book.—The air is Yani.

**Verse 1st.**

Mûa nân || manâng khâk phâk
fâng Rôâ-châo || khâlong phlân
Phôân khâu || châu châm thân
mûâ râk nî || tuâm phat ãng.

*The Princess Khâpphâa respectfully addressed his majesty in these words. Your highness is of a liberal and munificent disposition, to which your devoted wife is ever ready to pay homage—and she is watchful to regulate her whole conduct so as to render it agreeable to you. Should your generous mind be deprived of the means of performing liberal actions, it shall be my study to be instrumental in devising others. Can you doubt that she who would sell herself into slavery to assist you, were your highness in distress, does not sympathize in all that happens to you; through this life and in all future states of existence my services and duties will be paid to you alone.*

The following quotation from the same work is in another measure to the Surang khanang air, and in which spondees predominate. It is an irregular one.

1.

Mûa nân || Eênthâ phraam
khêân dai || fâng khêuam
thêe khâm || phrê yûâ
phêam thâu || khâu pêï*
khêtêen || rôt [châ] nêâ
sâm dêt || châ Rôâ-chûô
chân chôm || yin dî

2.

Thêê o nêp || âû thêng
phân nêng † || òîe pêng
thên nû-a || kê sî
ák mãï || yûn hêï
thên thêï || yin dî
leô thêô || kô sî
rêp phêân || thân chêï

*[Indra, having taken the form of a Brahman, approaches the King and asks for 1000 pieces of money.]*

1.—“When the disguised Indra heard the kind words addressed to him by His Majesty, he approached the throne. The monarch rejoiced at the occasion afforded of bestowing charity on so holy a person.

2.—“He immediately counted out 1000 pieces of gold, and after having placed them on the crown of his head, he delivered them into the hands of the Brahman.”

* ai is a short vowel compound, which is here long by position.
† In the original the accent is laid on the consonant, making the vowel short, but the time is equal to a long syllable.
Châbâng.—[16 Syllables].

1 Tro: Pyr: Spond: ... müa nâm || söm-dêt [cha'] châm ñûn
2 Pyr: Iamb: ... pen thâk || [kho'] ram khoâm
3 Pyr: Pyr: Anapæs: ... châk khêm || fang thâm | thêt sâ nà

2

1 Pyr: Iamb: Anap: ... dêçhâ || phra bû || ra mêt tûn
2 Tro: Iamb: ... rûn pài || mèe châm
3 Iamb: Tribrach: ... thùng âut || ãmmârîn || hôi sî

3

Pyr: Tribr: Iam: ... thôk châm || ãmmârîn || ûn mû
Spon: Spon: ... âut thâu || hôi sî
Spon: Spon: ... rûn khrû || sîn lâa

4

Tro: Pyr: Iamb. ... müa nâm || söng thâm || phân tûn
Spond: Iamb: ... sâng tûn || tip mûa
Iamb: Spond; Iamb. ... hên thâu || phô sâm || söm phâm

“When His Majesty rapturously listened to religious recitations, his soul was purified, and Indra became instantly apprised of it by the increase of the heat in his mansion.

“All his resplendent abodes glared with unwonted fire. The God with the thousand eyes looked down to the earth, and rejoiced to observe the King gradually approaching, by the efficacy of austerities and charitable deeds, the enviable condition of a Buddha.”

The next verses from the same are also in the Chabang of 16 words to a verse.

1.

mû-a nâm || Söm-deṭ | [cha*] phômî
káp nûng || the&wî
khâu pài || näî mòô-ûng—mâhâ Phràâm

2.

Phra chû || thâu chûng rûng thâu
sê thâu || mûhû Phràâm
Thâu kha || wài chût—rû nûâ

* Cha is hardly pronounced in the recitation.

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3.

nīa Phrām || rāng thām—āk māa
wān thān || chāk pen || khāa
khāa thān māa khē thān ālāi

[King Narinthom impelled by strong devotion resigns the government of his country to Indra disguised.

He then wanders with his Queen into the forests—and here it is that Indra having appeared again in likeness of the Brahman desires to return the gold, which gave his Queen an opportunity as appears in a previous quotation, of displaying her devotion to her Lord.]

"The King having reached the dominions of the Maha Brahma exclaimed, on seeing two of its inhabitants—O Hindu. If you wish to purchase slaves take us. The wife of the Hindu enquired what price they set upon their persons."

The following is a specimen of a measure generally found in poetry, consisting of twenty-eight stanzas or verses of seven lines each—(marked 28 syllables.)

1.

Mīa nan || phō bān
fāng khrū̂k || tha chāun
krīu kōrt || sākrō thāa
thā̄o chūng || wā̄ lān
phō thā̄u || phrūk thāa
thā̄n ēn-||-dā khāa
yāddā || foon fāi

2.

thān khrāng || a chāun
khāa ān || khrang thāa
phā naa || lāa chai
bāt nī || phrūk thāu
phā aù || khoû pāi
chāi pen || khā thai
khāa thāng || thān māa

'The King mildly replied to the harsh expressions of the enraged devotee—O Sir, I beseech you to be calm. It is so long since you left the place, that the circumstance escaped my memory. But now you may have my services in lieu of the debt which I owe to you.'

In this species, the first and the second lines rhyme together—the word preceding the pause in the third generally agrees in metre with the last word of the second line—the third and fifth and sixth rhyme together—as do the fourth and sixth. The verses consist of four words each, and here we have the disyllable endu divided by the censure.

Philāāp—Elegiac—Plaintive of 28 Syllables.

Long syllables prevail in this style. The 1st and 2d lines chime—as do the 3d and 6th. The last word of the 4th chimes with the 2d of the 5th.
In the last stanza an attempt is made to assimilate the sound to the sense, thus rin rin—the dropping of tears—and kling klu-āk su-ak din—writhing and rolling on the ground.

1. Tro: Imab: ... mūa nān || thē wi yōk kān || um thān
   Amph: ... nang mūang || ru-āng sī mōg sān || hē nāng
   Dact: Bacc: ... thō-ān thōt || sā mūat trāā nām tāā || rin rin
   Troch: Iamb: ... Nāng chēp || oothān nāng chēp || ū thān
   Pyr: ... rāān rāān || khāān māā hēn nāa || ānīt chăa kling klă-āk || sū-āk din
       nān khrāān || khāāng din kīn te || nām tāā.

As the beautiful Princess lay pierced with anguish on the edge of the road, the hearts of the spectators were rent by compassion. Now she endeavoured to support her tender frame with her hands, while tears, as if apparently to quench the thirst produced by pain, dropped fresh from her eyes, and now writhing and rolling on the ground, she excited the deepest sympathy of beholders.

The above is an accouchement, rather a curious subject for poetry, but the Siamese have no idea of any description of this nature being indecent.

Rāāp.

Is a softly flowing strain—adapted to the following measure in the Narinthom—[28 syllables.]

In the following quotation it may be well observed, how the prolongation of a short vowel at the end of a line supplies the place of a long one.

1. Dact: Spond: ... mūa nān* || Rōchăā Iamb. Anapæs: ... So-ān nāng || mākēī
   Dact: Iamb: ... chēng nāi || pānyāā Diamb: ... ... kḥā pḥā || thē wi
   Spond: Iamb: ... rō tūē || nē chāā Spond. Spond: ... mī sī || sō-phā
   Spond: Pyr: ... tēng lēo || sēt nāp ỳc. ỳc.
   Pyr: Amphibr: ... rū dōp || dō-ēi wāā

* In this and several other instances the Siamese overlook the final letter. This ought else to have been a Dactyl—and in such words as ro-ung-moo-ung, the short vowel is passed rapidly over and the stress either on the diphthong or final consonant.
Dact: Spond... ḷhaṃ ḷaḥ || ḷaṃ ḷaḥ, ḷai
Iamb: Spond... ḷai chau || ṭe-lau

"Bent on devoting his life to religious duties, His Majesty prepared to abdicate his throne. Having accomplished this design, he ascended the diamond chariot, graced by the presence of the accomplished Queen, resplendent with jewels—and proceeded to the place where the ceremony was to take effect."

The following is a specimen too of the Ya- ni air, and is extracted from the dramatic poem of Waranūt and Waranēt:

1.

Thaū mi || ban chā trat
tam rūt || sang le-d || thao nān
Sadēt (cha) || chāk ku-e || suwən
pāi yāng || rōng ke-d || ña-chā

2.

māu thān || hēn sōng chōu
khā chām chom || thē rom yau
dō-ēi chā pāi || yang mu-ng jāu
mīngmāa chāa || sām rōn cāi

3.

fāi wā mā || ming kēō
hēn Waranēt || phō sōng cāi
sang nāng || chom prā phrāi
sām rōn cāi || phī rom yau

"Waranēt is desirous of making a trip to Tawatingua, (trayatrima) the heaven in which his father who is a Thēvea, or happy spirit, dwells.

His Majesty descending from his brilliant Palace, went to the place where the golden Pegasus stood, prepared for his flight to the celestial regions. The glorious horse of the sky, betrayed extravagant marks of joy on perceiving the princely burden he was to bear—and his breast dilated with pride and satisfaction, when his Majesty and his beauteous Queen approached."

Nangkri an air, [28 syllables to a verse.]

The example which follows has been extracted from the Romance called Narinthom—and is nearly the same measure as several preceding ones:

sān rūt || (chā) lēn tāa
chāuk chōn || (lā) thā rāa
“Narinthom and his Queen found during their journey an inviting Phutsa tree, (ficus Indicus or rather pipul,) which had shed heaps of its purple fruit on the ground. The King expressed, to his amiable consort, his pleasure at the sight—observing also that he would climb the tree and pluck some of the ripest for his beloved.”

A measure of seven lines to the Yesunta air.

Of this measure an example may be taken from the Historical Romance called Wārache-ūn.

1.
bdī nān || vā-rā-chēe-ūn.
dāt rāi || phūn rā wan čhēt čhōt čhān
héa thau || thé wan trāi trōn suā

2.
rān rēng || khēng ɦa đʒəŋ pēn nūk nū
rān chīt dōeł dēchaā
hēng chāiyā || chaǔ nūk thūng

3.
chūng Inthā || chau thāu rām-phūng
māmōt phō dài khrai nūk thūg
dāt tā māu chūng kūt utsa-chan

“Wārache-ūn tired of a long residence in one of the heavenly mansions, was anxious to visit the earth. His couch became hot, hard and comfortless—and his heart burned within him, when he brought to recollection his family, which wandered about on the earth.”

Sephā.

In the Rū-ang or Cheritra called Khūn Chaug and Khūn Phén, or a history of these two persons, who were courtiers to Phráphan Wāsā, a King of Siam, about 400 years ago, is described a contest betwixt the two former, who should have Nan Wān thūng, a celebrated beauty, to wife. After a series of stratagems neither obtained her—as the King foreseeing that the ruin of his country would be the consequence of these civil broils, directed
the object of their quarrel to be put to death. The father of the unfortu-
nate girl eventually procures a pardon for her, but arriving too late at the
place of execution, an opportunity is afforded for the author to expatiuate on
the melancholy result. In one of the first stanzas we find Khra th̀i nán.

Iamp. Anapest. ... ... ... 1 Khun Pheng || sen s̀a thôan
Troch : Dactyl. ... ... ... 2 dải sông || kha ǹa rakh
Amphim : Troch : Troch : ... 3 ǹa cha khrail || chop phakh || tuım khwán
Tro : Tro : Tro : Tribrach. 4 só s̀a-ngi-üm || ch̀e-üm tòá || chàu th̀uk ân
Tro : Pyr : Spond. Anap. ... ... ... 5 chaû râm || pharûnáa mâu || ǹa ēndû
6 sôm pên || lòk thàán || Sûkkàthái
7 nûa sòng sòan chài || dôei râikhô
8 chài dái || dái || rò-üm rakh rò-üm rô

"The illustrious Khun Pheng was overcome with love on hearing these words from the
mouth of that beauteous one, and delicately encircling her neck with his arm and expressing his
desire to imprint a kiss on her lips, praised her for her prudence, humility and dignified conduct,
proofs of her being a daughter of Sôkkâtái, adding that his affections were stronger since her's
were not yet engaged to another.

The Lady is visited by Khun Pheng, repulses a little unbecoming ardor on his part, and by
appropriate expostulation.

Meantime the princess was alarmed by Khun Pheng attempting to clasp her to his breast.
"Refrain my Lord, she said, and do not give me room to believe that your generous offer of ransom
has only been a snare laid for my ruin. Having rescued me from danger, and bound me to you
in gratitude, would you tarnish your fame by improper conduct. Do you suppose that I can
suffer an insult, or that I can admit of your addresses without the knowledge of my father, who
impressed on my mind the right line of behaviour towards your sex, and strictly prohibited me
from following my own inclinations. Can a blessing accompany my union with you, unless it
shall be with the consent of my parents. They have promised to approve of my choice. Be
prudent therefore I beseech you."

Khamphak.

The following passage to which this air is adopted, has been extracted from the Ramakeyum or Ramâyana which contains great variety of metre.

1 Phra sít ch̀a phû-̀ang || krû-̀ang pradhàp sòng prà thàp || dôi phôn l̀a phàª nàn
2 plè phra phàkh || phra phô thân
3 châm lù-̀ang hà là-̀ıp || mái yûn êt plâm
Phra Ram or Rama, is the hero in this piece, as he is in the original Hindu romance Thots-akan or Ravana, tyrant of Ceylon, and a Yak or rakhsha carries Ram's wife off. One day the king who is inconsolable at her loss, descends to the bank of the river to bathe.

"When the king had reached the brink of the stream, and had delivered his upper garments and ornaments into the hands of his attendants he was about to plunge into the water, when he observed a corpse floating down, the shape and features of which exactly resembled those of his queen. Lovely were her features even in death, resplendent as the moon when she casts her radiance from a full orb.

Distracted at the sight, the King exclaimed, O form of my long cherished, now lost Sita-devi, what evil destiny has thrown thy remains on the white sand in presence of thy former lord.

Thus did Beng Yakai by spells deceive the king by assuming the likeness of his queen, and check for a time the ardor with which he sought to rescue her from the Yak."

Honlaman or Hanuman endeavours to undeceive the king, sagaciously observing, that there must be something unnatural in the circumstance, because the tide was then flowing and the body came down against the flood. He therefore advises His Majesty to burn the body. The experiment is tried, when the Yak or rakhsha who had assumed the likeness of Sita-devi instantly resumed her own form and vanished.

On another occasion the King having returned from a battle which he had been obliged to fight with his father-in-law Thau kroong Phaan, is met by a band of the maids of honor or attendants upon his Queen, who chant the following strain while preceding him to his palace.

Rangot—Air.

Principal, .... O! wā phā yāt || yāu wā rāt
Chorus, iversity mē chām wā-rā-nāt || sānchāā
Principal, yă lang khōatang || tē-so-kū
Chorus, thōng bō-ţhāng thāa thīa || nē phōn nōk
Principal, Khō-an khram phrum khī || tē khōn lā nēt
Chorus, Sēn thik khā sēn thī vēt || phō-ţang ah hūk
Principal, kūt wā sāng phra-ńg || (kā) sōnglāk
Chorus, yōnai mū yāk || sō tā sā thān

"Welcome back, O mighty king, with victory crowned, unceasingly with us, your devoted slaves, has your anxious Queen lamented your absence.

Tears quenched the thirst which a thousand apprehensions for your safety excited in our agitated frames, while dread that you might have fallen into the snares of the Yāk, chased away repose, and rent our bosoms."

Plēp.

This is an air appropriated to much the same sort of metre as the preceding quotation, the couplets are sung twice.

Chā̄ā.

Under this title are stanzas of various length and measure.

In U'nnarūt are comprised in this style stanzas containing from two to eighteen verses. The verses are generally distiches, and lines run alternately nearly thus 7+9 or 8, 7+7, 6+7, 11+7, or 8+7.

Ex:... 1 ēn ńg kū ńg nō-a || pāchā thān ān kū ńg chān dō-ći kēm || būphāā
2 rōn rāu săn và rot || sūkhōn thāā màā lāi o lāā || phēa kā hūn
3 kēo kū kūp chām pūa || sārphān chā rūng dō-ći choēt kēm || hāmωsān

The King having retired to the Queen’s apartment.

"Their Majesties reclined their heads on pillows, while the delicious perfume of roses, and of every variety of exquisitely scented flowers refreshed the senses.

The fragrant nosegays peeping out from amidst the decorations displayed the Kēo (chaleas paniculata) and Khulaup the Champāa (michelia champaca) and the Sārphān (a yellowish flower produced on a tree.)

The king desiring repose, the succeeding couplets are sung to the air called Phrā thāng.

"The soft voices of the band were in unison with the melody of the music—and it seemed as if heavenly harmony was produced by mortals.

"Sweet was the melody—soft and just the measure—and tremulously responsive were the voices to the music’s notes."
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Phat Chäa.

Laudatory.—The singers proceed:

Like diadems of inestimable value—are your noble persons. The pinnacles of the State—the rulers of men, props of the Empire—and the massive towering pillars amongst Princes.

Long Song.

"Descending to the Bath."

The Stanza from which we are now to quote consists of 16 verses in couplets, in all 118 syllables. The order of the last is varied, being alternately 9+7 or 9+8, or 8+6, or 7+7, 7+8, 9+7, 7+9, 8+8, 8+9.

Prä thum thang || pröi lü-äng || wëo ri rën
Löp lai mën thän || khat śi
mëa mäng phäng sën || thăngin śi
së khon thän mëlë || trä lëpang (khâ)

"The pure water fell in gentle showers from the golden lotus bath—respecting his majesty—rich perfumes were then sprinkled over him—and he came forth beaming like the sun."

Sala bùrong.

This air is coupled with the following verse descriptive of the ceremony of consulting a soothsayer previous to Thotsamok receiving the crown which his father wore.

[dài ù-ë] dài rük kôthâu hai bük || bai ri khvän
Parôhíta ka chut thä-an || sô-wën (na)
tëet wën kéo || an-ä-làa
yëk khôn kham rop || chëp së-an
song wë-an te sëi paí khvàn

"The Parohita soon appears; and now, he exclaims, is the time propitious—haste to bring forth the offerings,* and let us light the oblationary candles and diamond tapers.† These were speedily brought and carried in procession around the King."

* Fruits and other eatables.
† These tapers are stuck around the edge of a large glass or gold plate.
"The Tennasserim Air"—adapted to verses thus reckoned 3+3 syllables 7+8, 8+9, 7+10, 8+9, 8+9.

Scanned—1 Iam—Anapæst—Anapæst.
2 Spond—Anap—Tribrach.
3 Iamb—Iamb—Dactyl.
4 Iamb—Amphibr.—Bacchic.

In the same opera Unnarot, the king, thus addresses his consort—

To you I have ever been, and shown myself to be, ardenty attached. Did I not for your sake leave my family and country behind? Time has glided delightfully and unperceived away in your society, while an anxious and aged parent has long lamenting in vain the absence of her son; even now she is overwhelmed with a thousand cruel doubts and apprehensions on my account; in the excess of her grief she beats her breast and, if not speedily relieved by my presence, will die of despair and leave me to fruitless remorse.

The queen makes a dutiful reply to this speech when again—

The divine and majestic Unnarot, ravished with the delicate and affectionate sentiments expressed by the Queen, embraced her and said—"You are the jewel on which my affections rest, the sanctuary of my love, the diamond pupil of my eye. Heaven is witness to the truth of what I have declared."

The Queen’s heart felt at this speech, as if it had been plunged into the water of life; a delicious coolness succeeded—accompanied by a multitude of blissful thoughts. With uplifted hands she besought his Majesty to allow her in the meantime to return to her mother’s house.

O! rai.

O! Laos Air.

When the graceful Usa beheld her mother (by adoption,) she gave a loose to her ardent affection in words accompanied by tears—lamenting in terms of bitter grief the approaching separation.

O! Laos Air.

 ром ньнаанг ุนูํนุ้น ณะวํนุ้น

หอеньง som-det (cha) ผ่าหอนหุ้น (ฮ) นิ

สีกุ กรินัน krë-an krëàn อาน ผัน

ก้าก งวัน siẹน siład ้คัท (ทำ) ที่ยึด (ตร)

ก่ิตุยูนติ์ mi ยอหก ทีสิ่นกัน

When the graceful Usa beheld her mother (by adoption,) she gave a loose to her ardent affection in words accompanied by tears—lamenting in terms of bitter grief the approaching separation.

O! Laos Air.

rom nang wai-yu-ha marrai

jang rot phutcha nát phra Bùtrá
WAIYAKA felt somewhat consoled by the affectionate expressions of her (adopted) daughter—and in return gave her some good advice for her future conduct in the married state. She then deplored the unavoidable separation she must sustain from her beloved child—who was going to become the wife of PHRA UNAROT, (PHRA SONGRIT.)

Yani manora

is a different strain from the yani nangsù so-at before noticed. It occurs in UNNARUT,—

hén phôn chiturong || kha êng òat
pen käng phayu-ka bût || (thu) krâ bô-an yai, șe. șe.

The General issued instructions for the organising and assembling of the Army, its materiel and followers—also the elephants—with gold embroidered housings, and the horse under their respective commanders, bold and swift as lions.

O ! pi.

This air is played on a sort of clarionet—and is adapted to a stanza in which the Princess USA is seated on a diamond throne, beside her lord and king—she addresses him in poetry, praising him, and expressing her readiness to accompany him to the diamond country of Longka (Lanca or Ceylon)—pai sathâdan krung kêu ná Longka.

Môn Plën—The Peguan Air.—Long song—The Bathing.

occurs in the same Drama adapted to a wak or stanza of eleven couplets, descriptive of their Majesties’ enjoyment of the cold bath.

Răng thon

is another applied to a stanza of twelve couplets describing the royal carriage with its curving poles (inwards and high above the heads of the horses) surmounted with flags.*

* A Translation has been given in my Siamese Grammar.
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Lō Phamā.—The Burman Air.

dūn thān pāi wōng sī khā rēt
khām khet koei thūn lā hūn phū
sām rūn rān chūn chūm phrōm yūā
māā bōn rōt thūa thāng sōngōng (khā)

They were carried along the narrow pass—and over the various impediments. The august pair were delighted with their excursion in the chariot.

Chom Dong.

I select the following passage adapted to this air, because it shews that the Siamese have some feeling of what constitutes beauty in landscape.

khūn khāu lām nāu || phānā wēt
thiit phāi nēt chūm chān || sīng khān
lūūn yāt sūng yī-am || ēm phān
mī chū gōng ngū-am phāa || sī lā lāī
bōng pēn bōći hē-ō || plē-ō plan
chūng chūng lōt lān || čiń chāi
še. še.

"Unnarēt pursued his journey though valleys and magnificent forests, and over hills. At every stage of his progress natural beauties rivetted his attention and were sources of delight. Here mighty peaks towering to the sky seemed as if just about to crush by their fall the kingly cavalcade. There precipices disclosed their naked sides variegated by beautiful strata. Here a horrid chasm yawned—there a narrow dell invited to repose—and now the ranges of mountains receding behind each other displayed a fascinating diversity of light and shade."

The following verse is accompanied by the air termed

Chin kep dōh mai—"The Chinese pulling a flower."

ǹg ngā yācū yāt || sōng sān
dūi sāng mā thu roṭ || phōt chāmaān
ǹg khrāān that || thatsā nāa pāi
hen ūn ni khūt || sāi thōng
chān čhūng mon thōu || kīāng yāī
USA heard the tender speech of her Lord—fraught with love—and sensibility—she turned her head, and he held the golden krot tree,* with its numerous detached stems, and wide spreading branches.

_O! phā—“The passionate Air.”_

_kap mía sia klaw_
_chow ư c rong hai rao_
_pen thom chow léo kéo mea dá_
_that chûa ai malâe kâu kâu_
_tâc treng na ha nót nót_

The King drove out his chief wife from his kingdom;
His other wives asked the cause of his grief,
And why he regretted losing one who had offended,
Asking if he was not ashamed to regret of what he had done.
They then danced before him and used mocking gestures.

_Rong malim._

From the Sawannahong.

_ichom parafong plaa nai wari_
_nî mû kho khe-ung thi nam lai_
_kra he thang lâng li-au thi-un kîn klaw_
_kraho yai plâ naakhon_

The sportive fishes in the limpid stream glided in pairs near the banks, while shoals of fry sought food in the shallows. The huge _kraho_ pursued the _man-featured fish._

From the Romance of Sawannahong or the Golden Goose.

_Air Chûi chai._

_Chao chûi chai_ sauntered towards a Monastery—while his hands moved about as if he were dancing, his garments hung negligently on his body, trailing on the ground. He then entered the monastery, he had stolen a precious stone. He asked permission to eat along with the Priests. The _Lo-ang_ or Priests were then at dinner—and, being so unreasonably intruded on, beat off the affected youth with their fans.
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Air Takle lakhāng:—"The Alligator drags his tail."
used in Rāng lakhān. It is a favorite nursery air in the palace.

nān pai thūt me chā klong
nān la nom me chā kwāi, āc.

Sleep softly my child—in your pendent cradle. Do not cry, my Prince, you will be placed at your mother’s breast soon—you have both endured much in leaving your country.—(From Narin-thom.)

Chūt ching.

From the Sawannahong.

khraan mau thōng theo neo wari
phra phomī pri prem pen nuk nāā
plū-unɡ krū-unɡ sanrap kra sattrā
long song khongkha than dai

His Majesty was overcome with joy when he reached the bank of the Ganges—and quickly disencumbering himself of his regalia he bathed in its stream.

Peasants Song.—Air Lomphat chāi khāū.

dān phā dān-chau nok khan hūn
dān pai khang nai ān

Q. O Father, [ironically] why walk at such a rate with your head erect like a speckled dove—where are you going.

A. Whose voice is that I hear, like that of my beloved wife.

Phlen—Propkai. Lyrical.

Indo-Chinese poets, like those to be found in most partially civilized countries, are fond of extempore contests in verse. The Siamese poetic champions do not wholly rely on their own powers, but invoke, after the manner of both ancient and modern western poets, some guardian deity or muse to inspire them with heavenly fire. These champions are attended by a chorus, consisting of persons of both sexes.

The following is one of the invocations:

Bright deities! glorious spirits! Here I invoke your aid with hands uplifted to my head—Exalted beings!—more durable than the lofty mountain, the axis of the world—high throned in the sky, you behold with contempt all that is in the world or around it—and thou, O! Phra Song (a Holy Priest of old,) surpassing mortals in energy and knowledge, come all and inspire our feeble minds with poetic vigor.
Phleng—The Herdsman's Song.—Air Phat khwai.

 kep dök maroe dök ́ë
 ma röe te dök phat pheo
 rae leo ma hõe vai döng wat
 nom chau ngãn saurûm nung klôn dat

She gathers flowers for a garland,
She strings red and white,
Then hangs them up behind the monastery,
Her breasts have not the roundness of youth—
She is the companion of my wife.

The Courtier's Song.—Air Sakkravăă. *

Love Song.—Air Dâk Sâî.

dâk sâî chau ́ë-e  bûn phâ na-e lêô
mî dai rö-ám riyang kéô  chau sâû so
 dâk ́ë-e—dâk râk ! !  bûn phinâ-e lêô
chau mai thak lêô  hâ lêô pâî

O fragment flower of my heart's delight.

Unfortunate that I am—deprived of thy presence—
Severed from the jewel—the lovely virgin—
Lovely flower!—beautiful laurel—
My evil destiny prevents my approaching you.
Alas! will you not summon me to your presence—how desperate is my case.

Boat Song.—Air Phleng rûô.

râî ́ë ! râî chang
châ rôp hän tài sid lêô doei râî rûô ́ë, ̀yû. ̀yè.
yo tha phê-doei yo tha pi-doei

O beloved! a hundred cattles of gold would not weigh against you. I use all my efforts and
beat my boatmen to reach you—but still you fly my presence.

The King's Bargemen's Song.—Air Hê rû-à.

hêm ̀ë-ê khang hän ûm hêô hê ̀kêê
Sû yang châm phà li phî-rom som Samân

* The specimen of this song is wanting in the manuscript. See.
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The mighty bird Garudā—fled to Limphalee—with the Princess Kakī, supporting her all unwilling close to his heart, under his umbrageous wings.

_Phleng chacha hong._—A song or lyrical piece in the form of question and reply.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{arā chāa hōng ū-e} & \quad \text{sō thān rān lōng ū-c} \\
\text{khan dong lam lūt} & \quad \text{sō thān rān lōng ū-c} \\
\text{khan dong lam lūt} & \quad \text{chau phāt phēng tēng ū-c} \\
\text{khan nāi dong fēk} & \quad \text{chau nō-ūn lā ang thāng ū-c} \\
\text{khan nāi dong fēk} & \quad \text{mā chāu dāi phō khēk} \\
\text{see māpēk gho-ā Thai ū-c! ħū-c! mā nāng ū-c} & \quad \text{The heavenly bird descended in the forest (of Himāla) and wandered about.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

The Princess was dressed out in elegant attire and painted with the fragrant paste. She went out into the wood—graceful in figure and action.

O my beloved, when you met with the Malay you quickly forgot that I existed.

_Harvest Song, sung whilst reaping the rice._—Air, _Phlen ki-au hau._

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{wān nī rau wā chā len} & \quad \text{rau cho-ūn kūm khāmen sīwa chā len phleng ū-e} \\
\text{cha au kha-not nāi ma} & \quad \text{cha au khāu nā nāi lau} \\
\text{cha wāng khāu khān gəwańcha ū-c} & \quad \text{nāi nāi khāu kā ma lēn nōt} \\
\text{yāng te chāu dāk prā chā} & \quad \text{To-day let us be merry and rejoice like happy reapers. Let us bind the sheaves—and place them on the banks, on the ridges leading through the corn and inclosing the fields—that we may deposit the corn in the granary of the master. Where are the happy reapers, and she who is the fragrant Phra Chō flower of my soul, where is she! And Pōchō Srai (another woman’s name,) come along quickly—are you here? how is it you answer not.}
\end{align*}
\]

_Thā yāe._—An air in _Mahori_—in the Manora Entertainment.

_Peasant’s Song._—_Thēp phā thāng._

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{wān ū-c wān nī pēn wān} & \quad \text{nūng sān hōm sī} \\
\text{nāu bōt sī chāi ū-c} & \quad \text{nūng sām mī sī} \\
\text{thē phā thāng nāng di} & \quad \text{rū pēn chā nāi ū-c} \\
\text{thēp phā thāng khān nāng nī māi sōdī} & \quad \text{chāp hōa long thā lai khī}
\end{align*}
\]
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on sām-pū chāi ū-ē
chāu chāp hái dī
náng chā chāp-an hōa phī
hāa māi chā kāhū tāi ū-ē

The MAN.—This is the day—the very day—on which fine woollens ought to be worn—I am abashed and ashamed in your presence at being ill-dressed in coloured clothes.

The Woman.—My Brother? You are kind—are you delighted with your woollen clothes? I do not think they become you—let me make use of your head as a mop to sweep away the fowls' dung—that you may never exult again but fall into evil.

The MAN.—My beloved, your threats if put in practice may produce mischief to your virgin state.—(There is a double entendre here not to be explained in this place.)

chaung sī tin yang ro phādāt
nāk phrādāt yang ro phlāng

If the mighty Elephant King of four-footed animals is liable to stumble and fall, in like manner the wisest man is apt to slide into error.

List of the Piphat Khongwang

or

Musical Instruments.

A full Band consists of

1. Pee—Clarionet.
2. Khāng toa pho toa mea—Small and large Drums.
3. Təphon—Kettle Drums.
4. Phūng māng—Small ditto.
5. Rāndāt—Sticcado.
   Cheeng—Metal Cymbals.
   Chang—Large ditto.
   Gong or Khōng—Gong.
   Krāp—30 pairs of bamboo Castanets
     1½ foot long.
   Mahori.
1. Sā—Violincello.
2. Kachappi—Harp.
3. Aramana—Flat Drum or Tamborine.
4. Thap Thap—Drums.
5. Ching.
7. Krap Phōang—Short Castanets.
1. Tré—Trumpet.
2. Sang—Small ditto.
3. Khāng Khēk—Tū pho tū mea—used by the King—Drums, Javanese.
   Khāng phē tai—Funereal Drum.
   Chāng Katē—A small Gong.
   Pee hā.

Penang, 1829.—Revised 1896.
PART SECOND.

Entertainments, Games and Amusements.

There is nothing which at first sight would appear more strongly demonstrative of the intercourse which at remote æras may have existed betwixt the various people of the earth—or of their physical vigor, and mental energies and sentiments, than a description of their national games and amusements. Here the character is boldly drawn forth and stands in view divested of the shackles of time, or the marks of passing fashion and caprice. Mankind, however, being the child of circumstances, and being moulded into many varieties by the moral and physical agencies which surround him, it may thence be inferred that even the games which with slight modifications pervade nations, widely severed from each other, and dissimilar in habits, are in many, perhaps most, cases the result of some impelling principle common to man in every situation.

The Siamese from being of a lively temperament, and of strong but versatile passions, like other semi-barbarous tribes, are much addicted to gaming, and also to many other less pernicious amusements. The Government checks the unbounded licentiousness to which gaming would lead by licensing gaming houses, where only games of chance may be played. At the great festival called Wantroot or Songkhraan, (Sankrânti of Hindoos,) a general licence is sometimes given to the people to gamble free of duty. The women are said to indulge in the pernicious delusion with equal eagerness as the men. The same passion for playing is found amongst the Burmese.

The universality of the game of Chess need not here be insisted on. The Siamese are alike remarkable with other Asiatics for their clear-headedness at this game; and, were all other proofs of their possessing a considerable share of mental perspicacity removed, this one would redeem them from the charge of being deficient in it.

Mak rook or Chess—The Khoon or king has with the other pieces, (with exception of the pawns,) the same relative positions as in the English
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game. He goes one square in any direction, and takes in any direction. He cannot castle. He is check-mated much in the same manner as in the British game, but a stale-mate makes a drawn game.

The Met or minister [the queen with us] stands on the right hand of the King, can move two squares straight-forward at the outset—but after the first move he can only go one square at a time, and that diagonally either for advance or retreat.

The Khôn, “post or supporter,” is the bishop. His first move is either one square forward or diagonally, but at any period of the game he may take the adversary's piece on the square before him, but not that one which may stand in his rear.

Màkh or the horse, is the knight and moves in the same way as the English one.

The Rooa or ship is the Castle and moves in the same way as the latter.

Bea or “cowries” (shells) are the pawns. They are ranged on the third square and move one square at a time, and only one at the outset, and take diagonally. When they reach the adversary’s line of pawns they become Met or ministers and move accordingly.

The following game was played in my presence by two Siamese:

1. The white Queen's pawn leads off by moving one square to the front.
2. The black ditto ditto’s pawn ditto ditto.
3. Queen to right hand bishop’s first square.
4. The adversary does the same.
5. Queen to her second square.
6. Right hand bishop's pawn one square.
7. Ditto ditto knight to queen's first square.
8. The adversary does the same.
9. Right hand knight to right hand bishop's third square.
10. Left hand bishop one square forward.
11. Queen's pawn takes adversary's pawn.
12. King's pawn one square.

13. Right hand knight to his second square.
14. Queen to her second square.
15. Right hand bishop to his first square.
16. Queen to her second square.
17. Right hand knight's pawn one square.
18. Right hand castle to queen's square.
19. Left hand knight to king's second square.
20. Left hand castle one square to front.
22. Left hand castle to queen's second square.
23. Ditto ditto knight retreats to king's second square.
24. Left hand knight to king's first square.
25. Left hand bishop to king’s second square.
26. Right ditto ditto pawn to his fourth square.
27. Left ditto knight to right hand bishop’s third square.
28. King’s pawn one square.
29. Left hand bishop one square.
30. Right ditto ditto pawn takes adversary’s pawn.
31. Left hand bishop’s pawn takes the adversary’s pawn.
32. King’s pawn takes it in turn.
33. Queen takes the pawn.
34. Queen to bishop’s fourth square.
35. Right hand ditto to queen’s second square.
36. Left ditto knight to right hand bishop’s third square.
37. Left hand castle moves up close to the king.
38. Right hand knight to right hand castle’s fourth square.
39. Left hand knight’s pawn one square.
40. 
41. Queen takes queen.
42. Bishop takes queen.
43. Right hand knight to adversary’s knight’s third square.
44. Left hand castle to left hand bishop’s fourth square.
45. Right hand knight’s pawn one square.
46. Castle retreats one square.
47. Right hand knight takes adversary’s bishop.
48. Knight takes knight.
49. Ditto ditto ditto.
50. Ditto ditto ditto.
51. Right hand bishop to queen’s third square.
52. White king is checked by right hand castle.
53. King moves to left hand bishop’s second square.
54. Left hand knight to left hand bishop’s third square.
55. Left hand knight’s pawn one square.
56. Pawn takes pawn.
57. Ditto ditto ditto.
58. Castle moves one square to its right.
59. King moves one square to his left.
60. Left hand castle’s pawn one square.
61. Right hand bishop to his king’s fourth square.
62. King moves to his bishop’s second square.
63. Right hand bishop to adversary’s bishop’s fourth square.
64. Knight retreats to king’s second square.
65. Bishop moves to black queen’s third square.
66. Knight returns to bishop’s third square.
67. King advances one square.
68. Castles pawn takes pawn.
69. Pawn takes pawn.
70. Knight to queen’s fifth square, giving check to adversary’s king.
71. King retreats to knight’s second square.
72. Knight takes castle.
73. Castle takes knight.
74. Bishop to his queen’s fourth square.
75. Bishop to his second square, (this was inadvertently done, but the player would not accept of the piece back.)
76. Castle takes bishop.
77. Bishop to king’s third square.
78. Left hand castle to right hand bishop’s third square.
79. Castle to adversary’s king’s fourth square.
80. Bishop to his fifth square.
81. Bishop to his queen’s fourth square.
82. Ditto to white bishop’s third square.
83. King to his left hand knight’s third square.
84. Bishop to white king’s fourth square.
85. Castle to ditto ditto fifth ditto.
86. Left hand castle to white left hand bishop’s third square.
87. King retires one square.
88. Left hand castle (checks king) to his bishop’s second square.
89. King retreats to his knight’s square.
90. Same castle to white left hand bishop’s square.
91. King moves one square forward.
92. Left hand castle to white bishop’s second square on left hand and gives check.
93. King advances one square.
94. Bishop closes to white king.
95. White castle takes white left hand knight’s pawn.
96. Castle to white knight’s square, and checks the king.
97. King to his left bishop’s fourth square.
98. Bishop takes white knight’s pawn.
99. King to his fifth square.
100. Left hand castle to white king’s square.
101. King to his queen’s fifth square.
102. Bishop to his fourth square.
103. Castle checks king.
104. King goes to his own square.
105. Bishop to adversary’s queen’s fourth square.
106. Left hand castle to white queen’s second square.
107. Bishop goes behind his king to queen’s fourth square.
108. Bishop to black queen’s third square and gives check.
109. King to black bishop’s fourth square.
110. Castle to white right hand bishop’s square and gives check.
111. King to black king’s third square.
112. Castle takes bishop and checks.
113. King takes bishop.
114. Castle from white bishop’s square to black left hand bishop’s third square and checks.
115. King to black queen’s fourth square.
116. Castle retreats to his king’s second square.
117. Ditto to white left hand knight’s third square.
118. King to his left hand bishop’s second square.
119. Right hand castle’s pawn one square.
120. Castle from king’s second square to queen’s second square and checks.
121. King to his queen’s fourth square.
122. Castle from left hand black bishop’s third square to his fifth square and checks.
123. King advances one square.
124. Castle to king’s second square and checks.
125. King moves one square to his left.
126. Pawn takes pawn.
127. Castle to right hand castle’s second square.
128. Castle takes pawn.
129. Ditto to right hand bishop’s third square and gives check.
130. King to his own square.
131. Castle to black left hand bishop’s third square.
132. Ditto to black left ditto knight’s fourth square and gives check.
133. King forward one square.
134. Castle to his queen’s second square and checks.
ON SIAMESE LITERATURE.

