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THE

JOURNAL

OF

THE ASIATIC SOCIETY

OF

BENGAL.

VOL. V.
"It will flourish, if naturalists, chemists, antiquaries, philologers, and men of science, in different parts of Asia, will commit their observations to writing, and send them to the Asiatic Society at Calcutta; it will languish, if such communications shall be long intermitted; and will die away, if they shall entirely cease."

Sir Wm. Jones.

PRINTED AT THE BAPTIST MISSION PRESS, CIRCULAR ROAD.
SOLD BY THE EDITOR, AT THE SOCIETY'S OFFICE.
1836.
PREFACE.

Our aspirations on launching a fifth annual volume of the Journal into the ocean of literature are no longer tremulous from a diffident anxiety as to its reception; the tide of popular favor, or at least the diminutive wave of it which reaches the secluded estuary of oriental research, has buoyed us up with the most flattering encouragement, and an increasing body of constituents has still pressed forward to freight our humble bark with the productions of their industry and talent. To extract any of the too complimentary phrases of our correspondents in Paris, Vienna, and London, would be egotism; and we must not forget that a proportion of their praise may be merely stimulatory—inciting us to take advantage of the golden opportunities commanded by our position at the emporium, to amass a rich cargo for their more deliberate and erudite discussion hereafter. Our errors also have not escaped their due measure of criticism, but even thus they have been productive of a good effect in drawing forth more correct information from other sources. The commerce in which we are engaged, to continue the metaphor in the terms of a late French prospectus, "multiplie le capital de la science comme l'autre commerce multiplie celui du numeraire."

However we may thus boast of having added to the stock of knowledge, we fear the "capital du numeraire" has but little connection, beyond the analogy, with the out-turn of our speculation; although, if the pecuniary prospects of the Journal are not much bettered this year, we have none to blame but ourselves for the unpromising aspect of our account current!

By increasing the letter-press more than 100 pages, and the plates in proportion, we felt we were exceeding the bounds of caution; yet we could not resist the attempt to keep pace with the communications entrusted to us for publication, even at
some sacrifice and risk. Had our edition been sufficiently extensive to allow a large reserve for future sale, there might have been hopes of retrieval—but the 500 copies have all disappeared, and of our early volumes it is almost impossible now to procure a copy. The only method, then, left to meet this difficulty, is to levy a heavier assessment on our supporters for the future; and to this step, however reluctantly, we shall be obliged to resort from the beginning of the year 1837, still always adhering to our engagement of giving the maximum of matter for our means, and reminding our subscribers that we are not in fact heightening our charge, but enlarging our work; seeing that from 82 pages we have gradually augmented the monthly quota to 80, a quantity which experience has proved to be more than can be covered by a rupee subscription. Our rates from 1837, therefore, will be 1½ rupee per number to subscribers, and two rupees to others. The pecuniary details on which this measure is founded are as follows:

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If, in our last volume, we could not refrain from noticing, as the most prominent object of interest in its contents, the suspension of oriental publications by the British Indian Government, and the general discouragement under which oriental studies were doomed to languish; we must not on the present occasion omit to make honorable mention of the patronage and
favor which has once more dawned upon science and literature in India under the present administration. The proceedings of the Asiatic Society, last year so full of painful discussion and unsuccessful appeal, this year shine forth with tokens of distinguished consideration. Consulted on the merit of propositions connected with historical research in the Peninsula and in Ceylon, its recommendations have met that attention which dignifies its proceedings, and tends more than any thing else to render it a substantive and useful institution. The sanction of its auspices has been courted, and has been extended beneficially to publications of great magnitude and importance. It has itself engaged in a new sphere of operations, devolved upon it by the discussions of last year, which promises, by a judicious combination with the sister Societies of France and England, to become equally advantageous to the European scholar, and profitable to itself. The Society of Paris has been the foremost to volunteer its co-operation in the completion of the series of suspended oriental works; but we have reason to know that the Royal Asiatic Society of London has not espoused their cause less warmly or less successfully, although the unavoidable delays of references to high authorities have prevented our yet reaping the fruits of their influence and intercession.

Many will consider with ourselves that the publication of a full edition of the oriental classics is a perfectly legitimate branch of labour for an Asiatic Society, and they may hope to see it permanently continued under endowment and protection of the Government itself.—It may indeed be regarded as a judicious modification of one of the earliest intentions of the institution promulgated in July, 1806, but hitherto left a dead letter on its minutes, "that a series of volumes, to be entitled Bibliotheca Asiatica, be published by the Society distinct from the Asiatic Researches, containing translations of short works in the Asiatic languages, and extracts and descriptive accounts of books of greater length, gradually extending to all Asiatic books deposited in the Society's library, and even to all works extant in the languages of Asia."

The translation and critical examination of Oriental works at the present day can be better undertaken by the distinguished
professors and philologists of Europe, and the only department of which we can hope to relieve them, with any chance of success, is the collection and correct printing of original texts through the supervision of our native Pandits and Maulavis. We therefore hope to see fresh volumes put in hand now that the series transferred by the Committee of Education is so nearly completed; and we would respectfully suggest, that the Government should make over to the Society all of the Sanscrit, Arabic, and Persian works that have hitherto issued from the Education Press, in order that one system of distribution and sale may be regulated for the whole series; and that, under the name of the Bibliotheca Asiatica, this body of Indian classical lore may be encouraged and regarded in the light of a national undertaking, entrusted merely to the vigilant superintendence of the Society as the appropriate organ of their publication.

But we are dwelling too long on a favorite project, and have but little space left to allude to the equally prosperous fortune of the natural sciences during the present year. The sincere votary of science cannot have witnessed without pleasing anticipations the introduction, altogether novel in this country, of the delightful and instructive experiments of natural philosophy among the social recreations of Government House. At these parties may be kindled into action many a dormant disposition to cultivate the sciences that has hitherto but wanted such a stimulus; and the community at large may learn to appreciate the studies they have been accustomed to eschew as vain or recondite, by witnessing their practical application and attractions. We have heard it suggested as an improvement on the plan adopted by the illustrious Patron of the Society, to hold these soirées directly at the Society’s museum, where the objects to be explained or exhibited might be prepared more at leisure, and where they would remain classified with others in the same collection;—others again have advocated the giving of a more decidedly lectural character to the evening’s exposition. In London, where the President of the Royal Society holds similar meetings, his visitors are already well grounded in the subjects treated of, and need but a glance at any new invention or experiment to comprehend its drift: but
in India the majority have not enjoyed the same opportunities, and their curiosity is merely raised without hope of entire satisfaction. But against this view it may be urged that a monthly lecture would be but a tardy mode of communicating knowledge, more especially if the subject were to be changed on each occasion. A course of lectures might be a good succedaneum to the system, but the spirit of the monthly re-union must be general and exhibitory, to answer the object intended.

Again we are insensibly falling into a review of matters beyond the proper scope of a Preface, which should confine itself to the contents of the volume it precedes, or to the mutual concerns of the editor and his constituents.