135. King one square to his left.
136. Castle's pawn one square.
137. Ditto to white right hand bishop's fourth square.
138. Ditto to left hand knight's third square and checks.
139. King retreats one square.
140. Left hand knight's pawn one square and becomes a mét.
141. Castle to black bishop's fourth square.
142. Pawn one square forward.
143. Castle to black left hand castle's fourth square.
144. Ditto to white knight's fourth square.
145. Ditto takes pawn.
146. Ditto to queen's fourth square.
147. King takes castle.
148. Castle takes castle.
149. King to black queen's fourth square.
150. Ditto to queen's second square.
151. Ditto back to black king's fourth square.
152. Castle to left hand castle's fourth square and checks.
153. King to his own fourth square.
154. Ditto one square forward.
155. Ditto to his queen's third square.
156. Ditto to his ditto fourth ditto.
157. Ditto to his own third ditto.
158. Castle to his knight's fourth square.
159. King to his left bishop's third square.
160. Ditto moves one square to his left.
161. Ditto to his third square.
162. Castle to his king's third square.
163. King to his left bishop's third square.
164. Castle to white queen third square and checks.
165. King to his own second square.
166. Ditto to white king's fourth square.
167. Ditto to his left bishop's second square.
168. Ditto one square to his right.
169. Ditto to his own second square.
170. Castle to white queen's fourth square.

Here the game ends, being a drawn one. The reason is that the king has got back to his country, as the Siamese express it, within the permitted number of moves, viz. 16. The new made mét or minister is not of a high rank enough to attack a king. The castle or ship is supposed to contain all the belligerents. Had two castles been opposed to the king he would have been check mated in eight moves.

The following are established rules. If a king is left alone to contend, his aim is to get so placed as to prevent being check mated within a certain number of moves. In the first place, however, the number of pieces actually on the board is deducted from the prescribed number of moves in each case. Thus, if the king has opposed to him a king and two castles—the number of pieces on the board four—is deducted from the prescribed number eight. If the adversary has only a castle, the prescribed number is sixteen. If he has two bishops—it is twenty-two. If with one forty-four.
If with three knights thirty-three.* If with one knight sixty-six. If with a mét, it is a drawn game. If with a queen or mét and two pawns eighty-eight moves; with a queen, bishop, knight and castle, sixteen moves are prescribed.

*Lên Doat resembles the Indian game of puchees. It is played with cowrie shells on a lacquered board thus. Two persons take each a side of the board. There are five cowrie shells for a dice, each of the players has three pieces—each throws in turn, and if No. 1 or No. 5, casts up, the thrower continues to throw and to play until another number turns up. The chief object is to pass through all one’s own squares and those of the opposite party without interruption—taking his men if they can be overtaken by throwing up a corresponding number, and leaping over them if the number cast up exceeds. He whose pieces are thus first returned to the place whence they set out, wins the game. Nos. 6, 15, 17 and 26 in each side are castles, and the piece holding one of these cannot be taken. The pieces which have been taken are entered again by casting the dice—No. 1 enters one—No. 5 the whole which are out, but the intermediate numbers do not enter any.

The *Len của kin ngoa.—The game of “the tigers eating cattle.” In this game there are four tigers and twelve oxen. The board has sixteen squares.

* The pawns on reaching an adversary’s line become pieces of higher value without reference to the number of these which may have been taken from their side.
The tigers are placed at the four corners—an ox is placed on one square, and the nearest tiger moves first. The tigers take by leaping over the heads of the oxen to the open square behind them and not diagonally.

The tigers are taken and put off the board when hemmed in so that they cannot move, or they are taken then by the oxen moving (only then) diagonally. If only two tigers are left on the board the oxen are victors. There is another game called the sleeping tigers and ten oxen—played on a fifteen chequed board. The tigers wait until they can take by leaping over the heads of the oxen one at a time to a blank square—or by getting betwixt three or two, which they take.

Len choa is a game played with six counters placed within and on the lines of a triangle, or as may be agreed on the point, consists in hemming in the adversary's pieces so that he cannot move.

Muk yep is a game played with fourteen counters on sixteen squares—one of the players must take off five counters, so that he shall not leave one on the board in a situation to be taken—for if one is so situated that it can go over the head of another to an empty square the first player loses.

Muk khom is a trough with seven cups on each side. The players have each forty-nine counters distributed equally in the cups, i.e. seven each. Each takes out the contents of his first cup, and counts them out to the right hand to the last number,—setting aside the counter which remains. They then begin with the second number, and, when its contents have been told out, they respectively take out of the cups (amongst which the last told out counter falls) their contents, and proceed to count as before. They may take the whole of the number in any cup, or only part of it. The parties agree that after a certain number has been won by one of them the game shall cease—as it may be immediately lengthened out.

Len Saké is played with counters like Backgammon—the moves being regulated by dice. The box has the same number of marks as the European one, and indeed the game bears such a close resemblance to our Backgammon, that it may be perhaps supposed to have been taught to them by European traders.
The men are not placed in the box at the outset, but are kept in a heap in the chequers of the players, which first are to the left hand of each. The pieces are filled into the respective chequers according to the casts of the dice—and they range to the right when the whole numbers have been filled in. After this they may take up any uncovered counter of the adversary which generally terminates the game. The chief aim is to prevent a piece being uncovered.

_Lên súa kam hoa_ is a game where a number of people sit on the ground with their legs stretched out—and each having one of his feet placed above the other, the hands being also placed above the feet. The opposite party of players have to pass over the limbs of the sitters without discomposing them.

"Hide and seek" is as much a nursery game in Siam as in Europe.

_Lên Saba_ is a favorite game—where a piece of wood or ball is impelled to a certain mark by one foot of the player, who must keep on the other or loose the game. It is played six days in the year at the _Wantroot_ and _Songkhraan_ festivals.

_Marbles_ (or small balls of horn) are played also.

_Lên Katrá_ is the wicker foot ball, which is kept up by a number of persons who stand in a circle. It is a characteristic Chinese and Indo-chinese, and also a Malayan game.

_Lên hưng_ is thus played:

Two parties are formed.

A stone is set up—near which one of the players of one party is stationed. The other party is in advance at a convenient distance. The person at the stone takes a hard _lime_, and throwing it into the air, strikes it with the palm of his hand in the direction of the opposite party. If none of them catch it one of them must go to the place where it lies, and thence throw it at the stone—if he hits it his party gets in, if not the game goes on as before. If the ball is caught the party in goes out.

Or, instead of the stone a hole is dug—and a bit of wood, a few inches in length, is struck of by a stick after having been cast up in the air.
any one of the opposite party catches the bit of wood, his party wins, but if not then one of that party casts it towards the pit—the person stationed there endeavours to stop it, or strike it off. If he does not succeed his party goes out. If he stops seven times, or the opposite party is kept out seven rounds, then the person at the hole strikes off the stick again, and if one of the opposite party catches it, he follows up and strikes it again and again until it is caught—the losing party are then forced to run to the hole and are obliged, according to the rules of the game, to make a nasal noise called ʰaː, as a signal of their being losers. The approximation of this game to that of cricket may seem curious to the antiquary.

_Leu thip ching cha_ is a swing suspended betwixt two trees—and is a common amusement amongst children and even grown up persons.

Women play at several of the games described—particularly at hide and seek—in company with the other sex. The fine still moonlight evenings are preferred for this amusement, which is no doubt productive of matches betwixt the young men and girls.

The girls have likewise some simple games of their own—such as throwing up pebbles and catching them before they fall, having first taken up a certain number in the interval—_Eephang longlǔm_, where a number of pebbles are thrown by one party to a hole and stopped by the other from going into it. They are afterwards to be separately cast into it by the exertion of one finger—the first party losing those not put in.

_Leu Rúa mai lé rù din_—are two games played by rolling, in the first instance, balls of clay down an inclined plane, and in the second by letting a bamboo model of a boat slide down it. He whose ball or boat goes furthest of course wins.

_Maak yèk_ is a game somewhat resembling drafts. It is played with thirty-two men—sixteen of a side—and arranged respectively on their _first_ and _third_ lines. The pieces move in _squares_ in all directions, the number not being limited. The object is to get one or more of the adversaries' pieces betwixt two of the players' ones, which, if there be no intervals between any of the confined and confining pieces, are taken—or if the draft
piece stands with one of the adversaries on each side of him, or with these and others in his rear, he takes the whole. Or the game may be varied according to agreement, or one piece may oppose sixteen. It can be moved in any direction not diagonally, and takes by leaping over one piece at a time if there is a blank square behind.

*Len Thoa* is a game of chance.

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A cross is made with chalk on the floor and numbered at the inner angles 1, 2, 3, 4. There is no restriction to the number of players. The holder of the bank sits opposite No. 4. He has several hundred cowries which represent pieces of money—these he conceals under a cover so that the players may not be able to guess the number.

The latter now stake what sums they please opposite any of the angles—and they may join their chances by depositing one counter each on one of the four lines. The banker being satisfied with the stakes, no more can be deposited. He then counts out by fours the counters in his bank—and whatever odd number remains after this operation indicates the corresponding one in the cross—by which he wins all the stakes deposited in the opposite one. Thus if the odd number, or that which should remain (after telling out) *less than four*, be two, the holder pays all the stakes corresponding with that number, and takes all deposited at No. 4. If the remaining number be three, he pays for its stakes, and wins all in angle No. 1.

The players sit in a circle at a distance from the places where the stakes are deposited—and they push on their stakes with sticks having hoops at their ends—to prevent unfair play.
The gaming farm renter, Nai Bawn Hoa bea, and his head people, distribute the winnings to the parties to prevent fraud.

Thamtat is a game played by any number of persons—but seldom exceeding ten. There is always a holder of the box or a banker. The other players are numbered from one upwards.

They deposit what stakes they please and the banker choses to admit. He then takes out an indefinite quantity of cowrie shells, and counts them out by the number corresponding to that of the players (with exception of himself). When they have been told out, so that either that number only, or an odd number remains, he loses or wins according to the following rules: The holder of the bank, if his remaining number corresponds to that which marks his own position, wins all the other stakes. But he pays, should the number be that of any one of the other players. The winner gives the box.

Len po is the Chinese game of dice, which has been naturalized in Siam. The dice are generally one or two cubes—and each face is divided into two compartments, the one black or red, the other white. They are of ivory. They rest in a chamber in a brass box and another is fitted so as to slide down over it.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{cho-an 2} & \text{£} \text{ The shaker of the box.} \\
\text{tai-beng 1} & \\
\text{tang} & \text{Po} \\
\text{choă} & \text{āă} \\
\text{tai-beng 2} & \\
\text{cho-an 1} & \\
\text{Head Chinese} & \text{li-am} \\
\text{āă} & \text{kak}
\end{array}
\]

The box having been placed in the centre of the cross and all the stakes deposited—the cover is taken off. If the red half of the uppermost face of the dice points to tai beng first, the banker pays that stake—and wins āă and kāk and li-am and cho-ăn and tang, cho-an second and tai beng second. If opposite to āă he takes all the stakes but tang. If
opposite tai beng second and cho-an he pays for them and gets all the rest—and so on.

Eepé, is a game played nearly in the same manner as Thoa.

Eepong, is a game played with a six sided teetotum—marked 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

The stakes are deposited in the allotted compartments.

If the number turned up be 1, the player pays thrice the number of the stakes deposited there, and takes all the rest. If 2, he pays thrice the stakes there and takes all the rest—and so on.

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Len phai Kadaat are Chinese cards on which Chinese characters are printed.

Len pet kaau.—European cards.

Len thät lok bāāt, is a game played with three dice—marked from 1 to 6. It seems also to be a Chinese game. If three turn up alike they are neither in favor or otherwise, but lose the box. The throw 1-2-1 wins—2-2-1 loses—1-2-3 loses the box; the other number of the series wins, 2-2-3, as does any other sequence—or any unequal dice.

2-2-3 wins, as does the rest of the series.

3-4-4 loses, as do the other two of the series.

4-4-5 and 4-4-6 win—4-6-6 loses—4-5-5 and 4-4-3 lose : 4-5-3 neuter—4-3-2 ditto—4-2-1 ditto.

With two dice—aces lose, doublets lose ;—3-3 wins,—4-4 loses,—5-5 wins,—6-6 wins. 1-2, the No. 1 wins—1-3, 1-4, 1-5, 1-6—all neuter, as are other unequal numbers—6-5 win 6-5, and 6 wins.

Len Eethop, or pitch and toss, is played with tin pice, or coins: a hole is made in the ground, the players throw each one pice at first and he who holes the pice has the privilege of throwing the general stakes at once towards the hole and taking as many as go in. If no pice fall into the hole

M 2
in the first instance, the person whose pice lie nearest to it has the before-

stated privilege.

The Len rúa are boat races. The distance to be rowed over is about
two miles. It is chiefly the officers of Government, who indulge in this
amusement. They use paddles; the rowers sing he he rúa, a boat-song.

Len Khweai are buffalo races. The course is about two hundred yards
long, and a straight line at each end is a starting post, and in the centre
a house where the judges of the race sit; two buffaloes start at a time at
the sound of gongs, one from each post, and to the right hand severally.
The aim is for either buffalo to overtake the other before he has gone
twenty times over the course. Two only start at once.

The course is very broad and is separated in the middle by a row of
people. So that it in fact becomes a sort of narrow oblong figure, the com-
passing of which forms one round.

There are no riders, but each owner seizes the rope which, as usual,
is passed through the cartilage of the animal’s nose, and goads him on,
being relieved at short intervals in this operation by persons stationed
betwixt and at the posts. The person whose buffalo overtakes that of the
opposite party must seize the rope it is held by, or he does not win.

The Siamese of Bangkok have no buffalo fights like those exhibited
in the Burman Provinces, in which the owners ride their buffaloes and
urge them on, and where lives are occasionally lost. Large bets are made
at Siamese races.

Len Weeng ngoa Ke-un, are carriage races. These carriages or carts
are of a very light construction but strong.

Two start together, each being dragged by one, or two oxen. The
driver stands in the vehicle, and goads the oxen on by a long stick having
a pike at the end.

They run to the extremity of the course, but do not return.

Len Weeng ngou khon.—The men run races on the same course as the
buffaloes—going twenty times round if neither has overtaken the other.

They also run straight forward to a goal.
Len Plää Kät is a very fanciful kind of amusement—being neither more nor less than a fish fight. The plää kat is a fish which grows to two or three inches in length at the utmost. It is found in shallow rivulets and is sought after with great avidity. The males are selected and kept separately in bottles. Bets are laid and two of these bitter enemies are slipped into a large bottle where they generally fight until one is killed or disabled.

This game is discountenanced by the king as contrary to the principles of the Buddhist religion, which enjoins humanity. But the customs of barbarous nations are often at variance with the creed they most vehemently contend for. The Chinese also keep a species of fish called by them Sampan or ho Sampan for the purpose of fighting them. This fish (the Ikan puyu of Malays) is about a span in length and it fights with much vigor and bitterness. The Chinese lay large bets on the issue of a battle of this kind. The Puyu seems a diminutive species of perch.

Chon nok nok, are fights of various kinds of birds.

Cock-fighting, or Len chon kai, is generally prohibited but is nevertheless practised secretly. They do not arm the bird like the Malays.

The Siamese have borrowed many juggling feats from the Hindoos and Chinese, but they have a great aversion to snakes. So much so that at the sight of one some Siamese will appear affected, as if by hysterics, and consequently they do not introduce them into their exhibitions. The Mons or Peguers, teach snakes to move to the sound of a flute in the manner of the tame snakes of Indian jugglers.

Len chok moei, or boxing matches, are common at all great festivals and entertainments. They are often very bloody, and would frequently end in the death of one or both of the parties, did not the king, or other great man present, stop the battle before it becomes dangerous. They arm their hands with hard cord, which is warped round them. The Hindoos use the same, and also arm their fingers and knuckles with horn or silver knobs. They strike straight forward or in any manner most
likely to tell according to their unscientific practice. They are allowed
to use their knees, feet, and heads in combat.

There are no set number of rounds. The king if present, or if he is
not, some one of his courtiers regulates the barbarous sport, and rewards
the victors. It is not favorable to the formation of a good opinion of
Siamese advancement in civilization, to find at such exhibitions the king,
his family and his household of both sexes, with the courtiers, and the
populace, women and children including. They excuse the inconsistency
of prohibiting fights amongst the brute creation, and exhibiting combats
of men, by the remark that the latter have reason to guide their choice of
actions. Women have been known on occasions of the kind alluded to,
to enter the ring and obtain by a stout battle the applause of the Siamese
fancy. The spectators follow the example of the king in throwing pieces
of money to the successful combatants, i. e. those who have much punished
their opponents.

*Len plam,* or wrestling, is much practised both amongst the Siamese
and Burmans, and it would be difficult to say which nation is most expert
in the exercise.

A pugilist seems to aim chiefly at lifting his adversary and casting
him on the ground—which is sometimes effected with such violence as to
disable him. From what I have seen, I incline to the opinion that the
Burmese are the best wrestlers. They are perhaps on an average more
compactly formed than the Siamese.

*Len tee lo tee* and *tee dang* and *tee kabee,* are different kinds of fencing.
For the first a sword and round shield is used by each combatant. In the
second each has a stick or pole instead of a sword.

In the *tee kabee* each has a sword without a shield.

Bands of music accompany all Siamese games, except wrestling and
boxing.

*Len he somphot mui-ying.*—The procession in which all the people
assemble and pass before the king who looks down from a house—all sorts
of pageants and figures are carried about. Here are exhibited the great mountain mure, ships, mock animals of all kinds, &c.

Kite Flying.

Wuau are paper kites, ranked as male and female. The Siamese are extremely fond of this amusement. The kite is about five or six feet high, and with the cord may, in some instances, cost seventy dollars.

Dances.

Mon ram.—The Peguer dance. This resembles the Indian dance, but is rather more lively, and, like the dancing girls of India, the Siamese ones sing during the exhibition.

Lakhān is a theatrical entertainment to which allusion has before been made. In it various styles of dancing are displayed, from the solemn movement indicative of dignity or grief, to the quick step corresponding to the sentiments prevalent in the piece.

Len Mongklum and phleng Sawan.—“The heavenly concert,” an imitation of the theatricals of the Devatas.

Khōn.—Dancing on the Stage, differs little from that in the Lakhān.

Fire Works.

Such as pyramids of all sorts, rockets, fire balls, fire fountains, &c. are exhibited at festivals. Siamese pyrotechny has apparently been borrowed from the Chinese.

Hūn are dressed puppets of wood, to the movements of which dialogues are appropriated as in our Punch, who came no doubt from the east.

Len Nang

Fantoccini, or puppets of leather, which also have dialogues to accompany their movements.

Ruang Ramake-un.

The events of Rama’s life dramatized. It occupies many days in performance. The Malays have the same drama; but they prefer the
Siamese translation and Siamese actors; the Malays of Kedder and Penang are here alluded to.

**Smoking.**

People of all ranks and ages in Siam smoke tobacco: it is made into segars. Even amongst the great, the Indian hookah has not been yet introduced, although pipes are frequent.

The segar is presented along with the betul mixture to a stranger on his entering a house. Tea accompanies it in some houses; if the visitor has come from a distance he is presented with food immediately, or is invited to stay to dinner.

**Medicine.**

There are two houses appertaining to the Royal establishment in which medicines are kept. At one of these the poor may be supplied with such as they require.

The King’s physician occasionally administers to those who solicit his aid. There are women who possess to be actuated on occasions by a spirit, and who are consulted by those labouring under diseases.

**Field Sports.**

Siamese Princes do not follow the chase—or shoot animals, because the religion they profess makes such practices sinful. Their subjects however indulge in field sports. They catch elephants and other animals, laying snares, nets and traps for them; they shoot elephants, wild cattle, rhinosceroses, deer, bears and hogs, for their teeth and skins chiefly, but for food also in the cases of the cattle, deer and hog.—They also train dogs to run down deer and to seek tortoises, which last they discover to their masters by barking. They pretend also that their alligator killers will dive under water, get on the back of one and finally kill him or bring him on shore! Several persons, Malays and Siamese, have positively averred to me that they saw a feat of this nature performed! So that the feat in America on a Kayman* must be ranked as second

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* Vide Waterton's Wanderings.
rate only! But the Siamese have an advantage which was not enjoyed in the latter instance, the potency of charms which ghosts even cannot withstand! Thus does superstition deceive both the senses and the perceptive faculties of the mind.

There are also games called Ki Lephrop, where persons display their bravery and agility by entering a circus, where an enraged elephant with its keeper on its back is confined, and by avoiding him after having provoked him. In the middle of the space is a strong bamboo mat stretched out and lying on strong posts connected by cross beams. The mat is about the height of the elephant's forehead, so that when the combatant or rather exhibitor, as he only carries a fan in his hand, has provoked the animal and is pursued, he runs below this canopy while the elephant rushes and strikes his head against the beams—his eyes being above the mat and his tusks below, so that the man escapes. Amongst the amusements of this pleasure-loving people, may those convivial parties be reckoned, made for the express purpose of cementing eternal friendship betwixt those who assemble at them, and where the parties pledge each other in deep draughts of lau or arrack, over a drawn weapon inserted in a bowl of that beverage and in which each also inserts a finger. It partakes not of the nature of a secret association, but is a public and noisy assembly. Equals only can well engage in such a party with any hope that the mutual pledge of support will be fulfilled, and even then as it is not until the cup has well circulated that professions of brotherly love and of mutual aid are made; their oaths must be liable to evaporate in the process of sobering.

**Literary Amusements.**

The Siamese challenge each other to trials of improvisatorial skill—such are questions and replies in verse—and discussions on Bali learning. Some one also of a party repeats the name of an animal, tree, or any substance, and the person who accepts the challenge must give the name of one of the same genus, having a like termination—and the trial is kept up
until one of the competitors fails to produce a name which shall chime with his adversary's.

Riddles are also proposed and a failure to expound them incurs forfeits of a fanciful kind. Both men and women engage in this amusement and the forfeits are adapted to each sex, much in the manner that we find them in the British game of a similar nature.

*Penang, 1829.*

*Revised, January 1836.*
XI.

ANALYSIS

OF THE

SHER-CHIN—P'HAL-CH'HEN—DKON-SÉKS—DO-DÉ—
NYÁNG-DÁS—and GYUT;

BEING THE 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th DIVISIONS OF THE
TIBETAN WORK, ENTITLED THE KAH-GYUR.

BY MR. ALEXANDER CSOMA KÖRÖSI.
SICULO-HUNGARIAN OF TRANSYLVANIA.

II. (SHER-CHIN.)

According to the Index, the second great Division of the Bkah-hgyur, is that of the (1) "Shés-rab-kyi-p'ha-rol-tu-p'hyin-pa," (by contraction, Shép'hyin, pronounced Sher-ch'hin,) Sans. Prajñā páramitā. Eng. "Transcendental Wisdom." Under this title there are in the Bkah-hgyur, 21 volumes, classed under the following subdivisions or distinctions:

1. (2) Shés-rab-kyi-p'ha-rol-tu-p'hyin-pa-stong-p'hrag-brgya-pa (or hbum). Sans. Shata sahasrikā prajñā páramitā. Eng. "Transcendental Wisdom, in one hundred thousand sūkas." In 12 volumes, in which are counted 75 chapters (léhu, in Tib.) 303 artificial divisions (bam-po, in Tibetan, each containing 300 sūkas in verse, or an equivalent in prose, and occupying in

1 སྤེན་རབ་ཀྱི་ཕུལ་རོལ་ཏུ་ཕྱིན་པ།, or སེ་རབ་ཀྱི་ཕྱིན་
2 སྤེན་རབ་ཀྱི་ཕྱིན་པ་སྡོད་པ་དྲ་སྡེ་, or སྡོད་པ་དྲ་སྡེ
general 21 leaves in the *Bkah-hgyur*), and one hundred thousand slókas—the whole is in prose. In these 12 volumes the *Prajñā pāramitā* is treated at large, and the other sub-divisions are only abridgments of these 12 volumes. These were first translated from Sanscrit into Tibetan in the ninth century, by the Indian Pandits, Jīna Mītra and Surendra Bodhi, and the Tibetan Lotsāwa (Sans. *Lochen-haca,*) Ye’she’s-sde’. They were afterwards again review and arranged by others.

2. *(3)* Shēs-rab-kyi-p’ha-rol-tu-p’hyin-pa-stong-p’hrag-nyi-shu-lna-pa, (or in round numbers, “Nyid-khri,” 20,000.) Sans. Pancha vinshati sahasrikā prajñā pāramitā, “Transcendental Wisdom, in 25,000 slókas.” In three volumes. There are counted 76 chapters, 78 bam-pos, and 25,000 slókas. This is an abridgment of the before-described 12 volumes. No translators are mentioned.

3. *(4)* Shēs-rab-kyi-p’ha-rol-tu-p’hyin-pa-k’hri-brgyad-stong-pa. Sans. Ashta dasa sahasrikā prajñā pāramitā. Eng. “Transcendental Wisdom, in 18,000 slókas.” In three volumes, containing 87 chapters (*léhu*), 50 small divisions (*bam-po*), and 18,000 slókas. These three volumes are a more close abridgment of the above specified 12 volumes. No translators are mentioned.

4. *(5)* Shēs-rab-kyi-p’ha-rol-tu-p’hyin-pa-k’hri-pa, (or by contraction “Shēs-khri,”) Sans. Dasa sahasrikā prajñā pāramitā. One volume of 613 leaves, containing 33 chapters, and 34 bam-pos, or small divisions. This volume is an abridgment of the *Yum-hbring*, or of the above specified three volumes of 25,000 slókas, translated by Jīna Mītra, Prajnya Varma, and the Tibetan Lotsāwa, Bande Ye-shes.

leaves, 24 bam-pos, and 32 léhus. This volume likewise contains an abridgment of the several dharmas contained in the above enumerated volumes. This was delivered by Bchom-l丹ñdas (Shakyā) likewise, as the above enumerated divisions, when he was on the mountain, called in Tibetan, the “Byargod-p’hung-pohl-ri,” (7) in Sans. Gridhra kula parvata, near Rājagriha in Magadha. This is a favourite volume of the Tibetans, who shew particular reverence to it; hence both the manuscript and printed examplars of it are in very great number to be found.

6. One volume is entitled, (8) “Sna-ts’has,” Miscellaneous (Works) or all sorts of aphorisms of the Prajñā páramitā. There are in this volume 18 different treatises or aphorisms, of which the titles are as follow:

i. (9) Rab-rtsal-gyis-tnam-par-gnon-pas-zhus-pa. Sans. Suvikrānta vikrami pariprichch’ha (prajñā páramitā). Instruction in the Prajñā páramitā (by Bchom-lDanñdas) on the request of Suvikrānta Vikramā (a Bodhisatwa) from leaf 1 to 130. This and the following aphorisms also all belong to the Prajñā páramitā, and contain either abridged repetitions, explanations of some terms, or recommendations for keeping and reading the Prajñā páramitā.

ii. (10) Bdun-brgya-pa. Sans. Saptashatikā. The Prajñā páramitā in 700 slókas (Note, for brevity’s sake, Shés-rab-kyi-p’ha-ro-l-tu-p’hyin-pa (or Sher-p’hyin) and Prajñā páramitā, are frequently omitted in the titles.


v. (13) Rdo-rjé-gchod-pa. Sans. Vajrachēk’hedikā, the diamond cutter (or a sūtra of wonderful effects). This aphorism is contained in 18 leaves, from leaf 222 to 240. In this, Bchom-lDanñdas (Shakyā) in a colloquial
manner instructs “Rab-hbyor” (Sansk. Subhūti) one of his principal disciples in the true meaning of the Prajñā pāramitā. The Tibetans pay especially great respect to this sūtra, hence the copies of it are to be found in great abundance.

vi. (14) Tshul-brgya-lna-bchu-pa, 150 rules or ways.

Sansk. Prajñā pāramitā nāma ashtā shatakā, the 108 names or terms of the Prajñā pāramitā.

Sansk. Bhagavati prajñā pāramitā ardhā shatakā, the Prajñā pāramitā in 50 slokas.

Sansk. Bhagavati prajñā pāramitā sarva tathāgata eka akshara. “Transcendental Wisdom, comprehended in the letter A, the mother of all Tathāgatas or Buddhas.” The letter “A” is considered in Buddhistic works as the mother of all Wisdom; and therefore, all men of genius, all Bodhisatwas and Buddhas, are said to have been produced by “A,” since this is the first element for forming syllables, words, sentences, and a whole discourse; and the means for acquiring knowledge and wisdom. Here the whole Prajñā pāramitā is comprehended in the letter “A.” This is the most abridged sūtra of the Transcendental Wisdom, since this consists only of a single letter. This is to be seen on the 256th leaf of this volume.

x. (18) Kohushika. Sans. Kaushika, a name of Indra. In this sūtra Shākya instructs him in the Prajñā pāramitā, hence the title of this sūtra.

xii. (20) Shër-p’hyin-sgo-nyi-shu-rtsa-lṭa-pa. Sans. Pancha-vinshati prajnā pāramitā muk’ha, the 25 doors or beginnings of the “Transcendental Wisdom,” (there are so many viṣṇa mantras.)


xviii. (26) Shër-p’hyin-rdo-rje-rgyal-mtshan. Sans. Prajñā pāramitā vajra kētu. These five last aphorisms, or sūtras, are so called from the names of those Bodhisatwaes who are introduced speaking with Shākya on the Prajñā pāramitā.

Contents of the whole Prajñā pāramitā.

All the 21 volumes of the Shër-p’hyin treat of speculative or theoretical philosophy, i.e. they contain the psychological, logical, and metaphysical terminology of the Buddhists, without entering into the discussion of any particular subject. There are counted one hundred and eight such subjects, (dharmas) terms, or phrases, with several subdivisions or distinctions; of which, if any predicate be added to them, affirmative or negative judgments may be formed. These terms have mostly been introduced into the Sanscrit and Tibetan Dictionary also, that was prepared by ancient Indian Pandits and Tibetan interpreters, and which may be found in the Bstan-hgyur (Mdo class, Go volume).
Here follow some instances of the terms or subjects of the Prajña parámitá; as,


2. (33) Skyé-mch’hed-drug, the six senses; as, those of sight, hearing, small, taste, touch, and the moral sense.


4. (35) Khams-beho-brgyad, the 18 regions or kingdoms of senses, as with respect to the operations of the mind by the six organs directed to the six objects of senses.

5. (36) Khams-drug-ni; the six elements are earth, water, fire, air, ether (or void space), spirit (or intellect). In Tibetan, sa, ch’hu, me, rlung, nam-mk’han, rnam-par-shes-pa.

ANALYSIS OF THE SHER-CHIN.

1. Acidya, 2. sanskara, 3. vijnana, 4. namarupa, 5. shadayatana, 6. sparsha, 7. vedana, 8. ris'hna, 9. apadana, 10. bhava, 11. jati, 12. jaramarani. Every thing, but especially the human soul, depends for its existence on this causal concatenation. There are several commentaries on this subject in the Bstan-hgyur.

7. (59) Pha-rol-tu-p'hyin-pa-drug-ni. The six Transcendental Things (or cardinal Virtues) are, 1. charity, 2. morality, 3. patience, 4. industry, or earnest application, 5. meditation, 6. ingenuity or wisdom. In Tibetan, 1. (51) sbyin-pa, 2. (52) ts'ul-kh'riims, 3. (53) bzo'd-pa, 4. (54) brtson-hgrus, 5. (55) bsam-gtan, 6. (56) shes-rab. In Sanscrit, 1. dana, 2. shila, 3. kshanti, 4. virya, 5. dhyana, 6. prajna. To the above enumerated, sometimes four others are added; as, 1. method or manner, 2. wish or prayer, 3. fortitude, and 4. fore-knowledge or knowledge. In Tibetan, 1. (57) t'habs, 2. (58) smon-lam, 3. (59) stobs, 4. (60) yeshes. Sanscrit, upaya, pranidhana, balas, and dhyana.


Such are the contents of the Prajna paramitā.—There is no historical matter. All is speculation, with a profusion of abstract terms and definitions. The knowledge of these is necessary for the understanding of the Buddhistic system, especially of the Madhyamikā philosophy. But I am unable to give here any further outline of the Prajna paramitā, except the enumeration of such abstract terms, as above. As this would be tedious to the reader, and of little interest in the way of information, I beg leave to waive further illustration.

All the doctrine contained in these 21 volumes is attributed to Bhomdanhdas (Shākya). He delivered his instruction on the Prajna paramitā (as is stated by Tibetan writers, 16 years after having become Buddha, or in his fifty-first year) when he was on the mountain (near Rājagriha, in Magadha).
called in Tibetan, the “bya-rgod-p’hung-pohi-ri” (Sans. Gridhra kuta parvata
the “hill of a heap of vultures”). His hearers were beside, many Bodhisat-
was (among whom Byams-pa, Sans. Maitreya) and gods (among whom
Kaushika or Indra) his own disciples about 5,000 priests (among whom the
principal were Sharipu, of Sharadvatihibu, Rab-hbyor, Hod-srung,
and Kun-dgho-vo). The speaker in general is Bchom-rdanddas (Shakyā)
who addresses first Sharadvatihibu and afterwards Rab-hbyor, his dis-
ciples. They put a question several times to Shakyā; he gives them no
direct answer, but forms such propositions that they are themselves led to the
decision. It is in general, Rab-hbyor (Sans. Subhuti) with whom Shakyā
speaks in all these volumes.

The first compiler of the Prājnā pāramitā was Kashyapa (Tib.
Hod-srung) whom Shakyā appointed to succeed him after his demise.

In the Bstan-hgyur, the 16 first volumes of the Mdo class are all com-
mentaries on the Prājnā pāramitā. Afterwards follow several volumes ex-
planatory of the Madhyānikā philosophy, which is founded on the Prājnā
pāramitā. The Prājnā pāramitā is said to have been taught by Shakyā,
and the Madhyānikā system by Nagarjuna (Klu-sgrub, in Tib.) who is
said to have lived four hundred years after the death of Shakyā, who had
foretold of him that he would be born after so many years, to explain his
higher principles laid down in the Prājnā pāramitā. With Nagarjuna or-
ginated the Madhyānikā system in philosophy. The philosophers in India,
before his time, were in two extremes.; teaching either a perpetual duration,
or a total annihilation, with respect to the soul. He chose a middle way,
therefore the name of this philosophical sect. There are in the Bstan-hgyur,
several works of him, as also of his successors, explanatory of the Madhyānikā
school. Beside other matters of speculation, the following 27 subjects are to
be discussed and analyzed in the Madhyānikā system: 1. efficient (accessory
or secondary) cause, (Tib. rkyen), 2. the coming (into the world) and going
away (hong-va-dang-hgro-va), 3. organs (of sense) (dvung-po), 4. aggregate
or body (p'hung-po), 5. province or region (viz. of senses) (k'ham-s), 6. passion and affection (hdod-ch'i'ags), 7. the state of coming forth, duration, and cessation (skyé-va, gnas-pa, dang hgag-pa), 8. the maker or doer, and the work or deed (byéd-pa-po-dang-las), 9. former existence (sña-rol-na-gnas-pa), 10. fire and the burning wood (mé-dang-bud-shing), 11. anterior and posterior limits (of worldly existence), Tib. sñon-dang-p'hyi-mahi-m'hah, 12. done by one's self and done by another, (bdag-gis-byas-pa-dang-gzhan-gyis-byas-pa), 13. composition, or the forming of notions (hdu-byéd), 14. the act of meeting (hp'hrad-pa), 15. self-existence or nature, (rang-bzhin), 16. tied and liberated (behings-pa-dang-t'har-pa), 17. work and fruit (las-dang-hbras-bu), 18. I or Ego, (bdag), 19. time (dus), 20. union, (of cause and efficient causes), Tib. ts'hogs-pa (rgyu-dang-bkyé'n), 21. origin or beginning, and destruction, (hbyung-va-dang-hyig-pa), 22. Tathágata or Buddha (Dé-bzhin-gshégs-pa), 23. wrong, error, or falsehood, (p'hyin-ch'i-log), 24. excellent truth (hp'hags-pahi-bdén-pa), 25. deliverance, or delivered from pain (myá-nan-las-hdas-pa), 26. dependent connexion, or causal concatenation, (rtén-bbré'l), 27. critique of theories (lta-ca-brtag-pa). These are the principal topics of the Madhyamiká philosophy. I have thought proper to enumerate them here, because they are similar to the subjects of the Prajñá páramitá.

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III. (PHAL-CH'HEN.)

The third division of the Káh-gyur is styled, in Tibetan, (62) "Sangs-rgyas-p'hal-po-ch'he," or by contraction, "P'hal-ch'hen." Sanscrit, "Buddha-vatán Sangha," (or as here is, Buddha avatáng saka), association of Buddhas (or of those grown wise). This is called a sútra of great extent. In Sanscrit, "Mahávaipulya Sútra:" in Tibetan, (63) "Shin-tu-rgyas-pa-ch'hen-pohi-mdo." This is contained in six volumes, marked with the six first letters of the Tibetan alphabet. The number of the leaves in each is as follows: 1. (64) 384;
2. (65) 385; 3. (66) 391; 4. (67) 375; 5. (68) 397; 6. (69) 340. This sūtra also is attributed or referred to Shākya, although the speakers generally are some Bodhisatwas, or other saints of great perfection.

The subject of the whole is moral doctrine, and metaphysics. There are descriptions of several Tathāgatas or Buddhas, their provinces, their great qualifications, their former performances for promoting the welfare of all animal beings, their praises, and several legends. Enumeration of several Bodhisatwas; the several degrees of their perfections; their practices or manners of life; their wishes, prayers, and efforts for making happy all animal beings. Shākya appears, in a miraculous manner, on the top of the "Ri-rab," (Sans. Mēru) the fabulous mountain, as also, at another time, in Galdan, (Tib. "Dgah-ladan," the joyful place, or the paradise of the gods. Sanscrit. "Tushitā." At this last mentioned place assemble likewise several Bodhisatwas, coming from different regions of the world, to make their salutation to Bchom-ladan-ndas (Shākya), and in his presence, by his blessing or miraculous influence, each of them successively utters several verses expressive of his opinion with respect to the soul and the Supreme Being. Such is the tenor of the contents of the "Phal-ch'hen," in general. The titles of the chapters have not been expressed in Sanscrit; they are in Tibetan (written in Roman characters, and explained in English) as follow:

1. (70) Hjig-xten-gyi-dvang-po-chams-chad-kyi-rgyan-gyi-ts'hol. The manner of proceeding of Buddha, the ornament of all the rulers of the world.

2. (71) Dê-bzhin-gshēgs-pa. Tathāgata or Buddha.

3. (72) Kun-tu-bzang-pohi-ting-gê-hdsin-dang-nam-par-bhrul-pa. The deep meditation (or ecstasy) of Kuntu-bzang-po (a Bodhisatwa and Buddha) and his miraculous change or turn.


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65. 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73
ANALYSIS OF THE PHAL-CH’HEN.

5. (74) Gzhi-dang-snying-po-mé-tog-gi-rgyan-gyis-brgyan-pahi-yon-tan. The qualities of the ground, and essence of that (before mentioned) region.

6. (75) Hjig-rten-gyi-k’hams-rgya-mts’ho-hi-k’hor-yug-gi-rgyan-rgya-mts’ho- bstan-pa. Description of the Sea, the ornament of the wall of the world’s region, called “rgya-mts’ho,” or ocean.

7. (76) Sa-gshihi-rgyan-bstan-pa (of ditto). Description of the Earth’s ornaments (of ditto).

8. (77) Gzhing-gi-rgyud-bstan-pa. Description of the origin or nature of that province.

9. (78) Hjig-rten-gyi-rgyud-dgod-pa. Description of the series of the several regions of the world (as the provinces of several Buddhas).


12. (81) Sangs-rgyas-hyi-mts’han-shin-tu-bstan-pa. Enumeration of several attributes (or names) of Buddha.


15. (84) Bzang-ch’hub-séms-dpa-dris-pa-snang-va. Illustration made on the request of Bodisattha.

16. (85) Spyod-yul-yongs-su-dag-pa. The very pure conduct of life, or manner of living.

17. (86) Bzang-pohi-dpal. The prosperity (or glory) of the good.
18. (97) Dé-bzhin-gshégs-pa-ri-rab-kyi-rtse-mor-gshégs-pa. The going of Tathágata (Shákyá) to the top of the Ri-rab (Sans. Méru).


22. (91) Séms-dang-po-bskyé-pahi-bsod-nams-ston-pa. The shewing of the happiness of having formed the mind to live a perfect life.


24. (93) Mts'é-mahi-gnas. 'Tsé-ma, (name of a region or heaven of the gods.


27. (96) Gter-mi-zad-pa-bchu-bstan-pa. Instruction on the ten never deficient (or inexhaustible) treasures (or virtues).


31. (100) Sa-bchupa. The ten Bhumis (provinces or degrees of perfection of the Bodhisatwas).

32. (101) Kun-tu-bzang-pohi-spyod-pa-bstan-pa. The shewing of the conduct of life of Samanta Bhadra (a Bodhisatwa of the first rank) or the best conduct.

33. (102) Ting-ge-hdusin-bchu. The deep meditations, (or ecstacies).

34. (103) Maon-shês. Special knowledge.

35. (101) Bzod-pa. Patience.

36. (106) Grangs-la-hjug-pa. The manner of expressing (great) numbers.

37. (106) Ts'hé-ts'had. The measure of life.

38. (107) Byang-sêms-kyi-gnas. The abode of a Bodhisatwa.

39. (108) Sangs-rgyas-kyi-ch'os-beam-mi-k'hyab-pa-bstan-pa. A shewing that the virtues of Buddha are inconceivable by the mind.

40. (109) Sangs-rgyas-kyi-mtshan-rgya-mtsho-bstan-pa. Explication of the term Ocean, one of the epithets or names of Buddha.

41. (110) Dpé-byad-kyi-hod-zér. The shining beams of the points of beauty (on the body of a Buddha).

42. (111) Dé-bzhin-gshêgs-pa-skyé-va-dang-hbyung-va. The birth and appearance of a Tathágata, or Buddha.

43. (112) Hjig-rten-las-hdas-pa. His departure from the world (or deliverance from pain, or death.)
44. (113) Sdong-pos-brgyan-pa. (The place) adorned with planted trees, (the name of a treatise on moral subjects.)

45. (114) Bzung-po-spyod-pahi-smonlam. The prayer of the well-doer, or a wish for doing good.

Such are the contents of the six volumes, as specified in these 45 chapters. There is another artificial division of the six volumes into 115 sections (bampo, in Tibetan) but they give no contents. These six volumes were translated, in the 9th century, by the Indian Pandit, Surendra Bodhi, and the Tibetan Lotsawa, Bairotsana Rakshita.

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IV. KON-TSE'GS.

The fourth great Division of the Káh-gyur is called, (115) "Dkon-mch'hog-brtségs-pa," or by contraction, "Dkon-brtségs," (pronounced "Kontségs"). In Sanscrit, "Ratna-kuta," the Jewel-peak, or precious things heaped up (or enumeration of several qualities and perfections of Buddha, and his instructions). The subject, as in the former division, still consists of morals and metaphysics, mixed with many legends and collections of the tenets of the Buddhistic doctrine. Some treatises are in the form of a dialogue between Šha'kya and his disciples; but besides Šha'kya, there are introduced several other speakers. The style, as in the former division also, is prose and verse. There are six volumes of this class, distinguished by the first six letters of the Tibetan Alphabet, which, with the number of the leaves in each of them, may be expressed or stated here, thus,—

1. (116) 448; 2. (117) 402; 3. (118) 477; 4. (119) 478; 5. (120) 473; 6. (121) 489.

There are several separate works, or small treatises, in this collection, which are in general attributed to Šha'kya; and as is stated in the begin-
ning of the first volume of this class, were delivered by him to his hearers on a mountain near Rājagriha, in Magadha, called in Tib. the “Bya-rgod-p’hung-pohi-ri;” in Sanscrit, “Grihea-kuta-parvata.” They were translated, in the 9th century, by several Indian Pandits and Tibetan interpreters (Lōtawas). The Indian Pandits were, Jīna Mitra, Surendra Bodhi, Dānashila, Muni’varma, Shilendra Bodhi, Prajnāvarma, Karmavarma, and Kamala Shila. The Tibetan Lōtawas were, Bairotsana (or as he is called otherwise, Ye’she’s-sde’) and Dpal-brtsegs.

The heads or titles of the several works in these six volumes, in Tibetan and Sanscrit, written in Roman character, are as follow:

**Kā, or first volume.**


[Note. To make short the titles in the beginning, the words “A’rya” and “Hp’ags-pa,” meaning “the venerable,” as also, at the end, “Nāma mahā yāna sūtra,” “zhēs (or shēs) bya-va-thég-pach’henpohi-mdo,” will be omitted, and only that will be mentioned which necessarily belongs to the titles.]


**KHA, OR SECOND VOLUME.**


**GA, OR THE THIRD VOLUME.**

NGA, OR THE FOURTH VOLUME.


15. (136) Tib. Yul-hkhor-skyong-gis-zhus-pa. Sans. Ras'htra pālēna paripriyach'ha. That asked by, or on the request of Raśhtrapāla (a demon.)

CHA, OR THE FIFTH VOLUME.


19. (140) Tib. Byams-pahi-sengéhi sgra-ch'h'en-po. Sans. Maitreyya mahā sinha nādana. The great lion-sound (or voice) of Maitreya (the saint who is the first that will appear hereafter, and become a Buddha.)


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133 རུས་སི་ ཞེན་ིགས་ ཞེས་ིགས་ ཐོབ་ དཔའ་ རོ་ རུས་ སི་ 134 ནུ་ང་ རུས་ ཟིན་
135 ཞེས་སི་ ཞེ་ མོ་ རུས་ ཟིན་ 136 སི་ ཞེ་ མོ་ ཟིན་ 137 མ་ རུ་ ཟིན་ ཟིན་
138 སི་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞི་ སྟེང་ 139 ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞི་ ཞེས་ 140 སི་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེས་
141 སི་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེས་ 142 སི་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེ་ ཞེས་
the Hdul-va (taught by Shākyā) on the request of Upa’li, (the supposed compiler of the Dulva class.


23. (144) Tib. Dés-pas-zhus-pa. Sans. Surata pariprīchch’ha. That asked by (or on the request of) a chief or brave man, or of Surata.


Chi'ha, or the Sixth Volume.


37. (158) Tib. Byams-zhus-ch'hos-brgyad. Sans. Maitreya paripriclek'ha dharma as'hta. Eight dharmas asked by Maitreya (or taught at his request by Shákya.)


ANALYSIS OF THE MDO.


44. (165) Tib. Drang-srong-rgyas-pas-zhus-pa. Sans. Vyāsa pariprīchch’ha. Asked by Vyāsa, the Rishi. He is instructed here, by Bhom-ladan-hdās, on the nature, and the several kinds, of charity or almsgiving (Sans. Dāna.)

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V. (MDO.)

The fifth great section of the Kāh-gyur is denominated "Mdo-sdē," (Sans. Sūtrāṅga) or simply Mdo (Sans. Sūtra) signifying a treatise or aphorism on any subject. In a general sense, when the whole Kāh-gyur is divided into two parts—Mdo and Rgyud, all the other divisions, except the Rgyud, are comprehended in the Mdo class. But in a particular sense, there are some treatises which have been arranged or put under this title. They amount to about 270, and are contained in thirty volumes, marked by the 30 letters of the Tibetan Alphabet. The subject of the works contained in these 30 volumes, is various. They are, in general, attributed to Shākya, and were compiled first, immediately after the death of that sage, by A’NANDA (in Tibetan, KUN-ngah-vo) one of his principal disciples, his cousin, and his particular attendant. The greatest part of them consist of the moral and metaphysical doctrine of the Buddhistic system; the legendary accounts

162 लक्ष्मणशिक्षारोजिकानं मुक्त महि’म् 163 श्रीकाधिकशिरसंगीतं तुम्हसं 164 बुद्धमद्यक 165 एक्रणीशिक्षानं तुम्हसं 1 अर्जुङ् ओर अर्जुङ्
of several individuals, with allusions to the sixty or sixty-four arts, to medicine, astronomy, and astrology. There are many stories to exemplify the consequences of actions in former transmigrations; descriptions of orthodox and heterodox theories; moral and civil laws; the six kinds of animal beings; the places of their habitations, and the causes of their being born there; cosmogony and cosmography, according to the Buddhistic notions; the provinces of several Buddhas; exemplary conduct of life of any Bodhisatwa or saint; and, in general, all the 12 kinds of the Buddhistic scriptures are to be found here. There are, likewise, many treatises that were delivered on the special request of some real or fictitious individuals. This is the general mode employed for illustrating and confirming any established dogma, customs, or manners, among the Buddhists.

The contents, in the order of the 30 volumes, are as follow:

**Ka, or First Volume.**

This has for its title "Bskal-bzang," the good or happy age; or, more fully, in Tib. (2) Hp'haps-pa-bskal-pa-bzang-po-pa-zhes-bya-va-t'hég-pa-ch'hén-pohi-mdo." In Sans. "A'rya bhadra kalpika náma mahá yána sûtra." "The very venerable sûtra, entitled, 'of the excellent happy age.'" There are two images on the first page, representing Sha'kya and Maitreya. The salutation is thus—"Reverence to all Buddhas and Bodhisatwas" (in Tib. Sngs-rgyas-dang-byang-ch'i-hub-sêms-dpah-chams-chad-la-p'hyag-hs'kal-lo.)

This sûtra was delivered by Bchom-ldan-hdas (Shâkya) in a place called in Tibetan, "Ts'hal-ch'hén-po," "the great grove," on his way from Shravästi (Mnyan-yod, in Tibetan) to Vaisháli ("Yangs-pa-chan" in Tibetan, or the modern Allahabad,) on the request of a Bodhisatwa (called in Tibetan, Müh'hog-du-dgah-vaHi-rgyal-po). His hearers were immense numbers of religious and secular persons of both sexes, Bodhisatwas, and several classes of gods and demons.

\[\text{2 महाकर्म स धर्म अधर्म महान्यप्रेरणा शेषम् देशम् शेषम् शेषन्ति मनः}\]

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The subject, after some dogmatical and moral instructions on the perfections and proceedings of Buddha or Jina, given by Sha'kyā (from leaf 4 to 150) at the request of the above mentioned Bodhisatwa, first in prose and afterwards repeated again in verse, is the enumeration of one thousand Buddhas:—four of these have appeared hitherto, and the rest are to come hereafter, commencing with Maitreya. The list of these Tathāgutas commences with Kakutsanda (Hkhor-va-hjig, in Tibetan) and specifies fifteen articles of each of them in the following manner:

1. His name, 2. place of his nativity, 3. his tribe or race, 4. the extent or sphere of his shining beams, 5. his father, 6. his mother, 7. his son, 8. his attendant, 9. he that is most sagacious among his disciples, 10. he that is most skilful among his disciples in performing miracles, or displaying prodigies, 11. the number of his once assembled disciples, 12. the measure or extent of life in that age, 13. the duration of his religious institution, 14. his relics, 15. the fane or shrine (Sans. chaitya, Tibetan, mch'od-ten) built for those relics.

As the whole subject is imaginary or fanciful, it is unnecessary to give the whole in translation. It will be sufficient to state the five first names, with their fifteen attributes, or from Kakutsanda to Maitreya. These statements, in Tibetan, are given in the form of answers to the above fifteen articles put interrogatively. They are as follows:

First, from Kakutsanda—1. Hkhor-va-hjig, 2. rgyal-pohi-p'ho-brang-grong-k'hyer-bzang-po, 3. shákya-pa (of the Shákya race), 4. dpag-ts'had-gechig (4000 fathoms), 5. mch'od-spyin, 6. ts'hangs-rgyal, 7. bla-ma, 8. blo-rdso-gs, 9. dgé-slong-mk'has-pa, 10. bsnyén-pa, 11. 40,000, 12. 40,000 years, 13. 80,000 years, 14. in one globular mass, 15. deposited in one mch'od-ten, or chaitya.

Secondly, of Kanakamuni, thus—1. Gsér-t'hub, 2. grong-k'hyer-lña-pa, 3. bráhman, 4. dpag-ts'had-p'hyéd (2,000 fathoms), 5. més-byin, 6. bla-ma, 7. rnam-par-rgyal-va'i-sdé, 8. bkra-shis-ldan, 9. mch'og-ma, 10. rgyal,
ANALYSIS OF THE MDO.

11. 70,000, 12. 30,000 years, 13. 1,000 years, 14. in one globular mass, 15. deposited in one chaitya.

Thirdly, of Ka'syapa—1. Hod-srung, 2. ts'hétana, 3. bráhman, 4. 500 fathoms, 5. ts'hangs-byin (Sans. Brahmadatta), 6. nor-bdag-ma, 7. déd-dpon, 8. kun-gyi-bshés-gnyën, 9. bharadvaja, 10. skar-rgyal, 11. 20,000, 12. 20,000 years, 13. 70,000 years, 14. in one globular mass, 15. in one chaitya, or mekhod-rten.

Fourthly, of Shá'kya—1. Shá'kya-thub-pa, 2. ser-skyahi-gnas (Sans. capula), 3. rgyal-rigs, (Kshatriya, a descendant of Gotama), 4. one fathom, or two yards, 5. zas-gtsang-ma, 6. sgyu-hp'hrul, 7. sgra-gchan-hdsin, 8. kun-dgah-vo, 9. nyé-rgyal, 10. pang-nas-skyés, 11. 1,250, 12. 100 years, 13. 500 years, 14. in great abundance, 15. (deposited in several chaityas; but this point is not stated in the original.)

Fifthly, of Maitreya.—1. Byams-pa (chám-bá), 2. rgyal-pohi-p'ho-brang-grong-k'hyer-tog-gi-blo-gros, 3. bráhman, 4. 4,000 fathoms, 5. ts'hangs-bzang, 6. ts'hangs-bdag-ma, 7. bsod-nams-stobs, 8. rgya-mts'ho, 9. ye-shés-hod, 10. brtson-hgrus, 11. 960,000,000, 12. 84,000 years, 13. 80,000 years, 14. in one globular mass, 15. deposited in one chaitya.

The enumeration of such fancied Tathágatas, and the specification of the above exhibited attributes, occupy about three hundred leaves in this volume. From leaf 150 to 158, only the names of the Tathágatas are enumerated, and afterwards, from leaf 159 to 459, their names and the other points. Their names are, in general, significant words, and denote some virtue, or good quality, or some beautiful, agreeable, grand, precious, &c. object of nature.

The names of some other Tathágatas, after Maitreya (in Tibetan, with an English explication) are, as follows—6. Seng-ge', the lion, 7. Rab-gsal, the very clear or pure, 8. Thub-pa, the mighty, 9. Me'-tog, the flower, 10 Me'-tog-gnyis-pa, flower the second, 11. Spyan-le'gs, the beautiful eye, 12 De'd-dpon, chief leader, 13. Lag-ch'he'n, the great handed, 14 Stobs-ch'he'n, great strength, 15. Gyu-skar-royal-po, the prince.

From leaf 459 to the end of the volume, Sha’kyā repeats again, at the request of the above mentioned Bodhisatva, when those Tathāgatas first formed their minds for arriving at the supreme wisdom, or of becoming Bodhisatvas, and what they offered to those Tathāgatas before whom, at different times, they made their vows, and prayed that they might obtain, in consequence of their moral merits, final emancipation, or arrive at perfection.

This volume contains 547 leaves, and 26 bampos, or artificial divisions. This sūtra was translated by the Indian Pandit, Vidya’kara Siddha, and the Lotsawa, Bande’ Dpal-gyi-dvyangs; it was reviewed and arranged afterwards by Dpal-brtse’gs.

K’ha, the second volume.

There are in this volume four sūtras, or works, under four distinct titles. The first is of great extent (from leaf 1 to 329). It is called in Tibetan, (3) “Rgya-ch’her-rol-pa”, in Sanscrit, “Lalita vistara,” containing accounts of
the life and doctrine of Sha'kyā, the establisher, or founder, of the Buddhist religion in ancient India. The work is divided into 27 chapters, the contents of which are as follow:

First Chapter, from leaf 1 to 8. “Introduction.” This sūtra was delivered by Sha’kyā (who speaks of himself under the name of Bodhisatwa) at the special request of several gods, Bodhisatwas, and his principal disciples, when he was in a grove near Shravasti, in Kosala. Here are mentioned 34 of his principal disciples, the names of eight Bodhisatwas, as also those of several Buddhas or Tathāgatas, who had appeared in former ages and taught their doctrines. Sha’kyā is requested now to give instruction in the same manner as they had done.

Second Chapter, leaves 8—14. This chapter has for its title, “Great exhortation, or rejoicing.” Importance of this sūtra. Several virtues enumerated and commended to be practised. Description of the great festival in the superb palace of the gods, in Galdan (in Tib. Dgah-ldan; in Sans. Tushitā). Hortative verses to Sha’kyā to teach his doctrine.

Third Chapter, leaves 14—30, entitled, “The purest race or tribe.” Insignia of an universal monarch;—his inauguration by those insignia;—his visiting the different kingdoms of his empire;—his injunctions to the chiefs and the subjects to execute justice and to practise the ten cardinal virtues. Leaf 21. A Bodhisatwa, when about to become a Buddha, never takes his incarnation in a barbarous country, but in a civilized one; nor in any low family, but in the house either of a Brahman or a Kshatriya (the military tribe or royal race)—reasons thereof. Sha’kyā honoured the latter by taking his birth in that tribe. Leaf 21—24. Consultation of the gods where Bodhisatwa (Sha’kyā) should be incarnated. There are said to have been at that time sixteen principal tribes or ruling families in “Jambudwipa” (or in India), several of which are enumerated by some of the gods, with recommendations on their good qualities; and they are of opinion that such and such a family will be proper for Bodhisatwa to be incarnated there. But some others find
fault with them, and tell several defects in each of those tribes, or families. The enumerated ruling tribes are—1. the royal family in Magadha, (Sanskrit, Vidékula; in Tib. Lus-hp'hags-rigs), 2. Ditto in Kosala, 3. Ditto in Vadsa, 4. the city of Yangs-pa-chan, (Sansk. Vaisháli or Prayágas-hodie Allahabad), 5. the family of “Rab-snang,” in Hp'hags-rgyal (Sansk. Ujjayáni, Ujen, in Málvá), 6. the city of Bchom-brlag, (Sansk. Malikura) 7. the Skya-bseng-gi-rigs. (Sans. the Pándava race, in Hastinápur.) None of them is found proper for the incarnation of Bodhisatwa—it is the Shákya race that is preferred to all. They ask Sha'kyá himself where a Bodhisatwa takes his incarnation at his last birth, and he enumerates to them 64 good qualities required in a race where such a Bodhisatwa should be incarnated. Leaf 26. The 32 qualities or characteristics of the woman that is fit to be the mother of such a Bodhisatwa. Leaf 27. “Zas-gtsang-ma’s” (Sansk. Sud-dhodana) character and fortune. His wife’s (in Tib. LHá-mo-sgyu-hp'hrul-ma, in Sanscrit, Mayá Dévi) good qualities. Leaves 28, 29. Eulogium (in verse) on the Shákya race in general, and particularly on the accomplishments of Lha-mo-sgyu-hp'hrul-ma.

Fourth Chapter, leaves 30—37, entitled, the “Door or beginning of religion’s light”. Bodhisatwa’s (Sha'kyá’s) last lecture to the gods and goddesses. Decorations of the great palace in Galdan. The 108 articles of the “Ch'hos-snang-vahi-sgo” must be taught always to the gods at the change of the life of any principal Bodhisatwa, from Galdan, (Sansk. Tus'hitá). (They are the heads of some religious tracts, or certain dogmas and moral maxims.)

Fifth Chapter, leaves 37—49. At “his being about to depart from Galdan” Sha'kyá appoints for his vicegerent there, Cha'm-ba' (written in Tib. Byams-pa. Sans. Maitreya) and inaugurates him, by putting his own diadem on the head of that Bodhisatwa. This is the saint who is to appear hereafter and to become a Buddha. Consultation about the form in which Sha'kyá should descend into the womb or body of the woman whom he chooses to
become his mother. A young elephant, such as has been judged proper in Brahmanical works, is preferred. Many ingenious and hortative verses are related for acquiring knowledge and practising virtue. His leaving Galdan, or the Paradise of the gods.

Sixth Chapter, leaves 49—64. "His incarnation." Taking the form of a young elephant, he enters by the right side, into the womb or cavity of the body of Mâyâ Devî. Her dream respecting the elephant that took up his abode in her body. She never felt such a pleasure as at that moment. Next morning she tells her dream to the king. He calls the Brâhmans and the interpreters of dreams:—they say, she will be delivered of a son, who will become either an universal monarch or a Buddha. Alms distributed at "Ser-skya" (Sans. Capila). Offerings made in behalf of Bodhisatva. The services rendered by the gods to Lha-mo-sgyu-hphrul-ma, and the great care the king took for her pleasure and well being. The whole of nature is favourably disposed for the child that was to be born.

Seventh Chapter, leaves 64—93. The "birth of Sha'kya." Description of the great preparations for conveying Mâyâ Devî into the grove of Lumbini. The circumstances of her being delivered there of the child after ten months' pregnancy. He came out by the right side, without any injury to his mother. Several miracles that happened at his birth, (leaves 70, 71.) The whole world was enlightened with great light. The earth trembled or shook several times. The number of men and beasts that were born or produced at Capilavastu, at the same time when the birth of Sha'kya happened. Since the wishes of "Zas-gtsang" were in all respects fulfilled, he gave to his son the name of "Don-grub," or "Don-thams-chad-grub-pa" (Sanscrit, Siddhârtha, or Sarva-siddhârtha). He is intrusted to Gautami, (his aunt) who, with 32 nurses, takes care of him.

"Nag-po" (or as elsewhere he is called Nyon-mongs-med), an hermit or sage, together with his nephew, "Mis-byin," (Sans. Narada, afterwards called Kâtyâyana) admonished by the great light or brightness, goes to
Ser-skya to salute the new born child. His conversation with Zas-gtsang. He observes the characteristic signs on the body of the child, and foretells that he will become a Buddha. He laments that, being too old, he cannot live until (the child) shall attain to the state of a Buddha. Leaf 87. He recommends to "Mis-byin" to become his disciple, when he shall commence to teach his doctrine.

Eighth Chapter, leaves 93—95. "His being brought into the temple." Ceremony and the decorations on that occasion. He is lord of lords (in Tib. Lhahi-lha). Asking his nurse Gautami whither they are carrying him, and she says, into the temple; he tells (in verse) how superior he is to all gods—how Indra, Brahma, and other gods and demigods, made their adorations to him at his birth.

Ninth Chapter, leaves 95—97. "Ornaments" (for Shākya). Description of all sorts of ornaments that were ordered by the king to be prepared and brought for the young prince (Shākya) on a certain lucky or auspicious day.

Tenth Chapter, leaves 97—101. "His having displayed several sorts of letters or characters". When he (Shākya) was desired afterwards to learn the letters from the school-master, he shews that, without being instructed, he knows them all—and he himself enumerates 64 different alphabets (among which are mentioned also those of Yavana and Húna) and shews their figures. The master is astonished at his wisdom, and utters several slókás expressive of his praise.

Eleventh Chapter, leaves 101—105. His visiting a village of the agriculturists. His meditation in the shade or shadow of a tree (called the "Jambu" tree). The miracle that happened there with the shadow of that tree.

Twelfth Chapter, leaves 105—121. The displaying of several gymnastical exercises and other arts (by Shākya). When at a certain time 500 young men of the Shākya race, at "Ser-skya," were vying in shewing their skill in the arts and gymnastical exercises, as in letters, arithmetic, swimming, &c. Shākya excelled them all. He obtains by these means "Sa'-nts'ho-ma"
the daughter of "Lag-na-pe'-chon-chan," a mace-bearer. Sans. Dand'ika. The qualities required in a woman, whom Sha'kya is willing to take for his wife. The several qualifications of Sa'-hts'ho-ma (Sans. Gopa'). Her sentiments (expressed in verse) against the concealing the face of woman by a veil.

Thirteenth Chapter, leaves 121—141. "His being exhorted" by the gods. Exhortations made to him by several gods to leave the court, and endeavour to become a Buddha, as he had aspired for several ages to that dignity, and had acquired numerous qualities with that view.

Fourteenth Chapter, leaves 141—148. "Dream". Zas-gtsang-ma', the father of Sha'kya, in a dream fancies that his son has left his house and taken the religious character, having put on a garb of dark red colour. He now takes every precaution to prevent him from leaving the court, and orders all sorts of music to be performed for the amusement of his son.

Sha'kya orders his servant to make ready the carriage for going into the grove for his recreation. On his way thither he observes an old man; asks from the servant what that man is; he tells him, that is a man grown old, and is near to die; he orders the servant to turn the carriage, goes back, and gives himself to meditation on old age.

[Note. In all these discourses or conversations of Sha'kya with his groom, or charioteer, there are several instances of terms employed by inferiors in speaking to their superiors, that are different from those in common use. This is a peculiarity in the language of Tibet].

Afterwards, in the same manner as above, on different occasions he observes a sick man—sees a corpse—and meets a man in a religious garb; and on each occasion he gives himself to meditation on sickness, death, and on the religious state.

These are the circumstances that determine him to take the religious character. Zas-gtsang to prevent him from leaving the court, orders several walls and ditches to be made, and guards and sentries to be set. Inauspicious dream seen by Sa'-hts'ho-ma'. Leaves 146-7.

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Fifteenth Chapter, leaves 148—174. "His exit, or appearance in the world," (in a religious character). Notwithstanding all the vigilance of his father and of his relations, he finds means for leaving the royal residence. At midnight mounting his horse called the "Praise-worthy" (Bṣaṅgs Idan) he rides for six miles; then dismounting, he sends back, by the servant, the horse and all the ornaments he had; and directs him to tell his parents not to be grieved on his departure; for when he shall have found the supreme wisdom, he will return and console them. Great lamentation in the court of Zas-gtsang. With his own sword he cuts off the hair of his head, changes his fine linen clothes for a common one of dark red colour, and commences his pilgrimage. In the first place he goes to Rājagriha, in Magadha.

Sixteenth Chapter, leaves 174—178. "Gzugs-chan-snying-po's visit" (made to Sha'kyā). The king Vimbasāra (in Tib. Gzugs-chan-snying-po) having seen him from his palace, is much pleased with his manners—is informed of him by his domestics; visits him, has a long conversation with him, and offers him means for living according to his pleasure. He will not accept of such things. On the request of the king, he tells who he is—"of the Shākya race, that inhabit "Ser-skya-gzhi," (Sansk. Capiłavastu) in Kosala, in the vicinity of the Kailāsha, or of the Himalaya in general, (on the bank of the Bhāgirathi river. He is of the royal family, the son of the king "Zas-gtang," Sans. Shuddhodana, (leaf 178) and that he has renounced the world, and seeks only to find the supreme wisdom.

Seventeenth Chapter, leaves 178—192. "The hardships" or austerities which Sha'kyā underwent during the course of six years. Leaf 183-4. All sorts of religionists, of which Jambudvipa was full at the time of Sha'kyā, mortify their bodies in different manners. In his opinion all those had a wrong idea of arriving at liberty or emancipation by such practices. Leaf 185. He commences his ascetic life. The manner in which he gives himself to meditation, and the several hardships he voluntarily submits himself to during six years.
Eighteenth Chapter, *leaves* 192—200. The "Nairanājana river". It was on the banks of this river that Shākyā performed his penances, subjecting himself to great austerities. Perceiving afterwards privation to be dangerous to his mental faculties, he makes use of necessary food for his sustenance. He is presented by a chief's two daughters, with a refined milk-soup—he refreshes himself. His five attendants desert him now, saying among themselves, "such a glutton, and such a loose man as Gautama is now, never can arrive at the supreme wisdom," (or never can become a Buddha). They go to Vāraṇāsi, and in a grove near that city continue to live an ascetic life.

Nineteenth Chapter, *leaves* 200—214. After having bathed himself in the Nairanājana river he recovers his bodily strength, and intends to visit the holy spot. Rejoicing of all sorts of gods and demigods, and the offerings they make to Shākyā.

Twentieth Chapter, *leaves* 214—221. He proceeds to the holy spot, called, in Sanscrit, the "Bodhimanḍa" (the holy pith, energy, or essence, where now Gayā is), and gives himself to earnest meditation, that he may find the supreme wisdom.

Twenty-first Chapter, *leaves* 221—248. "He overcomes the devil." Description how he was tempted by the devil (Sans. Māra or Kāma Déva). His victory over the hosts of the lord of Cupidity. The songs of gods on his triumph.

Twenty-second Chapter, *leaves* 248—259. The manner in which he performed his meditations, and at last found the supreme wisdom.

Twenty-third Chapter, *leaves* 259—267. After having found the supreme wisdom, the gods from several heavens successively present him their offerings, and in several verses sing praises to him concerning his excellent qualities, and his great acts in overcoming the devil.

Twenty-fourth Chapter, *leaves* 267—282. Two merchants, Gagon and Bzang-po, entertain Shākyā with a dinner, and hear his instruction in his
doctrine. They are so firm in their faith that Shákya says of them, they shall become *Bodhisatvas*.

Twenty-fifth Chapter, *leaves* 282—291. After having found the supreme wisdom, Shákya thinking that men cannot understand his profound doctrine, he will therefore not instruct them except he should be solicited by Brahma and other gods to do so. They appear; and on their request he commences to teach his doctrine.

Twenty-sixth Chapter, *leaves* 291—323. The running of his religious course. Recapitulation of his principal acts. The great qualities he had acquired. To whom should he first teach his doctrine? Several of them whom he judged fit to understand him, are dead. He proceeds to Váranási. The five persons, formerly his attendants, being now convinced of his having found the supreme wisdom, pay homage or respect to him, and become his disciples. *Leaves* 295—312. He instructs them in his doctrine; explains to them the four excellent truths—1. There is sorrow or misery. 2. It will be so with every birth. 3. But it may be stopped. 4. The way or mode of making an end to all miseries. *Leaf* 307. Whence originated the epithet or name of Buddha, "Tathágata" (in Tibetan, Dê-bzhi-gshégs), viz. from having run his religious race in the same manner as his predecessors. There is an enumeration of several epithets or names of each Buddha.*

Twenty-seventh Chapter, *leaves* 323—329. Conclusion. Shákya recommends this *sūtra* to his auditors, the gods, to keep it in their remembrance, and to repeat it often. The several benefits and blessings arising from hearing this *sūtra*.

This work was translated first, in the 9th century, by the Indian Pandits, Jina-mitra, Dána-shi'la, and Mune-varma, and the Tibetan Lotsava, or interpreter, Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.

*It has been thought fit to retain the above epitome of the contents of the *Lalita Vistara* here, but the same has been given in more detail in the notice of Shákya's life and death, printed in the present volume.* Sec.
The rest of this volume (from leaves 329 to 426, or the end) is occupied by treatises of high principles or metaphysical speculations (mahá yána sūtras). They are likewise attributed to Shākyamuni, and were delivered by him to his hearers (immense numbers of priests, Bodhisatwas, gods, and demons) at three different places. The first, on a mountain near Rájakrīsha; the second, in a grove near Shravasti; and the third, on the mountain of "Gru-hdsin," (in Sanscrit, Potala). The general subject is moral, metaphysical, and mystical doctrine. Discussions on the nature of the body and of the soul. There are introduced several of Shākyamuni’s disciples in these discussions, but the chief speakers, besides Shākyamuni, are Manju Sri Kumar Bhūt, and Avalokitesvara. The titles of these three treatises are as follow:


3. In Sanscrit, Sarva tathāgatādhiśhūhana satyavālokaṇa Buddha kṣetra nirdeshana vyuha. In Tibetan, (6) Dé-byin-gshégs-pa-chams-chad-kyi-byin-gyis-brlabs-séms-chan-la-gzigs-shing-sangs-rgyas-kyi-zhing-gi-bkod-pa-kun-tuston-pa. Eng. Description of the province of Buddha, on which, for the sake of animal beings, all Tathāgatas have bestowed their benedictions. There is moral and mystical doctrine in this sūtra. There are also several Dhāraṇīs in Sanscrit, supposed to be of wonderful efficacy.

These three sūtras were translated by the Indian Pandits, Sūrendra Bodhi, Shyāendra Bodhi, and Jina-Mitra, and the Tibetan Lotsawa, Bande’ Ye’she’ sde’.

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G4, OR THE THIRD VOLUME.

Title in Sanscrit, A'ryanis'h'hatan Bhagavān jnyāna vipulana sūtra ratna ananta nāma mahā yāna sūtra. In Tibetan, (7) Hp'hags-pa-bchom-ldans-hdas-kyi-yesh-sgrugs-pa-mdo-sde-rin-po-ch'he-mel-hah-yas-pa-mel-har-p'hyin-pa-zhes-byar-tshel-g-pa-ch'hen-poki-mdo. Eng. Immense jewels, or a sūtra of high principles, on the extensive knowledge or wisdom of the venerable and excellent BUDDHA. The salutation is thus—‘Reverence to BUDDHA and to all the Bodhisatwas.’ SHA'KYA at Mnyan-yod, (Sansk. ( Shrāvasti) with 1250 priests. General subject—Instruction on the extensive knowledge or wisdom of BUDDHA.

In a (fancied) city, called "Excellent virtue," (Dgē-vahi-p'ha-rol-bgro) a certain householder, (k'hyim-bdag) a fortune-teller by profession (p'hyam-k'han), with an intention of acquiring moral and religious merits for his future happiness, under the superintendence of GANG-Po, one of SHA'KYA's disciples, builds for BHAGAVA'N a fine house (khang-kyung) with a gallery of tsandan-wood. On that occasion GANG-Po tells him, that by none of all the creatures and gods may such a sacred building be used otherwise than as a place of worship (Tib. Me'dod-rten, Sans. Chaitya), since none of the animal beings has the qualities which BHAGAVA'N (Tib. Becom-ldans-hdas) possesses. GANG-Po, addressing him several times a householder, (Sansk. Grihapati) gives him a long and detailed instruction on the extensive knowledge or omniscience of BHAGAVA'N, or Tathāgata, and his perfections or attributes. He tells him that BHAGAVA'N's knowledge is immense, infinite—he knows every place—past, present, and future times—(there are made here several distinctions of his knowledge and powers)—he knows the thoughts and ways of all animal beings; all their works or actions, good and bad, done (or committed)

7 श्रीमत्ति नमो
the body, speech, and the mind together; with the causes and consequences of
them. Then come moral tales—detailed specification of the knowledge of
Tathāgata with respect to the provinces of the organs and senses of the body
—on psychological and moral subjects—on the four great truths. \textit{Leaf} 128.
Several places of regeneration (or new-birth) are enumerated, from the lowest
cell to the highest heaven, and that Tathāgata knows them all.

\textit{Leaf} 170. \textit{Sha'kya} is invited by the before-mentioned householder into
his house to an entertainment in that fancied city—he, with some of his disci-
pies, goes there in a miraculous manner (all flying in the air). \textit{Leaf} 174. On
the request of \textit{Me's-byin}, an ascetic, \textit{Sha'kya} leaves there the vestige of
his foot-sole impressed on a flat stone. Several miraculous visits performed by
\textit{Sha'kya}, with \textit{Maungalyana} and others of his disciples, since he left the
grove near \textit{Shravasti}. \textit{Leaf} 175. Miracles that happened with \textit{Sha'rihi-bu}
and \textit{Maungalyana} (the same as has been told in the \textit{Dulca}, at their visiting
the "Madros" lake).

\textit{Leaves} 175—197. "\textit{Mdse's-dgah}" (a \textit{Naga réja} of the sea) and several
other \textit{Nága réjas} also, successively make their adoration to Tathāgata,
(\textit{Shákya}), address him, sing praises (in verse) to him, and beg him to give
them religious instruction on several subjects. They admire his perfections
and the several acts he has performed—they confess their unhappy state and
ignorance, and beg him to instruct them on the means by which they may
arrive at happiness and perfection. He answers to each of them. There are
many passages expressive of the attributes or perfections of Tathāgatas; of
the thoughts, wishes, and works of men. There are several moral instructions
and maxims.