On the cover of more than one monthly Journal we have already explained to what extent we have been enabled to increase the number and accuracy of our lithographed plates this year, by putting in requisition the talents of our mofussil friends. When the facilities of drawing on transfer paper for lithographic printing become more generally known, we may expect still further advantage from its adoption by travellers, engineers, botanists, and naturalists, who are, or ought to be, artists also. It is now known from actual experience that a transfer drawing, packed in a tin roll, may be subjected to a journey of 1000 miles, either in the hottest or the dampest period of the year with impunity. Most of the imperfections in the plates of the Sewalik fossils are due to want of care in passing them on to the stone, rather than to imperfections in the original drawings.

Some confusion has arisen this year, in the numbering and placing of the plates, from continual and unavoidable postponements which it is needless to particularize. One plate (of the Bhitará inscription) has been reserved for the ensuing volume, that full justice may be done to the able elucidation of its important contents. And here we may be allowed a moment's exultation at the highly curious train of discovery, connected with this monument, which has been developed in the pages of the Journal. Not only has a dynasty before wholly unknown to the Indian historian, been traced by coins and inscriptions through seven generations in its own line, but two collateral alliances with other reigning princes
have been brought to light: while extracts from ancient Chinese authors, independently scrutinized in Europe, have helped to
determine their exact chronological epoch.

In numismatic research discovery has been no less rife. The
theory of a Grecian origin has been extended to various other
series of Hindu coins—and the only one (the Varāha series)
which remained of a doubtful source, has recently been traced
in a most satisfactory manner to the Sassanian coinage of Per-
sia, as will hereafter be shewn. We may here correct an ignorant
error into which we have fallen in describing the legend of
Doctor Swiney's coin of Agathoclea—giving the epithet
θεοτρωπη, as if derived from τρεψω instead of τρεψον; to this our at-
tention has been called by several correspondents—and we there-
fore thus conspicuously acknowledge our blunder. The true
meaning of the epithet (written θεοτρωπον though united to
βασιλισσάς) we conceive to be "godly-dispositioned."

We must also caution our readers against implicitly adopting
our version of the Bactro-Pehlevi character—for we are now in
possession of the comparative alphabet lithographed by M.
Jacquet, which differs in many respects from our system,
grounding it upon the Syriac instead of the Zend.—Not having
yet seen the author's memoir on the subject, we are unable to
make known his system, although we cannot doubt its supe-
riority to our crude attempt.

In fossil geology one immense step has been made this year,
by the discovery of the remains of a quadrumanous animal, the
nearest approach to the human being that has yet been
found in a fossil state in company with the extinct monsters
of primeval antiquity. This important addition has enriched the
Dâdupur museum; but no less interesting have been the addi-
tions to its worthy rival the museum of Sehâranpûr. It is per-
haps right to explain how it has happened that the papers of
Lieuts. Baker and Durand have mostly appeared in the jour-
nal, while those of Dr. Falconer and Captain Cautley have
graced the new volume of the Researches. This selection was
made from no difference in the relative value of these most
interesting papers, but solely to accommodate best the draw-
ings which accompanied them. We hope at some future
period, to see the whole series collected together into a com-
plete and luxurious work on the fossil osteology of the Himá-
layan range; but such an undertaking should await the explo-
ration of the whole line, and should be made a national con-
cern. At present the great fear is, lest the quantity of speci-
mens dispersed in private collections on all sides, may deprive
us of many fragments requisite to work out the forms of the
curious new animals disinterred from this vast cemetery of the
ancient world.

We have partly redeemed our promise to our meteorological
contributors: sufficiently so, we hope, to revive their exertions,
and procure us a combined series of observations in different
parts of India for the coming year, more extended than the
comparative tables we have now published. We regret having
been unable to supply Barometers to the numerous applicants
who have volunteered to use them. The duty now levied on
philosophical instruments, will tend still more to check their
importation.

Our readers will now readily excuse the absence of articles
on the progress of the sciences in Europe, since that depart-
ment has been zealously pursued by another periodical of ex-
tensive circulation, in consequence partly of our neglect of it;
and a third rival has recently entered the field under promis-
ing and powerful auspices. These have so fully made known
many local inventions of scientific interest, that we have less
regretted our inability to find space for their re-insertion. We
would, on no account, however, wish to confine our pages to
subjects more strictly Indian; on the contrary, we shall ever
study to infuse into them a pleasing variety of original informa-
tion on all subjects, of man’s performance or nature’s produc-
tion, within the wide range prescribed to us by our allegiance to
the Asiatic Society.
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ERRATA.

In the Journal for May, 1834, page 253, for '580' read 'minus 58°.'
In the No. for Dec. 1835, page 655, et seq. the title of the Usbeck chief is printed Wanga, instead of Wang, or وان. The term is rendered by the Missionaries regius, and is perhaps equivalent to Raja under the Mughal governments.

In the same volume, page 615, for 'Zenophon' read 'Xenophon.'

Page 30 line 2 of note, for 'preferred,' read 'postponed.'

Page 30 line 3 of note, insert 'this' before 'appears.'

31 for 'exotic,' read 'the exotic origin of Buddhism.'
32 for 'Boddhi,' read 'Bodhi.'
34 for 'Sravaka,' read 'Sarvaka.'
36 for 'of note, for E. G. Elphinston,' read 'e. g. Elphinstone.'
41 for 'shells,' read 'cells.'
42 erase 'on' after the semi-colon.
44 for 'palatial,' read 'palatine.'
47 for 'this,' read 'these.'
48 for 'in vertical plate,' read 'into vertical plate.'
49 for 'insymmetrical,' read 'unsymmetrical.'
49 for 'circle,' read 'arch.'
52 for 'as,' read 'so.'
74 for bottom, in note, for end, read 'ens.'
75 for note, delete the brackets.
79 for 'percepient powers,' add the words, 'the Karmika tenets amount to idealism.'
80 for 'Baundhy,' read 'Buddha.'
85 for 'existence,' read 'assistance.'
86 for 'by,' read 'but.'
87 for 3 of the note, put the stop before the word Sutra.
88 for 'Dharmadya,' read 'Dharmodya.'
161 In Col. Burney's notice of Tagoung, for 'being,' read 'building.'
167 for 'tiers,' read 'tears.'
170 for 'abstracted,' read 'abstracted.'
172 for 'and elsewhere, for 'venous,' read 'vinous.'
175 for 'mass,' read 'marc.'
176 foot note, ditto ditto.
176 for 'extraction,' read 'extractive.'
179 for 'pasêwa, converted,' read 'pasêwa-converted.'
196 for 'same,' read 'Lama.'
196 for 'Bis Bisa,' read 'Bis.'
199 for omit cut.
203 for 'lines,' read 'Hills.'
36 for 'Busa,' read 'Bis.' (in all.)
202 for 'country,' read province.'
204 for 'the spirit,' read 'that spirit.'
34 for 'Bennet,' read 'Burnett.'
204 for 'stones,' read 'stone.'
— for 'Off,' read 'out.'
264 1 for 恤, read 恤
265 2 恤 恤
4 恤 恤
7 恤 恤
11 恤 恤
12 恤 恤
13 leave out the word 恤
At the bottom for 恤, read 恤
ERRATA.

Page 265, line 11, of the Tibetan text for khed, read khyed.

228, 3 from below, for 'speculated,' read 'operculated.'

235, 19 insert the full stop (now after only) after 'presume.'