From \textit{leaves} 200 to 416, or the end of this \textit{sútra}, \textit{Sha'kya} addressing
\textit{Maungalyana}, (who again asks him several times) tells the stories of seve-
ral individuals in very remote ages, and applies them all to himself; and says
that it was he himself who acted or reasoned thus at that time. Among these
stories there occur many praises and hymns addressed to Tathāgatas—there are
descriptions on the conduct of the wise—on the miseries of life—the desire of happiness—offerings, sacrifices, adoration—that there is no reality in all things. *Leaf 212.* On the state of being bound and being liberated. By this narration he shews that a *Tathāgata* is all knowing—he knows the place and origin of every thing, and what will be the consequences of such and such works performed in remote ages and lives. *Leaf 416.* There are several synonymous terms for expressing that a *Tathāgata’s* wisdom or knowledge is immense. *Maungalyana* being much pleased with this instruction, approves and praises it.

This *sūtra* was translated first by the Indian Pandit, *Prajna*-varma, and the Tibetan Lotsava (interpreter) *Bande*-ye’-shes-snying-po. Afterwards corrected and arranged by the Indian Pandits, *Vishuddha-siddha* and *SarvaJna-de’va*, and the Tibetan Lotsava, *Dpal-brtse’gs.*

From *leaf 416* to 466, or the end of this volume, is another *sūtra*, entitled, in Sanscrit, *Arya sareca Buddha vis’haya avatâra jnâna a’loka alankara náma mahá yána sútra*. Tib. (8) *Hp’hags-pa’-sangs-rgyas-t’ham-chad-kyi-yul-la-hjug-pahi-yé-shis-snang-vahi-rgyan-zhés-bya-ca-t’hég-pa-ch’hen-po-hi-mdo.* An ornament of intellectual light for entering into the province of every *Buddha*; a venerable *sūtra* of high principles (or speculation.) This was delivered by *Bchom-lダン-n dá*s (*Shákya*) when he was on a mountain near Ráyagriha. There were assembled 25,000 priests, besides eight of his principal disciples, and many *Bodhisatvas*, among whom *Hjam-dpal Gzhon-nur-gyur-pa* (*Sans.* *Manju Sri Kumar bhui’*) who, according to the wishes of other assembled *Bodhisatvas* that desire to acquire knowledge, begs of *Shákya* to explain to them the meaning of these terms—(9) “*Skyé-xa’-ma-meh’his-pa-dang-hgag-pa-ma-meh’hés-pa,*”—there is no forth-coming and no stopping (or no birth, no death) as with respect to *Tathāgatas*. This is the

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subject of the treatise. The explanation is given in an argumentative manner, and by mixing metaphysical speculation with moral doctrine. In *Leaf 416* it is said, that the bodies of the *Tathāgatas* are like the extent of heaven.

(*Na*) or the *Fourth Volume*.

In this volume, of 444 leaves, there are five separate treatises or *sūtras*, but they are all of little importance, and none calculated to excite literary curiosity.

The first is entitled, in Sanscrit, *A'rya* " *kushala mūla paridhara*" nāma mahā yāna sūtra. In Tib. *(10)* H'phags-pa " *dgê-va-hi-ytsa-va-yongs-su-hdsin-pa'*-zhes-byas-vam-thég-pa-chʰé'n-pohi-mdo. Comprehension of virtue's roots (or elements) a venerable *sūtra* of high principles. This was delivered by *Bchom-lldan-hdasp* (Sha'kya) in a grove near Rājagriha (called in Tibetan, Hod-mahi-ts'hal, &c. In Sanscrit, *Vênu vanam*, a grove of bamboos). There is a long enumeration of his disciples arriving from all parts, and of their salutations. The subject is moral and metaphysical doctrine. The whole is very incoherent, abstract, and miscellaneous; therefore nothing can be said with precision. The organs, senses, operations of the mind, and emptiness (or *sūnyatā*) are the common topics of this, as also of some of the following *sūtras*. Sha'kya frequently addresses Sha'radwa'thî-bu (one of his principal disciples), who again several times begs him to explain the meaning of such and such a term or phrase. This *sūtra* is contained on the leaves from 1 to 346. It is divided into 18 artificial portions (*bam-po*) and 15 chapters. It was translated by the Indian Pandit, *Prajna'-varma*, and Ye'-'she's-sde'—corrected and arranged afterwards by *Prajna'-varma*, Jna'na-garbha, and Ye’-'she’s-sde’.

The second *sūtra* in this volume (from *leaf* 346 to 421) is entitled, in Sanscrit, *A'rya saṅgghāti sūtradherma paryayá*. In Tibetan, *(11)* H’phags-pa-zung-gr.
mdo-hi-ch'os-kyi-rnam-grangs. A collection of the enumeration of several things respecting religion or moral doctrine; delivered by Shā'kyā on the mountain "Gridhra kūta," (in Tib. "Bya-rgod-p'lung-po) near Rājagriha, where were assembled 32,000 priests, among whom were his principal disciples, Kun-she's-ko'ndinya, Maungalyana, Shā'rihi-bu, Hod-srung-ch'hen-po, &c. many Bodhisatwas, Dévas, and Nágas, to pay their respects to B'chom-ladan-hdas. Subject—A Bodhisatwa (called in Tib. Kun-tu-dpa-h-va) begs of Shā'kyā to instruct them in such a manner that, upon hearing his lesson, those that are old may be purified from the blemishes of their works, and that those that are young may endeavour hereafter to excel in virtue. Accordingly he instructs them in a discursive manner with this and two other Bodhisatwas, in prose and verse.

This sūtra was translated by the Indian Pandits, Jina-mitra and Da'na shi'la, and the Tibetan Lotsava Ye'she's-sde'.


This was delivered at "Mnyan-yod" (Sans. Shrāvasti, in Kosala). The speakers are Shā'kyā and a little child, who addresses the former as Gautama. Hearers—1250 Gélongs, or priests, and 500 Bodhisatwas. Subject—the story of that child: how he was found alone in an empty and solitary house. Shā'kyā's conversation with him, (in verse). Common, moral, and speculative topics: The soul (or the Ego and Meum). Súnyatá, or emptiness, voidness. The ornaments of a Bodhisatwa are his good qualities and perfections. Translated by Sure'ndra Bodhi, and Ye'she's-sde'.

The fourth sūtra in this volume (438—441) has this title in Sanscrit, A'rya Tathāgata nāma Buddha kshētra gūnōkta dherma paryāya. In Tibetan,

[12 आर्यात्मका नाम बुद्ध क्षेत्रा गुणोक्त धर्म पर्याया]
ANALYSIS OF THE MDO.

(13) Hphags-pa-dé-bzhin-gshégs-pa-rnams-kyi-zhing-gi-yon-tan-brjod-pahi-ch'hos-
kyi-rnam-grangs. Enumeration of things, or religious articles expressive
of the qualities or perfections of the Buddha province of the venerable
Tathāgatas. Here one of the Bodhisatwas, addressing the others in an
exclamatory manner, tells them the names of several Buddha provinces,
and that successively in each province one day is equal to one kalpa
of the former province. This is the substance of the whole; and the next
work, of four leaves, entitled in Tibetan (only) (14) "Dkyil-hkhor-Brgyad-pa,"
the eight circles (or Man' dalas), contains little more than the statement that
whoever wishes to come at prosperity, or happiness, should describe these
eight circles.

(Cha) OR THE FIFTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume three different treatises, under three distinct
heads. The first, (from leaf 1 to 81) is entitled in Sanscrit, A'rya sandhi
nirmohana nāma mahā yāna sūtra. In Tibetan, (15) Hphags-pa-dgongs-pa-
ñes-par-hgyel-rva-zhés-bya-ra-t'hég-pa-ch'hen-pohi-mdo. Explication of one's
mind or thought, (or the true resolution of several propositions). Shākya
is represented to be in a (fancied) superb immense palace, made of all sorts
of precious stones. There are assembled many Bodhisatwas of the first
rank, and of the greatest accomplishments. The subjects of their discussions
are some metaphysical subtleties (leaf 4) as—Which is the thing that is in-
expressible, indivisible, and simple; and what is a simple, and what a com-
pound thing? Afterwards ten of them, successively, propose some questions
to Shākya, and request the explanation of them. There is a distinct
chapter for each Bodhisatwa. In the ninth chapter, Shākya is requested
by Avalokiteswara (in Tib. (16) "Spyan-ras-grzigs-deang-phung") for some
explanation with respect to the ten bhūmis (or degrees of perfections) of Bodhi-

\[\text{(13) 14 15 16}\]
satwas, as also of that of a **Buddha**; which accordingly is given on some leaves. In the tenth chapter, **Manju Sri** (in Tibetan, (17) Hjam-dpal) asks him for the explication of this term—"**Ch'os-kyi-sk**u," (Sans. **Dherma kāya**, the first moral being) as applied to the **Tathāgatas**. There follows again a long discussion on that subject.

The second treatise or **sūtra** (from leaves 81 to 298) is entitled in Sans. **A'rya Langkávatára mahá yána sūtra**. In Tibetan, (15) Hphags-pa-Langkár-gshegs-pa-fhég-pa-ch'hen-pohi-mdo. A venerable sūtra of high principles (or speculation) on the visiting of Laṅka. This was delivered on the request of the Lord of Laṅka (called in Tibetan, (19) "Gnod-sbyin-hchod-sgrugs") by **Bchom-ltan-udas** (Sha'kya) when he was in the city of Laṅka, on the top of the Malaya mountain, on the sea shore, together with many priests and **Bodhisatwas**. It was in a miraculous manner that Sha'kya visited Laṅka. It is evident from the text, that both the visitors and the pretended master of Laṅka are fancied things; but there is in the **Laṅkávatára sūtra** a copious account of the theory of the **Buddhist**ic metaphysical doctrine, together with that of some heterodox sects, especially of the **Lokayata** (in Tib. (20) Hjig-rten-rgyang hphen-pa. Sha'kya in a discursive manner with a **Bodhisatva** (styled in Sanscrit, Mahá Mati, in Tib. Blo-gros-ch'hen-po) recites the common topics of the **Buddhist**ic metaphysical doctrine, with some discussion on each. From leaves 298 to 456, there is again an explanation of the **Laṅkávatára sūtra**, containing (as it is stated) the essence of the doctrine of all the **Tathāgatas**. The **Laṅkávatára sūtra** was translated by order of the Tibetan king, **Dpal-lha-btsan-po**. (Khri-dé-strong-btsan, or Rañ-pa-chan) in the 9th century. No Indian Pandit is mentioned. It is stated only, that it was translated by Lotsava Ge'long (Hgos-ch'hos-grub) who added also the commentary (which must be the last part of the above described sūtra) of a Chinese professor or teacher, called We'n-hil.

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17 བཟོ་པ་ 18 བཟོ་པ་ 19 བཟོ་པ་ 20 བཟོ་པ་
The third treatise (from leaf 456 to 468, or the end) is entitled in Sans. *Arya gayá shri`ha náma mahá yána sútra*. In Tibetan, (20) *Hp'hags-pa-gayá-mgoi-ri*, the hill, “Gayá shri`ha,” or a short treatise of high principles, on the theories and practices of *Bodhisatvas*. *Sha`kya*, not long after his having become a *Buddha*, being with a thousand *Gelongs* and many *Bodhisatwas* in the *Chaitya* (Tib. *Mch`hood-rtse*) of *Gayá*, a place of worship on the *Gayá* hill, is requested by *Hjām-dpal* (Sans. *Maṇju Śrī*) for the explication of the term *Bodhisatwa*, which is given; and this forms the subject of this treatise.

*(Ch`ha) or the Sixth Volume.*

There are in this volume three treatises. The first (from leaf 1 to 76) is entitled in Sans. *Arya ghana vyuha náma mahá yána sútra*. In Tib. (21) *Hp'hags-pa-rgyan-stug-po-bkod-pa-zhés-bya-va-t'hég-pa-ch'hën-pohi-mdo*. Eng. A venerable *sútra* of high principles, called the thick, or dense, ornament or system, structure. Between *Bchom-ldan-ḥdas* (*Sha`kya*) and several *Bodhisatwas* there are discussions on many metaphysical subjects concerning *Buddha*, his attributes, his mansion, and the soul in general—distinction between the body and the rational soul—what are the means of final emancipation for those that have committed many immoral actions, leaves 11—13. Ignorance is the cause of all the bands by which the soul is fettered, leaf 37. How to be liberated from those fetters. Right discrimination of things. The whole is mostly in verse, and treats of the soul in general.

Eng. A venerable sūtra of high principles, called “Puṅdarīka, the great merciful one.” This was delivered by Śaṅkya in a grove of Sāl trees near the town Kuśha (Kāma-rūpa, in Assam) on the evening he was about to die. Addressing Kun-dgaḥ-vo (Sans. Aṇanda) he orders him to prepare him his dying bed. He tells him his performances, and the substance of his doctrine. His discourse with Aṇanda. The miracles that happened when he lay down (between a pair of Sāl trees) on his right side, like a lion—all trees, shrubs, and grasses bow themselves towards that side; all rivers or streams stand still; all beasts and birds sit still and move not for food; all lucid or shining bodies are affuscated; all sufferers in hell are assuaged; all those in misery are relieved; all the gods feel some displeasure with their own residence. (23) Ts’haṅgs-pa, (Sans. Brahmā,) together with his train, pays his respect to Bchom-ladan-hdas. From leaves 80 to 90, there is a description of their conversation on the subject of creation—by whom was the world made. Śaṅkya asks several questions of Brahmā—whether was it he who made or produced such and such things, and endowed or blessed them with such and such virtues or properties—whether was it he who caused the several revolutions in the destruction and regeneration of the world. He denies that he had ever done any thing to that effect. At last he himself asks Śaṅkya how the world was made—by whom? Here are attributed all changes in the world to the moral works of the animal beings, and it is stated that in the world all is illusion; there is no reality in the things; all is empty. Brahmā being instructed in his doctrine, becomes his follower. Śaṅkya vindicating the universe for himself, commits it to the care of Brahmā, and directs him what to do for promoting virtue and happiness in the world, leaf 90. His (Śaṅkya’s) conversation with (24) Ded-dpon, the son of Ka’ma-de’va—his instructions to him. His conference with Indra, (Tib. (25) Brgya-byin) and with the four great kings of the giants (Tibetan
Lhamayin). He gives several lessons to these four kings, and advises them to live contented, and not to make war against Indra. They promise that they will obey his commands. Leaf 100, the lamentation of Indra on the approaching death of Shākya.

Leaf 109. Kun-dga-h-vo is comforted by Shākya, and directed what to do after his death (leaves 110—112). Hod-srung (Sans. Kāhyapa) the immediate successor of Shākya. His qualities. Shākya tells to A'nanda the increase of the believers in his doctrine, and the great veneration that will be shewn to the places of his relics. Leaf 124, the great qualifications of Kun-dga-h-vo, or A'nanda. Shākya's instructions to him.

Leaf 181. On the request of Kun-dga-h-vo, Shākya directs him what to do with respect to the compilation of his doctrine. Here are enumerated the twelve different kinds of the Buddhistic writings. He is directed to answer thus to the priests or Gelongs, when they shall ask where it was delivered.—"Hdi-skad-bdag-gis-tchos-pa-dus-gehig-na"—I myself heard this at a certain time, when Bchom-lDan-hDas was at such and such places, and the hearers were these and these; and that when he had finished his lecture, all those that were present rejoiced much, and approved his doctrine.

The principal places were Shākya had delivered the sūtras of his doctrine, are here enumerated. They are the (27) Byang-ch'hub-snying-po, (Sans. Bodhimaṇḍa, or Gayā in Magadhā) under a Nyagrodha tree. Vārānāsi, in the grove called (25) Drang-srung lhung-va-ri-dags-kyi-nags. Rājakriha, and near to it the Bya-god-p'hung-pohi-ri, and the (29) Hod-mahi-ts'hal. (30) Mnyun-yod (Sans. Shrāvasti). (31) Yangs-pa-chen (Sans. Vaishali or Pri-yāga, Allahabad) Champa (on the bank of a tank dug by Garga). Kaush-

He is directed farther to make introduction to them, to explain the subject with an amplification of the causes and effects, in good sense and proper terms or words, and to arrange the whole in such and such a manner.

There are in this sûtra six dam-pos and thirteen chapters. This was translated by the Indian Pandits Jina-mitra and Surendra-bodhi, and the Tibetan Lotsava Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.

The third treatise (from leaves 187 to 443, or the end) is entitled in Sanscrit, A'rya karuña puñ'darika náma mahá yána sûtra. In Tibetan, (35) "Hp'hags-pa-sn'ying-rje-pad-ma-dkar-po-zhes-bya-va-l'hég-pa-ch'hén-pohi-mdö." The merciful Pundarika (Sans. Shákya) on the "Bya-rgod-p'hung-pohi-ré" before 62,000 priests, &c. &c. The subject is, charity, morality, patience, and other transcendental virtues. Provinces or fields of several Tathágatas or Buddhás—their perfections. Bodhisatwas—their prayers and wishes for the welfare of all animal beings. The whole is of a miscellaneous nature. There are many salutations and praises to several Tathágatas. There are also Dháranis and Mantras.

Translated by the Indian Pandits Jina-mitra, Surendra-Bodhi, and Prajna'-varma, and the Tibetan Lotsava Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.

(Ja) or the seventh volume.

There are in this volume six separate works or sûtras, the titles of which in Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow:—


All these su’tras, in general, are on moral subjects, and contain several instructions in the Buddhistic doctrine.

The first entitled, “Sad-dharma puṇḍarika,” is contained on the leaves from 1 to 281. Contents—This sutra was delivered by Bchod-ladan-udas or Bhagavân (Sha’kya, when he was on the “Bya-rgod-phungpo-ri,” (Sansk. Gridhra ku’ta parvata) near Rájagriha, in Magadhâ, before 12,000 priests of great perfections (see leaf 2.) Among these his principal disciples are enumerated. Here are mentioned first those five persons who had become first of all the disciples of Sha’kya, at Vâranâsî. Their names, both Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow: 1. A’jna’na Kaun’dinya, (Tib. (42) Kun-shês-Kaun’dinya), 2. Ashwajit (Tib. (43) Rta-thul), 3. Pa’shwâ (Tib. (44) Rlangs-po), 4. Maha Na’ma (Tib. (45) Ming-ch’hên), 5. Bhadrika, (Tib. (46) Bzung-po.) Here are mentioned also Ka’tga’yana, Kapina, Bharadhwaja, &c. From leaves 2—5 all sorts of hearers are
enumerated;—as Bodhisattvas, among whom Manju Sri, Kumāra-bhuṭa (Tib. \(^{47}\)) Avalokeśvara, (Tib. \(^{48}\)) and Maitreya, (Tib. \(^{49}\))—Gods of different ranks and of several heavens—all sorts of demi-gods and demons—and \(^{30}\) Ma-skye’s-dgra, (Sans. Ajātashatru) the king of Magadha. Shākya’s deep meditation or ecstasy. The wonderful effects of a beam of light issuing from the middle of his forehead. Great astonishment of all the assembled hearers thereupon. Maitreya (Tib. Byams-pa) asks, in verse, Manju Sri (Tib. Hjam-dpal) about the meaning and reason of these miracles. Their discourse on the six transcendental virtues; as charity, morality, patience, earnest application, meditation, and ingenuity or wit; and on the manner of the proceedings of several Tathāgatas in teaching this very sūtra to all sorts of animal beings. This introductory discourse (\(^{51}\) Gleng-gzhi) ends on the nineteenth leaf. Thenceforth Shākya addressing Sha’rihi-bu, one of his principal disciples, the chief of the ingenious, tells him how difficult it is for them to understand and to judge of the wisdom of Buddha, and of the several qualities or properties of things in general. Sha’rihi-bu admires much the excellency of his doctrine; in several verses praises him, and begs him that he would farther give instructions to them. Several of his principal disciples are introduced speaking, as Hod-srung, Gang-po, Katyāvana; who, upon hearing of the great perfections and the wise proceedings of the Tathāgatas from Shākya, make long praises upon them in verse. From leaves 80—87 Shākya foretells of five of his principal disciples that they shall become chief Bodhisattvas. His own former performances. Several Tathāgatas exhorted by Ts’hangs-pa (Sans. Brahmā) and others gods to turn the wheel of the law, or teach their doctrine, and to bring to salvation all animal beings. Shākya foretells of many of his disciples, on their own request, that in future times they shall attain such and such a degree of perfec-

\(^{47}\) བོད་ བཟོད་སྡེ། \(^{48}\) སྱིན་པོ་ སྒྲོལ་ སྡེ། \(^{49}\) བོད་ བཟོད་སྡེ།

\(^{50}\) སྐེ་ རྔོ། \(^{51}\) གཞུ་ རོལ་}
tion and happiness. Moral and religious merits of several individuals in former lives;—perfection' and happiness they shall find in future lives. This su\textit{tra} has been taught by many Tath\text{"a}gatas in former times. The importance of this great su\textit{tra}, "Spyan-ras-gaigs-drang-p\text{"{h}}yug," under several forms. His wonderful aid to those who call on him in their distress. Many stories are told by Sh\text{"{a}}\text{\text{"{k}}}ya to his hearers to instruct them in the manners and practices of the truly wise men. The whole su\textit{tra} is divided into twenty seven chapters. The translators were, the Indian Pandit Su\text{"{r}}\text{"{e}}ndra, and the Tibetan Lotsava Ye\text{"{s}h}e\text{"{s}d}e.

The second su\textit{tra} in this volume, entitled, "Sarva-dharma-guna-vyu\text{"{h}}a r\text{"{a}}j\text{"{a}}," is contained from leaves 281 to 306. On the request of two Bodhisatwas, (53) Vajra Pa\text{"{n}i and Avaloke\text{"{s}swara, Sh\text{"{a}}\text{\text{"{k}}}ya gives them explanations on several subjects. They admire the excellency of his doctrine, and declare it to be worthy of every respect and reverence, and useful to salvation.

The third su\textit{tra} in this volume, entitiled, in Sans. "Sukh\text{"{a}}vati vyu\text{"{h}}a," Tib. (53) Bde\text{"{v}}a-chan-gyi-bkod-pa, is contained on seven leaves, from 306 to 313. Contents—Sh\text{"{a}}\text{\text{"{k}}}ya addressing Sharihi-bu, gives a description of the happy mansion, or of the province of Amit\text{"{a}}bha', to the west, beyond an infinite number of other regions or provinces. The great happiness there, and mental illumination—no misery, no bad places of transmigration—the great abundance of all sorts of precious things—tanks or reservoirs richly adorned with precious metals or stones—excellent birds.

In the beginning of this su\textit{tra} there is an enumeration of the hearers of Sh\text{"{a}}\text{\text{"{k}}}ya; among them of his sixteen principle disciples called Gnas-btan. They are as follows—1. (54) Sharihi-bu; 2. (55) Mongal-gyi-bu; 3. (56) Hod-

srungs-ch'hen-po; 4. (57) K\text{"{a}}\text{\text{"{y}}a}'hi-bu; 5. (58) Kapina; 6. (59) Gsus-po

The fourth sutra, entitled, “Karaṇḍa vyuha,” is contained from leaves 313 to 391 of this volume. It was delivered by Sha’kya when he was at Mnyan-yod, (Sansk. Shrāvasti, in Kosala). The hearers, besides 1,250 priests, were an immense number of Bodhisatwas, Devas, Nāga-rājas, demons, &c. Contents—there is, first, a description of the several miracles that happened on that occasion in that Vihāra, caused by a beam of light issued out of hell from Avaloke’swara (Tib. (70)). Afterwards, on the request of a Bodhisatwa (71) Sha’kya tells him the infinite moral merits of that saint, his great exertions in bringing to maturity or perfection those in hell, and those among the Yidags (or Tantaules.) In general there is an account of the several good qualities of Spyan-ras-gzigs-dyang-p’yuṅ, and since he is the patron of the Tibetans, this sutra is held among them in high esteem and reverence. This sutra was translated by Sha’kya Prabha and Ratna Rakshita.

The fifth sutra, entitled, “Ratna Karaṇḍa” (from leaves 391—460 of this volume) was likewise delivered by Sha’kya, when he was in a grove near Shrāvasti in Kosala. (Tib. Mnyan-yod). The subject is moral and metaphysical doctrine. The speaker, in general, is Māṇju Sri Kuma’r-Bhu’t. Between this Bodhisatwa and Subhu’ti, (Tib. (72) Rab-hbyor) a favourite disciple of Sha’kya, there is in the beginning of this sutra discussion on the
subject—who are the fit vessels for understanding the doctrine of high principles of Sha’kya? Afterwards Sha’kya himself, in a discursive manner with Subhu’ti and Mañju Sri, gives several instructions in the moral and metaphysical part of his doctrine. There are likewise several discussions by Mañju Sri and others, on the state of being bound or tied by, and on that of being liberated or emancipated from, the fetters of passions and ignorance. The most certain means of emancipation, or of arriving at perfection, are these two things—earnest application, and purity of life. (Tib. (73) Brtson-hgrus-Chang-bag-yod-pa.)

The sixth su’tra, entitled “Ratna Kotni,” (from leaf 460—474) contains a short speculative discourse held by Sha’kya (on the Gridhra kuta parvata, near Rájagriha) with Mañju Sri Kuma’ra-bhu’ta, (Tib. (74) a Bodhisattva of the first rank, and with Sharíhi-bu, the most sagacious among his disciples, “on the first root, or primary cause of all things (Dharma dhátu). Translated by Prajna-varma, Indian Pandit, and Bande Yé’she’s-sde’, Tibetan interpreter.

(Nya) or the Eighth Volume.

There are in this volume seven separate works, under the following titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan—1. Sanscrit, Mahá parinirvána. Tib. (75) Yongs-su-myá-nan-las-hdas-pa-chi’hen-po. Eng. The entire deliverance from pain—From leaf 1—231 of the volume. Contents—Sha’kya’s death, under a pair of Sál trees, near the city Kusha (Káma-rupa in Assam) on the full moon of the third month, in the spring season. Miracles that happened on that occasion—great lamentation of all creatures on the approaching death of Sha’kya—they haste all to present him their last offerings, and to hear his last instructions—Hod-srung and others ask him about many things. The substance of his

73 नरक्षणुपरं अलक्षणं 74 श्रीरक्ष्य स्तन्ति हस्ति हस्ति 75 चिन्तामणि
doctrine is repeated here, especially with respect to the nature and soul of the Tathágatas—there coming forth and their going away from the world—and the state of being tied, and that of being liberated or emancipated, with respect to all animal beings. This sûtra was translated by Jīna-mitra, Jñāna-garbha, and Deva-chandra.

The second sûtra in this volume (from leaf 231—234) has the same title as the first. Contents—Sha'kya, a little before his death, foretells to Kun-dgho-vơ what will become of his doctrine during the course of eleven centuries. It will increase, and be greatly respected during eight centuries, but afterwards on account of the priests being degenerated and occupied with worldly affairs, it will be neglected.

The third sûtra in this volume (leaves 234, 235) is entitled in Sans. "A'la-jnánam," Tib. (75) Hdah-k'ha-yé-shés. Eng. The knowledge of the deceasing, or the declining knowledge. Contents—Sha’kya being asked by a Bodhisatwa, (77) Nam-mkhahi-snying-po, how the soul of a dying saint is to be considered, gives him an answer thereupon.

The fourth sûtra in this volume (from leaf 235—333) is entitled in Sans, Buddha-dharma-kos'hakāra. Tib. (78) Sangs-rayas-kyi-mdsod-kyi-ch'hos-kyi-yi-gé. Contents—Sha’kya with Sha’rīhi-bu has a conversation on the nature of things—how they exist; and instructs him both in the speculative and practical parts of his doctrine. This and the preceding sûtra were translated from the Chinese. (See the Index.)

The fifth sûtra (from leaf 333—456) is entitled in Sanscrit, Ratnākara. Tib. (79) Dkon-mch'og-hbyung-gnas. Eng. A mine of jewels. Contents—This was delivered by Sha’kya at Sakétuna or Ayodhyā, (Tib. (80) Gnas-bchas) on the request of Manju Sri Kumara-bhu’ta. There is an account
of the several Buddhas or Tathágatas, and of Buddha provinces, and of Buddhism, both in prose and verse. There are several praises also to those Tathágatas.

The sixth sūtra (leaves 456, 457) is entitled in Sanscrit, Suvrāṇa sūtra. Tib. (81) Gser-gyi-mdo. Eng. The golden sūtra. Contents—SHA’KYA being asked by KUN-DGAR-VO,” how a Bodhisatva’s soul is to be considered, on a single leaf gives him an answer in likening it to pure gold.

The seventh sūtra (from leaf 457—462) is entitled in Sanscrit, Suvrāṇa bālukopama. Tib. (82) Gsér-gyi-byé-ma-lta-bu. Eng. The gold grain-like sūtra. Contents—In answer to KUN-DGAR-VO’s request or question, SHA’KYA tells him that the Buddhas are infinite, and their perfections immense.

The above specified three last sūtras were translated by JINA-MITRA, SURE’NDRA, PRAJNA’VARMA, and YE’-SHE’S-SDE’.

(T1) OR THE NINTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume six separate works, the titles of which, in Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Sarva-dharma swabhāva samatā-vipanchitā “Samādhi-Rāja”.


3. Sans. Prashānta vīnīchāya prathihāya samādhi. Tib. (85) Rab-tu-

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(81) བོད་མི་རིང་ 82 བོད་མི་སེམས་ 83 ལོངས་ས་་ཤིང་། རབ་ཀུན་་མི་་མཆོག་། 84 འོཞི་ཤིང་། དཔེ་བོ་་པ་ལ་ཤིང་། 85 ཤེ་མི་ཤིང་། རབ་ཀུན་་མི་་མཆོག་།


In all these six su’tras the subject is moral and metaphysical doctrine. Sha’kyä being admired for his wisdom, is requested by several individual Bodhisatwas to instruct them in the manner of obtaining such a wisdom and perfection. He tells them his own former moral merits, and instructs them in the highest principles of Buddhism.

(Thā) OR THE TENTH VOLUME.

There are seven separate works (besides small pieces) in this volume, and their titles, in Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow:—


86 弥勒 計尚 普皆 計尚 普皆 計尚
87 月類性 計尚 普皆 計尚 普皆 計尚
88 月類性 計尚 普皆 計尚 普皆 計尚
89 月類性 計尚 普皆 計尚 普皆 計尚
90 月類性 計尚 普皆 訂尚 計尚 普皆 訂尚
91 月類性 計尚 普皆 訂尚
92 月類性 訂尚


Here also, as in the former volume, all the treatises contain speculation on the common topics of the Buddhistic doctrine, delivered by Sha’kyā on the request of some Bodhisatwa. In the first of these treatises, Sha’kyā is requested by Bzang-skyong, a Bodhisatwa, to instruct him how to acquire the supreme wisdom; and in the second, on the request of Sre’d-me’d-bu, another Bodhisatwa, Sha’kyā discourses on all sorts of virtues and moral merits; and so on in the rest also. There is no historical matter; all is speculation on causal concatenation, unreality of things—Sunyatā, the six transcendental virtues, &c. &c. Translators, Jina-mitra, Dharmapa-la, Mun’i-varma, Prajna-varma, Shi’lendra, and Ye-she’s sde’.

(D1) OR THE ELEVENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume nine separate works, the titles of which in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some remarks on the contents of them, are as follow:—

2. Sans. Gáthá-dwaya - dháráṇī. Tib. (97) Tshigs-su-bchod-pa-gnyis-pahi-gzungs. Leaf 10. A Dháráṇī consisting of two sūkas, with some mantra sentences (in Sanscrit) for acquiring supernatural powers, to be delivered from all imperfections.

3. Sans. Mahá yána prasáda prabhávāna. Tib. (98) Thég-pa-ch‘hen-po-la-dad-pa-rab-tu-sgom-pa. From leaf 10—52. The several degrees of persuasion or belief of the Bodhisatwas in the high principles of Buddhism. What things are to be avoided, and what to be practised by the Bodhisatwas. Translated by Jina-mitra, Dāna-shila, and Ye’she’s-de’.

4. Sans. Bodhisatwagochara upáya vishaya vikurvacā nirdēsha. Tib. (99) Byang-ch’hub-sems-dpahi-spyod-yul-gyi-chabs-kyi-yul-la-ram-par-hpur-l-pas-bstan-pa. The shewing of miraculous changes in the practice of a Bodhisatwa (or saint). From leaf 57—154. Contents—Sha’kya in Hphags-rgyal (Sans. Ujjayanti) in a grove belonging to the king Gtum-po-rab-snang—several instructions given by Sha’kya, on the request of Hjam-dpal (Sans. Manju Sri)—wisdom in the choice of things—praise of knowledge and of good qualities—the story of Bden-smra (he that speaks the truth), a gymnosophist Brāhmaṇ—he before-mentioned king pays a visit to him, is much pleased with his ingenious instruction, and in a long conversation with him hears of the good qualities and the defects of men, in general, and of some illustrious individuals in special, among whom his own also—the king wishing to know any one who was without defects, the gymnosophist tells him that there is one—Gautama. Here follows the enumeration of the several good qualities, and the eighty points of beauty on his body, as of a great saint. The king afterwards, together with the naked Brāhmaṇ, with great procession and multitude visits Sha’kya in a grove near the city. Conversation on

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(97) श्रीमान्म नमः संजीव त्रिवेदी श्रीमान् 
(98) श्रीमान् श्रीस्तवंद्याग्नि यमश्री श्रीमान् 
(99) उन्नीत नामेन दत्ती श्रीसुभाषिकामनी युज्याश्री श्रीमान् पर्याप्तमामुद्रम
the highest principles of Buddhism, between the principal disciples of Shákya and the gymnosophist Bráhman, on the state of being tied and liberated, and on becoming a saint or a Buddha.


7. Sans. Maitra paripríchch‘ha. Tib. (2) Byams-pas-zhus-pa. Leaf 470, 471. On the request of MAITRA (a Bodhisatwa), who asked what merit it is to give religious instruction to others; Shá‘kya tells him that it is beyond comparison, the most valuable thing.


(NA) OR THE TWELFTH VOLUME.

There are six separate works in this volume, containing moral and metaphysical lessons, given by Shá‘kya, on the request of the under specified fancied persons. The titles of the works, in Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow:—

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100 इवंद्रश् अहिँश्क्यो श्यस्को श्रीबम्बो देवामर भवति
1 कस्मादेश्व स्त्रोद्रश् तंत्
2 तः समर्थको नाथो दानो भुज्यावनि तन्मणि क्षन स्वर्गायन य
3 यस्मि श्रीवर्णां विशेषतः योजनार्थप्रविष्टताः
4 पृष्ट्यप्रभृत्य श्रीवर्णां भवति


3, 4. Other two sûtras, on the request of ditto.


(Pa) OR THE THIRTEENTH VOLUME.

There are fourteen separate works in this volume. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Brahmá pariprichek‘ha. Tib. (9) Ts‘hangs-pas-zhus-pa. From leaf 1—16. A sûtra delivered on the request of Brahma‘ (the god), containing instructions on the manner by which one may arrive at the supreme perfection.


instructions given by Bchom-ldan-hdas (Shā'kya) in a discursive manner, on the request of Brahmā' vishes'ha-chinti.

4. Sans. Svikrānta Dévaputra paripricch'ha. Tibetan, (12) Lhahi-bu-rab-rtsal-séms-kyis-zhus-pa. From leaf 162—225. A sûtra on several subjects; how to acquire such and such good qualities; and how to be delivered from such and such defects: told by Manju Sri, (Tibetan Hjam-dpal) at the request of Svikra'nta Dévaputra.


7. Sans. Ratna-chandra paripricch'ha. Tibetan, (15) Rin-ch'hen-zla-vas-zhus-pa. From leaf 258—270. Instruction on several Buddha provinces—the perfections of Buddhas—the six transcendental virtues: given at the request of Ratna-chandra, the son of the king of Magadhā (Sanskrit, Vimbasa'ra, or Tibetan, Gzungs chan-snying-po).


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12 རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ 13 རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ 14 རྒྱུ་མ་ 15 རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ 16 རྒྱུ་མ་ རྒྱུ་མ་ 17 རྒྱུ་མ་
SHA’KYA may continue long—on the good moral conduct of the priests—degeneration of that order: told at the request of RASHTRA-PA’LA.


11. Sans. Vimala prabhāva paripriechi’hā. Tibetan, (19) Dri-ma-médpahi-hod-kyis-zhus-pa. From leaf 339—418. A sūtra, on the request of VIMALA-PRABHA’VA, on various subjects. At the end of this sūtra is comprehended the essence of all that he (SHA’KYA) had taught before.


14. Sans. Mahā-lalikā paripriechi’hā. Tib. (22) Bgrès-mos-zhus-pa. From leaf 503—511. SHA’KYA’s instruction, given at the request of an old woman, in the country of Briji. She questions SHA’KYA on the beginning and end of several things. KUN-DGAH-VO admires her wisdom. SHA’KYA tells him her former moral merits, and that she has been his mother in five hundred generations.

(P’HA) OR THE FOURTEENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume nine separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:

\[18 \text{Vikurva’na Raja paripriechi’hā.} \quad 19 \text{Dri-ma-médpahi-hod-kyis-zhus-pa.} \quad 20 \text{Thég-pa-ch’hen-pohi-man-nag.} \quad 21 \text{Srimati-Brāhmaṇi paripriechi’hā.} \quad 22 \text{Mahā-lalikā paripriechi’hā.}\]


4. Sans. Akshaya-mati nirdēsha. Tibetan, (26) Blo-gros-mi-zad-pas-bstan-pa. From leaf 124—274. The explication of several metaphysical terms, as, “to come forth” and “to go away,” by Akshaya-mati, a Bodhisatwa; and other discussions between Sha'kya, his principal disciple Sha'radwati-thi-bu, and this Bodhisatwa.


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23 ज्ञान ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं 24 ज्ञानित्यं ज्ञेयं 25 ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं 26 ज्ञानित्यं ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं 27 ज्ञानित्यं ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं 28 ज्ञान ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं 29 ज्ञानित्यं ज्ञेयं 30 ज्ञानित्यं ज्ञेयं ज्ञेयं

(BA) OR THE FIFTEENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume nineteen separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short accounts of their contents, are as follow:

1. Sans. Pancha pāramitā nirdēśa. Tibetan, (32) Pha-rol-tu-p’hyin-pa-līna-bstan-pa. From leaf 1—121. Instruction on the five transcendental or eminent virtues, as charity or alms-giving—morality or good morals—patience—diligent application—and meditation: given by Shāradvatīṭhi-bu in a discursive manner with Gang-po, two principal disciples of Sha’kya, being empowered and directed by him, when he was at Mnyan-yod (or Shrāvacīst) in Kosala. Translated by Jina-mitra and Ye’she’s-sde’.