443, 31 insert 'at' before 'Cape Guarda fui.'

351, 11 from bottom, for 'sutures,' read 'sutures.'

353, 18 ditto, for 'Hylvoïdes,' read 'Styloïdes.'

354, 19 from top, for 'malassan,' read 'Malayan.'

355, 3 ditto, for 'confortissime,' read 'confortissime.'

356, 5 ditto, (and in note,) for 'tabular,' read 'tubular.'

357, 2 from bottom, after sinus, insert to form a closed circle, the horns.

358, 2 from top, for 'tabular,' read 'tubular.'

359, 6 ditto, (note,) for 'Pesticia,' read 'Justicia.'

359, 2 from top, for 'tubular,' read 'tubular.'

359, 13 ditto, for 'Demarara,' read 'Demerara.'

418, 8 after about, insert 27.

420 in heading of lower table, for increment $d + \frac{30}{p} d$, read $d \times \frac{30}{p} d$.

421, 2 for simply, $d$ — read simply, $d$ —

424 line 3 for 'of wet-bulb,' read 'of the wet-bulb thermometer.'

721, 13 for 'the god-nourisher,' read 'the heavenly-minded,' and cancel the subsequent remarks.

723, 24 for 'General Arnold,' read 'Dr. Gerard.'

Capt. Cunningham having pointed out that the $p$ in the legend of the Samudra-gupta coin described in Vol. iv. p. 635, as $u\text{\textacute{p}}ati \text{\textacute{r}}\text{urha},$ has an $r$ subjoined; we have again sought in the dictionary for a better explanation of the epithet and have found it in the word $\text{\textacute{a}pr\text{\textacute{a}}rath\text{\textacute{a}}}$: apratiratha, 'the warrior.'

Page 742 line 14 from top, for 'behind,' read 'beyond.'

744, 1 from bottom, for 'Butta,' read 'Bulla.'

748, 7 from bottom, for 'spora,' read 'spira.'

750, 19 from top, for 'salcis,' read 'sulcis,' and for 'vinis,' read 'vinis.'

750, 7 from bottom, for 'carino,' read 'carina,' and for 'compresso,' read 'compressâ.'
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Owing to the continual postponement of papers this year, and to the
lithographer having numbered his plates without reference to the engrav-
ings, many numbers have been given twice over, and the whole occur
very irregularly. They will be found, however, correctly placed in the
monthly numbers, with exception of Cultrunguis flavipes, which must be
shifted to page 364—and of the plate circulated with the February Jour-
nal which belongs to the preceding volume, Pl. LIV., along with the cor-
rected catalogue of plates of that volume.
I.—Second Memoir on the Ancient Coins found at Beghrám, in the Kohistán of Kabul. By Charles Masson.

I had the pleasure last year to submit a Memoir on the coins discovered at Beghrám, and now beg to offer a second, containing the results of my collection of the present year from the same place: the observations which these coins suggest I shall preface by a few remarks, tending to illustrate the locality of the spot where they are found, as well as some other points connected with it.

I shall also submit, in this Memoir, the results of discoveries in other places, made during the year, so far as they refer to numismatology; in the hope to contribute to farther elucidation of the history of the countries from which I write.

The dasht or plain of Beghrám bears N. 15 E. from the modern city of Kabul, distant by computation eighteen ordinary kos; and as the line of road has few sinuosities or deflections, the direct distance may probably be about twenty-five British miles. It is situated at the south-east point of the level country of the Kohistán, in an angle formed by the approach of a lofty and extensive mountain range, radiating from the superior line of the Caucasus on the one side, and by the inferior range of Šíd Kohn on the other. The former range separates the Kohistán from the populous valley of Nijrow, and the latter, commencing about 15 miles east of Kabul, gradually sinks into the plain of Beghrám. East of the Šíd Kohn is a hilly, not mountainous, tract, called Koh Safi, which intervenes between it and the extensive valleys of Taghow. Through the open space extending from west to east, between these two hill ranges, flows the river formed by the junction of the streams of
Memoir on the Ancient Coins of Beghrám. [Jan.

Ghorband and Panjshír, and which forms the northern boundary of the site of Beghrám. Through this space also leads the high road from the Kohistán to Nijrow, Taghow, Laghmán, and Jelálábád. The dasht of Beghrám is comprised in an extensive district of the Kohistán called Khwojeh Keddrí; to the north, the plain has an abrupt descent into the cultivated lands and pastures of the Baltú Khele and Karindat Khán Khele families, which at the north-western point interpose between it and the river for the extent of perhaps a mile, or until the river leaves the base of a singular eminence called Abdullah Bárj, which from the vast mounds on its summit was undoubtedly an appurtenance of the ancient city. East of this eminence another small space of cultivated lands, with two or three castles, called Káráhíchí, interposes between a curvature in the direction of the abrupt boundary of the dasht, and the direct course of the river; east of Káráhíchí rises a low detached hill, called Koh Butcher, which has an extent eastward of about a mile and half, intruding for that distance between the level dasht and the river; at the eastern extremity of Koh Butcher is one of those remarkable structures we call topes. Parallel to Koh Butcher, on the opposite side of the river, are the castles and cultivated lands called Muhammad Rákhi, and beyond them a sterile sandy tract gradually ascending to a celebrated hill and Zeárat, named Khwojeh Raig Rowán, and thence to the superior hill range before mentioned; east of Koh Butcher, the level plain extends for about a mile, until the same character of abrupt termination sinks it into the low lands of Júlghar, where we find numerous castles, much cultivated land, and as the name Júlghar implies, a large extent of chaman or pasture. The lands of Júlghar, to the east, from the boundary of the dasht of Beghrám, to the south, its boundary may be considered the stream called the river of Koh Damán, which after flowing along the eastern portion of Koh Damán, and receiving what may be spared after the irrigation of the lands from the streams of Shákr Darrah, Beydak, Tugah, Istalif, &c. falls into the joint river of Gharband and Panjshír at a point below Júlghar. Beyond the river of Koh Damán, a barren sandy soil ascends to the skirts to the Sláh Koh and Koh Safí. Among the topographical features of the dasht of Beghrám may be noted three small black hills or eminences, detached from each other, which in a line, and contiguous to each other, arise from the surface of the soil a little north of the river of Koh Damán. To the west of Beghrám are the level lands of Mahíghír; at the north-west angle of the plain is the small village of Killah Boland, where reside about seven Hindú traders, some of them men of large capitals; and at the south-west angle are three castles called Killah Yezbáshí, distant from Killah Boland about four miles. From Killah Boland to Júlghar a
distance occurs of four and half to five miles; from Júlgwar to the skirts of the Súah Koh, about six miles; from the termination of Koh Súah to Killah Yezaísú may be also about six miles, and from Killah Yezaísú to Killah Boland about four miles, as just noted. The whole of the intermediate space between these points, and even beyond them to the south-east and south-west, is covered with fragments of pottery, lumps of dross iron, &c. and here are found the coins, seals, rings, &c. which so much excite our curiosity. Notwithstanding the vast numbers of such relics discovered on this extent of plain, we have hardly any other evidence that a city once stood on it, so complete and universal has been the destruction of its buildings. But in many places, we may discover, on digging about the depth of a yard, lines of cement, which seem to denote the outlines of structures, and their apartments; on the edge of the plain, where it abruptly sinks into the low lands of Báltá Khele, from Killah Boland to Káráhíchí, is a line of artificial mounds; on the summit of the eminence called Abdullah Bárj are also some extraordinary mounds, as before noted, and contiguous to the south is a large square described by alike surprising mounds; on one side of this square, the last year, a portion sank or subsided, and disclosed that these mounds were formed or constructed of huge unburnt bricks, two spans square and one span in thickness. This circumstance also enabled me to ascertain that the original breadth of these stupendous walls, for such we must conclude them to have been, could not have been less than sixty feet; probably much more. Among the mounds near Killah Boland is a large tumulus, probably a sepulchre, which appears to have been coated with thin squares of white marble; and near it, in a hollow formed in the soil, is a large square stone, which the Muhammedans call Sang-Rustam, or the stone of Rustam, and which the Hindús, without knowing why, reverence so far as to pay occasional visits to it, light lamps, and daub it with Sindúr or red lead. In the Muhammedan burial ground of Killah Boland is a fragment of sculptured green stone, made to serve as the head-stone to a grave; about four feet thereof is above ground, and we were told as much more was concealed below; this is a relique of the ancient city, and we meet with another larger but plain green stone, applied to a similar purpose, in a burial ground called Shahidan, or the place of martyrs, under Koh Butcher. In a Zéirat at Charikir is also a fragment of sculptured green stone; and it is remarkable that all the fragments of stone which we discover, and which we may suppose to have reference to the ancient city, are of the same species of colored stone. The traditions of the country assert the city of Béghrám to have been overwhelmed by some natural catastrophe, and while we vouch not for the fact, the entire demolition of the
place, with the fact of the outlines of buildings discoverable beneath the surface, seem not to discountenance the tradition. It is not however improbable that this city, like many others, may owe its destruction to the implacable rage of the barbarous and ruthless GENGHIZ, who like ATILLA described himself as the "Ghazb Khudā," or "Scourge of God." That it existed for some time after the Muhammedan invasion of these countries is evidenced by the numerous coins of the Caliphs found on its site. That it ceased to exist at the period of TIMU' R's expedition into India, we have negative proof furnished by his historian SHERIFUDDIN, who informs us, that TIMU' R, in his progress from ANDERAB to KÁBUL, encamped on the plain of BARAN (the modern BAYAN, certainly) and that while there, he directed a canal to be cut, which was called MAHGHIR, by which means, the country, before desolate and unproductive, became fertile and full of gardens. The lands thus restored to cultivation, the conqueror apportioned among sundry of his followers. The canal of MAHGHIR exists at this day, with the same name it received in the time of TIMU' R. A considerable village, about one mile west of BEGHRÁM, has a similar appellation. This canal, derived from the river of GHBAND, at the point where it issues from the hills into the level country, irrigates the lands of BÁYÁN and MAHGHİR, and has a course of about ten miles. Had the city of BEGHRÁM then existed, these lands immediately to the west of it, would not have been waste and neglected, neither would TIMU' R have found it necessary to cut his canal, as the city when existing must have been supplied with water from the same source, that is, from the river of GHBAND; and from the same point, that is, at its exit from the hills into the level country; and the canals supplying the city must have been directed through these very lands of BÁYÁN and MAHGHİR, which TIMU' R found waste and desolate. The courses of the ancient canals of BEGHRÁM are now very evident, from the parallel lines of embankments still to be traced. The site of BEGHRÁM has, to the north, the river formed by the junction of the GHBAND and PANJSHIR streams, and to the south, the river of KÔH DAMÁN; but neither of these rivers are applicable to the irrigation of the circumjacent soil, the former flowing in low lands, perhaps one hundred and fifty feet below the level of the plain, and the latter scantily furnished with water flowing in a sunken bed. It may be farther noted, with reference to TIMU' R's colonization of MAHGHİR, that the inhabitants of the district of KHWOJEH KEDDRĪ, while forgetful as to whom their forefathers owed their settlement in this country, acknowledge their TURKI descent, and alone of all the inhabitants of the KOHISTÁN speak the TURKI language. We might expect to detect a notice of BEGHRÁM in the Arabian records of the early caliphs, in the histories of the Ghaznavi emperors, and in those of GENGHIZ KHÁN.
That Beghrám was once a capital city is evidenced by its tope, a sepulchral monument of departed royalty; while a second, situated in Tope Darah, about nine miles west, may probably be referred to it, as may perhaps a third found at Alisahí, at the gorge of the valley of Nijrow, distant about 12 miles east. The appellation Beghrám must also be considered indicative of the pre-eminence of the city it characterizes; undoubtedly signifying the chief city or metropolis. About three miles east of Kábul, we have a village and extensive pasture retaining this name, which indicates the site of the capital in which Kadphis and his lineage ruled, and whose topes we behold on the skirts of the neighbouring hills. Near Jeládbí, a spot called Beghrám, about a mile and half west of the present town, denotes the site of the ancient Nysa; or, if the position of that city admit of controversy, of Nagar; its successor in rank and consequence. Near Pesháwar we have a spot called Beghrám, pointing out the site of the original city; and that this epithet of eminence and distinction was continued, up to a recent date, to the city of Pesháwer, we learn from Bábér and Abúl Fázl.

We have indications in the Kohistán of Kábul of two other ancient cities, which were undoubtedly considerable ones, but which we cannot suppose to have rivalled Beghrám in extent or importance. The principal of these is found in Perwan, about eight miles N. 19 W. of Beghrám, and consequently that distance nearer to the grand range of Caucasus, under whose inferior hills it is in fact situated. The second is found at Korahsí, a little east of the famed hill, and Zárat Khwojeh, Raig Runwan, distant from Beghrám about six miles N. 48 E. There are also many other spots in various parts of the Kohistán which exhibit sufficient evidences of their ancient population and importance; but these must be considered to have been towns, not cities. In the valley of Panjshír we have more considerable indications, and we are enabled to identify three very extensive sites of ancient cities; but which, from the character of the country, and the limited extent of its resources, we can hardly suppose to have flourished at the same epoch. In the Koh Damán of Kábul, or the country intervening between that city and the Kohistán, we discover two very important sites, which unquestionably refer to once capital cities: both occur in a direct line from Beghrám to Kábul, under the low hill ranges which bound Koh Damán to the east, and contiguous also east to the river of Koh Damán; the first commences about eight miles from Beghrám, and is known by the name of Tartrung-Zar; the second is about the same distance farther on, and has no particular name, but is east of the seignorial castles of Luchí Khan, and the village of Korinder: at this site we find a tope, an indubitable evidence of royalty, and connected with it is a stupendous
artificial mound on the west bank of the river, constructed with elaborate

care: the base appears originally to have been surrounded with a magni-

ficient trench, supplied by the stream with water. Here no doubt was

some important structure, a palace or citadel. At this day the summit

is crowned with dilapidated mud walls of modern construction, and the

spot is known by the name of Killah Rájput. In the district of Ghor-

band, west of the great hill range, which radiating from the Hindú Kosh,

or Caucasus, forms the western boundary of Koh Damán, we have very

many important vestiges of antiquity, both in the principal valley and

in its dependencies, particularly in one of them named Fendákistán:

we have reasons to believe that coins are found there in considerable

numbers, and that there are some interesting mounds; but as we have

not seen this spot, we refrain from speculating upon its character.