2. Sans. Dāna-pāramitā. Tib. (33) Shyin-pahi-p’ha-rol-tu-p’hyin-pa. From leaf 121—151. A sūtra containing instruction on the ten moral virtues, and particularly on charity; delivered by Sha’kya, when he was at Ser-skya (Sans. Capila), on the request of a Bodhisatwa. Translated by Prajna’-varma and Ye’she’s-sde’.


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31 བློ་ སྣད་ རླུ་ བླ་ སྣྱར། རུ་ སྣྱར རུ། སྣྱར། 32 འླུ་ སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། 33 བློ་ སྣད་ རླུ་ བླ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། 34 བློ་ སྣད་ རླུ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། 35 བློ་ སྣད་ རླུ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར། རུ། སྣྱར།
5. Sans. Tathágata guṇa jnána achintya viśhaya-avatára nirdeśa. Tib. (36) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa-hi-yon-tan-dang-yé-shes-bsam-gyis-mi-k'hyab-pahi-yul-la-hjug-pa-bstan-pa. From leaf 167—228. On the first seven leaves, there is a long enumeration of all sorts of hearers; as, of priests, Bodhisatvas, gods, and demons, with their great qualifications. Afterwards Shá'kya addressing Manju Sri, tells him how infinite are the wisdom and other perfections of Tathágata. Translated by Jña'na-garbha and Ye-'she's-sde'.

6. Sans. Buddha-bala dhana pratihárya vikravána nirdeśa. Tib. (37) Sangs-rgyas-kyi-stobs-bskyé-pahi-ch'ho-hp'hrul-rnam-par-hp'hrul-va-bstan-pa. From leaf 228—251. The shewing of the miraculous manner by which the powers of Buddha are produced or generated, and the several ways which he employs in bringing the animal beings to maturity or perfection. Told by Shá'kya to Sfyan-ras-gzigs and Lag-na-rdo-rje (Sans. Avalokitëśhwara and Vajra Páñi.)


8. Sans. Dipāṅkara byākaraṇa. Tib. (39) Mar-mé-mdsad-kyis-lung-bstan-pa. From leaf 307—321. Shá'kya tells to Kun-dgah-vo how Dipāṅkara was born; how he became a Buddha; and how he had foretold of a Bráhman, that in future time he should be born under the name of Shá'kya Thub-pa. Translated by Vishuddha Siddha and Dge'-va-dpal.


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(35) - (40) Various Sanskrit and Tibetan terms and names are used in the text, indicating different cultural and religious contexts.


12. Sans. Kshēmāvatī byākaraṇa. Tib. (43) Bdé-lidan-ma-lung-bstan-pa. From leaf 393—397. A prediction with respect to KSHE'MĀVATĪ, the wife of VIMBASA'RA, the king of Magadha. SHA'KYA’s religious instruction to her.


14. Sans. Jaya-mati (pariprič'chha). Tib. (45) Rgyal-vahi-blo-gros-kyis-zhus-pa. Leaves 403, 404. At the request of JAYAMATI, SHA'KYA instructs him, what is to be done that one may arrive at such and such a perfection or happiness, according to his own wishes.


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41 श्रीविवर्ता 42 बुद्धमेह्ग्यर्वलुंबस्तानपा 43 श्रीक्षेमावती 44 श्रीमाहादेवी 45 ख्याल्वाहिंबोग्स्क्स्क्यिंब्ख्स्पाः 46 क्षीर्मातिः 47 ब्झाँम्प्ड्प्ल्भ्न्स्क्पाः
440. On a request from *Maitreya*, *Shā'kyā* instructs him how to prevent
his doctrine from being discontinued in future time.

440—475. On the proceedings or conduct of *Maitreya*, with respect to
his former moral merits: told by *Shā'kyā* at the request of a *Bodhisatva*.

par-hjug-pa*. From leaf 475—483. The walking (or doing) after the manner of
the world. *Shā'kyā*, at the request of *Manju Śrī*, his spiritual son, tells (in
verse) the reasons why the *Tathāgatas*, or *Buddhas*, accommodate themselves,
in their proceedings, to men's ideas (or to human conceptions). Translated by
*Jina-mitra, Da'nashila, and Ye'she's-sde*.

*(Ma)* or the sixteenth volume.

There are in this volume nineteen separate works. The titles of them
in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short remarks on their contents, are as
follow:—

1. Sans. *Shraddhā-balā dhānāvātāra mudra*. Tib. (51) *Dad-pahi-stobs-
bsked-pa-la-hjug-pahi-p'hayag-rgya*. From leaf 1—103. Many explanations
regarding the terms—relief from toil, and increase in faith: by *Shā'kyā* to
*Manju Śrī*. On the six transcendental virtues. The several *Bhumis* (or degrees
of *Bodhisatvas*). Several *Buddhas* or *Tathāgatas* in the ten corners of the world
—their perfections, and their endeavours in bringing to perfection all sorts of
animal beings. Translated by *Surendra-Bodhi* and *Ye'she's-sde*.

2. Sans. *Niyata aniyata gati mudra avatāra*. Tib. (52) *Nes-pa-dang-ma-
ñes-par-hgro-vahi-p'hayag-rgya-la-hjug-pa*. From leaf 103—127. On the

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48 मःर्षीः मःकः 49 ओऽनृः ओऽनृः 50 ओऽनृः ओऽ ओऽ ओऽ ओऽ ओऽ ओऽ
51 ओऽनृः ओऽनृः मःकः मःकः मःकः मःकः मःकः मःकः 52 ओऽनृः ओऽ ओऽ

certain and uncertain manner of advancing to perfection and final beatitude: taught by Shákyā, on the request of Manju Srij. Translated by Prajñāvarma, Surendra-Bodhi, and Ye-she's-sde.'


4. Sans. Pradipadāniyā. Tib. (54) Mar-mé-hbul-va. From leaf 132—150. The offering of lamps or lights in honour of the Buddhas and Bodhisatvas. Sha'kyā addressing Sha'rihi-bu, tells him the several benefits or blessings arising from such a religious merit.

5. Sans. Nagara avalambikā. Tib. (55) Grong-k'hyer-gyis-hts'o-va. From leaf 150—152. A lamp is offered to Shákyā by Nagara-avalambika' (a woman) with such a religious zeal, that she is foretold by Shákyā to become a Buddha, after a long period of time, in consequence of this religious merit.


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53 ཟོོན་ སྣོོན་ སྣོོག་ 54 ཐ་ོོ་ གོ་ གྲོ་ གྲྭ གྲྭ གྲྭ 55 སྣོོག་ སྣོོན་ སྣོོག་ གྲྭ 56 སྣོོན་ སྣོོན་ སྣོོག་ གྲྭ གྲྭ གྲྭ གྲྭ 57 སྣོོན་ སྣོོན་ སྣོོག་ གྲྭ 58 སྣོོག་ སྣོོག་ སྣོོག་ གྲྭ 59 སྣོོན་ སྣོོན་ སྣོོག་ གྲྭ 56 སྣོོན་ སྣོོན་ སྣོོག་ གྲྭ གྲྭ གྲྭ
10. Sans. Shāli sambhava. Tib. (60) Sāluhi-ljung-pa. From leaf 190—203. The green rice field, or the dependent or causal concatenation of things in their coming forth and existing; illustrated in a green rice field; shewing how every article is dependent on other things, commencing with the seed.


15. Sans. Rāja-dēsha. Tib. Rgyal-po-la-gdams-pa. From leaf 337—339. Shā'kya's instruction to (Tib. (64)) Hch'har-byed, the king of Badsala (Tib. (65)).


60 अङ्गुली खोल्म 61 खुं खुं भविज्ञाम नृत्तिकायः तिलाम निमिन्य 62 नृत्तिकाय धृताय 63 नृत्तिकाय आशसन 64 खृष्णहर 65 बद्दोलि 66 अङ्गुली खोल्म नृत्तिकाय

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Vimbasa'ra. Instruction by Sha'kya upon several subjects, in a discursive manner, with his principal disciples, tending to the comfortation of that king.

17. Sans. Shri-gupta. Tib. (67) Dpal-sbas. From leaf 427—451. The story of Sri-gupta, a householder, at Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shrâvasti). He, on the advice of his naked spiritual guide, endeavours to destroy the life of Gautama (the deceiver of the world); but being afterwards convinced of his divine qualities, repents of his former actions, and takes refuge with Buddha.


(Tsa) or the Seventeenth Volume.

There are eleven separate works in this volume. The titles of them, in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Buddha-pitaka-du-shila nighrahi. Tib. (70) Sangs-rgyas-kyi-sde-snod-ts'ul-khrims-hchi-hal-pa-ts'har-gechod-pa. From leaf 1—131. The punishment of those that have violated the moral laws or doctrine of Buddha. Sha'kya at Varánasi, in a grove (71), instructs Sha'rihi-bu in the true theory of Buddha doctrine with respect to the soul—on the character of a true religious guide, and on that of false teachers—he foretells the degenera-

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67 रजनी श्रव 68 नान श्री श्रिया श्रीराज रत्न 69 नान श्री श्रीया श्रीराज रत्न 70 नान श्री श्रीया श्रीराज रत्न 71 (जय श्रीराज श्री श्रीराज)

tion of the priests, in future times—the unhappy consequences of bad principles or theories—he speaks also of several transgressions against good morals. Translated by DhARMA Sri PrABHA, and Gléong Dpal-gyi-lhun-po.


3. Sans. Mahā bhāri haraka parivarta. Tib. (73) Rna-vo-ch’he-ch’hen-pohi-léhu. From leaf 142—208. A chapter on the large drum; or Sha’kya’s instruction to his disciples, at a certain time when he was visited by the king of Kosala, who came with great noise of drums and other musical instruments. Sha’kya tells his disciples that the greatest happiness of man is final emancipation.

4. Sans. Traya triṇ hotspot parivarta. Tib. (74) Sum-chu-rtsa gsun-pahi-léhu. From leaf 208—263. A chapter on Traya triṇ hotspot (thirty-three), or the residence of gods, where the principal is Indra. Instruction by Sha’kya, at the request of Kaushika or Indra, on the theory and practice of the Bodhisatvas.


(72) གཞག་པ་ གསར་མ། (73) ཆི་ཉེ་ཆེན་པོའི་ རྒྱལ་པ་ (74) ནང་ལུ་ ང་ས་པ་ (75) སྦྱེ་ལུགས་མ་ སྙིང་པོའི་ རྒྱལ། (76) གསོ་ས་ སྙེམ་པ་ སྐྱེད་པ་


(Ts’ha) OR THE EIGHTEENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume six separate works. The titles of them, in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Ratna-mégha. Tib. (83) Dkon-mch’hog-sprin. The precious cloud. From leaf 1—175. Sha’kya on the top of the mountain of Gayá, in the presence of all sorts of hearers, on the request of a Bodhisatva, (Sgríb-pa-thams-chad-rnam-par-sél-va,) gives instruction on all sorts of virtues, especially on the ten cardinal ones; as, charity, morality, patience, diligence, meditation,

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77 達摩波羅蜜 78 般若波羅蜜 79 大乘佛教 80 小乘佛教 81 般若波羅蜜 82 大乘佛教 83 大乘佛教
wit or ingenuity, mode, prayer, fortitude, and wisdom. The nature and extent of each of them, with four subdivisions, is explained, as well as how and when they are perfectly fulfilled or accomplished. At the end of this sūtra it is stated by Shākya, that this sūtra may be called also, a mine of precious good qualities, or a light of wisdom. On account of the moral doctrine it contains, it is a favourite work among the Tibetans. Translated by Bande-rin-ch'hen-mtsho, and Ch'hos-nyid-ts'hul-khrims, (no Pandit is mentioned here).

2. Sans. Mahā Mēgha. Tib. (84) Sprin-ch'hen-po. The great cloud. From leaf 175—331. Shākya on the mountain called the “Bya-rgod-p'hung-pohi-ri,” near Rājagriha. Among the several classes of hearers, there is an immense number of Bodhisatwas, with the epithet of “great cloud,” (Sprin-ch'hen)—also many young men of the Lichābi race are enumerated. This sūtra was delivered by Shākya, at the request of a Bodhisatwa (Sprin-ch'hen-snying-po) who makes a long encomium on Shākya's person, and his several accomplishments. There are several subjects: the principal are the greatness of Tathāgata's or Buddha's qualities or perfections—the excellence of his doctrine—several Buddhas, their provinces, and their great exertions—Bodhisatwas—the different degrees of their perfections—the manner of their conduct. Instruction on several articles of the Buddha faith.

3. Sans. Dasha-dig Bodhisatwa sāmudra sannipati mahodasa vikrīdita. Tib. (85) Phyogs-bkuhi-byang-ch'hub-séms-dpah-rgya-mtsho-hdus-pahi-dgahston-ch'hen-po-la-brtse-xa. The sports or amusements, in a great festival, of an ocean of Bodhisatwas assembled from the ten corners of the world, (from leaf 331—378); or speculations on several topics of the Buddhistic system, as Sānyatā—causal concatenation—several regions or Buddha mansions of the world. Delivered by Bchom-ldan-hdas (Shākya) at the request of Kun-tu-bzang-po (Sans. Samanta-Bhadra) a Bodhisatwa.

84 बृजन्द्र राघव 85 तुलसी वज्र धर्म श्रीमान्य गिरी श्रीमान्य रघु गिरी गिरी रघु


6. Sans. *Bhagaván us'hni'sha mahá.* Tib. (89) *Bchom-ldan-hips-kyi-gtsug-tor-chhen-po.* From leaf 404—438. The great ornament on the crown of the head of Bhaga'ven; or Sha'kya's instruction to Dgah-vo and others in the mysteries of Tathágata, to be delivered from the errors or delusion of the world, and to obtain final happiness or emancipation from bodily existence.

(Dsa) OR THE NINETEENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume five separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. *Dharma Sañgiti.* Tib. (89) *Ch'kho-yang-dag-par-sbd-pa.* Enumeration of several virtues. From leaf 1—154. Several particular virtues and perfections are enumerated; and after each, is stated, what one may obtain by the exercise of them. Discussions, by two Bodhisatwás, on the nature, the birth, abiding, and the death of the Tathágatas—in what sense, or how, they should be taken or understood. Enumeration of several perfections of Tathágatas. The ten cardinal virtues, beginning with charity, &c. &c. Theories respecting the soul. Sú'nyatá, and other common topics. Translated by Manju Sri-garbha, Vijaya-shíla, Shi'lendra-bodhi, and Ye'she's sde'.

a Bodhisatwa; or instruction on several things, according to the Buddhistic principles, especially on the ten transcendental or perfect virtues; as charity, morality, patience, &c.—the three degrees of perfection—the virtues required for arriving at each of them. Many moral instructions, both in prose and verse, teaching how to reach the degree of perfection of a Bodhisatwa.

3. Sans. A'ryavivarta chakra. Tib. (91) H'phags-pa-p'hyir-mi-ldog-pa-hkh'or-lo. From leaf 367—458. Instruction on walking in the path of virtue. Sha'kya addressing Kun-dgah-vo, tells him the duties of a Bodhisatwa. There are here many instructions in the doctrines of Buddha, according to the three different degrees of perfection in the principals of Sha'kya's disciples. At the end it is stated by Sha'kya, that this sutra contains the essence of that which the other Buddhas have taught before him; as also the transcendental virtues.


5. Sans. Pariñata chakra. Tib. (93) Yongg-su-bsno-va-hkhor-lo. From leaf 460—465 On the bestowing of a Buddha's benediction on any one, that, in consequence of his religious and moral merits, he may at last find the supreme perfection. In general, all the five works in this volume contain speculation on the theory and practice of the Bodhisatwas, or imaginary saints.

(WA) OR THE TWENTIETH VOLUME.

There are nineteen separate works in this volume. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short notices on their contents, are as follow:

91 उषेंम्बर्णसः १७१-२१६ १५०-१७१ ९२ तोमर्षिनसः १५०-१७१ ९३ भृसुम्बर्णसः १५०-१७१
1. Sans. Sad-dharma rája. Tib. (94) Dam-pahi-ch'hos-kyi-rgyal-po. From leaf 1—22. Instruction by Shākya, when he was about to die, concerning the soul, at the request of a Bodhisatwa (95). Here is stated, that all animal beings have in themselves the same spiritual essence as Buddha has.


3. Sans. Dharma-skandha. Tib. (97) Ch'hos-kyi-p'hung-po. From leaf 39—46. The aggregate of moral laws or precepts, of which there are counted 84,000 in the Buddhistic system. Shā'kya, when he was at Ser-skya (Sans. Capila) at the request of Sha'rihi-bu, and others of his principal disciples, gives them an explanation of the Dharma-skandha.

4. Sans. Paramārtha dharma vijaya. Tib. (98) Don-dam-pahi-ch'hos-kyi-rnam-par-rgyal-ta. From leaf 46—60. The triumph or victory of the true religion. Shā'kya on the mount Gayā converses or talks with several Rishis (who address him always, Gautama) on several articles, especially on birth, and death.


6. Sans. Bodhisatwa pratimoks'ha chatushka nirahāra. Tib. (1) Byang-ch'hub-sems-dpahi-so-sor-thar-pa-ch'hos-bzhi-sgrub-pa. From leaf 65—84. Instruction on four virtues, by which the acquisition of which a Bodhisatwa may arrive at the supreme perfection, or may become a Buddha; given by Shā'ky-a, at the request of Sha'rihi-bu.
7. Sans. Chatur-dharma nirdesha. Tib. (2) Ch'hos-bzhi-bstan-pa. Leaves 84, 85. The enumeration of four things, by which all crimes committed are effaced or washed away.


9. Sans. Ditto. Leaves 86, 87. Four things to be kept or observed by every Bodhisatwa, or wise man.


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2 仏尊 于仏 以仏 3 仏尊 于仏 以仏 4 仏尊 于仏 以仏 5 仏尊 于仏 以仏 6 仏尊 于仏 以仏 7 仏尊 于仏 以仏 8 仏尊 于仏 以仏 9 仏尊 于仏 以仏
A large treatise on several articles of the Buddhistic doctrine, especially on the duties of a Bodhisatwa—told by Sha'kyā, at the request of Tshangs-pa. (Sans. Brahmā.)


19. Sans. Upāya-kaushalya. Tib. (14) T'habs-la-mk'has-pa. From leaf 405—447. He that is wise in the method of his pursuit; or the wise proceedings of Bodhisatwa for arriving at the supreme perfection—told by Sha'kyā at the request of Ye-shes-bla-ma (Tib. (15)) a Bodhisatwa.

(Zula) or the Twenty-first Volume.

There are in this volume four separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short notices on their contents, are as follow:

1. Sans. Buddha-nāma sahasra pañcha, shata chatur tri pañcha dasha. Tib. (16) Sangs-rgyas-kyi-mtšhan-lwa-stong-bzhi-brgya-lha-bchu-rtsa-gsum-pa. From leaf 1—137. There are in these leaves an enumeration of five thousand four hundred and fifty-three names or epithets of Buddha or Tathāgata (as is

\[\text{10} \quad \text{11} \quad \text{12} \quad \text{13} \quad \text{14} \quad \text{15} \quad \text{16}\]
specified in the title) and to each of them is added, "Reverence be to him," or "I adore him." In the text Tathāgata always is used (Tib. Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa.) The names or epithets are taken from all sorts of virtues, excellent qualities, great performances of Buddha, precious things, grand, magnificent, and pleasing objects of nature, &c. &c. All the names are introduced in this form—Tib. (17) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa, (such and such a one) la-p'hyag-hts'hal-lo. Reverence to Tathāgata (such and such a one), or I adore Tathāgata under this name.

Three names, as specimens, taken from the third leaf:

(i.) Tib. (18) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa-kun-tu-snang-vahi-nyi-mahi-rgyal-po-la-p'hyag-hts'hal-lo. I adore Tathāgata, the every where shining chief sun.

(ii.) Tib. (19) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa-ch'hos-kyi-yé-shes-la-p'hyag-hts'hal-lo. I adore Tathāgata, the moral wisdom.

(iii.) Tib. (20) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa p'hyogs thams-chad-kyi mar-méhi rgyal-po-la p'hyag-hts'hal-lo. I adore Tathāgata, who is the principal lamp (or light) of all the corners (of the world). All the rest run in this manner. In some names, many epithets are heaped together.

2. The second work in this volume is entitled in Sanscrit, Samyag ácharya, &c. Tib. (21) Yang-dag-par-spyod-pahi-ts'hu. From leaf 137—328. On the best conduct, or purity of life of the Bodhisatwas (or of the truly wise and pious men) by Shakya, to be followed by his disciples.

3. The third work in this volume (from leaf 328—451) has no Sanscrit title. The Tibetan is (22) Hgyod-ts'hangs-kyis-sdig-sbyangs. The putting away of sins by a sincere repentance, and by the invocation and adoration of the

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17 देवधिनग्स्थेग्स-पा—लार्प्याङ्ग-ह्त्स'हाल-धू 18 देवधिनग्स्थेग्स-पा-कुन-दु-स्नाङ्ग-वाही-न्यि-माही-र्ग्याल-डो-र्प्याङ्ग-ह्त्स'हाल-धू 19 देवधिनग्स्थेग्स-पा-च'होस-क्यि-ये-शेस-लार्प्याङ्ग-ह्त्स'हाल-धू 20 देवधिनग्स्थेग्स-पा प्न्योड्ग-त्स'हों-धू 21 यांग-दाङ्ग-पार-स्प्योद-पाही-ट्स'हुल 22 ह्ग्योड्त्स'हाङ्ग्स-क्यिस्स्डिङ्ग-स्ब्यांग्स
Buddhas (Bhagaváns) and the Bodhisatvas. There are enumerated here also (from leaf 339—358) many names or epithets of Buddhas, Bhagaváns, and Bodhisatvas, with the addition of this conclusion, "I adore him."

4. The fourth work in this volume (from leaf 451—499) is entitled in Sans. Kusuma sanchayá. Tib. (23) Mé-tog-gi-ts’ogs. A collection of flowers, or many flowers. On the request of Shārīhi-bu, Shā’kya enumerates several Buddhas in the ten corners of the world, who at the same time with him were teaching the same doctrine as he. Benefits arising from hearing the names of Buddhas, and from the invocation and adoration of them.

(Zá) or the Twenty-second Volume.

There are in this volume twenty separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short notices of their contents, are as follow:—

1. The seven first leaves contain adoration, prayer, and benediction of several Buddhas.


Note.—Brahma' (in Tib. Ts’hangs-pa) is sometimes called, likewise, the lord of the Sahalokadhátu, or of the universe.


8. Sans. Buddha makuta. Tib. (31) Sangs-rgyas-kyi-dvu-rgyan. From leaf 41—50. Shankya addressing Hod-srung-ch'hen-po, (Sanskrit Mahā Kāśyapa) tells him the names and perfections of several (imaginary) Buddhhas, residing at an immense distance towards the east—the blessing arising from hearing and uttering their names.


tells of several virtues to be practised by those who wish to arrive at
perfection.

leaf 72—76. The eight mandalas or circles. Here is an account by ShA'KYA
to Sha'RIHI-BU of eight imaginary Buddhhas, at an immense distance towards
the east—the blessings of hearing and repeating their names.

leaf 76—79. Sha'KYA at Yangs-pa-chen (Sans. Vaishali), at the request of a
man of the Lichabji race, enumerates several Buddhhas at an immense distance
towards the east—the purity of their mansions, their great perfections, and
the several blessings arising from hearing their names, and addressing prayers
to them.

Leaves 79, 80. The remembering of Buddha. There is an enumeration of
several perfections of Buddha.

The remembering of the law. A short description of the character of the
doctrine of Buddha.

80. The remembering of the priests. Three things to be sought by the
priests—good morals, meditation, and wisdom.

Leaves 81, 82. (Sans. Dharmakaya, Sambhogakaya, and Nirmakaya.)
Sha'KYA explains them on the request of a Bodhisatwa, (Sahi-snying-po).

82—111. Explanation on the three aggregates—morality, meditation, and
ingenuity or wisdom.
18. No Sanscrit title. Tib. (41) Bsam-pa-thams-chad-yongs-su-rdsogs-par-
byed-pahi-yongs-su-bsño-va. From leaf 111—115. A benediction, that one's
good intentions may be fulfilled.

19. Another benediction (from leaf 115—118), that all animal beings
may be protected and defended against all sorts of evil.

20. Sans. Sud-dharmásrityupasthánam. Tib. (42) Dam-pahi-ch’hos-drang-
apa-nyé-var-bshag-pa, (from leaf 118—455, or the end of this volume, as also
the next following three volumes.) True moral, or the recollection of one's
self (in all one's doings.) There are instructions on all sorts of moral duties,
delivered by Shākya at a place called Naluti, near Rájagriha (in Magadhá).
On the ten immoral actions, and the ten virtues the reverse of the former.
The fruits or consequences of good and bad actions. Places of transmigrations.
Rewards and punishments.

(H₄) OR THE TWENTY-THIRD VOLUME.

Contents—Continuation of stories on the fruits or consequences of good
and bad actions. Description of the places of good and bad transmigrations.

(Y₄) OR THE TWENTY-FOURTH VOLUME.

Contents—Continuation of stories on similar subjects with those in the
two former volumes. The gods of the Hthab-bral (Sans. Yáma) heaven—
their actions, and the fruits of their works. Description of the pleasures
enjoyed there by the gods. Through what virtuous works may one be born
there, in his future transmigration. Exhortation to good works (in verse.)
Praise of charity, morality, chastity, &c. Good and bad works. The ten im-
moral actions. Paradise and hell. Descriptions of them. The moral of several
stories. Several stories or moral tales, told of good and bad actions. Lust,

41 यामाय यामाय यामाय यामाय यामाय यामाय यामाय यामाय
42 यामाय यामाय
passion, ignorance, the source of misery, verses hortative to virtue, description of vice.

(Ra) OR THE TWENTY-FIFTH VOLUME.

Contents—Continuation of stories like those in the three former volumes, to the leaf 348. And here ends the work that had been commenced on the 118th leaf of the Za volume.

From leaf 348—474, or the end of the volume, there are yet the following works:


2. Sans. Vimbisara-pratyut-gamana. Tib. (44) Gzugs-chan-snying-pos-bsu-vu. From leaf 373—383. Description of a visit made to Sha'kya, in a grove near Râjâgriha, by the king of Magadha Shrénika (or Shrénya) Vimbisa'ra (Tib. (45)) Invitation and solemn reception of Sha'kya by that king. His instruction to him on forming right notions and judgments of the external objects, and of the soul. On careful (or dependent) concatenation of things. Offers made by the king of Magadha to Sha'kya and to his disciples with respect to the means of their subsistence.


of Yangs-pa-chan (Sansk. Vaishali) on the good effects of remembering Buddha, the law, and the priests. (Sansk. Buddha, Dharma, and Sangha.)


7. Sans. Shīla kshipata sūtra. Tib. (50) Rdo-rje’sangs-pahi-mdo. A sūtra on a stone cast away. From leaf 425—458. There is a story told, how the inhabitants of the city of Kusha (in Assam) made arrangements for the reception of Shākya, and endeavoured to put aside from the road a huge stone, without being able to move it. Shākya arrives there, and on their request casts away the stone, or exhibits several miracles with it, and gives them lessons on the various kinds of the powers of the Tathāgatas—their omniscience—that they know the several divisions and mansions of the different kinds of beings; as also the conception, duration, and destruction of the world—further instruction on transmigration and final emancipation.

8. Sans. Kumāra drishtānta suṭra. Tib. (51) Gzhon-nu-ḥphel-mdo. A sūtra on the example of youth. From leaf 458—460. Gautama (Shākya) on the request of the king of Kosala (Sansk. Prasēna jīta, Tib. Gsals-rgyal) tells him that it is very true, according as people say of him, that he has arrived at the supreme perfection, although he is not yet old.

9. Sans. Dhātu-behutaka sūtra. Tib. (52) Khams-mang-pahi-mdo. From leaf 460—468. A sūtra on the several regions or kingdoms (of the senses.) Shākya tells to Kun-dgaḥ-vo, that the wise, who are acquainted with the nature of those several kingdoms, may be free from all fear.

at the request of the king of Kosala (Gsal-rgyal) instructs him how to make and use the Gāṇḍi.


(Lo) OR THE TWENTY-SIXTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume thirty-five separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:


Note.—They are mostly the same as have been told in the third volume of the Dulva, from leaf 419—446, and in the Lalita-vistara. See the second volume of the Mdo Class.


54 གས་ལ་རྒྱལ་ 55 གས་མཁའ་ 56 ཞེས་པོ་ 57 གས་ལ་རྒྱལ་ 58 བཟུས་ 59 བཟུས་ 60 བཟུས་


6. Sans. A'yusparényānta sūtra. Tib. (61) Ts'héhi-m't'hahi-mdo. From leaf 217—228. The life's end. Enumeration of the duration of life of the six kinds of animal beings, according to the length of days and years of each of them.


10. Sans. Sañjnána éka dasa nirdésha. Tib. (64) Hdu-shes-behu-gchig-bstan-pa. Leaves 146, 147. Enumeration of eleven things to be had in remembrance—or consideration at one's death.


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59 སྐུབ་འབྱུང་ཨུལ། ཀྲ་ཐང་པོའི་བྲིས་ཞིག། 60 སྐུབ་ལྷགས་བུ་ཤེས་ཐུ་ཐུུ། གཞུ་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། 61 སྐུབ་ལྷགས་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། གཞུ་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། 62 སྐུབ་ལྷགས་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། གཞུ་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། 63 སྐུབ་ལྷགས་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། གཞུ་བུ་ཤུ། 64 སྐུབ་ལྷགས་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། གཞུ་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། 65 སྐུབ་ལྷགས་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ། གཞུ་བུ་ཤུ་ཐུ།
of an epidemic malady, directs Kun-dgah-vo (Sansk. A'ndana) to go to the gate of the city, and to repeat there some mantras and benedictory verses.

**Note.**—This has been described at large above. See Duto khá, from leaf 120—133.


15. Sans. Artha-vighushtá. Tib. (69) Don-rgyas-pa. From leaf 295—303. Comprehensive expressions. Sháki-byú addressing the priests (Gelongs) enumerates several articles of the Buddhistic doctrine concerning the priests, to be either avoided or practised, or committed to memory.


18. Sans. Chaitya pradakshína gáthá. Tib. (72) Mch'od-rten-bskor-vahi-

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20. Sans. Eka gáthá. Tib. (74) Ts'higs-su-bchad-pa-gchig-pa. A single stanza, containing the praise of Sha'kyα, that nowhere is to be found any one like him.


23. Sans. Udána-caraga. Tib. (77) Ch'hed-du-brjod-pahi-ts'hom. From leaf 329—400. Reflections on various subjects, in verse, containing many moral and prudential maxims, in thirty-three chapters. The subjects or titles of the chapters are of the following species; as, instability, cupiditiy, affection, chastity, agreeable things, good morals, good actions, word or speech, belief or piety, priest, way, honour or respect, injury, recollection, anger, Tathágata, experience, acquaintance, deliverance from pain, vice, happiness, the mind or the soul, &c. These reflections were collected by Dgra-sbom-pa-chʰos-skYob, (Sans. Arhan dharma rakṣita.)


73 मन्त्रं तिरं दिन्यं मन्त्रं मन्त्रं  
74 दत्तं दत्तं दत्तं दत्तं  
75 दत्तं  
76 दिन्तं तिरं दिन्तं दिन्तं मन्त्रं  
77 दिन्तं मन्त्रं मन्त्रं  
78 दिन्तं मन्त्रं
25. Sans. Nanda pravrajya-su'tra. Tib. (79) Dgah-vo-rab-tu-byung-vahi-mdo. A su'tra on NANDA's entering into the religious order of SHA'KYA. He asks of SHA'KYA what one may obtain by taking the religious character, and he enumerates to him the several advantages thereof.


27. Sans. Alpa dévatá su'tra. Tib. (81) Lhahi-mdo-nyung-gu. A small su'tra of a god. A god visiting SHA'KYA, asks of him, in verse, by what works or merits one may obtain heaven; and he answers him, (again in verse) telling, that by not committing any of the ten immoral actions, one may gain heaven or paradise.


32. No Sanscrit title. Tib. (86) Hk’har-gsil-gyi-mdo. On the use of a staff (with some tinkling ornaments on it) by the priests.

33. Sans. Dharma-chakra-su’tra. Tib. (87) Ch’hos-kyi-hk’hor-lohi-mdo. From leaf 425—431. Sha’kyA, at Váránasi, tells to his first disciples, how his mind has been evolved to see the truth, and how he found the supreme wisdom.


35. Sans. Dherma vibhāga-náma-dherma-grantha. Tib. (89) Las-kyi-rnam-par-hgyur-va-zhes-bya-va-ch’hos-kyi-gzhung. From leaf 464—481. A religious tract, on the explanation of the causes and consequences of one’s works or moral actions, by Sha’kyA, at Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shravasti) on the request of Shukomanava (a, Bráhman,) who had asked, Whence the evil and good among men? There is an enumeration of several religious and moral merits. Fruits to be obtained by such and such merits.

(SHA) OR THE TWENTY-SEVENTH VOLUME.

The title of this volume is, in Sanscrit, Karma Shataka; in Tibetan, (90) Las-brgya-tham-pa. A hundred works or actions. There are told, in this volume, many stories or moral tales, to shew the merits or demerits of several individuals in former transmigrations. In the beginning of each story the individual or the subject is specified, together with the place where the story is said to have happened. Among the places, is mentioned Mithila also; but most frequently Mnyan-yod (Sans. Shravasti, in Kosala) Rájagriha, Vaishali, Capila, and Váránasi (by their Tibetan names.)

86 शा्क्यके प्रकोष्ठपति 87 शाक्यके प्रकोष्ठपति 88 शाक्यके प्रकोष्ठपति 89 शाक्यके प्रकोष्ठपति 90 शाक्यके प्रकोष्ठपति
(Sa) OR THE TWENTY-EIGHTH VOLUME.

In this volume also, to leaf 196, is the continuation of the Karma Shataka, or stories and moral tales. Afterwards come other works, under the following titles:

1. Sans. Damamuko. Tib. (91) Hdsangs-blun. From leaf 196—464. The wise and the (dumb) fool. There is a collection of several stories on the wise and foolish actions of men. At the end it is stated, that this work, it seems, has been translated from Chinese.

2. Sans. Dirgha-nak’ha-parivrajaka paripriclech’ha. Tib. (92) Kun-tu-rgyud-sen-rings-khyis-zhus-pa. Leaf 466. A sutra taught by Gautama (Shaka) on the request of Dirgha-nak’ha (one with long nails), a wandering ascetic, who asks him on several points, and what have been his former moral merits that he enjoys now such fruits of his actions, and possesses such wonderful qualities.

3. Sans. Maitri sutra. Tib. (93) Byams-pah-mdo. A sutra on Maitri (or Ajita, Tib. Ma-pham, the invincible) the next Buddha to appear here-after—his great perfections, and the time of his coming. Delivered by Shaka when he was in the Nyagrodha vihara, at Capila, on the bank of the Rohini river. At the request of Shara’hi-bu, Shaka here foretells the gradual decay of his doctrines.

4. Sans. Maitriya vyakarana. Tib. (94) Byams-pa-lung-bstan-pa. From leaf 477—483. A narration (or prediction) of Maitriya by Shaka, on the request of Shara’hi-bu. The circumstances of his future descent, incarnation, birth, and the great happiness, at that time, of all animal beings, are here described in verse, in poetical language.
(Ha) OR THE TWENTY-NINTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume the following works:—

1. Sans. Pu'rña muk'ha-avadāta shataka. Tib. (55) Gang-po-la-sogs-pa-hirtogs-pa-brjod-pa-brgya-pa. A hundred legendary stories of Gang-po (Sans. Pu'rña) &c. &c. and of others. Gang-po, a rich and respectable Brāhman, invites and entertains Sha'kyā together with his disciples—hears his instruction, and being convinced of his supernatural powers, takes refuge with him. It is repeatedly stated in this volume that about that time, “all sorts of gods and demigods, kings and great officers, rich merchants, and many other respectable men, shewed particular respect to Buddha and to the Buddha priests, and supplied them liberally with all necessary things for their subsistence.”

2. Sans. Jnānaka su'itra Buddha avadāna. Tib. (56) Shes-ldan-gyi-mdo-sangs-rgyas-kyi-rtogs-pa-brjod-pa. The story of Jnānaka, formerly a god, afterwards a new incarnation among men—and the narration, how Buddha (Shākya) when he had gone to the heaven of the gods to instruct there his mother, had dispelled the fear of this god, with respect to his future birth in an impure animal.

3. Sans. Sukārikā avadāna. Tib. (57) P'hag-mohi-rtogs-pa-brjod-pa. The story of Sukārika. A god perceiving that his next incarnation and birth will be in a hog, utters great lamentation that he shall be deprived of the pleasures of heaven, and shall be turned into an impure animal, a hog. But being advised by Indra to take refuge with Buddha, he does so, and upon his death, he is born again amongst the gods of a higher heaven, in Galdan, (Sans. Tush'hitā).

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95 चन्द्रायन जन्म के ज्येष्ठम् ज्येष्ठम् ज्येष्ठम्
96 ज्येष्ठान्तिः मयं
97 ज्येष्ठान्ति

N 3
4. Sans. Sumagadhá avadána. Tib. (98) Magadha-bzang-mohi-rtozs-pa-brjod-pa. The story of Sumagadhá, the daughter of that rich and respectable householder at Shravasti, in Kosala, who had endowed Šákya with a large religious establishment in a grove. She is married in a distant country from her home, where there are no Buddhists. Being much disgusted with the rude manners of the naked Brähman priests, and wishing to make her husband and his relations acquainted with the manners of the Buddhists, she solemnly, in a prayer, invites Šákya and his disciples to a religious entertainment or feast. They appear next day, successively, in a preternatural manner. In the same order as the principal disciples of Šákya arrive there, she tells to her husband the character of each of them. Her piety and sagacity. Her former moral merits, told by Šákya. Ancient prediction respecting the degeneration of the priests, and the decline of the doctrine of Šákya.

(A) or THE THIRTIETH VOLUME.

There are in this volume twenty-five separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short notices on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Puṇya-bala avadána. Tib. (99) Bsdod-nams-stobs-kyi-rtozs-pa-brjod-pa. From leaf 1—33. The story of Puṇya-bala, a prince. Discussion on which is the best thing from among these five—A handsome body, industry, skill in arts, sagacity or wit, and fortune or moral merit. It is shewn, that the best thing is fortune or moral merit; since the possession of this comprehends all the rest.

Chakravarti, or universal monarch. The happy state of his reign. His great
virtues, especially his charity. The character of his two principal officers.
This story was told by Sha'kya, and applied to himself and to his two
principal disciples, Sha'rihi-bu and Mongalvana, who were lately deceased,
to shew their former moral merits.