We have thus enumerated the principal ancient sites of cities in Koh

Damán and Kohistán, both as shewing the former importance and

illustrating the capabilities of these fine countries, and as exhibiting the

fluctuations, in ancient times, of the seat of royalty in them. Beghrám,

Perwan, Tartrung-Zar, and Killah Rájput have no doubt in succession

been the abodes of sovereigns, as have most probably Panjshír and

Koráhtass. Our minuteness may moreover be excused, because in this

part of the country we expect to detect the site of Alexandria ad

Caucasum, or ad calcem Caucasii. It may be remarked, with reference to

the sites of Beghrám and Perwán, that the former is called by the

Hindús of the country 'Balrám,' and is asserted by them to have been the

residence of Rája Bal; the latter they call Milwán, and assert to have

been the capital of Rája Milwán. Milwan may be a Hindú appellation,

but it has been also assumed by Muhammedans.

We have it not in our power to consult the ancient authorities, who

have noticed Alexandria ad Caucasum, or probably its site might have

been definitely fixed; but when we know that it was also called Naulábí

or Nilábí, from being situated on or near the river Naulábí or Niláb, we

have no difficulty in seeking for its position, being acquainted with the

geographical features of this part of Asia. The name Nilábí could only

have been conferred on the river of Ghorband, or on that of Panjshír, or

to both, after their confluence; in the latter event, we are brought to

the site of Beghrám without the chance of error. The rivers of Ghor-

band and Panjshír unite at a spot called Tokchí, bearing north a little

west of Beghrám, distant about a mile and half or two miles, and near the

place called Inchór, which is inserted in the map accompanying the

Honorable Mr. Elphinstone's work. Inchór is a solitary castle, pic-

turesquely seated amid a large extent of fine chaman or pasture land.

From its source the river of Ghorband, which is also that of Bamún,
has a greater extent of course than that of Panjshir; but the latter is the more considerable stream. At the point where the river of Panjshir issues from the hills into the level country of the Kohistâin, is a spot now called Nilâb; also at the very site of Beghrâm after its union with the Ghorband river, the united stream has the same name, in both instances derived from the great depth of the water, and its consequent limpid and blue appearance. In the valley of Ghorband is a spot called Nilâb, which now by some contradiction is conferred upon the land adjacent to the river, and not upon the river itself. I incline to consider the river of Ghorband to be the Nilâbi of our ancient authors, and if it be found that the Nautâbi of Ptolemy, Strabo, or Pliny, the writers who have probably mentioned it, be conducted by Drapsaca or Drashtoca, which may be concluded to be the modern Bamân, we can have no doubt of the fact, and the merit of being considered the site of Alexandria ad Caucasum, or ad calcem Caucasi, can only be contested by two sites, that of Nilâb, in the valley of Ghorband, and that of Beghrâm. Near Nilâb, in Ghorband, we find the remains of a most stupendous fortress; but however valuable as a military post, it does not seem calculated to have been the site of a large city. Beghrâm, on the contrary, possesses every advantage of situation, and would in these days, if revived, bid fairer to realize its pristine prosperity, than any other site in these countries. With the term Alexandria ad calcem Caucasi, the situation of Nilâb would precisely agree, and we learn also that the city so called was near the cave of Prometheus. This appears to have been justly located by Wilford, near the pass of Shibr; and we find at Ferinjal, a dependency of Ghorband, between it and Bamân, or near Shibr, a most extraordinary cave, which we would fain believe to be that of Prometheus. With the term Alexandria ad Caucasum, the site of Beghrâm would sufficiently coincide; while its distance from the cave of Ferinjal, or that of Prometheus, is not so great as to violate propriety in its being termed contiguous, while its propinquity to the base of Hindu Kosh, or Caucasus, would seem to justify its being entitled Alexandria ad calcem Caucasi. That Alexander established not merely a military post, but founded a large city, we ascertain, when we learn from Curtius, that he peopled it with no less than seven thousand menials of his army, besides a number, of course considerable, but not mentioned, of his military followers, and are distinctly informed, that the city in question became a large and flourishing one. No doubt, if this part of Asia were to come under European control, the re-edification of Beghrâm would be deemed a necessary measure, for a considerable city at this spot would not only provide for the due submission of the half-obedient
tribes of the Kohistán, but would secure the allegiance of those absolutely in rebellion or independence, as of Panjshir, Nijrow, Taghow, &c.

It is impossible to cast a retrospective view over the regions of Afghánistán and Turkistán, to behold the cities still in existence, and the sites of such as have yielded to the vicissitudes of fortune, which owe and owed their foundation to Alexander the Great, without paying the tribute of homage and admiration to his genius and foresight. Above twenty centuries have elapsed, since the hero of Macedon marched in his triumphant career from the shores of the Bosphorus to the banks of the Hyphasis, subjecting the intermediate nations, but rendering his conquests legitimate, by promoting the civilization and prosperity of the vanquished. A premature death permitted not posterity to wonder at the prodigy of an universal monarchy, which he alone of all mankind seemed talented to have erected and maintained. No conqueror had ever views so magnificent and enlightened, and none ever left behind him so many evidences of his fame. Of the numerous cities which he founded, many are at this day the capitals of the countries where they are found; and many of those no longer existing would assuredly be revived, were these parts of Asia under a government desirous to effect their amelioration. The selection of Mittun by the British Government of India for their mart on the Indus, while the most eligible spot that could have been chosen, was also a tribute of respect to the memory of the illustrious Alexander; for there can be no doubt that Mittun indicates the site of the Alexandria that he founded at the junction of the united streams of the Panjáb with the Indus, and which he predicted, from the advantages of position, would become a large and flourishing city. It may be that Mittun under British auspices may realize the prophecy applied by the hero to his Alexandria.

To return from this digression to the question of the site of Alexandria ad Caucasum or ad calcem Caucasi, we can only refer it to two spots, Niláb in Ghorbad, and Beghram: I incline to prefer the latter, from the superiority of its local advantages, and from the certainty of its having been a large and flourishing city, as Alexandria is represented to have become. In favor of Niláb may perhaps be adduced the itinerary of Diogènes and Béton, the surveying officers of Alexander, as preserved by Pliny. We there find the measured distance from the capital of Arachosia to Ortospanum stated to be 250 miles, and from Ortospanum to Alexandria, 50 miles. The capital of Arachosia was unquestionably in the vicinity of the modern Kándahár, and Ortospanum, although by some considered Ghazni, may safely be referred to Kábul, when we find in Ptolemy that it was also called Cabura, the first approximation to the present name.
Kābul, which we detect in our ancient geographers. The distance between the modern cities of Kābul and Kándahār, agreeably to admeasurements made under the Chaghātai Emperors of India, is ninety-two Jeribī koss, or nearly 210 British miles; the miles of Pliny are no doubt Roman ones, which were, I believe, a little less than our British statute ones: this slight difference will not however compensate for the excess in the distance fixed by Alexander’s officers; but there are reasons to suspect that the ancient capital of Arachosia was situated some eighteen or twenty miles west of the modern Kandahār, at the base of a hill called Panchvati, where traditions affirm a large city once flourished, and of which there is abundant proof in the huge mounds to be observed there. The ancient city of Kābul, which I infer to have been Ortospanum, was seated also some three or four miles east of the modern one; the distances here gained, with the difference between British and Roman miles on two hundred and fifty of the latter, (if they be, as above assumed, less,) will reconcile the measurements of the officers of Alexander with those of the Chaghātai Emperors, and we can have little doubt but that Ortospanum is represented by the present Kābul. From Kābul to Beghrām, the distance is not certainly more than twenty-seven British miles; but from Kābul to Nīlāb of Ghorband, the distance is nearly, if not fully, fifty miles, coinciding with the account of Dio̱ṉete̱s and Bē̱to̱n. It may however be observed, that different copies of Pliny have in this instance various numbers, so that we feel perplexed to select the genuine ones; fifty I believe to be the least mentioned, and I have calculated with it, supposing it the more probable one. The same itinerary gives the distance between Alexandrīa ad Caucasum and Peucalaotis, stated to be 227 Roman miles: this latter place has generally been located near the modern Peshawar; from Kābul to Peshawar are estimated 112 ordinary koss, which, calculated at one mile and half each, yield nearly 170 miles, Beghrām will be nearly equidistant from Peshawar with Kābul, therefore the distance noted in the itinerary will coincide rather with the locality of Nīlāb, which may be about 30 British miles from Beghrām, and consequently 200 or more British miles from Peshawar, equivalent perhaps to 227 Roman miles. But I do not feel confident that Peucalaotis has been justly referred to the site of Peshawar. It appears to have been the name of a province, the capital of which was Peucela; in these terms we detect a considerable affinity to the modern appellation Puckoli, applied to a district with capital of the same name east of the Indus, and above Attock, which in ancient times included a considerable territory west of the Indus. It is not certain that Alexander visited the immediate vicinity of Peshawar, although Hephaestion will have done
so; and it is probable that he crossed the Indus above Attock, or at a point in the modern district of Puckoli, perhaps the ancient Peucolaitis. A similarity of denomination may not always be depended upon, but when combined with other accordances, it becomes, as D'Anville expresses it, "un moyen de convenance." I shall close my speculations on the site of Beghrán, by remarking, that Alexander in his march from Bactra to Alexandria ad Caucasum will have arrived at it by the route of Bamión and Shibr, because Arrián informs us, that he passed Drapsaca on the road, which can hardly be mistaken for the former of those places. Alexander crossed the Hindú Kosh or Caucasus in the month of May; when, supposing the seasons and climate of these countries to have been the same as at present, any other route over that mountain range was impracticable. The route from Bamión to Ghorband is passable to kifilas at all seasons of the year, and is no doubt the high road; but it has been closed during the last twenty-five years, by the insurrection of the Shaikh Ali Hazarehs, who inhabit the small extent of country between Ghorband and Shibr. The route of Bamión will have conducted Alexander either to Nílab or Beghrán; and these observations would have been unnecessary, had it not been supposed by some that his starting place was Anorí; this assumption does not however seem warranted, and if grounded on the route that Timúr followed, it should have been recollected that the Tartar conqueror crossed the Indian Caucasus in the month of July.

It had been my intention this year to have secured every coin of every description that should be picked up from the dusht of Beghrán, and this purpose would probably have been effected, had I not been compelled to be absent at Jelálábád. A young man was however despatched thither, with recommendatory letters to my friends in the Kohistán, and to him was confided the collection of all he might be able to procure. On my eventually reaching Kábul, the young man joined with 1320 coins, from the appearance of which it was evident he had selected, and not, as ordered, taken all that were offered. It also appeared, that in consequence of the distracted political state of the Kohistán in the spring, the Afghan pastoral families had not as usual visited the plains of Beghrán at an early season. In the autumn, moreover, from apprehensions of a rising in this part of the country, the Afgháns sent their flocks to the Safí hills, the persons tending which are the principal finders of these coins. Under these unfavorable circumstances, I twice repaired to Beghrám, and at various intervals despatched my young men, and the total result of our collection this year was five silver and 1900 copper coins. These are of course generally
of the same description and types as those illustrated in my Memoir of last year; but a few were procured of novel types, and a few altogether new, among which one or two may be deemed valuable. It is my object in this Memoir to detail these fresh discoveries, and to offer such remarks upon them, and the topics they involve, as may arise upon their consideration. My stay at Jelalâbâd was, during the season of the year, unfavorable for the collection of coins; yet, independently of those extracted from topes, were procured 248 copper coins, among which two or three are novel ones, to be noted in their place.

Subsequent to my arrival in Kâbul, I purchased in the bazâr there, six golden, 176 silver, and 142 copper coins: some of these are important ones. I had also the fortune to secure a large parcel of silver Bactrians, a deposit discovered in the Hazârehjât: among these are coins of a type likely to excite some interest.

The coins extracted from the various topes opened this year, may also be deemed interesting, from the positive connection they have with the monuments enclosing them; and valuable, from their superior preservation, having in many instances been inserted new; and presenting specimens as perfect and intelligible as we may hope to procure.

I shall observe in this Memoir nearly the order adopted in my preceding one, with reference to classification and the succession of series, making however such modifications and distinctions as further discoveries seem to warrant.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

Class, Grecian Series, No. 1.—Coins of the recorded Kings of Bactria.

As during the last year, we are without any evidence of Theodotus I. and Theodotus II., the two first Bactrian kings; and that their sway was confined to Bactriana proper, or the regions north of the Indian Caucasus, is confirmed by the non-discovery of their coins at Beghrâm. This fact can scarcely be doubted, when we have historical evidence, that a distinct and powerful kingdom existed, under Sophagænus, in the Paropamisan range, at the time of the expedition of Antiochus Magnus.

This year has yielded five copper coins of Euthydemus, the third Bactrian king; one was procured at Jelalâbâd; the four others from Beghrâm: their discovery seems to prove the extension of this monarch’s rule south of the Caucasus—a fact countenanced by probability, and the slight historical evidences we have of him. The solitary coin found at Jelalâbâd does not afford proof positive that Euthydemus governed there also, both because there is no certainty where coins purchased in bazârs were produced; and it is not impossible but that it may have found its way there from Beghrâm, as the Afgân shepherds, resident on its plain during the summer, migrate to Lughmân and the vicinity of Jelalâbâd,
during the winter; and the few coins they may bring with them, they disperse among the dealers in the small towns, as their trifling wants of oil, tobacco, &c. may induce them. Euthydemus being denominated of Magnesia, it may be questioned, in what manner he ascended the Bactrian throne, whether by the right of lawful succession, or of successful usurpation. At all events, he appears to have been a sovereign of great talents, worthy of his exalted rank.

Of Apollodotus, besides a large number of copper coins, we have this year procured five silver quadrangular coins, the type varying from those already known.

Of the celebrated Menander, this season has afforded us some copper coins of novel types, and a large number of silver drachmas and hemidrachmas, presenting alike some varieties in the types: we found not one of this prince’s coins at Jelalābād, where we indeed met with two of Apollodotus, but decline to draw inferences from solitary specimens.