From leaf 48—76. On the fruits of charity. The story of Sri-se'na,
(a fancied king) much celebrated for his liberality or charity, who at last
offered also his own life. Told by Sha'kya, and applied to himself and to
some individuals among his followers, to shew their former moral merits, and
that they themselves were the persons that had performed those things.

shyob-va. The story of Kanaka-varna, a king. On the fruits of charity,
or of almsgiving.

85—108. A sutra on the story of Don-grub, a young prince. Subject—
The fruits or good consequences of charity. Told by Sha'kya at Mnian-yod,
at the request of Kun-dga-h-vo, and applied as above.

Note.—This sutra is one of the ancient translations.

leaf 108—132. The net of Brahmana; or on the diversity of opinions con-
cerning the origin and duration of the world—whether there be any primary
cause of its existence—whether it be infinite, perpetual, or eternal, &c. &c.
Told by Sha'kya at a place between Raja-griha and Pataliputra.

From leaf 132—303. On the wise mode of returning a kindness; or on
grateful, especially towards parents. Translated from Chinese.

8. No Sanscrit title. Tib (107) Legs-nyes-kyi-rgyu-dang-hbras-bu-bstan-
pa. From leaf 303—320. Instruction on the causes and effects of good and
evil (in the world). Told by Sha'kya on the request of Kun-dga-h-vo, in the
prince's grove near Shravasti, in Kosala (Tib. Mnyan-yod). Enumerations
of several happy and miserable states of men—of good qualities and imperfections,
and many contrary things. All these are the consequences of moral merits or
demerits in former lives or transmigrations.

smin-pa-bstan-pa. From 320—336. Instruction on the consequences of good
and bad actions.

From leaf 336—354. Some predictions by Sha'kya, with respect to Go-
shringa (a mountain), and Li-yul (part of Tibet or Tartary.) His benediction
bestowed on some places.

11. Sans. Shárdúlarna (for Shárdúla násnka) avadána. Tib. (110) Stag-
snahi-rtogs-pa-brjod-pa. From leaf 354—420. The story of Sha'dulu'arna,
the son of Trishā'ńku. Sha'kya at Mnyan-yod. The circumstances of
Kun-dga-h-vo having married (Gzugs-bzang-ma, the handsome-bodied) the
daughter of a man of the fourth class. A story told by Sha'kya, how in an-
cient time Trisha'ńku, a chieftain of the Su'дра class, obtained by his dext-
erness and learning the daughter of a celebrated Bráhman (Padma-snying-po)
for his well qualified son, Sha'dula'rna. The great qualifications of Tri-
sa'ńku in all sorts of Hindu literature. His dispute with that Bráhman.

107 ལེགས་རྣམ་སྐྱེ་བ་དང་བསྟན་པ། 108 སྐེ་མར་པོ་གཉིས་པའི་མི་ཐོད་པ་མ་པ་མི་ཐམ་
109 རྡོ་རྗེ་དྲུག་མཁན་པ། 110 ང་མོ་ཐོད་པ་མཁན་པ་འདོར་མི་ཐམ་
Enumeration of castes, and of several parts of Hindu scriptures. Translated by Ajita Shri-bhadra and Gelung Sha’kya-hod.


16. Sans. Mahâ-sumaya sûtra. Tib. (115) H dus-pa-ch’hen-pohi-mdo. From leaf 558—564. A sûtra on the great assembly (of the gods of several heavens). Sha’kya is visited and praised by the gods of the ten corners of the world, who adore him, and take refuge with him. Sha’kya calls on his Gelongs, and acquaints them with the characters of those gods.

17. Sans. Maitri sûtra. Tib. (116) Byams-pahi-mdo. From leaf 564—574. This is a different translation of the sûtra above—See the “Si” vol. from leaf 477—483.


111 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་ ཤེས་ ཞེས་ 112 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་ ཤེས་ ཞེས་ 113 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་ ཤེས་ 114 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་ ཤེས་ 115 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་ ཤེས་ 116 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་ 117 སྤྲིལ་ རྒྱུན་ ཆོས་

20. Sans. Giri Ananda sūtra. Tib. (119) Rishi-kun-dgah-vohi-mdo. Giri Ananda being very sick, Shā'kyā directs Kun-dgah-vo to go to him, and to tell him such and such representations or considerations, that he may depart from this world without regret.


22. Sans. Mahā Kāshyapa sūtra. Tib. (121) Hod-srung-ch'hen-pohi-mdo. Leaf 594. Ka'shyapa (one of Shā'kyā's principal disciples) suffering once in a heavy sickness, having been visited and instructed by Shā'kyā to make reflections on such and such articles, is restored again to health.

23. Sans. Sūrya sūtra. Tib. (122) Nyi-mahi-mdo. Leaf 595. Surya, or the sun, being seized on by Rā'hu, the god of that planet being afraid addresses Bhagaṇa'n, and begs for his protection. The Buddha commands Rā'hu to retire.

24. Sans. Chandra sūtra. Tib. (123) Zla-vahi-mdo. The moon also being overtaken by Rā'hu, the god of that planet likewise resorts for protection to Bhagaṇa'n.


118 मन्त्रयम् जूै या दिनेशिः सरे 119 ठ्यै झाल्ड्यै मंजे मरे 120 ठूै ठेय ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै 121 ठूै ठेय ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै ढेर्ठै 122 श्र्यै श्र्यै 123 श्र्यै 324 श्र्यै श्र्यै
VI. (MYANG-HDAS.)

Another division of the Kah-gyur, styled in Tibetan (125) "Mya-nan-las-hdas-pa," or by contraction, "Myang-hdas," (Sans. Nirvāṇa), contains two volumes, marked by Ka and Kha, the two first letters of the Tibetan alphabet.

The title of these two volumes is, in Sanscrit, "Mahā parinirvāṇa sūtra." Tib. (125) "Yongs-su-mya-nan-las-hdas-pa-ch’hen-pohi-mdo." A sūtra on the entire deliverance from pain. Subject—Shaṅkya’s death, under a pair of Sāl trees, near the city of Kusha, (Tib. (127)) or Kāmarupa in Assam. Great lamentation of all sorts of animal beings on the approaching death of Shaṅkya—their offerings or sacrifices presented to him—his lessons, especially with respect to the soul. His last moments his funeral—how his relics were divided, and where deposited.

VII. (GYUT.)

The last division of the Kah-gyur, is that of (1) "Rgyud-sde," or simply "Rgyud." Sans. "Tantra," or the Tantra class, in twenty-two volumes. These volumes, in general, contain mystical theology. There are descriptions of several gods and goddesses. Instructions for preparing the mandalas, or circles, for the reception of those divinities. Offerings or sacrifices presented to them for obtaining their favour. Prayers, hymns, charms, &c. &c. addressed to them. There are also some works on astronomy, astrology, chronology, medicine, and natural philosophy. The titles (both Sanscrit and Tibetan) of the several works, according to the volumes marked by the letters of the Tibetan alphabet, are as follow:—

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125 རྣ་ཐོགོ་ རྣ་ཐོགོ
126 སྤྱིན་ སྤྱིན་ རྣ་ཐོགོ་ རྣ་ཐོགོ
127 གཞེན་ གཞེན་ གཞེན་ གཞེན་ གཞེན་ གཞེན་
There are in this volume fourteen separate works, as,
1. Sans. Manju shri jnana-satvasya paramarthana-sangiti. Tib. (2) Hjam-dpal-yé-shes-séms-dpahi-don-dam-pahi-mits'han-yang-dag-par-byod-pa. From leaf 1—18. Enumeration of the several names or epithets of Manju-Sri, the god of wisdom, or the essence of all Buddhás. Told by Shā'kya at the request of Rdorje'-yung'chang (Sans. Vajradhara or Pan'i). These names or epithets are expressive of the attributes of the first moral being.
3. Sans. Paramādī-Buddha uddhrita shri kāla chakra (nāma Tantra-Rajā). Tib. (4) Methog-gi-dang-po-hi-sangs-rgyas-las-byung-va-rgyud-kyi-rgyal-po-dpal-dus-kyi-hkhor-lo. A principal tantra, styled the venerable Kāla-chakra, issued from the supreme or first Buddha. This is the first original work of a Tantrika system that originated in the north, in the fabulous Shambhala. It was introduced into India in the tenth century, by Chilupa, and into Tibet in the eleventh. There are in this work some calculations of certain epochs, and mention is made of Makha, and some predictions respecting the rise, progress, and decline of the Mahomedan religion. This also was delivered by Shā'kya at the request of Dā-bzang (5) a king of Shambhala.

The subject, in general, of this volume, is cosmography, astronomy, chronology, and the description of some gods.

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(3) Deang-mdor-bstan-pa.
(5) Dā-bzang.


10. Sans. Mahā mudra tilakam. Tib. (12) Phyag-rgya-ch'hen-pohi-thig-lé. A tantra descriptive of the Supreme being, or the cause of all causes. Questions—Whence originated Brahma, Vishnu, Siva, Rudra, &c.? Which is the greatest being? How many of them are there?


6  དཔལ་འཛིན་ཀྱི་བོད་འབྱུང་ཀྱི་ཐིག་ཅིག་གཅིག་ཐེག་ཆེན་མོ་ 7  དཔལ་འཛིན་ཚིག་ 8  ནི་ཐིག་ཅིག་གཉིས་ཀའ་ཐེག་ཆེན་མོ་ 9  དཔལ་འཛིན་ 10  དཔལ་འཛིན་ 11  དཔལ་འཛིན་ 12  དཔལ་འཛིན་ 13  དཔལ་འཛིན་  

P 3

13 Ditto, another tantra of the same description.


(KHA) OR THE SECOND VOLUME.

There are the four following separate works in this volume:

1. Sans. Laghu sambara. Tib. (16) Bdé-mch’og-nyung-gu. A tantra on Sambara and He’ruka, two demons or gods. How to prepare the mandalas or circles for them, and by what offerings or sacrifices they are to be rendered propitious. Ceremonies to be performed. Hymns, prayers, mantras.

2. Sans. Abhidhana. Tib. (17) Mñon-par-byod-pa. A mystical tantra on the Sambara class. Enumeration of several Yoginis, Dakinis, and several saints with the title Vajra. Offerings—many superstitious ceremonies to be performed at their invocation—many mantras to be repeated. On the mystical union with God.


4. Sans. Vajra daka. Tib. (19) Rdo-rje-mkha’h-gro. A principal tantra on Vajra Da’ka (a kind of saint equal to the Buddhas). There are, likewise, all sorts of superstitious ceremonies to be performed for obtaining any specified prosperity. In general these saints, as Sambara, He’ruka, Vajra Daka, Yogini’s, Dakini’s, are represented to be equal to the Buddhas in power and sanctity. There are several mantras and bija-mantras for each.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{14} & \quad \text{Jñāna tilakam} \\
\text{15} & \quad \text{Ye-shes-thig-le} \\
\text{16} & \quad \text{Dé-kho-na-nyid-kyi-sgron-ma} \\
\text{17} & \quad \text{Mñon-par-byod-pa} \\
\text{18} & \quad \text{Bdé-mch’og} \\
\text{19} & \quad \text{Rdo-rje-mkha’h-gro}
\end{align*}
\]
of them, to be repeated, by which they may be rendered propitious to grant
the desires of those that address themselves to them.

\[(G1) \text{ OR THE THIRD VOLUME.}\]

There are in this volume seven separate works, under the following titles,
in Sanscrit and Tibetan:

1. Sans. \textit{Shri Dáka'n'ava}. Tib. \(Dpal-mkhah-hgro-rgya-mtsho\). From
leaf 1—192. The names of a particular saint or divinity, or a set of gods and
goddesses.

2. Sans. \textit{Shri héraka atabhíta}. Tib. \(Dpal-khrag-hthung-mön-par-
hbyung-va\). From leaf 192—236. The forthcoming of \textit{He'ruka}, a deified
saint of the character of \textit{Siva}.

3. Sans. \textit{Vajra várahi abhidhana}. Tib. \(Rdo-rje-phag-mo-mön-par-
hbyung-va\). From leaf 236—246. The origin or appearance of \textit{Va'ra'hi},
a goddess, one of the divine mothers, having much resemblance in her character
to \textit{Durga}.

From leaf 246—262. The continual practice of \textit{Yogini}, or continual medita-
tion on the divine nature.

5. Sans. \textit{Chatur yogini samputa tantra}. Tib. \(Rnal-hbyor-ma-bzhihi-
kha-sbyor-gyi-rgyud\). From leaf 262—274. A tantra on four \textit{Yoginis} putting
their mouths together.

398. The pure union (with \textit{Vajra Satwa}, the supreme intelligence), or the
uniting of method with wisdom. (Tib. \(Thabs-dang-shes-rab\). Sans. \textit{Upáya}
and \textit{Prajná}.)

The speaker in the above specified first work (as in some others also) is VAJRA SATWA, the SAMBARA, the BHAGAVĀN, who answers to the queries of VAJRA VĀRĀHI with respect to her origin, and the reason why she was produced (leaf 27, in the first work—she has several names according to the countries in which she is worshipped). Linga and Bhaga (emblems of the procreation and productive powers of nature.) Explication of the several mystical meanings of several letters, leaf 21. Illusory existence of things. Mystical union with God. The ignorant is bound or tied, the wise is free. The principal divinities described in the above works (besides many others of inferior rank) are HE'RUKA and VAJRA VĀRA'HI, with some others of the divine mothers, especially MA'MAKI. Instruction how to prepare the mandala with all its appendages (images of divinities of different orders, perfumes, incenses, flowers, &c.). Mantras and bija-mantras to be repeated.* There are no mantras of such efficacy as those of HE'RUKA and VAJRA VĀRA'HI. Every thing may be obtained by them. And it is by them that one may be delivered from the miseries of vice. Rites and ceremonies to be performed for obtaining any specified prosperity. Leaf 234. Several kinds or species of the universal soul or spirit. Great mystery of the existence of God. There are several passages containing excellent ideas of the Supreme being. The work No. 1, was translated by an Indian Pandit called ADWAYA VAJRA, and YONTA'NBA'R, a Tibetan Lōtsāva.

*Note.—This is the beginning of one of those Mantras: "Om! Namo Bhagavā'ti Vajra Vāra'hi A'rzya' Para'ette' Trailoka'ma'te' Maha' Vidyāishwari, Sarva Bhut'a Bhaya'-vahī', Maha' Vajra,' &c. &c.
(Ña) or the Fourth Volume.

There are in this volume fifteen separate works. Their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Anávila (Tantra-rája.) Tib. (28) Rnyog-pa-med-pa (Rgyud-kyi-rgyal-po.) From leaf 1—5. A principal tantra, styled the "universal," or the "pure one." The idea of the Supreme being, according to different theories. Instruction on the manner of sitting, meditating, and forming the idea of the supreme intelligence. Translated by the Indian Pandit Gaya-dhara, and the Tib. Lotsavá Gélóng Sha’kya-yeshes.

2. Sans. Shri Buddha kapála. Tib. (29) Dpal-sangs-rgyas-thod-pa. From leaf 5—38. "The holy Buddha skull"—name of a mystical divinity. The salutation is thus—Reverence be to SRI BUDDHA KAPÁLA. Direction how to prepare a square mandal, with the required things in it. Mantras addressed to BUDDHA KAPÁLA and BUDDHA KAPÁLINI. This tantra was told by BUDDHA KAPÁLINI, a Mahá Yogini, at the request of VAJRA PANÍ, a Bodhisatwa. There are several charms or mantras, which are stated to be of great efficacy.


4. Sans. Vajra Arali. Tib. (31) Rdo-rjé-árali. From leaf 44—50. Name of a deified Buddha. There are several superstitious ceremonies to be performed to acquire superhuman powers. Translated by GAYADHARA and Gélóng Sha’kya-yeshes.
5. Sans. Rigi A'r ali. Another tantra of the same kind as the preceding. From leaf 50—57. Delivered by Rigi, a YogÉswara, on the request of A'r ali, another Mahá Yogi. Translators as in the preceding.

6. Sans. Shri Chatur pitháh. Tib. (32) Dpal-gdan-bzhi-pa. From leaf 57—128. Salutation—Reverence be to the merciful Chenre'sik. (Sans. AvalokÉswara.) A Tantrika treatise on the purification of the soul, and the mystical union with the Supreme being. There are several mandalas to be made, and many ceremonies to be performed, and mantras to be repeated for obtaining entire emancipation. Translated by KHAN-po (Sans. Upádhyáya), GAYADHARA, and Lotsavá Gos-las-chas.

7. Sans. Mantra a{n}sa. Tib. (33) Snags-kyi-ch'ha. From leaf 128—166. Part of a Tantrika treatise. Salutation—Reverence to the merciful A'rya AvalokÉswara. This is an abridgment of the preceding tantra, or of the large work whence it has been taken. Translators as above.

8. Sans. Chatur pithá mahá yogini guhya sara{a} tantra rúja. Tib. (34) Rnal-hbyor-ma-thams-chad-gsang-vahi-rgyud-kyi-rgyal-po-dpal-gdan-bzhi-pa-zhes-bya-ca. From leaf 166—227. A principal tantra on the mysteries of all Yoginis (or the four noble seats.) Delivered by BHAGAVÁN (Vajra Satwa) at the request of Vajra PA{n}t, on the same subject as the two preceding works. Translated by SMRITI JNA'NA KIRTTI.

9. Sans. Achala kalpa. Tib. (35) Mi-gyo-vahi-rtogs-pa. From leaf 227—243. Firm or steadfast judgment. On emancipation. Delivered by BHAGAVÁN (SHA'KYA) after he had triumphed over the devil. There are likewise instructions for preparing the mandalas, performing the ceremonies, and for repeating several mantras.


12. Sans. Vajra amrita tantra. Tib. (38) Rdo-rje-bdud-rtsi-rgyud. From leaf 250—266. "Precious ambrosia;" or the enjoyment of the highest happiness or beatitude, after final emancipation from bodily existence. Delivered at the request of Ma’maki-de’vi.

13. Sans. Tarā kurukulle kalpa. Tib. (39) Sgro-ma-kurukulle-drtogs-pa. From leaf 266—276. Reasonings on Ta’ra Kurukulle’, a goddess. Ceremonies to be performed with the mandala for obtaining such and such kinds of prosperity or happiness.


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36 ま う ひ み あ か じ う じ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ
37 ま う ひ み あ か じ う じ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ
38 ま う ひ み あ か じ う じ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ
39 ま う ひ み あ か じ う じ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ
40 ま う ひ み あ か じ う じ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ
41 ま う ひ み あ か じ う じ ぐ ぐ ぐ ぐ

(CHA) OR THE FIFTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume seven separate works, under the following titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan:

1. Sans. Shri chan’da mahá ros’han’a. Tib. (42) Dpal-gtum-po-kho-ro-ck’hen-po. From leaf 1—64. "The great fierce and wrathful one,"—name of a divinity, (leaf 13, styled Dévasura.) The salutation is thus—Reverence be to ŚRI CHANDRA MAHA’ ROS’HAN’A. The subject is mystical theology. The speakers are BHAGAVA’N (Vajra Satwa) and BHAGAVA’TI (Prajñápáramitá.) It is in the form of a dialogue, like that between SIVA and DURGA’, on Tantrika subjects. BHAGAVA’N instructs BHAGAVA’TI how to prepare the mandala for the puja of ŚRI CHANDRA MAHA’ ROS’HAN’A, and how to perform the rites and ceremonies. The hearers are VAJRÁ YOGIS and VAJRÁ YOGINÍ’S. BHAGAVA’TI asks also who are they to whom this tantra may be communicated? There are told several modes of empowering a disciple by his spiritual teacher (or the initiation into the holy mysteries of the religion)—admonitions not to violate his vow or promise. Leaf 37—39, there is an explication of the several emblems used in the mandala. Besides several other miscellaneous subjects, there are many discussions on the nature of the human body and the soul, as also on that of the Supreme being. (This is an excellent tantra, and in a good and easy translation.) Translated in the Sasksya monastery, by the Indian Pandit Ratna Sри, and the Tibetan Lotsawa Grags-pa-gyel-ts’ham, (Sans. Kirtti Dhvaja.)

2. Sans. Shri guhya samaja. Tib. (43) Dpal-gsang-va-hdus-pa. From leaf 64—167. A collection of holy mysteries. The salutation both here and in the preceding work is addressed to VAJRÁ SATWA (the supreme intelligence). BHAGAVA’N, the Vajra Satwa, on the request of five Tathágatas

42 ནུབ་ནོར་་  བོ་ཉེན་ཉེ།  43  ལུགས་པོ་བཤེད་པ་ བཙན་པ།
(the five Dhyāni Buddhas) explains the idea of the Supreme being. There are several discussions on the soul and the Supreme spirit by Vajra, by the beforementioned five Tathāgatas, and by Maitreya. This and the preceding work are well worthy of being read and studied, as they will give an idea of what the ancients thought of the human soul and of God. Translated by Acharya Shraddhakāra Varma, and by Gelong Rinchen-Zang-po.


The four following works are also of similar contents:—


44 རྩེ་དེ་ཤེན་པ་བརེ་བཤེན་པ་ 45 རྡེ་དང་པ་ངེ་བོ་བོད་པ་ 46 རྩེ་ཝེ་ཤེན་པ་ 47 ཨི་མི་ཤེན་ཁྲིམས་པ་ 48 རྩེ་དེ་ཤེན་པ་ 54 རྩེ་དེ་ཤེན་པ་ 57 རྩེ་དེ་ཤེན་པ་ 03
(CHHA) OR THE SIXTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume nine separate works, and their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:

1. Sans. Nilāmbara dhara, Vajra Pan'i, Indra, tri vinita. Tib. (49) Gos-snon-po-chen-lag-na-rdo-rje-drug-po-gsum-hdul. From leaf 1—5. The manner in which these three gods, or demons, were subdued by Bhagavan (She'kyas), after he had been victorious over the devil. There are some mantras.

2. Sans. Rudra tri vinaya, or, Tantra guhya vivarati. Tib. (50) Drag-po-gsum-hdul, or, Gsang-va-hi-rgyud-rnams-kyi-rnam-par-bbyed-pa. From leaf 5—11. The subduing (or taming) of three valiant ones, or the explication of tantrika mysteries. Instruction how to prepare the mandalas, and how to perform the ceremonies. Leaf 10. On the occasion of sacrificial offerings to some of the gods, such ejaculations as these are made—"Om! Brahma', Om! Vishnu, Om! Rudra'ya, Om! Kartika, Om! Ganapati, Om! Indra'ya, Om! Maha' Ka'la, Om! Maha' Brahmayas Valitatale', Valitatale', Swaha'."


4. Sans. Shri vajra chan'd'a chitta guhya tantra. Tib. (52) Rdo-rje-gtum-po-thugs-kyi-gsang-va-hi-rgyud. From leaf 20—44. The secrets of the heart of Sri Vajra Chan'd'a. Different mantras to be used as the means of
assuaging several specified diseases. *Leaf 33.* There are some expressions very like this—"Nihil est quod non cedat;" or that in every undertaking one may succeed by diligent application and perseverance. One of these expressions runs thus—(53) *Ch'hu-yi-thigs-pa-phra-mo-yis, dus-su-byung-vas-rdo-ra-hbigs;* "By small drops of water a large stone is made hollow after a certain time;" or, "gutta cavat lapidem, non vi, sãpe cadendo." *Leaves 39, 40.* There is an excellent description of the Supreme being, (by *Vajra Chan'd'a* to *Indra* and his attendants). *Indra* asks him on the use of several *mantras*; as of those for procuring abundance, assuaging diseases, gaining the victory over an enemy, and for making one's self strong against every attack.

5. A later *tantra* under the former title. *From leaf 42—51.* *Indra* asks *Bhagava'n* (*Vajra Chan'd'a*) on several things, as on the essence of the Supreme being, and some *mantras* of wonderful effect.

6. The latest, or last *tantra* of *Vajra Chan'd'a*, at the request of *Vajra Pan'i* (or *Indra*). *From leaf 51—56.* On similar subjects with those in the two former works. Ceremonies and *mantras*.

7. *Sans.* *Nilâmbora dhara Vajra Pan'i yaksha mahá Rudra Vajra Anila jihvan tantra.* *Tib.* (54) *Phyag-na-rdo-rjé-gos-snon-po-chan-gnod-shyin-drag-po-ch'hen-po-rdo-rjé-mé-lchéhi-rgyud.* *From leaf 56—93.* A *tantra* on that demon. He asks of *Bhagava'n* to instruct him (for the benefit of all animal beings) how to prepare the *mandalas*—how to perform the required ceremonies—what things are to be offered to the gods—and how to cure such and such diseases, by *mantras*.

against all sorts of evil. Delivered by Bhagavān, at the request of a hermit (called Nyes-dor).


(5a) OR THE SEVENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume seven separate works. Their subjects and their titles, both Sanscrit and Tibetan, are as follow:—


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56 ཞུ་ རྒྱུད་ བ ན་ ར་ 57 རི་ མིན་ ལོབས་ རྒྱུད་ རང་ རྐྱུད་ ཐེག་ ཕྱིན་ ལྷོའི་ དོན་ འཐོད་ རྒྱུད 58 བསྙིན་ རྒྱུད་ རྐྱུད་ ཐེག་ བོད་ ལྷོ་ ཤེན 59 བསྙིན་ རྒྱུད་ འཐོད་ ཐོབ་ རྒྱུད་ རྗེས་ ཐེན་ འཐོད་ རྒྱུད་
of death) for effecting every thing. A mystical treatise on a similar subject
with the preceding.

From leaf 46—65. The great terrifying Vajra, a god, or deified saint.
How to obtain the favour of that divinity. Mandalas, oblations, ceremonies,
several mantras to be repeated. Leaf 57. Instruction how to paint Vajra
Mahā Bhairava (black, and naked, with many dreadful hands and faces)—
what sacrifices to be made to him. From leaf 65—71. There are some
fragments of other treatises, or of some small works.

71—117. The red destroyer of the lord of death. A principal tantra by
Bhagavaṇ (Shaṇkya) on the request of Vajra Panī. Enumeration of
several Vajras that have been victorious over the lord of death. Several
ceremonies and mantras described, especially those of Vajra Charchika; for
instance, thus—"Om! Vajra Charchike" Siddhe'ndra Nila Ha'rinī
Ratna Trayā," &c. &c. Leaf 82. Description of the several emblems in a
mandala. Leaves 108, 109. Instruction in mantras for obtaining victory over
an enemy, and in several other things. On the nature of the supreme
intelligence.

From leaf 117—122. Bhagavaṇ with clotted hair. A principal tantra
delivered by Shaṇkya on the request of Chaṇkna' Dorje' (Sans. Vajra
Panī), on the subject of uniting method with wisdom.

122—213. Chandra (or the moon) a mark or token of mysteries. A
principal tantra by Samanta Bhadra, (Tib. Kun-tu-bzang-po,) the supreme
Buddha, on the request of all the Bhagaván-Tathágatas, to instruct them in the Chandra guhya tilaka, or the true knowledge of all mysteries. Leaf 130. Several things are enumerated, and it is stated that they all proceed or come from Samanta Bhadra (Tib. Kun-tu-bzang-po) the optimus maximus of the Romans. This is an excellent tantra, in prose and verse. There are many sublime ideas of the Supreme being, and of the soul; as also of the existence of things in general. There are some praises or hymns addressed to Samanta Bhadra. There are likewise descriptions of mandalas—many mystical ceremonies to be performed—initiation in the holy mysteries—several kinds of empowering.

7. Sans. Sarea Tathágata tata saṅgrahā. Tib. Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa-thams-chad-kyi-dé-kho-na-nyid-bs dus-pa. From leaf 213—440. An abridgment on the essence or nature of all Tathágatas or Buddhas. A sūtra of high principles (or of a speculative character). The salutation is thus—Reverence to Buddha and to all Bodhisatwas. Sha'kya's inauguration by other Tathágatas or Buddhas, after he became Buddha. The speakers are Vairochana, Sha'kya, and some other Buddhas, Vajra Pan'y, and some other Bodhisatwas. Many mantras—mystical theology—the means of arriving at perfection. Translated by Gélong Rinč'hen Bzang-po.

(Nyā) or the Eighth Volume.

There are in this volume seven separate works. Their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short remarks on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. “Vajra shikhara” Mahá guhya yoga tantra. Tib. (65) Gsang-va-rnal-hbyor-ch'en-po-hi-gyud-ro-vjé-rtsé-mo. From leaf 1—207. The diamond (or thunderbolt) point; or, Tantriha mysteries of the mahá yoga kind. The salutation or adoration is addressed (in Tibetan) to Samanta Bhadra, to all
Tathāgatas, and to Vairochana. The speaker, in general, is Vajradhāra, or Vajra Satwa, the supreme intelligence. (Tib. Rdo-rje-bk’hang, or Rdo-rje-sems-pa. He, at the request of other Tathāgatas or Buddhas, explains the meaning of several abstract notions; as, heaven, world, Bodhisatwa, Buddha, the nature of the soul, and that of the Supreme spirit—the Yoga system, with respect to the existence of things, the human soul, and the universal spirit. Several sorts of mandalas, rites, ceremonies, explication of the several emblems or symbols used in the mandalas. There are likewise many mantras, and several passages on emancipation. In a word, this is a large treatise on mystical theology.


7. Sans. *Sarva Tathāgata kāya, vákhita guhya alaṅkāra vyuho tantra rája náma*. Tib. (73) *De-bzhin-gshegs-pahi-sku-dang-gsung-dang-thugs-kyi-gsang-ga-rgyan-gyi-bkod-pa-zhes-by-a-vahi-rgyud-kyi-rgyal-po*. From leaf 476—531. A principal tantra on the description of the ornaments of the mysteries or secrets of the person, doctrine, and mercy of all Tathāgatas. Salutation—I humbly adore the Supreme being, and bow down at the lotus feet of Manjusri. Subject—Mystical theology and metaphysics. There are likewise several instructions for preparing the mandalas, and for making offerings to the Tathāgatas—ceremonies to be performed, praises or hymns, mantras addressed to them. The unreality of things. Leaf 485. Buddha and several other distinct conceptions are only ideal, or the products of judicious reflections.
There are in this volume seven separate works. Their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some remarks on their contents, are as follow:

1. Sans. Sarea durgati parishodhana. Tib. (74) Nan-song-thams-chad-yongs-su-sbyong-va. From leaf 1—61. (Or Sans. Téjo-Rája-kalpa; Tib. (75) Gzi-brjig-kyi-sgyal-poki-brtag-pa). The clearing up of all the places of bad transmigrations (or damnation); or discussions on the shining bright prince, (the Supreme being). Reverence be to (Tib. (76)) Dpal-rdo-rje’sems-dpa. (Sans. Shri Vajra Satva). Subject—Bhagavan (Shákya) before all sorts of gods, demons, and Bodhisatwas, at the request of Indra, gives instruction on the means of avoiding any place of damnation; and the mode of liberation from hell. The taking of refuge with Buddha. Mandalas either to be prepared really, or to be represented (or fancied) in one’s mind—ceremonies to be performed—sacrifices to be made (as with burnt offerings of incense, or fragrant substances, with perfumes, flowers, &c. &c.)—mantras to be repeated, for obtaining purification from sin. Leaf 29. A dháran'i (Tib. Gzungs) is thus uttered by Chom-dán-dás—Om! Ratne’ Ratne’, Maha’ Ratne’, Ratna Sambhave’, Ratna kiran’e’, Ratna Maha’ Vishuddhe’ Shuddhaya Sarva Pápáni’-Hum-Phat’. Translated by the Indian Pandit Shánti Garbha, and the Tibetan Lotsavá Jaya Rakshita.

2. Another work under the same title, and on the same subject, as before. Translated by Manika Sri Jná’ha, and Cha’k Lotsavá. From leaf 61—134. The salutation is thus, (in Tibetan)—Reverence be to Bhagavan Sri Shákya Sinha. Subject, as above. Instruction for making ready the mandalas. Enumeration of the articles to be offered. Description of the several emblems or symbols represented in the mandalas. Several mantras—prayers, praises, purification from sin. Consecration of persons or things. Leaf 80.
A mantra (Tib. Sṅags) is thus—"Om! Namo Bhagavate sarva durgati
parishodhané rajaya tathágatáya, arhaté samyaksambuddháya, tadyathá; Om!
Shodhané shodhané sarva pāpam vishodhané, shuddé vishuddhé sarva karm-
évarana vishuddha-swáhá."

leaf 134—249. An ornament of diamond essence. A principal tantra, in
the form of a dialogue between Bhagava’n Vairochana, Mañju Sri
Ku’mar Bhú’t, and other deified saints. Subject—Mystical theology, description
of the mahá mandala with all the emblematical figures in it, ceremonies,
initiation (consecration) in the mysteries, empowering, emancipation.

4. Sans. Pañcha vinshati prajná párāmitá mukha (mahá yána su’tra)
Tib. (78) Shes-rab-kyi-pha-rol-tu-phyin-pa-sgo-nyi-shu-rtsa-lha-pa. Leaves 249,
250. The twenty-five doors of the transcendental wisdom. Some short mantras
or ejaculations, on a single leaf, uttered by Bhagava’n to Vajra Pa’ñí.

thig-lé. From leaf 250—300. Jewel spots (or ornaments) of mysteries. By
Bhagava’n Vairochana, at the request of Vajra Pa’ñí, a Bodhisatva.
Subject—Symbolical or mystical theology, emancipation, the soul, the Supreme
being, mandalas, ceremonies, mantras. (Tib. (80) Dkyil-khor, ch’ho-ga, sṅags).

6. Sans. Mahá Vairochana abhisambodhi. (81) Rnam-par-sṅag-mdsod-
ch’hen-po-mñon-par-rdo-sogs-par-byang-ch’el-pa. From leaf 300—412. A large
treatise (or su’tra) containing several religious articles and mantras. Delivered
by Vairochana, the most perfect Bodhisatva, at the request of Vajra Pa’ñí.

Note.—This is the volume, or work, of which a fragment, in Tibetan characters, was published in Europe in 1722, at Leipsic, in the "Acts of the Learned," the original being sent by Peter the Great, Czar of Russia. See Alphabetum Tib. by Gronet, Rome, 1766, p. 663; also the first
volume, page 270, of the "Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal."
The text has been printed very erroneously in the Alph. Tib., as may be seen in this volume, from leaf 337—339. That fragment consists mostly of bija-mantras uttered (by the benediction or grace of Bhaga\'van Vairochana) by several Bodhisatwas, gods, and goddesses, addressed to the holy Buddhas (Samanta Buddh\'an\'am).

There is another work (from leaf 412—455) without any title. Subject—Instruction in the means and mantras for assuaging diseases, procuring abundance, getting into one’s power any person or thing, and hurting or destroying others.


(Tha) or the Tenth Volume.

There are in this volume seven separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some remarks on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Achala mah\'a krodha r\'ajasya-kalpa. Tib. Khro-vohi-rgyal-po-ch\'hen-po-mi-gyo-\'vahi-rtog-pa. From leaf 1—97. Description of the religious rites and ceremonies, concerning Achala Mah\'a Krodha Raja, &c. Delivered by Bhaga\'van (Shakya) at the request of Vajra P\'ani’. Subject—Enumeration of several articles concerning religious rites and ceremonies. Leaf 10, &c. There are fine ideas of the Supreme being, expressed by Bhaga\'van and Vajra P\'ani‘ in their colloquies. Translated by Ushma Rakshita, an Indian Pandit, and G\'elong Dherma Logros.
2. Sans. Vajra Pāṇī abhishēkha mahā tantra. Tib. (81) Lag-na-rdo-rje-dvang-bskur-vahi-rgyud-ch'hen-po. Leaf 101. A large tantra, on empowering one, or imparting to him miraculous (or superhuman) powers. Taught by Vajra Pāṇī to Mañju Sri, and other Bodhisatwas. There are several similar expressions of adoration or salutation, to this—“Namah samanta mukhē-bhyah, sava tathāgatēbhyah, sarvatha ajana.” Instruction on several kinds of mandalas. Ceremonies, mantras, intermixed with moral maxims, prayers, hymns, and praises. Translated by ShiLe'ndra Bodhi, an Indian Upādhyāya (master or professor), and Bande' Ye'she's-sde', a Tibetan Lotsavā (interpreter or translator.)


5. Sans. Sapta Tathāgata purva prav'iddhāna vishes'ha vistara. Tib. (87) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pa-bdun-gyi-snon-gyi-smon-lam-gyi-khyad-par-rgyas-pa. From leaf 433—470. The special prayers of seven Tathāgatas, in former times. Delivered by Chom-da'n-da's (Sha'kya) at the request of Mañju Sri, in the presence of all sorts of saints, gods and demons, at Yangs-pa-ch'en (Sans. Vai-shali). Subject—Seven (imaginary) Tathāgatas are enumerated, at an immense distance to the east (and towards the other corners of the world), with all their good qualities and perfections; as also the prayers which they had uttered when they were practising a holy life to become Buddhas. Each of them, in several prayers, wished that all animal beings (or creatures) that were
suffering such and such specified kind of misery or distress, may at the time of their becoming Buddhas, enjoy all sorts of prosperity and happiness; as, health, wealth, peace, long life, illumination of mind, &c. (From this sūtra several expressions might be taken to shew the author's feeling for the universal welfare of all living creatures.) Translated by Jina-mitra, Dānashila, Shilendra Bodhi, Indian Pandits, and Bande' Ye'she's-sde', Tibetan Lotsavā.

6. Another Sūtra. From leaf 470—484. On the same subject as the former. Translators as above.

7. Sans. Tathāgata Vaidurya prabhā-nāma bala dhana samādhi dhāranī. Tib.\(^{88}\) Dé-bzhin-gshegs-pahi-ting-gê-hdsins-gyi-stobs-skyped-pahi-baiduryashi-hodches-byas-cahi-gsungs. The brightness or lustre of Vaidurya, a dhāranī for increasing the powers of deep meditation on Tathāgata. This sūtra was also delivered by Chom-da' Nelson's (Sha'kyä) at the request of Mañju Sri, it is on a like subject with the two formers; namely, on the prayers of some Buddhas for the universal welfare of all animal beings. Translators, as above, (in the ninth century). Afterwards again corrected and arranged by Dīpa'nkara Sri Jna'na (vulg. Chovo Atisha of Bengal) and by Gélong Tshul-khrims-gyelva' (at Tholing, in Gugé, in the eleventh century.)

(Da) OR THE ELEVENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume twenty separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short remarks on their contents and characters, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Mañjy mani vipula vimāna vishva supratis'hitā guhyan paramarahasana kalpa rāja nāma dhāranī. Tib. \(^{88}\) Nor-bu-chhen-po-rgyas-pahi-


4. Sans. Vipula pravēśha. Tib. Yangs-pahi-grong-khyer-du-hjung-pa. From leaf 50—57. The entrance into the ample city (Vishali or Prayag, Allahabad). Leaf 50. Shā'kya travelling in the Brijī country goes to Yangs-pa-chen (Sans. Vishali). He sends Kun-dga-h-ro (Sans. Ananda) to the gate of the city to recite there some mantras (in Sanscrit) and some benedictory verses. (The same as have been noticed in the second volume of the Dulvā class, from leaf 120—132).