When we consider the coincidences observable on the coins of Menander and Apollodotus, some of which have even the same figures on the reverses with the resemblance of their features; and when we find them conjointly commemorated by Arrian and Trogus, the only two ancient authors who have recorded the latter’s name, we feel every inclination to conjecture that the ties of consanguinity must have connected them. As Apollodotus is previously named by both these authorities, he may be supposed to have been the father, or perhaps elder brother, of Menander; and that he preceded the latter in sovereignty would seem nearly certain, being borne out by every circumstance attending the coins we discover. That the reigns of both these princes was of considerable duration is evidenced by the numerous coins we find, and by the variety of types they exhibit, proving them to have been struck at different periods. The busts of Apollodotus on the two or three coins hitherto found, which exhibit them, have an extremely youthful appearance; and the portraits of Menander display the transition from youth to manhood. That Apollodotus reigned in Bactriana proper, we doubt with Bayer, although his pretensions have been advocated by Colonel Tod. That he was the son of Euthydemus, we think certain, and that he was the father or elder brother of Menander, we think probable, and assuredly his predecessor; that he governed in the provinces south of Bactriana is certain, and there, according to the suggestions of Schlegel, I incline to locate his original kingdom and that of Menander; that this kingdom may have included some of the provinces of Bactriana Latior, or the regions immediately north of the Caucasus, is very probable, and would justify its monarchs’ being styled kings of Bactria by their historians. How far this kingdom
extended eastward, we may not be able now to determine; but the
non-discovery of the coins of Apollodotus at Jelalabad (holding two
or three specimens procured from bazârs, but found no one knows
where, no exception to the remark) seems to prove that in his time an
independent power must have existed there: this receives farther proof
when we meet not there with the coins of his successor Menander, which
abound so numerously at Beghrâm. As Apollodotus certainly invaded
India, we may suppose him, without prejudice to the kingdom of Nysa,
to have marched by the route of Khouram, Bannâ, and Multân to the
Hyphasis, on exactly the same route that was followed by Timûr; and
in corroboration thereof, we find him brought to the Hyphasis, where he
re-edified the city of Sangâla under the name of Euthydemia. There
can be little doubt but that Sangâla owed its revival to Apollodotus.
That it sprang into new consideration under the auspices of a son of
Euthydemus, can scarcely be questioned, and every circumstance seems
to point out that son to have been Apollodotus. The coin discovered
by Dr. Swiney, which bears the epithet Philopater, not a little confirms
this fact. Menander, whether the son or brother of Apollodotus,
seems fairly entitled to be considered his successor. This prince followed
up the Indian conquests, while he preserved his dominion in the provinces
south of Bactriana; but these latter, on his decease, probably will have
been assumed by Eucratides the I., or the Great, king of Bactriana
proper. Menander, we know, was interrupted in his warlike operation
by death; but when, and where, is not recorded by history, which has
been alike faithless to the actions of one of the most illustrious sove-
regnis that ever held a sceptre.

The coins of Eucratides I., so numerous found at Beghrâm, are not
to be discovered at Jelâlabâd any more than those of Apollodotus and
Menander, considering always a single specimen no evidence that
coins of that species were once current there, but rather that they were
not: this circumstance farther substantiates the existence of an indepen-
dent monarchy at Nysa, and that it was sufficiently powerful to
maintain its integrity inviolate; for Eucratides was no doubt a
warlike and ambitious prince.

Before adverting farther to Eucratides, we may be excused in
offering two or three observations as to Demetrius, a recorded son of
Euthydemus, and employed by him in his negociations with Antiochus.
If he stand simply recorded as a son, it neither proves that he was the
elder son, although probable, or, that he was the only son. As it was
probably by his means that Euthydemus subverted the kingdom of
Gaj, in the Paropamisan range—an event which could not have occurred
until the close of the reign of Euthydemus; as Sophagasenus, the father
of Gaï, was his cotemporary at the period of the expedition of Antiochus, we may suppose that Demetrius retained the sovereignty of the countries he conquered, and extended his conquests in Arachosia, now thrown open to his arms. Accordingly, in a route of Isidorus of Charox the name of a city, Demetrias of Arachosia, occurs, which would seem referred with justice by Schlegel to the son of Euthydemus, and which points out the direction of his empire. Without power of reference to the route of Isidorus, in which the name Demetrias occurs, we may observe, should it be found in any of those from the western provinces, as Ariana, &c. to the eastern ones on the Indus, we should incline to place it in the valley of the Turnek, between Kandahâr and Mokur, in the country now inhabited by the Thoki Gulzyes, where we have evidences that a powerful capital once existed, which may have been that of Demetrius. The attack of Demetrius, or his son, of the same name, upon Eu克拉ides may have arisen from the irksomeness naturally to be felt at the vicinity of a powerful and ambitious prince, who, by the extension of his empire, had sufficiently evinced his desire of aggrandizement. History, which records Demetrius as the aggressor in this war, also records that Eu克拉ides had possessed himself of Ariana, and we find that he was also master of the regions south of the Indian Caucasus, thus pressing upon the confines of Arachosia at the two extreme points of east and west. Aggression on the point of Demetrius may therefore have been a measure of necessity, or even of prudence, it being certainly more politic to aggress than to be reduced to repel aggression. It has not been our fortune to meet with a coin of Demetrius, or to be acquainted with the type of that procured by Baron Myendorff at Bokhârâ; but unless the reverse be decidedly Bactrian, a bust adorned with the skin of an elephant would not be sufficient evidence, in our estimation, to allow its appropriation to the son of Euthydemus. I have a letter from M. Martin Honigberger, from Bokhârâ, by which I learn that he has also procured there a coin of Demetrius, but he has not described its character. It may be noted that these two coins of Demetrius, the only ones, we believe, hitherto discovered*, have been elicited at Bokhârâ. Among the coins obtained by M. Honigberger at Bokhârâ, and which he thought worthy of enumeration, probably as being both Greek and silver ones, are transcribed in his memorandum,