7. Sans. Dwadasha buddhakan. Tib. (95) Sangs-rgyas-behu-gnyis-pa. From leaf 64—70. A sutra on twelve Buddhas. Shaka'ya tells to Maitreya (Chambá) the great perfections of twelve Buddhas residing at an immense distance to the east, and towards other corners of the world. The benefits arising from hearing their names and perfections (in verse). Translated by Jina-mitra, Da'na-shila, and Ye'she's-sde' (in the ninth century).

8. Sans. Saptta buddhakan. Tib. (96) Sangs-rgyas-bdun-pa. From leaf 70—76. A sutra on seven Buddhas. Some mantras uttered successively by the seven Buddhas (appearing in the air sitting) commencing with Vipashyin, at the request of a Bodhisatwa. See the "Za," or twenty-second volume of the Mdo class, No. 4.


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94 नवं ठूँ ठने चर्चा चे लाई अहा लाई चार नाँ चां जाण 95 नवं ठूँ ठने मात 96 नवं ठूँ ठने चां जाण 97 घे चे हे चे गै 98 घे चे हे चे जाण 99 घे चे हे चे जाण


14. No Sanscrit title. Tib. *(1)* Sangs-rgyas-bchom-ldan-hdas-kyi-mts’han-brgya-rtsa-brgyad-pa-gzungs-snags-dang-bchas-pa. From leaf 94—100. The 108 names or epithets of Buddha BHAGAVĀN, together with some dhārana’s or charms. The salutation is thus—Reverence be to the all-knowing. Laudatory verses on the several names or epithets of Buddha (SHA’KYA).

15. Sans. Aśrama Mañju Shri mūla tantra. Tib. *(2)* Hphags-pa-hjam-dpal-gyi-rtsa-cahi-rgyud. From leaf 100—483. An original tantra of the venerable Mañju ŚRI. Salutation—Reverence be to Buddha and to all Bodhisatwās. Delivered by CHOM-DA’N-DA’S (SHA’KYA) to the assembled Bodhisatwās and gods (in the *(3)* Gnas-gtsang, the holy place in the highest heaven) in a discursive manner with Mañju ŚRI, on the moral conduct of the Bodhisatwās. Enumeration and recommendation of several virtues. Leaf 122. Mañju ŚRI (in his ecstasies) utters several mantras, like the following—“Namah Samanta Buddha’na’m abhāva swabhāva mungatānam; Namah Pratyēka

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100 श्वं रम ठे जर्म ठे ठे ठे ठे ठे ठे 101 ग्लೃं हृ ग्ल अ फळा रम ठे जर्म ठे ठे ठे ठे ठे 1 ना्म श्वं मृ�
Buddha árya shrávakánám; Namo Bodhisatwánám, dasha-bhúmi pratishtítteshwaránám. Bodhisatwánám, mahá satwánám, tadyathá: Om! Khakha kháhi kháhi, &c." Descriptions of all sorts of mandalas, rites, ceremonies. From leaf 281—300. Astrology, related by Sha’kyā. The several Naçshatras (constellations or stars)—lucky and unlucky months and days—the characters of men born in any of them. Leaf 426. Predictions by Sha’kyā, respecting the birth of some great men in India, that have lived several ages after him, as Pa’ñíni, Tsandra Gupta (Tib. Zla-cu-sbas-pa), also Na’garjuna (Tib. Klu-sgrub) and A’rya Sánga (Tib. Hphags-pa-thogs-med) two principal philosophers, of whom there are many works in the Stan-gyur, and who are the Aristotle and Plato of the Buddhists; the founders of a reasonable, theoretical, and practical philosophy; the heads of the Madhyamika and Yogáchárya schools.

Note.—Na’garjuna is generally supposed to have flourished four hundred years after the death of Sha’kyā, to have been born in the southern part of India, and to have lived 600 years. From some chronological dates, I know that A’rya Sánga lived in the sixth or seventh century after Jesus Christ.

This tantra is a very learned and interesting treatise, and is frequently cited by Tibetan writers. The scene of it has been placed in the highest heaven, but it is mixed with many true historical facts, with respect to the lives of princes that have either favoured Buddhism, or persecuted the Buddhists in India. Translated by order of the Tibetan king or prince Byang-ch’hub-hod, (at Tholing, in Gugé, above Garhwal and Kamáon, in the eleventh century) by Kuma’ra Kalasha, and Gélong Sha’kyā Logros.

LOGROS. Leaves 499, 500. Praise bestowed on MAṆJU SRI, the acute, by CHOM-DACAṆ-DACṆ. Leaves 500, 501. Praise to MAṆJU SRI, the prince of eloquence, by eight maidens.


(NA) OR THE TWELFTH VOLUME.

There are two works in this volume, both on the same subject and with the same contents. The one has been translated from Chinese, and the other from Indian or Sanscrit. Their titles and contents are as follow:


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This su’tra was delivered by Bhagava’n (Sha’kya) at Rája-griha, on the Gridhra kúta parvata (Tib. Bya’-grod-kyi-phung-pohi-ri), in presence of his Shravaka disciples (among whom are mentioned those five men that first became his disciples at Varanási; as, A’jna’na Kond’inya’, &c.), all sorts of Bodhisatwas, gods, demons, and a great number of the Licchávyi Kumáras. Subject—Several articles both of the dogmatical and moral doctrine of the Buddhistic faith. Some verses on impossibilities, by a Licchávyi Kumára. Several of the auditors, as Shárihi-bu, the goddesses Saraswati (Tib. Dnyangs-chan-ma), and Lakshmi (Sahi-lha-mo-brtan-ma), ask Sha’kya on various subjects, as also the four great kings residing on the four sides of the Ri-rab, (Sansk. Méri), whose Sanscrit names are, Vaishravána, Dhrita-ras’htra, Virud’haka, and Virupa’ksha. On the 286-7th leaves, adoration is expressed to many Buddhas residing in the several corners of the world. The auditors admire much the excellence of this su’tra, and express their praise thereupon. Sha’kya recommends it to their care. The beginning of this su’tra, with respect to the qualifications of the Shravakas, is much like that of the “Sher-chin,” or Prajñá páramítá. This is a favourite su’tra of all
Buddhists. Among the nine Dharmas greatly respected in Nepal, this is one. See Asiatic Researches, vol. xvi. page 424, "Nine Sūbarana Prabhā," and page 428, "Swarna Prabha."

(P(3) or the thirteenth volume.

There are in this volume seventy-one separate works or treatises. Their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short notices on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Mahā sahasra pramardana sūtra. Tib. (15) Stongs-ch’hen-po-rab-tu-hjoms-pa — mdo. From leaf 1—39. The supreme overcomer (or subduer) of the great thousand (worlds). Reverence be to Buddha and to all Bodhisatwas. Delivered by CHOM-DA’N-DA’S (SHA’KYA) at Rājagrīha, (Tib. Rgyal-pohi-khāb), on the southern side of the Gridhra kūta parvata, before 1250 Gélongs. All sorts of gods and demons repair to CHOM-DA’N-DA’S (especially BRAHMA’, INDRA, and the four guardians of the world, on the Ri-rab, leaves 139, 140) to hear his instruction on the deliverance from pain. He gives them several instructions. They take refuge with the seven Buddhas. There are several praises of Buddha expressed by these divinities, as also there are some mantras.

2. Sans. Mahā mayūri vidya rājnyi-dhāranī. Tib. (16) Rig-snags-kyi-rgyal-mo-rma-bya-ch’hen-mo — gzungs. From leaf 39—86. The queen of VIDYA MANTRAS, the great pea-hen. Enumeration of all sorts of demons—prayers, praises, mantras, instruction by SHA’KYA. Leaf 67. All sorts of diseases—prayers to Buddha for the welfare of all animal beings. Leaf 75. Among other principal rivers are mentioned, the Gangā, Sindhu, Pakhu, and the Sīta. Translated by SHILE’NDRA BODHI, JNA’NA SIDDHI, SHA’KYA PRABHA, and BANDE’ YE’-sHE’-SDE’.
3. Sans. Mahā pratisara vidya rājñī. Tib. (17) Rig-pahi-rygal-mo-so-sor-hbrang-va-ch’hen-mo. From leaf 86—117. The princess of learning, the great wanderer. A dhāranī containing instruction for preparing the mandalas, and performing the several ceremonies—mantras for procuring prosperity, for assuaging diseases, &c.—prayers and praises, addressed to Buddhas and Bodhisatwas—preservatives against all sorts of demons and noxious spirits—the taking of refuge with Buddha, Dherma, and Saṅgha. In general, this dhāranī is intended to render the manners of barbarous people mild and gentle. Translated by Jina-mitra, Dāna-shila, and Bande’ Ye’-she’s-sde’.

4. Sans. Mahā shitani-sutra. Tib. (18) Sil-vahi-ts’hal-ch’hen-pohi-md. From leaf 117—134. A sūtra styled, “the great cool forest.” Told by Sha’kya to the priests and priestesses. Reverence be to the three holy ones. Leaf 118. Adoration, or respect, is expressed to several Buddhas, Bodhisatwas, and the disciples of Sha’kya, with some added predicate of their good qualities;—as, for instance, to Ka’tya’yana, thus, (19) Ch’hos-kyi-gtum-la-hjigs-med-pa, Katyahi-bu-la-phyag-hts’hal-lo, “Reverence be to Ka’tya’yana, who is intrepid in making a religious discourse;”—as also to the four great kings or guardians of the world, the twenty-eight chief Yakhas, to one’s parents, instructors, tutors, and to the gods; and they are all requested by the supplicant to grant him his wish. Enumeration of all sorts of demons who take refuge with Buddha. There are several mantras, prayers, and praises.

5. Sans. Mahā mantra anudhāri-sutra. Tib. (20) Gsangs-sṅags-ch’hen-po-rzhes-su-hdbsin-pahi-md. From leaf 134—143. A sūtra comprehending a large mantra (or for understanding or perceiving the great mantra). Instruction by Sha’kya to all sorts of demons—mantras, prayers, and praises.

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\(^{17}\) བློ་ ནི་ རྡོ་ རྗོན་ དེ་ ས་ མ་ དེ་ རྒྱལ་ རྟེན་ དེ་ རློ་ རྒྱལ། 18 བློ་ ཡི་ རྡོ་ རྗོན་ དེ་ གྲོབ་ དེ་ རློ་ རྒྱལ། 19 བློ་ ཡི་ རྡོ་ རྗོན་ དེ་ ས་ མ་ དེ་ རྒྱལ་ རྟེན་ དེ་ རློ་ རྒྱལ། 20 བློ་ ཡི་ རྡོ་ རྗོན་ དེ་ གྲོབ་ དེ་ རློ་ རྒྱལ་ རྡོ་ ཡི་ རྡོ་ རྗོན།
chan-zhes-byva-vahi-gung. From leaf 143—145. A dháraní or charm of
MARICHI, a female deified saint or goddess. MARICHI is told by SHA’KYA to
free herself from all incumbrances. One prays that he may become like to
that goddess. Several evils enumerated, and her protection requested. Prayers,
and mantras. Translated by Pandita AMOGHA VAJRA, and LOTSAPAV GÉLONG
RINCH’HEN GRAGS-PA.

7. The Sanscrit and Tibetan title is, *Arya parn’na shavari mdo.*
Leaves 145, 146. Some mantras or charms.

Reverence be to her. A dháraní of PARN’NA SHAVARI (a female saint
clothed with the leaves of trees). Mantras and prayers for assuaging diseases,
and for arriving at a happy state.

mahi-rgyud-kiy-rto-g-pa. From leaf 147—160. Ceremonies, and mantras for
assuaging diseases.

10. Sans. Chundé décí naña dháraní. Tib. (24) Lha-mo-skul-byed-ma-
Some mantras to avert all hurtful things, and to assuage epidemic maladies.

161, 162. A vidya, or the art of curing poison (by charms or mantras).
Some mantras.

byva-vahi-gungs. From leaf 162—164. A dháraní of Hiranyavati. The
happy state of emancipation. Some mantras. Translated by JINA-MITRA,
DA’NA-SHILA, and BANDE’ YE’she’s-sde’.

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21 खण्नः श् द्रेष्ठे द्रे द्रेष्ठे द्रेष्ठे द्रेष्ठे द्रेष्ठे 22 खण्नः श् द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे
23 द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे 24 द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे
25 द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे द्रे

14. Sans. Jayavati-dhāranī. Tib. (28) Rgyal-va-chan-gyi-gzungs. From leaf 165—171. A dhāranī of the victorious, (or for procuring victory.) Delivered by Chom-dan-da’s, at the request of Vajra pāñhya, for the benefit of animal beings. The wonderful effects of some specified mantras. Several ceremonies to be performed in order to render the mantras of this dhāranī efficacious for every enterprise.


Nos. 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, six other dhāranīs, nearly under the same title, and on the same subject as the preceding; namely, ceremonies, mantras, prayers, praises, and charms against several sorts of evil. From leaf 188—232.


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27. याभोवती महि भूषण 28. शयोत्म हृदि अस्वान 29. लिङ्ग स्तुतिः हृदि स्वान 30. धृष्टि स्म अस्त्राण्वी हृदि अस्वान 31. ज्ञान स्म भूषण हृदि अस्वान 32. छाया मेलान्का घान्सत्ती हृदि अस्वान 33. नमस्ते हृदि स्वास्ति भूषण
Adorations expressed to several Buddha, and other inferior saints. The wonderful effects they produce, by defending against all sorts of evil. The objects of fear are thus enumerated—Robbers, fire, water, poison, weapons, hostile bands, famine, enemy, sickness, lightning, untimely death, earthquakes, ignis fatuus, fear from one’s prince, from the gods, and from all sorts of demons or evil spirits. Repetition of several mantras—several kinds of demoniacal possession (or occupation by evil spirits). Leaf 238. Enumeration of all sorts of diseases or maladies in the several members of the body.


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34 दे ब्यिङ ग्स्क्येग्स-पा थम्स-चुड-क्यि-स्न्यिंग-पो-दाम-त्स्हिंग-ला-नाम-पार-ल्ता-वही-ग्जुंग
35 का ज्ञान-डे र्ग्यं-्छ ल्दे मर्द्दी प्ले मैं formations 36 र्मां डे र्ग्यं-्छ ल्दे मर्द्दी प्ले मैं formations 37 ल्दे मर्द्दी प्ले मर्द्दी प्ले मैं
CHOM-DÁN-DÁS at Rájagriha, at the request of the great black prince of the Yakshas. A few mantras, with some superstitious ceremonies.


32. Sans. Bahu putra pratisara dháran'i. Tib. (40) Bu-mang-po-so-sor-hbrang-vali-gzung. Leaves 259, 260. Dissension of many children. A dháran'i, told by SHA'KYA, at the request of a rich householder at Shravasti, who could not agree with PRASE'NAJIT (the king of Kosala). A few mantras. Translated by JINA-MITRA, DA'NA-SHILA, and BANDE'YE-SHE'S-SDE'. There is another dháran'i on the same leaf.


34. Sans. Rasmi vimalé dháran'i. Tib. (42) Hod-zer-dri-ma-med-pahi-gzung. From leaf 263—278. The immaculate beam (or ray of light). A dháran'i, taught by CHOM-DA'N-DA'S at Ser-skya (Capila), before all sorts of Bodhisatwas, gods, and demons, at the request of a Brahman, who takes refuge with Buddha. Instruction on the fruits of good and bad actions. Some mantras also, translated by VIDYAKARA SANHI, and BANDE'YE-SHE'S-SDE', (in the ninth century). The mantras have been corrected by CHOVO ATISHA and GÉLONG BROMSTON (in the eleventh century).


37. Another sûtra under the same title, and on the same subject. Leaf 293.

38. Another ditto. From leaf 293—297.


(43) शेस-पा-धरा-चु ख चु भा-राज्ञ श् यो-सु-पी-वाइ-सही-त्यहिं-त्यहिं-मक्खु-र्तु-न्यू-स्वी-ज्ञ्ञ न ।
(44) धरो-र्तु-न्यू-स्वी-गार्ह-गिर्न्यू-स्वी-ज्ञ्ञ न ।
(45) द्ग्स०-टे-र्न्यू-द्ग्स०-ए-भा-राज्ञ श् यो-सु-पी-वाइ-सही-त्यहिं-त्यहिं-मक्खु-र्तु-न्यू-स्वी-ज्ञ्ञ न ।
(46) द्ग्स०-टे-र्न्यू-द्ग्स०-ए-भा-राज्ञ श् यो-सु-पी-वाइ-सही-त्यहिं-त्यहिं-मक्खु-र्तु-न्यू-स्वी-ज्ञ्ञ न ।
(47) द्ग्स०-टे-र्न्यू-द्ग्स०-ए-भा-राज्ञ श् यो-सु-पी-वाइ-सही-त्यहिं-त्यहिं-मक्खु-र्तु-न्यू-स्वी-ज्ञ्ञ न ।
43. Sans. Pu’ja mégha—dháran’i. Tib. (49) Mch’ hod-pahi-sprin—gzungs. Leaves 300, 301. The cloud of sacrifice (or oblations of several things). Adoration expressed to all the Buddhas in the ten corners of the world. Benefits that follow such pious or religious acts.


47. Sans. Vidya Rája shvása mahá. Tib. (53) Rig-sñags-kyi-rgyal-po-dvugs-ch’hen-po. Leaves 303, 304. The great breath. A principal vidya. Some mantras. Shwa’ sã Mahá, the prince (or chief) of the Bhúts (or evil spirits) takes refuge with Buddha (Sha’kya), and promises that he will not hurt those that carry with them this dháran’i.


49. Sans. Chi’dá man’i—dháran’i. Tib. (55) Gtsug-gi-nor-bu—gzungs. From leaf 384—387. Chi’dá man’i (having a gem on the crown of his head), the
name of a dháraní. Adoration of Buddhas, Bodhisatwas, and other inferior saints, and prayers addressed to them to avert all disagreeable things. Mantras.


52. Sans. Oja pratýábaraní-su'tra. Tib. (58) Mthangs-phyir-bzlog-pahi-mdo. The restoring (or recovering) the brightness of one's face (or countenance). A short su'tra, told by Sha'kyá to Kun-dga'h-vo. Some mantras.


55. Sans. Abhaya vádá aparajita. Tib. (61) Gzhan-gis-mi-thub-pa-mi-hjigs-pa-sbyin-pa. From leaf 397—400. The bestowing on a person such courage as not to be overcome by any one. Some prayers and mantras.


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56 ཞ་ཁ་མ་པ་ཐེ་ཨ་ 57 གཞི་་བོ་མ་པ་ཇི་ཙ་པའི་ 58 འདི་མ་གཞི་ 59 ཁཿ་བཞགས་ནི་ི་བཀུལ་པ་ཞེ་དེ་ཧི་ཐེ་ 60 ཀོས་ཐེ་མ་ཞེ་ཤིས་པའི་ 61 ཀཿ་བཞགས་ནི་ི་བཀུལ་པ་ཞེ་ཤིས་ 62 ཐུབ་པ་ཞེ་་ནི་ཨ་


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63 གཞི་ སྣོད་པར་ དགེ་བུ་ སྤྱི་ ལྷག་ འོ། ལྷག་ རྣམ་ བུ། རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 64 ལྷག་ པ་ རྣམ་ སྤྱི་ ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 65 ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 66 ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 67 ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 68 ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 69 ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ 70 ལྷག་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་ རྣམ་
\textit{Vāranāsi}, with instruction how to keep the doctrine taught by him. Translated by \textsc{Surendra Bodhi, Prajna Varma, and Bande Ye'she's-sde}.


67. Sans. \textit{S'hat akshara vidya}. Tib. (73) \textit{Yi-ge-drug-pahi-rig-snags}. From leaf 400—432. A \textit{Vidya mantra}, consisting of six letters. Some \textit{mantras} as preservatives against some specified diseases. Told by \textsc{Sha'kya} to \textsc{Kun-dga'h-vo}.


70. Sans. \textit{Pushpa kúta}. Tib. (76) \textit{Mé-tog-brtsegs-pa}. From leaf 438—441. A heap of flowers. The happy state of those that take refuge with \textit{Buddha}.

71. Sans. \textit{Mahá-dháran'í}. Tib. (77) \textit{Gzungs-ch'i'hen-mo}. From leaf 441—445. The great \textit{dháran'í}, or charm. \textsc{Kun-dga'h-vo} having passed the three months of summer at \textit{Söketana} (Tib. Gnas-bechas), returns to \textsc{Sha'kya} at

\begin{footnotesize}
71 \textsc{Surendra Bodhi, Prajna Varma, and Bande Ye'she's-sde}.
72 \textsc{Gser-chan—gsungs}.
73 \textsc{Sha'kya}.
74 \textsc{Kun-dga'h-vo}.
75 \textsc{Sha'kya}.
76 \textsc{Sha'kya}.
77 \textsc{Sha'kya}.
\end{footnotesize}
Shrāvasti (Tib. Mnyan-yod), who tells him this dhāranī, as a remedy against all evil. Some mantras, and the stories of their great efficacy.

Note.—There are many repetitions in the whole volume. The translation of many of the works is attributed to the celebrated translators in the ninth century, as, Jina-mitra, Da'na-shila, Surendra Bodhi, Prajña Varma, &c. and Bande Ye'she-sde'; but, I think they had no part in the translation of several of them, judging from the contents of these works, and of other large treatises translated elsewhere by them. And it is stated by Tibetan writers, that the princes at that time permitted only a few Tantrika works to be translated.

(PHA) OR THE FOURTEENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume, besides some fragments, fifty-three separate works. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some notices on their contents, are as follow:

1. Sans. Achala—dhāranī. Tib. (78) Mi-gyö-va—gzungs. From leaf 1—23. The firm or immovable (a deity). A dhāranī. Instruction by Sha'kyā for preparing his mandala and performing the ceremonies, and on the several configurations of the fingers of the hands during the ceremony. What obligations to be made. Several mantras to be repeated—their efficacy. Translated by Dherma Sri-mitra, and Gélong Ch'hos-kyi Bzang-po.


The titles of the following eight works are only in Tibetan:—


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78 श्लोक ॥ यमः—धृतरथः 79 दोर्जे तेपरी तेपरी य (मदयु मदयु दुर्गु) 80 स्प्यान राशि दुर्गुण
मदयु य वसुधारा य नाम वसुधारा ॥
4. The hundred and eight names or epithets of (Tib. (81)) BYAMS-PA. (Sans. Maitreya). From leaf 61—63.

5. Ditto, those of (Tib.) (82) NAM-MKAHI-SNYING-PO. (Sans. A’kāsha Garbha). From leaf 63—68.


8. Ditto, those of (Tib.) (85) HJAM-DPAL. (Sans. Manju Sri). From leaf 77—82.


13. Sans. Ārya jambhala nāma ashta shataka. Tib. (90) Gnod-hdsin. From leaf 89—91. The hundred and eight names of (Sans. Jambhala) the destroyer or taker away of hurtful things. By repeating or reading these names many specified sorts of prosperity are stated to be obtained.

Parivrajakas and non-Parivrajakas. Told by Kuve'ra, with the permission of Gautama, the kinsman of the sun. He is styled by Kuve'ra, (Tib. (92)) Dpah-ch'hen, Sans. Mahá Vira, thus—Reverence to thee, great champion. In this sûtra Kuve'ra tells how the four great kings on the Ri-rab (Sans. Mérú) hearing the excellent qualities of Gautama pay him their respects, with all their attendants, the Gandharbas, &c. and take refuge with him; and also that they promise to protect and make those to prosper who take refuge with Buddha. There are some mantras also. In general, this is an instructive sûtra. Translated by Jina-mitra, Prajna' Varma, and Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.

15. Sans. Mahá mégha. Tib. (93) Sprin-ch'hen-po. From leaf 112—132. The great cloud (the name of a Buddha). Enumeration of many sorts of Nágas. Several names of Buddha, with the epithet of "cloud." Instruction to the Nágas. The adorations expressed by them; and their promise that they will let fall seasonable rain in Jambudwipa, and will keep off all hurtful things. Mantras and ceremonies. Translated by Jina-mitra, Shilendra Bodhi, and Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.


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(92) རྡུས་ཀྱི་བཀོད་ཁྲི་སློབ་ཟླུང་སྐོི་ལེགས་པ།
(93) རྡུས་ཀྱི་བཀོད་ཁྲི་སློབ་ཟླུང་སྐོི་ལེགས་པ་བློས་ཀྱི་བཀོད་ཁྲི་སློབ་ཟླུང་སྐོི་ལེགས་པ།
(94) རྡུས་ཀྱི་བཀོད་ཁྲི་སློབ་ཟླུང་སྐོི་ལེགས་པ།
(95) རྡུས་ཀྱི་བཀོད་ཁྲི་སློབ་ཟླུང་སྐོི་ལེགས་པ་བློས་ཀྱི་བཀོད་ཁྲི་སློབ་ཟླུང་སྐོི་ལེགས་པ།
18. Sans. Mahā Gaṇa'pati-tantra. Tib. (96) T-shellgs-kyi-bdag-po-ch'hen-po-hi-rgyud. From leaf 140—148. A tantra of the great Gaṇeśa (the lord of hosts). Description of the square mandala in which his image must be placed. Oblations of several things, mantras, praises, prayers. This tantra was brought into Tibet by Dipankara Śri Jnana (Chofo Atisha), in the eleventh century.


20. Sans. Graha-matrikā-dhāranī. Tib. (98) Gzah-ruams-kyi-yum—gzungs. From leaf 150—153. A dhāranī containing the mother of the planets; or some mantras to render the planets propitious to keep off all hurtful things. Told by Sha'kya, at the request of Va'ra Pa'nīt. Translated by Shilendra Bodhi, Jnana Siddhi, Sha'kya Prabha', and by Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.

21. Another dhāranī under the same title, and on the same subject as before. From leaf 153—157.

22. Sans. Vasudhara. Dhāranī. Tib. (99) Nor-gyi-rgyun—gzungs. Affluence of riches. Instruction, and some mantras by Sha'kya, how to escape poverty, sickness, and other hurtful things. Delivered at the request of Da'va'-zang-po, a citizen of Kōshambi, when Sha'kya was in the thorny forest near that city.

25. Sans. Dēvi Mahā Kāli dhāranī. Tib. (1) Lha-mo-nag-mo-ch’hen-mohi-gzungs. Leaves 171, 172. A dhāranī of Kā’li De’vi. She is called here the sister and wife of Yama (Tib. (2) Gshin-rjé-hi-cham), the mother of Ma’ra (Tib. (3) Bdud) or Ca’ma, and the queen (Tib. (4) Deang-phuyng-ma. Sans. Ishwari) of the Cāmarupa world. She visited Sha’yka after he became Buddha, and while he was sitting under the holy tree (ficus indica); and having thrice circumambulated him, prostrated herself at his feet, adored him, and was instructed by him in some mantras.


28. Sans. Sapta vētuda—dhāranī. Tib. (7) Ro-lang-bdun-pa-gzungs. From leaf 184—190. Seven manes or ghosts. Sha’yka’s instruction to Kun-dga’ho, when he, on a certain occasion, was hurt by some Tirthika Pari-vrajakas, by the influence of some mischievous spirits (of dead bodies).


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1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
mense life and wisdom. A sūtra of high principles, by Ṣa'kyā to Maṇjuśri, on the several good qualities or perfections of Apara'mita Ayurjñāna, a Buddha. Several mantras, and their effects.

31. Another sūtra of the same name and subject. From leaf 208—215.
32. A dhāranī containing the essence of the above. From leaf 215—217.


35. (Titles only in Tibetan). The minute rituals and ceremonies of Avalokiteśhwara, who has a thousand hands, and as many eyes. From leaf 302—346.


*10 spender Kh. L. zurget, Ṣa'kyā, Maṇjuśri, Apara'mita, Ayurjñāna, etc.*

*11 L. Ṣa'kyā, Lochana, Ma'maki, etc.*

38. Another dhārani’i of Chenreṣik.


44. Sans. Karnīkasya ārya jambhala jalaṃdara su shankara, nāma dhārani’. Tib. (18) Gnud-hdsin-ch’hu-devang-snying-tjé-chan-gyi-gzungs—bdé-byed-ches-by-a-va. The happy maker (he that makes happy). A dhārani’i of the merciful Jambhala, the ruler of water. Adoration of Buddha and a few mantras,

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12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. c 4


(Bar) OR THE FIFTEENTH VOLUME.

There are two volumes under the letter B (the fifteenth and the sixteenth volumes). The first is called Ba-gong (the upper B), the latter, Ba-hog (the lower B).

First the Ba-gong, or fifteenth volume.

There are in this volume seven separate works. Their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some notices on their contents, are as follow:—

1. Sans. Amogha pāsha hridayāram mahā yāna sūtra. Tib. (28) Don-yod-zhang-pani-snying-po-theg-pa-ch'hen-pohi-mdo. From leaf 1—11. A sūtra of high principles, containing the essence of Amogha Pa'sha (a defined saint), related by Chenre'sik. The salutation is thus—Reverence be to A'rya Amogha Pa'sha; reverence be to Buddha; reverence to the great Merciful One. Sha'kya is on the top of the mountain of Potala, the residence of Chenre'sik, together with eighteen thousand Gélongs, an infinite number of Bodhisatwas, and Devas of Gnas-gtsang (the pure place or holy heaven). He gives them religious instruction. Chenre'sik tells this sūtra. Moral instruction, with several mantras of great efficacy, and ceremonies with which they must be repeated.


5. The twelve names of ditto. Leaves 20, 21.


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(30) गु ः श्र । क्ष ः द्रष्य । हि । मुक्त । य ।
(31) वर्म । म ।
(32) रम । त्र । नी । य ।
(33) 1. द्रष्य । हि । 2. बण । नी । 3. घर्म । सिं । मुक्त ।
(34) 4. हि । प्र । मुक्त । 5. रम । र । 6. घर्म । प्र । मुक्त ।
(35) 7. द्रष्य । हि । 8. रम । नी । 9. हि । प्र ।
(36) 10. रम । र । 11. द्रष्य । हि । 12. रम । नी ।
(37) 34. हि । प्र । नी । 35. हि । प्र ।
va—rgyud-kyi-rgyal-po-ch‘hen-po. From leaf 66—105. The subduing or
taming of ghosts (or evil spirits). Salutation thus—Reverence be to Srí
VAJRA SATWA. (Tib. Dpal-rdo-rje-sems-dpa). Subject—The manner of
subduing all male and female Bhúts. The speaker is VAJRA DHARA (Rdo-
rje-ch‘hang). Leaf 80. Explication of several symbols (Sansk. mūdra) or con-
figurations of the fingers of the hands, the fists, &c. Several mantras and
ceremonies to be performed for obtaining the favour of such and such a
demon. Translated by BUDDHA A‘KARA VARMA, and Gélong CH‘HOS-KYI-
SHES-RAP.

(BA-HOC) OR THE SIXTEENTH VOLUME.

The lower or latter B.

There is only one work, with the following title and contents:—

Sansk. A’rya amogha pāsha kalpa Rāja. Tib. (36) Hphags-pa-don-yod-
pahi-zhags-pahi-ch‘ho-ga-zhib-mohi-rgyal-po. From leaf 1—569. Minute de-
scription of the religious rites and ceremonies of A’RYA AMOGHA PA‘SHA.
The salutation is thus—Reverence be to BUDDHA, and to all Bodhisatwas.
Subject—Description of mandalas, ceremonies, mantras, praises, instruction.
The several parts of this volume have been translated by different per-
sons at different times; the end, by SHA‘KYA and Gélong Rin-ch‘hen-
grub.

(MA) OR THE SEVENTEENTH VOLUME.

There are in this volume sixteen separate works or treatises. Their
titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short notices on their contents, are as
follow:—

36  D 4
1. Sans. Sarva karma ávarana vishodhani—náma dhárañi. Tib. (37) Latskyi-sgríb-pa-thams-chad-rnam-par-sbyoang-ta-zhes-byá-vahi-gzungs. From leave 1—3. A dhárañi for making clear all the stains of moral works (or for putting away all moral deformities). The salutation is thus—Reverence be to Bhagavaṇ, (Tib. (38) Behom-Iday-hdas,) the undisturbed. Namo Ratna Trayáya. There are a few mantras, and some benefits are enumerated as attainable by repeating them.

2. Sans. Vidyá uttama mahá tantra. Tib. (39) Rig-pa-mchog-gi-rgyud-ch'hen-po. From leave 3—365. A large tantra of the chief vidyá, taught by Cha'knā' Dorje' (Sans. Vajra Pán'i) by the permission of Chom-da'na's (Shákya) at Shravasti. Mantras, with instruction how to make use of them; on what occasions to write them; on what days to perform the ceremonies and burn incense; and what things are to be obtained by them. Leave 37. Cha'knā' Dorje' having prostrated himself at the feet of Chom-da'na's (Shákya) utters this mantra—Namo Ratna Trayáya; Namashaehan'da Vajra Pánisya Mahá Yaksha sénapatisya; Namashaehan'da pramatanáya, swáhá. Hiri miri tirini, swáhá. Ceremonies of Rudrá'ni, (Tib. (40) Nagmo-drug-mo,) of Jayavati, (Tib. (41) Rgyal-ca-chun-ma,) &c. Several sorts of mandalas. Ceremonies for obtaining any specified kind of prosperity; as, health, longevity, wealth, victory over an enemy, faculty of perceiving and retaining what one has heard or learned. The ceremonies of Kartikeya (Tib. (42) Smin-drug-gi-bu); of six great goddesses, as, Uma' (Tib. (43) Dkaḥ-bzlog); &c. The expelling of evil spirits. The curing of lunatics (or madmen), and of those suffering from consumption by several sorts of meat and drink, or
potions. Several modes of curing diseases also. On leaf 365 there is a slóka in four lines thus:—(Tib.\(^{44}\))

\[
\begin{align*}
Nad-med-pa-ni-ryed-pahi-mch\'hog, \\
Ck\'hog-shes-pa-ni-nor-gyi-mch\'hog, \\
Yid-brtan-pa-ni-gnyen-gyi-mch\'hog, \\
Mya-nan-ldas-pa-bde-vahi-mch\'hog.
\end{align*}
\]

Health is the chief acquirement.

Content is the best riches.

Firmness of mind is the best kinsman.

Deliverance from pain is the chief happiness.

\[
Dkon-mch\'hog-gsurn-la-phya-gts\'hal-lo.
\]

Reverence be to the three holy ones.

Translated by Vidya'kara Prabhā, and Pa'alse'gs, a Tibetan Lotsavā.

From leaf 366—368. The eight names of Cha'kna' Dorje' (Sans. Vajra Pānś) together with some mantras.


\(^{44}\) ՔՆ ԴԲՌ ՉԳ ԵՐԻ ԴՑ ՄԵՐԻ ԶՈՒՄ
\(^{45}\) ՔՆ ԴԲՌ ՉԳ ԵՐԻ ԴՑ ՄԵՐԻ ԶՈՒՄ
\(^{46}\) ՔՆ ԴԲՌ ՉԳ ԵՐԻ ԴՑ ՄԵՐԻ ԶՈՒՄ
be to Buddha and to all Bodhisatwas. Told by Sha'kya, when he was in that house on the top of the Meru. Subject—Praise of Sha'kya by the gods and Bodhisatwas. Exhortations to go to him, and to hear his doctrine. His instruction on several subjects. Metaphysical speculations on the nature of Tathāgata (God) in a discourse between Cha'kna, Dorje (Sansk. Vajra Pānī) and Sha'radiwa'thi-bu. Translated by the Indian Upādhyāya (Mkhan-po, master or professor) Shile'ndra Bodhi, Jna'na Siddhi, and Bande' Ye'she's-sde'.


7. Sans. Vajra dūnda—Nāga samaya. Tib. Rdo-rje-mch'hu—kluhidam-tshig. From leaf 426—466. The Vajra (or diamond) beak; or the oath or promise of a Nāga (or serpent). Some ceremonies and mantras to the Nāgas (or serpents) for obtaining seasonable rain. The Nāgas promise that they will not hurt the corn, &c.


10. Another dhāranī of the same title. Leaf 472.

12. Sans. Mahā bala—mahā yāna sūtra. Tib. (53) Stobs-po-ch'he—theg-pa'ch'hen-pohi-mdo. Leaf 489. The great strong (or powerful) one. A sūtra of high principles. Some mantras of Vajra Khroha Maha' Bala—their efficacy. The Maha' Bala is Tathāgata, is Dherma, is all; therefore Maha' or Ca'ma repairs for protection to Maha' Bala.


(75) OR THE EIGHTEENTH VOLUME.

There is only one work in this volume, under the following title:—

cription of religious rites and ceremonies concerning Ta'ra', a goddess, styled elsewhere, the mother of all Tathāgatas. Chenreṣīk (Sans. Avalokitēshvara) sent by Amitābha from the Sukhavati world, visits Sha'kyā, and after having delivered to him Amitābha's compliments, praises him (Sha'kyā) in several verses (seven or eight). Sha'kyā with Chenreṣīk, in a discursive manner, tells all sorts of religious rites and ceremonies. There are descriptions of mandalas, ceremonies, and some mantras. Instruction on several subjects. On the six transcendental virtues. The subject of this volume is, in general, mystical and moral doctrine. Besides Chenreṣīk, several of Sha'kyā's disciples are introduced speaking, as Sha'rihi-Bu, Mongolyana, and others.

(Ts'ha) or the Nineteenth Volume.

There are in this volume twenty-two separate works. Their titles in Sanscrit and Tibetan, together with some short notices on their contents are as follow:

1. Sans. Mani bhadra—dhāranī. Tib. (59) Nor-bu-bzang-pohi-gzungs. From leaf 1—3. The son of Maha'Yaksha Se'napati visiting Sha'kyā at Shrāvasti, promises to him, that whoever of the Gelong and Gelongmas shall daily thrice repeat this Snying-po (mantra or bija-mantra)—Namo Ratna Trayāya; Namo Mani Bhadrāya, Mahā Yaksha Sēnapatayé, &c. he will defend him, and supply all his necessities.


tandala, told by Shākyā to Kun-dga’h-vo, to keep safe Grachen-desin (Sans. Rāhula) his son from the injuries of all sorts of specified demons, or evil spirits.

4. Sans. Vidyā Rāja—Shvāsa mahā. Tib. (62) Rig-snags-kyi-rgyal-po-dungs-ch’en-po. Leaves 27, 28. A principal vidyā mantra, styled “The great breath,” (name of a demon, the prince of all evil spirits). He tells to Shākyā the several evils which he inflicts on all animal beings, and promises that he will not hurt such as shall keep and repeat the “Shvāsa-mahā vidyā mantra.”


9. Another dhāranī for the prajñā pāramitā of 25,000 slōkas.

10. Another ditto for that of 8,000 ditto.

62 Ṛg- ‘rul-ba ’ bya-’a-ba ’ ra-hal ’ dren- ’ kha ’ < < 63 Ṛg- ’ bya-’a-’a-ba ’ bya-hal ’ dren- ’ kha ’<< 64 ’ bya-’a-ba ’ bya-hal ’<< 65 ’ bya-’a-ba ’ bya-hal ’<< 66 ’ bya-’a-ba ’ bya-hal ’<<

12. Sans. Sarva mandala samānaya vidhāna guhya tantra. Tib. Dhyilbkhor-thams-chad-khyi-spyi-khi-ch'o-ga-gang-vahi-rgyud. From leaf 71—108. General rites and formulæ used in every mandala. A mystical tantra, taught by Cha'kna Dorje (Vajra Pānī'). The salutation is thus—Reverence be to the All-knowing. Subject—Enumeration of several sorts of mandalas, and description of the ceremonies practised in each of them. Disposition of the figures representing the several divinities introduced in the mandala. Explanation of the several symbols (1 mudra) in the hands of the deities in the mandala; as, trisul, for Rudra; discus, for Vishnu; padma, for Brahma; a javelin, for Sambhara; a vajra, for Indra; a furnace, for the god of fire; a club, for Yama; a sword, for Nārāhi; a snare, for the god of water; a banner, for Vayu; a staff, for Kuvera, &c. &c. This is an instructive tantra on the rites and ceremonies practised in the mandalas. It is in verse, and in an easy style.


Bala Mahā Chan’da. Tib. (72) Stobs-chi’hen-khro-vo-chi’hen-po. Subject—
A detailed account of the means of arriving at perfection (or of all religious
and moral observances for obtaining it). Leaf 115. The required qualities
of a teacher, who may officiate at tantrika ceremonies. Description of the
several substances used in the sacrifices; as, flowers, incenses, perfumes, sweet
scented water, lights, or lamps, &c. Stated periods of the day and night for
performing such and such religious observances or duties. This is a fine
tantra, and in good language.

15. Sans. Parin’ata chakra—Mahā Yāna sūtra. Tib. (73) Yongs-su-bsño-
vahi-khor-lo-theg-pa-chi’hen-pohi-mdo. From leaf 187—192. The state of
arriving at maturity or perfection. The blessing of bestowing a benediction
upon any one, that he may arrive at perfection or emancipation. Enu-
ration of some required qualifications for obtaining final emancipation.

16. Sans. Mahā parin’ata rāja samantraka. Tib. (74) Yongs-su-bsño-vahi-
benediction, together with some mantras; or an earnest wish that by the
merits of specified religious and moral actions, one may come to perfection or
salvation (or final emancipation). Adoration of several Buddhas and Bodhi-
satvas, gods, and demons. Translated by Vidya’kara Prabha and Bande
Ye’she’s Snying-po; corrected by Dpal-rtse’gs. Leaves 224, 225. A
prayer for obtaining the supreme degree of perfection, that one may be able to
assist other animal beings that are suffering all sorts of miseries; commencing
with—“Reverence be to the three holy ones. Sans. Namo Ratna Trayāya.”
From leaf 225—227. Another prayer addressed to Chenre’šik, as the
most merciful. From leaf 227—229. Another prayer. Some other prayers.
From leaf 229—233.

18. Sans. Swástigayana gáthá. Tib. (76) Bdé-legs-su-hgyur-vahi-ts’higs-su-bchad-pa. Verses on the state of those that are happy. Told by Shá’kya at the request of a god. Enumeration of some moral duties—they that practise (or observe) them are happy.


(Dsa) OR THE TWENTIETH VOLUME.

There are in this volume three separate works. Their titles and contents are as follow:

From leaf 1—91, then continued again to 120. The great perfect One in all things (or respects), the pure Soul, the all-creating sovereign. This is a highly speculative treatise on the nature, the character, and existence of the Supreme being, and the proceeding of all things from him. The speaker, in general, is the supreme Soul, or the all-creating sovereign, who answers to the queries of Vajra Satwa, (Tib. Rdo-rje-sems-dpah) the president of the five Dhyāni Buddhas (as they are called elsewhere.) He was before all things—He is existing from all eternity. Translated in the eighth or ninth century, by Sri Sinha Prabha, and Bairotsana.


*82 डे ते अन्न ५७९ 83 डे अन्न ५७३ ते अन्न ५७३ ।
84 डे अन्न ५७३ ।
va, &c. From leaf 408—503. The mysteries (or secrets) of all the Tathāgatas, &c. This is considered as part of the former treatise.

Note.—This whole volume is old fashioned, and of little authority, except to the Snyigmapa sect (the most ancient among the Buddhistic sects in Tibet).

(W4) OR THE TWENTY-FIRST VOLUME.

This volume contains the four following works or treatises:


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85 दमिक्कै निस्मल्ल बहु ममार त्यस्या तैरयाँ त्यांमि केंद्र रेखा तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ
86 ् रज्ञाय ज्ञातं तोहे तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ
87 देशं ज्ञेयं तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ तैरुहँ
The salutation is thus—Om! Reverence be to Vairochana. (Tib. 「Rnam-par-snang-mdsad.) Húm! Reverence to Akshobhya. (Tib. 「Mi-skyod-pa.) Ah! Reverence to Amitā'bha'. (Tib. 「Snang-vu-mthah-yas.) Subject—Buddhistic ritual and theology. Delivered by Vajra Satwa (Tib. 「Rdo-rje-sems-dpah) the Supreme intelligence, who is also styled in this sūtra Pradha'na, (Tib. Gtso-co,) Mahá Purus'ha (Tib. 「Skyes-bu-ch'hen-po) on the queries of Vajra Dhara, (Tib. 「Rdo-rje-lc'h'hang) the lord of all mysteries. Queries by Rdo-rje-lc'h'hang—Why the five (Dhyāni) Buddhas, several specified Bodhisattvas, and goddesses, as Māmaki, Tārā, Sita', &c., were called so? Translated by Vimalamitra, and by Bande' Jná'na Ku'ma'ra.

4. In Tibetan only. (94) Tsang-vahi-snying-po-dé-kho-no-nyid-nes-pa. From leaf 267—427. The essence of mysteries—the real nature of the human soul, or its identity with the divine spirit that animates the whole of nature. The salutation is thus—Reverence be to Chom-da'n-da's Kuntu Zang-po, (Sans. Bhagaván Samanta Bhadra). Subject, as above. This is an appendix to the former treatise.

(Zha) OR THE TWENTY-SECOND VOLUME.

There are in this volume fifteen separate works, besides some small and inconsiderable fragments. The titles of them in Sanscrit and Tibetan, with some short notices on their contents, are as follow:—


salutation is thus—Reverence to Chom-da'n-da's, Kuntu Zang-po, Ye'she's Bla' ma' Chen-po (to Bhagava'n Samanta Bhadra, the supreme lord of wisdom).

3. Sans. Mañju Shri karma chattar chakra guhya tantra. Tib. (97) Hjam-dpal-las-bzhhi-hkhor-lo-gsang-vahi-rgyud. From leaf 83—102. The four works of Manju Sri, or a tantra on the mysterious chakra (wheel); again continued in an appendix to leaf 107. The salutation is thus—Reverence be to Hjam-dpal Ye'she's Sems-dpa'h, (Sans. Mañju Shri Jnana Satwa). Subject—Mystical and moral doctrine.


Subject—Mystical theology. Description of mandalas, ceremonies, and mantras, such as this—“Om! Sri He’raka maha vajra, sarva du’stam samaya mudra pra veshaya, Sri He’ruka, Hüm, Phat.” (Leaf 267).


8. Sans. Pu’jaya Bhagavān mahā Rāja. Tib. (105) Bchom-ladan-hdas-nyis-mmed-kyi-rgyal-po-ch’hen-po-la-phyag-hts’hal-lo. Leaves 293, 294. Reverence be to (or I adore) BHAGAVĀN, the most perfect sovereign. Some mystical ceremonies.


10. Sans. Tathāgata pañcha buddhānām-namah. Tib. (107) Rigs-lna-bde-var-gshegs-la-phyag-hts’hal-lo. From leaf 299—301. Reverence be to the five Sugatas (Tathāgatas or Buddhas). On the means of obtaining emanipation, and the state of being united with the Supreme spirit—or on the Mahā yoga.


103 समव ता पर दी सू दी ता दी—दैत्य तीरे ह ती सू दी पे सू पर दी सू दी सू दी 104 रसव ता दी तादी पे 105 रज्जवत ता दी तादी सतेन ह ती ह ती दी पे ती दी दी 106 ती दी सू दी सू दी दी सू मन्दव 107 दी दी ता दी ह ती मन्दव 108 मन्दव ह ती ह ती


15. Sans. Loka stotra puja tantra nāma, manobhika santaka. Tib. (113) Hjig-rten-mchad-hod-bstod-sgrub-pa-rtse-rahi-rgyud-ches-bya-va. From leaf 369—397. An original tantra on the means of obtaining or acquiring Him, to whom the world offers sacrifices and utters praises;—or on the union with the Supreme spirit. The salutation is thus—Reverence be to Chom-da'n-dās-Dorje' Dzin (Sans. Bhagavān Vajra dhara) the supreme Buddha.

Note.—The titles of some of the smaller works in this volume have been written and translated erroneously. In general all these works are of little interest. Here ends the last volume of the Rgyūt Class, as also of the whole Kāh-gyur.

I beg, in conclusion, to remark, that in the whole Catalogue, the proper names of Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, gods, demons, countries, cities, &c. &c. though they occur in the text in Tibetan only, I have frequently expressed either in Sanskrit alone, or sometimes in both Sanskrit and Tibetan, with the aid of the Sanskrit and Tibetan vocabulary in my hand. As also, instead of Bchom-ltan-hdas, (Bhagava'n) I have frequently written Sha'kya.

109 སྐོར་ ཐོན་ རྱེད་ ཏུ་ དཔེར་ 110 སྐོར་ ཐོན་ རྱེད་ རྭམ་ སློབ་ 111 སྐོར་ ཐོན་ རྱེད་ 112 སྐོར་ ཐོན་ རྭམ་ སློབ་ 113 སྐོར་ ཐོན་ སློབ་ རྭམ་
ABBREVIATION OF THE CONTENTS
OF THE
BSTAN-HGYUR.*

BY MR. ALEXANDER CSOMA KÖRÖSI.

SICULO-HUNGARIAN OF TRANSYLVANIA.

Theregon %Bsthan-Hgyur is a compilation in Tibetan, of all sorts of
literary works, written mostly by ancient Indian Pandits, and some
learned Tibetans in the first centuries after the introduction of Buddhism
into Tibet, commencing with the seventh century of our era. The
whole makes two hundred and twenty-five volumes. It is divided into
classes,—the དཔེ་ and མ་, Rgyud and Mdo, (Tantra and Sutra classes, in
Sanskrit). The "Rgyud," mostly on tantrika rituals and ceremonies,
makes eighty-seven volumes. The "Mdo," on science and literature,
occupies one hundred and thirty six volumes. One separate volume
contains hymns or praises on several deities and saints. And one volume
is the Index for the whole.

* An Abstract of the contents of the Bstan-Hgyur collection will only be given here, without
mentioning the Sanscrit titles of the works, since they have not been introduced into the Index
volume, now in the writer's possession; neither had the Author, when in Tibet, sufficient leisure to
turn over the volumes for copying the Sanscrit titles. But it was observed by him that the titles of
many of tracts or separate works were there expressed in Tibetan only. These volumes are not in the
Library of the Asiatic Society.
The following list contains some of the works enumerated in the Index, viz.;
First, the collection of Hymns, &c.; Secondly, the Rgyud; and, Lastly,
the Mdo class.

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I. སྐྱིད་་ཆོས། (BSTOD-TS'HOGS).

Collection of Hymns or Praises.

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   A hymn (or praise) on the Most High.

2. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

3. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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4. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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5. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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6. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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7. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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8. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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9. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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10. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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11. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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12. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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13. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

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15. སྐྱིད་བསྐྱེས་པ། Dehi-hgérl-pa. A commentary on the preceding, &c.

9. ག་ ལེ་ ལེ་ ལེ་ ལེ་ ་ བསྟོད་པ།  Bdul-btul-va-la-bstod-pa. A praise to him who has overcome the devil, (to Buddha).

10. དྭ་ ནི་ གོ་ རོ་ ལེ་ ་ བསྟོད་པ།  Ch'hos-kyi-deyings-su bstod-pa. A hymn on the mansion or root of morality.

11. སྐྱ་ མ་ ལེ་ ་ བསྟོད་པ།  Dpe-med-par-bstod-pa. The praise of the incomparable.

12. སྐྱ་ བླ་ ཐི་ འེ་ བླ་ ཐི་ ལེ་ ་ བསྟོད་པ།  Hjig-rten-las-ladas-par-bstod-pa. A praise to him who went away from the world.

13. བཟང་ བཟང་ བཟང་ བཟང་ བསྟོད་པ།  Sems-kyi-rdo-rje-la bstod-pa. Praise to the essence of the soul (to the Supreme soul) or spirit.


15. ་ བསྟོད་པ།  Sku-gsum-la-bstod-pa. A hymn on the three bodies or persons, (Dharma-kāya, Sambhoga-kāya and Nirvāṇa-kāya).


17. བཟང་ བཟང་ བཟང་ བཟང་ བསྟོད་པ།  Sems-chan-mgu-var-bya-xahi bstod-pa. A hymn exhilarating the animal beings.


26. Phyag-hts’bal-vahi-bstod-pa. A praise to be repeated at the time of adoration, (or prostration before a Buddha’s image).
28. Sangs-rgyas-Bekom-ldan-hdas-la-bstod-pa, baṅgs-par-hos-pa-bsaṅgs-pa. Praise to Buddha, the triumphant, who is worthy to be praised.
31. Gchig-las-hp'ros-pahi-bstod-pa. The praise of Him who issued from the same one.
33. Ts'ig-brgyad-pahi-bstod-pa. A praise of eight words.

38. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Dehi-hgreI-pa. Its commentary.

39. རྒྱུ་མོ་དུ་དེ་। Gan'dihi-bsod-pa. The praise of a bell, (or of a wooden rattle).

40. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Spel-mar-bsod-pa. Praise in prose and verse.

41. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। De-bshin-gshegs-pa-lhams-chad-la-bsod-pa. A hymn to all the Tathágatas, (Buddhas).

42. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Behom-lidan-hdas-shá-kyi-lchub-pahi-bsod-pa. The praise of the mighty Sha'KYA, the triumphant.

43. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Yon-tan-mthah-yas-par-bsod-pa. A praise to Him whose perfections are infinite.

44. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Yon-tan-mthah-yas-pahi-tshig-lehur-byas-pa. Comment on the above, in explanatory verses.

45. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Sangs-rgyas-myan-las-hdas-pa-la-bsod-pa. A hymn on the death (deliverance from pain) of a Buddha, or the praise of that sūtra in which the death of Sha'KYA is described.

46. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Bshags-pahi-bsod-pa. The praise of the confession of sin. A commentary on the same.

47. རྒྱལ་དགེ་པ་। Sangs-rgyas-drang-bskur-pahi-bsod-pa. A hymn on the inauguration of Buddha.

Ditto on seven ditto.
Ditto on eight ditto.

50. Rab-tu-sna-var-nam-lang-pahi-bstod-pa. A hymn to be said very early in the morning (when rising from bed).

51. Gnas-ch'hen-po-brgyad-kyi-mch'od-ten-la-p'hyag-hits'hal-vahi-bstod-pa. A hymn of adoration to the holy shrines in the eight places (where the relics of Shakya were deposited).


54. Bdag-nyid-ch'hen-po-grags-pa-rgyal-mts'han-la-bstod-pa. A praise to the great Lord, the standard of renown, (or an encomium on a great Lama of this name).
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE BSTOD-TS'HOGS.

55. भ्रम-दम-पा-च'होस-क्यि-र्ग्याल-पो-ला-बस्तो-पा. Encomium on a holy Lama, the prince of morality.

56. दुस-म्च्होड-ब्ज्हिहि-त्स्क्हिग-ले-हुर-ब्यास-पा. Four sacrifices made at certain times, explained in verse.

57. त्स्क्हिग-सु-ब्चाड-पा-ग्चिग-पाह-ह्ग्रेल-पा. The comment of a single slóka.

58. शाख्या-सहु-पाह-बस्तो-पा. The praise of Shā'kya-sah-pahi-bstod-pa.

Besides these there are yet many other praises, hymns, and prayers among the Tantras, addressed to some particular deities, or tutelary gods, &c. &c.

The authors and translators of the above specified works or treatises may be found in the Index (ज्ञान-च'ह, Dkar-ch'hag) of the Bstan-hgyur compilation.
II. गृह्य RGYUD, (Sans. Tantra).

According to the Index, there are in this class 2640 treatises of different sizes, filling eighty-seven volumes. They treat in general of the rituals and ceremonies of the mystical doctrine of the Buddhists, interspersed with many instructions, hymns, prayers, and incantations. The Index specifies twenty-four chapters, as the contents of the whole of this class. They are as follow:

1st Chap. गृह्य RGYUD. The circle of time, (Sans. Kāla-chakra) in five volumes, ॐ, fifty-two treatises.

2nd Chap. गृह्य RGYUD. The chief of happiness, (Sans. Sambara) in nine volumes, ॐ, one hundred and eighty-eight treatises.

3rd Chap. गृह्य RGYUD. O mighty Lord! (Sans. Hē-Vajra) eight volumes, ॐ, one hundred and sixty treatises.

4th Chap. गृह्य RGYUD. The four noble diamond seats (Sri chatur Vajrāsana). Part of the ॐ volume—fourteen treatises.

5th Chap. गृह्य RGYUD. (Mahā-māyā) Tantrika works on the great illusion. Part of the ॐ volume—twenty-six treatises.

6th Chap. गृह्य RGYUD. Rdo-vjé-bdud-rtsihi-skor. (Vajra-amrita) the precious drink of immortality. Part of the ॐ volume—three treatises.
7th Chap. नं १. Sangs-rgyas-thod-pa. (Buddha-kupala) the skull of BUDDHA. Part of the ॐ volume—seven treatises.

8th Chap. नं २. Sangs-rgyas-mnyam-sbyor. The union with BUDDHA (Buddha Yoga) ⚫—toUpperCase, twenty-four treatises.


11th Chap. नं ५. Gshin-vje-gshed-kyi-skor. The Lord of death (or of the dead) YAMA. ⚫—toUpperCase, two volumes—one hundred and thirty-six treatises.

12th Chap. नं ६. Mts'han-brjod, (rnal-hbyor-bla-med-du-bkra-lsav-skor). Enumeration of the divine attributes of the Supreme being. (This is of the highest kind of the Mahā Yoga or abstract meditation). Part of the ⚫ volume—twenty-nine treatises.

14th Chap. སྣ་་་་, ༡༩, *Phyag-na-rdo-rje* (Vajra Pā'nyī) on several deities of this tribe, as emblems of power, vengeance, cruelty, &c. ༢༩ volumes—sixty-five treatises.


17th Chap. སྣ་ཞི་གནས་པའི་ཐབས་ Mts'han-byod. Enumeration and definition of several divine attributes, ༤༣, four volumes—ninety-five treatises.

18th Chap. སྣ་ཞི་འཇིག་ཤིས་སྲིད་, *Naun-song-shbyong-rgyud*, *Tantras* for lessening the number of the damned, or of those suffering in hell and other places of the bad transmigrations, ༤༥, four volumes—thirty-eight treatises.

19th Chap. སྣའི་སྲིད་པ་དེ་ Rspyod-pahi-rgyud. *Tantras* treating of the practices of devotees, ༣༣, two volumes—seven treatises.


22nd Chap. སྣ་་་་་་, ་*Tseg-pa-gsum-rgyud-sde-bzhi*. Treatises on the three vehicles or principles. The four classes of *Tantras*, ༣ volume—twenty-one treatises.


Treatises lately added to the Tantras, on initiation, consecration, emancipation, &c. from ༨ to ༡—fourteen volumes.

Such are the general contents of the eighty-seven volumes of the Tantra class.

Here follow the titles of some of the treatises contained in the above enumerated chapters:

Note.—The Tibetan letters prefixed denote the volume in which they may be found. By the thirty single letters, without any apparent vowel sign, the Tibetans express on registers the numerals from one to thirty; afterwards, from thirty-one to sixty, by adding to each letter the vowel sign ( " ) "i;" from sixty-one to ninety, by adding (,) ༡ "u;" from ninety-one to a hundred and twenty, by adding (") "e;" and from one hundred and twenty-one to one hundred and fifty, by adding to each letter the "o" ( ā ).

Dus-kyi-hkhor-lo. (Kāla-chakra) the circle of time, in a proper sense; but it is taken generally as the name of a particular god presiding over several other gods of inferior rank. This system originated in the north of Asia, in the fabulous Shambhala, in the environs of the river Sihon (or Sita), and was introduced into India in the tenth century after Christ. Beside the several rites and ceremonies to be observed in representing the male and female deities of this department, the chief doctrine taught in this system is that on the nature of A'di-Buddha, and the worship most acceptable to him.

Dri-ma-med-pahi-hod. "Spotless light" is the title of a large commentary on the above work.

Dus-kyi-hkhor-lohi-sgrub-chabs. On the rituals and ceremonies of the Kāla-chakra system.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE RGYUD.


Dus-hkhor-la-hjug-pahi-rtsis-kyi-bstan-bchos. An introductory astronomical work to the Kalachakra.

Nyi-zla-hdsin-pahi-rtsis. Calculations of the eclipses of the sun and moon.


Rab-gnas. Consecration (of any recently made image, book, or shrine of any Buddha or saint).

Sbyin-sreg. Burnt offerings.

Mts'han-brjod. Enumeration of the several names, titles, epithets, or attributes of any Buddha, or especially of A'di-Buddha.

Bde-mch'og-gi-sgrub-chabs. The manner of preparing and representing this deity with his train.

Dkyil-hkhor-gyi-ch'ho-ga. Ceremonies to be performed in the circle or Mandala.
**Abstract of the Contents of the Rgyud.**

*Man-ňag.* Instructions.

*Dam-tšig.* Sacrament, vow, obligation.

*Hbyung-po-ňams-ňad-kiy-gtor-chho.* The manner of offering to all sorts of ghosts.

*Ro-sreg-gi-chho-ga.* Rites and ceremonies to be observed on the burning of dead bodies. (Or the manner of burning dead bodies).

*Spyan-dye-vañi-chho-ga.* The manner or ceremony of opening one's eyes.

*Rmi-lam-brtag-pa.* The examining of dreams.


*Ch'os-kyi-ňam-grangs-kyi-ignty.* A song on several things relating to religion.

*Hck'ing-va-ňam-grol-gyi-bstan-behos.* A work on emancipation.

*Deang-bskur-va.* Consecration, inauguration, empowering, the act of anointing, initiating, &c.

*Skyabs-su-hgro-vañi-chho-ga.* The ceremony or ritual for taking refuge (with Buddha).
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE BOYUD.

Sems-bskyed-pah-ch'ho-ga. The ceremony or ritual of making the resolution to become a saint, or to arrive at the greatest perfection.

Mch'od-rten-bsgrub-pah-ch'ho-ga. The manner of preparing or representing a Chaitya (a sort of small sacred building, or chapel).

Sku-hk'hrs-hyi-ch'ho-ga. The ceremony of washing the image of a god, &c.

Rang-srung-vahi-ch'ho-ga. The manner or ceremony of keeping one's self safe.

Gzhan-bskyang-vahi-ch'ho-ga. The manner or ceremony of defending or protecting others.

Pha-rol-gyi-gnod-pa-bsrung-va. The keeping safe from injury by another.

Pha-rol-gyi-sde-gzhom-pa. To overcome another tribe, or to conquer an enemy.

Pha-rol-dvang-du-bya-va. On subjecting an enemy to one's dominion.

Gzhan-gyi-rig-snags-mnan-pa. The making ineffectual the charms or incantations of others.

Kluhi-gdon-las-char-var-byed-pahim-man-nag. Incantation for delivering one from a Nagá evil spirit (or from a sort of madness).
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE RGYUD.


Deang-du-byed-pahi-ch’ho-ga. Ditto, for getting a person or thing into one’s power or possession.


Snags. Magic. (There are several treatises on the wonderful effects of charms and incantations).

Ser-va-srun-gahi-ch’abs. The manner of defending against the hail.

Dmag-dpung-gzhom-pahi-ch’abs. The manner of conquering an army.

Mdse-nad-gso-vahi-ch’abs. The manner of curing leprosy.

Gzung-chams-chad-kyi-sgrubs-ch’abs. The manner of acquiring perfection in all sorts of charms or incantations, (Dhārani).

Shes-rab-skyed-pahi-ch’ho-ga. The manner or ceremony of procuring or imparting wit to any one.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

शेस-राब-ह्पेल-यर्द्व-पहिं-च्क’-हो-गु. The manner or ceremony for increasing one’s wit or understanding.

Dug-sel-mahi-gzuṅs. The charm (or Dhārani) of the poison-curing goddess.

Hjam-dpal-gyi-sgrub-lḥabs. The method of acquiring a perfection like that of Hjam-dpal, the god of wisdom.

Such are the subjects of the Tantra class, (or Rgyud-sdē).

III. अं MDO, (Sansk. Sūtra).

There are one hundred and thirty-six volumes in this division of the Bstan-hgyur compilation. They treat, in general, of science and literature, in the following order:—Theology, philosophy, logic or dialectical philology or grammar, rhetoric, poesy, prosody, synonymics, astronomy, astrology, medicine, and ethics, some hints to the mechanical arts, and alchemy.

Ninety-four volumes are on theology and natural philosophy alone. Here also occur many works of the tantrika system. The following list exhibits the titles of some of the treatises contained in these books.

Mñon-par-rtogs-pahi-rgyan. Ornament of reasoning. This work is attributed to Maitreya, the Buddha next following. It is a general survey of the whole Prajñā Pāramitā in twenty-one volumes of the Bkah-hgyur. This work, with many commentaries by different authors, makes sixteen volumes. There are
thirty-eight treatises. This is the first chapter of definitions (in the Index).

" (Ⅲ 14 vols.) The second chapter enumerates two hundred and fifty-three treatises, explanatory of the Madhyamika system. The first original text is attributed to Klu-sgrub (kusñja, Sans. Nāgarjuna).

Dvu-ma-rtsa-vahi-ts'ig-lehur-byas-pa-shes-rab-ches-byva-vā. The first principles of wisdom, in explanatory verses, according to the Madhyamika school.

Rigs-pa. Argument (Nyāya).

Rtsod-pa-bzlog-pa. The refutation of an opponent—with many commentaries on it.

Dvu-ma-xten-hbrel-snying-po. The essence of causal concatenation, according to the Madhyamika school.


Gtan-ts'higs-grub-pa. The perfect syllogism or argument.

Hkhrul-pa-hjoms pa. The subduing of error.

Ye-shes-snying-po-kun-las-btus. The essence of wisdom, selected from several works.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Shes-rab-sgron-ma. The light (or lamp) of wisdom.

Deu-mahi-snying-po. The essence of the Madhyamika philosophy.

Rtog-ge-hbar-va. (Sansk. Tarkajvāla). A violent or ardent reasoning. This is a commentary on the above work; and contains a review of the several philosophical sects in ancient India, especially with respect to the technicalities of each school. The sects mentioned are, Sánk'hya, Vaiśeshika, Nyāya, Mimángsa, Lokayāta, Vidyākara, with several others, which for the first principle take any of Purusha, Pradhāna, Brahma', Vishnu, Isvara, Time, Atom. The Mlecchas also are mentioned (called in Tibetan Lo-lo ཀྲ་ ཀློ་ Kla-klo) but, generally, the Mahomedans are comprehended under this appellation.


Phung-po-lha. On the five aggregates.

Stong-nyid, (Sansk. Shūnyatā). On vacuity or voidness; or on the abstract notion of it.

Deu-ma-la-hjug-pahi-hgrel-bsad. Introductory explanation on the Madhyamika doctrine.

These volumes contain several works and comments on the Yogā- charya philosophical sect.

ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

The analysis of the two truths.

"Bzan-brgyud-pa. Sku-gsum, hgrel-pa. A commentary on the three bodies (Dhermakāya, Sambhogakāya and Nirvānākāya).

Dvu-mahi-lugs-kyi-snying-po. The essence of the Madhyamika doctrine.

Lta-va-lcha-dad-pa-rnam-par-p'hye-va. Several opposite theories analysed.

Sems-brtag-pa. Examination or disquisition on the soul.


Sgom-pa. Meditation, (Sansk. Dhyāna).

Spyod-pa. Practice, (Sansk. Achāra).

Sgom-rim. Several degrees of meditation.

Knal-hbyor-spyod-pahi-bsam-gtam. The fixed meditation of a Yogāchārya.

Bslab-pa-kun-las-btus-pa. Doctrine or instruction selected from several works.

Byang-ch'hub-lam-gyi-sgron-ma. A lamp for finding the way to perfection.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Skyabs-su-hgro-va-bstan-pa. Instruction on repairing for protection to, or taking refuge with (Buddha).

T'heg-pa-ch'en-pohi-lam-gyi-sgrub-thabs. The method of acquiring the highest principles in philosophy (Mahayana).

Mdo-sde-kun-las-btus-pahi-man-nag. Instructions selected from all sorts of sutras.

Mi-dge-va-bchu. The ten immoral actions.

Rgyal-lam-la-hjug-pa. The entrance into the way of perfection (or of Buddha).

Skyabs-hgro-dang-sems-skyed-kyi-skor. Treatises on taking refuge with Buddha, and on making the resolution to become a saint, and forming the mind accordingly.

Yi-dam-bhang-vahi-ch’ho-ga. The manner or ceremony by which one chooses to himself a tutelary deity, or makes a vow.

Byang-ch’hub-sems-dpahi-sdom-pa. The obligations or duties of a saint.

Gsum-la-skyabs-su-hgro-va. On taking refuge with the three holy ones (Buddha, Dharma, and Sangha).

Ltung-va-bshags-pahi-ch’ho-ga. The manner or rite of confession of one’s fall (fault or sin).
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

₁₇₁₁ Ch'hos-pyod. Religious practices; or the religious exercises of the priests.

₁₇₁₁ Ch'hos-skyi-dryings-su-lta-vahi-glu. A song with respect to the root or mansion of morality (or the supreme moral being).

₁₇₁₁ Las-xnam-par-hbyed-pa. Analysis of moral works.

₁₇₁₁ Slob-ma-la-springs-pahi-p'hrin-yig. A letter addressed to a disciple.


₁₇₁₁ Mya-nan-gsal-va. The clearing up of one's sorrow, or comfort, consolation.


₁₇₁₁ Yon-tan-bdun-yongs-su-rdzo-gs-pahi-gtam. Conversation or discourse on the seven accomplished good qualities.

₁₇₁₁ Ts'hul-k'hrim-skyi-gtam. Discourse on morality, or good behaviour.

₁₇₁₁ Ts'hogs-skyi-gtam. Speech before a congregation; or discourse held in an assembly.

₁₇₁₁ Rtsod-pahi-dus-skyi-gtam. Conversation or discourse on the degenerate age.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Deen-pahi-gtam. Conversation in solitude; or private discourse.

Smon-lam. Prayer.

Man’d-al-bya-vahi-ch’ho-ga. The mode of preparing the Mandal.

Man’d-al-dvul-vahi-ch’ho-ga. The manner of offering the Mandal.

Man’d-al-gyi-ch’ho-ga. Ceremonies relating to the Mandal, or circle.


Bkah-so-sohi-dgongs-hgrel. Comments on several dogmas or precepts of the Bkah-hgyur.

Mdo-sde-dgongs-pa-ñes-par-hgrel-vahi-hgrel-pa. A commentary on the work inscribed. A true explication of the hidden thoughts (meaning, or sense) of the sūtras, or Mdo class.


Ch’hos-rgyes-su-dran-gyi-hgrel-pa. A commentary on the work entitled, The remembering of Dharma, or religion.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Dge-hdun-rjes-su-dran-gyi-hgrel-pa. A comment on the work entitled, The remembering of Sangha, or the holy priesthood.

Sangs-rgyas-kyi-sahi-rnam-par-bshad-pa. The description of the Buddha Bhumi, or the degree of perfection of a Buddha.

Sa-bchu-pahi-gleng-bzhihi-bshad-pa. A discursive explanation of the ten Bhumis (ten earths) or degrees of perfection of the saints.


Bzang-po-spyod-pahi-smon-lam. A prayer on good practices or conduct. There are several comments on this work.

Mdo-sde-dgongs-pa-zab-mo-nos-par-hgrel-va-thi-rgya-ch'her-hgrel-pa. A Vrîti (or commentary at large) of the work entitled, A true explication of the deep thoughts contained in the Sûtra class.

ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Laṅkar-gshegs-pahi-hgrel-pa. A comment on Lankāvatara, in the Bkah-hgyur. A visit to Lanka (or the visiting of Lanka).


Bsam-gtan-gyi-sgron-ma. The lamp of deep meditation.

Rnal-hbyor-la-hjug-pa. Entrance into abstract meditation.


Hjig-rten-bzhag-pa. The arrangement of the world, (or cosmography).

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Abstract of the Contents of the Mdo.

Ch'hos-mgon-pa-mdo. (Sansk. Abhidharma). Prospectus, or exhibition of remarkable things. There are many commentaries of this in several volumes.

Ch'ed-du-briyod-pahi-ts'homs. (Sansk. Udāna). Occasional discourses or speeches. There are several commentaries on this.


Hdul-va-la-bstod-pa. Praise on education (or religious discipline).

Dge-ts'ul. The young monk, or priest, in explanatory verses.

Dge-long-gi-lo-dri-va. The asking the years (or age) of a Gélong (or priest).

Skyes-rabs. Generation of birth, or generations of former transmigrations.

Dpag-bsam-gyi-hkhris-ling. The tree of consideration, (a fabulous tree in the paradise of the gods). This is an ingenious poetical work, composed in Sanscrit by Shu'bhendra. The book is inscribed, Bodisatwa Acadána.

Gtam. Stories, or tales, on several subjects.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.


4. Ts'had-mahi-mdo-kun-las-btus-pa. A sūtra or treatise on dialectic, or art of reasoning, selected from several works.

5. Ts'had-mahi-mdohi-rang-hgrel. A commentary of the before-mentioned dialectical treatise, by the same author.

6. Dmigs-pa-brtag-pa. The examination of the object; with a comment on it.

7. Dus-gsum-brtag-pa. The examination of the three times.

8. Rigs-pa-la-hjog-pahi-sgo. The door, or vestibule of logic.


10. Rtsod-pohi-rig-pa. The art or science of disputing, dialectic.

Many commentaries on logic and dialectic, by several authors, follow afterwards.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Gtan-tshigs-pahi-rgya-ch’her-hgrel-pa. Explanation at large on syllogism.

Hbrel-pa-brtag-pahi-rgya-ch’her-bshad-pa. A Vritti (comment) on the examination of coherence, or connexion.

Rigs-pa-grub-pahi-sgron-ma. The light (or lamp) of a perfect argument.

Tshad-ma-brtag-pa. The examination of proofs.

Glegs-ham-bklag-pahi-l’hab. The method of perusing a volume, (or of reading, &c.)

Ch’hos-dang-ch’hos-chan-gtan-la-p’hab-pa. Subject and predicate established.

Rigs-pa-sbyor-pa. Syllogism, or the arrangement of arguments.

Rtog-ge-skud. Terms used in disputing or reasoning.

De-k’ho-na-nyid-bsdus-pa. The Tattva Samāsā, or an abridgment on the identity of the natural essence of God.

ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Lung-du-ston-pa-tsandra-pahi-mdo. A treatise on Byakarana (or grammar) by Tsandra-pa.


Tsandra-pahi-nam-deyé. The several cases of a Sanscrit declension, according to Tsandra-pa.

Sgra-hi-bstan-bchos-kalápa. The grammatical work of Kalapa, with a comment on it.

Smra-va-kun-la-hjung-pahi-sgra-hi-bstan-bchos. A grammatical work, introductory to every speech or language.

Smra-vahi-sgo. The door of speech.

Note.—All these, and several other small treatises contained in this compilation, are on the Sanscrit language of the Buddhists.


Dehi-hgrel-pa. Its commentary.

Snyan-dnags-kyi-me-long. The mirror of sweet language, (Sansk. Kávyadershana).
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

Sde-bshor, rin-ch'en-hbyung-gnas-zhesbya-va. On poetry or prosody, (mine of precious metals). With a commentary.

Snyan-dnags, sprin-gyi-pho-nya. The cloud-messenger, a poem.

Kalapa "ti" sogz-kyi-hgrel-pa. The comments of Kalapa on this termination "ti," &c.

Gzhan-rjes-su-grzungs-vahi-bstan-bchos. Literary works for the benefit of others.

Gso-vahi-rigs-pa. The doctrine of healing or curing; medicine. (Sansk. Chikitsa vidyā).

Sbyor-va-brgyad-pa. The eight mixtures.

Yan-lag-brgyad-pahi-snying-po-bta-pa. The essence of the eight branches (of medicine) selected from several works.

Sman-gyi-ming-gi-rnam-grangs. The enumeration of the names of several physics or drugs.

Bso-rig-pahi-bstan-bchos. Works on mechanical arts. (Sansk. Shilpa Shāstra).

Dnul-chu-sgrub-pahi-bstan-bchos. A work on preparing quicksilver.
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.


Sku-gzugs-kyi-mts'an-nyid. Description of a Buddha’s image, with respect to the proportion of the several members of his body.

Grub-thob-brgyad-chu-rtsa-bshih-bri-thabs. The manner of representing, in painting, those eighty-four persons who where emancipated while living.

Spos-sbyor-vahi-bstan-bchos. A work on mixing or preparing perfumes.

Dus-bstan-pahi-mé-long. A mirror shewing the time or weather, (a work on divination, soothsaying, or prognosticating).


ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO.

The ethical work of Chanakha, a king.

The ethical work of Masurakshi.

Literary works composed by ancient Tibetan learned men.

The great critical work prepared by many Pandits and Lotsavas (Tibetan interpreters); or a dictionary in Sanskrit and Tibetan, arranged under certain heads, on several subjects.

Ditto, a smaller vocabulary.

The most ancient grammatical works of the Tibetan language, composed in the seven century after Christ by Sambhota. There are mentioned several other works prepared by Tibetan learned men.

Collection of synonymous words.

A passport for visiting Shambhala, (a fabulous country in the north of Asia).
ABSTRACT OF THE CONTENTS OF THE MDO. 585

The first principles of grammar, by Manju Ghosha. There are also mentioned some other grammatical works.

Under these names, there are many benedictions, prayers, thanksgivings, hymns, &c. &c.