1 Vasileos Antiochu.
1 Vasileos Dimitriu.
1 Vasileos Megalu Hiokraksu.
3 Vasileos Euthidimu.
5 Eu克拉ides.

* There is a beautiful little Demetrius in the Ventura collection; see vol IV.—Ed.
As Demetrius did not succeed his father in Bactriana proper, and reasons may be alledged for suspecting that Apollodotus also did not, the question naturally arises, to whom are we to assign the empire of Bactriana in the interval between the demise of Euthydemus and the accession of Eufratides—a space of fourteen years according to the table of Schlegel. I have mentioned the discovery of a parcel of Bactrian drachmas and hemi-drachmas in the Hazãrehyât, which we purchased from a Hindu at Charrukar, who some three years since received them from a Hazaureh. I have not yet been able to ascertain the spot, or under what circumstances these coins were found. The parcel, 120 in number, comprised seven quadrangular silver coins of Apollodotus, 108 silver coins of Menander, and five silver coins of Antimachus. The day preceding that on which this parcel of coins came into my possession, I received from the dushts of Beghrâm, a silver coin of the same last-named prince, Antimachus. The beauty of the coins of Antimachus, the excellence of their execution and designs, with the purity of the Greek characters of the legend, allow us not to place this prince subsequent to Eufratides, whose coins in these particulars they surpass. Among 5000 or more copper coins, procured from the dasht of Beghrâm, we have not discovered one of Antimachus, and the detection of a single silver coin does not seem to afford evidence that he ruled there, when the absence of his copper coins seem to prove that he did not. Where then must he be placed? We feel the inclination to conjecture him to have been the son and successor of Euthydemus in Bactriana proper. The reverses on the coins of Apollodotus and Menander are not strictly Bactrian, or in relative connection with those we discover on those of the undoubted kings of Bactriana, Euthydemus and Eufratides; the horseman in charge on the reverses of those of Antimachus is so, and forms the link between the horse at speed on the coins of Euthydemus, and the two horsemen in charge on those of Eufratides. The monograms on the coins of Antimachus coincide with some on the coins of Menander, and if we can suppose them to be numerical ones (which however I affirm not to be certain) suggest the opinion that they were cotemporaneous princes, it being possible both were deduced from a common era. We feel perplexed when we are only allowed by the table of Schlegel, an interval of fourteen years, and when we have three princes who may claim to have reigned between Euthydemus and Eufratides; it may however be suspected that the accession to sovereignty of the latter, unless historically fixed, is antedated ten years. No one of the very many coins of this prince we meet with, presents a monogram clearly numerical, which yields a higher number than 85; while the highest number
found is 108, as preserved on the silver didrachma in the Earl of Pembroke's cabinet, noted by Pinkerton and indicating the close of his reign. Neither do the features of Eucratides, as preserved on his coins, exhibit the striking variation of youth to manhood observed on those of Menander, and do not authorize us to allow so long a reign as 35 years. I incline to date his accession at the epoch 84, of the Bactrian aera, and to fix the duration of his reign to 25 years: thus gaining between it and the demise of Euthydemus an interval of twenty-four years; but even this increased interval does not suffice for the reigns of Apollodotus, Menander, and Antimachus. Those of the two former, particularly of Menander, were certainly of some duration, as evidenced by their numerous coins of various types discovered. Apollodotus, from the youthful bust displayed on his coins, may be inferred to have died young; but Menander, we think, must be allowed to have attained mature manhood, or the age of forty to forty-five years: while his numerous coins, shewing the traits of extreme youth, seem to attest his accession to sovereignty at an early period of his life, and consequently confirm the length of his reign. Many of the coins of both these princes have alphabetical monograms, which, if accepted as numeral ones, may assist us in our conjectures. On the copper coins of Menander we find HA or 81, which can only refer to the Bactrian aera. On the silver coin found by Colonel Tod, we find 1A or 14, which can only refer to his individual reign. HB or 82 is also found on the coins of Menander, which brings us nearly to the number indicated by HE or 85, the lowest number to be found on the coins of Eucratides. That this prince succeeded Menander in the government of the countries immediately south of the Caucasus appears unquestionable; but it was most likely by forcible assumption: for had he been the lawful successor of Menander, he was not of a character to have relinquished his Indian possessions, where it would appear almost certain he did not reign: these observations are necessary, because the adoption of a monogram by Menander, which may be supposed to indicate the Bactrian aera, might induce an opinion that he was the predecessor of Eucratides in Bactriana proper; while other circumstances we have noted seem to prove that he was not, independently of the ambiguous nature of the monograms themselves. The age depicted on the busts of Apollodotus, and on those of the early coins of Menander, seem so nearly to agree, that while we would fain consider the latter as the successor of the former, we can scarcely suppose him the son, and our alternative is to conjecture him the brother. If Menander be admitted to have reigned in Bactria, we fancy Apollodotus must be also; and it may be granted that their joint reigns might conveniently fill the interval between Euthydemus and Euca-
tides of twenty-four years, if our calculation thereof be conceded; but when we find the principal scenes of the military operations of these princes were in India, joined with other circumstances, as well as the discovery of the coins of Antimachus, the probability appears to be that they ruled originally, as before advanced, in the regions immediately north and south of the Indian Caucasus. Euthydemus, a monarch of great capacity, would appear to have been fortunate in his sons, (possibly by various mothers, for polygamy was a vice, according to Curtius, that the Greeks adopted from the barbarians,) by whose means he extended his territories, and greatly increased the dignity of the Bactrian empire. It may be supposed that he apportioned his empire amongst his sons, allowing them to retain the countries they had individually subjected: thus we may account for the kingdom of Demetrius in Arachosia; for that of Apollodotus and Menander in Bactriana Latior and the regions south of the Caucasus; and we may perhaps be allowed to consider Antimachus as the eldest son and successor of his father in Bactriana proper. That this distribution of power was agreeable to the parties concerned, we may conjecture, when, in absence of direct information, there are grounds for belief that no war originated between them. The epoch of Antimachus cannot, we suspect, were only the excellence of his coins adduced, be dated posterior to that of Eucratides; after whose death, the knowledge of Grecian arts and sciences may naturally be supposed to have declined: indeed the copper coins of Eucratides himself, although a powerful monarch, exhibit a striking inferiority of execution, compared with those of Euthydemus, which the coins of Antimachus rival. We may suppose the reign of Euthydemus to have been the most brilliant of the Bactrian monarchy, or that in which the Grecian arts were most cultivated and flourishing.

I am not allowed to place Antimachus prior to Apollodotus; for I have shewn how strong are the latter prince's claims to be considered the founder of Euthydemia, which, if admitted, decide him to have been the son of Euthydemus. Neither can we place him subsequent to Menander, because we have indubitable proof that Eucratides, by some means or other, succeeded Menander, in the rule of the countries dependent on Bactria ad Caucasum: had Antimachus governed there, his coins would certainly have been found at Beghrâm, with those of Euthydemus, who must have preceded him, and of Eucratides, who must have followed him, and in common with those of Apollodotus and Menander. Neither did he succeed Menander in the sovereignty of his Indian conquests; for then his coins would have exhibited Indian characters on the reverses, rather than Bactrian ones: there can be no doubt but that the coins of Antimachus are genuine Bactrians. Convinced that
Antimachus must have reigned posterior to Euthydemus, and anterior to Eucratides, while he could neither have preceded Apollodotus, nor succeeded Menander, we have no alternative but to place his reign between the two former princes, and to suppose him cotemporary with the two latter: thus nearly yielding decisive proof that he was the son and successor of Euthydemus in Bactriana proper.

To omit no circumstances likely to throw light upon the subjects under discussion, I advert to the nature and character of the deposit of Bactrian coins, which yielded five of Antimachus, seven of Apollodotus, and 108 of Menander; for matters apparently trivial may sometimes furnish valuable hints. A person, from some motive or other, conceals a sum of money, the coins of which he will possess the larger number are those of the reigning prince; it is however easy to imagine that he may have a few of the prince who preceded in rule, and a few of any neighbouring or cotemporary sovereign. The person, who made the deposit thus preserved for us, we may presume, did so in the reign of Menander, which accounts for the notable proportion of that prince's coins; the few of Apollodotus seem to point him out as the predecessor of Menander, and the fewer of Antimachus intimate, that he was a neighbouring and cotemporary prince. The length to which I have carried my observations on these coins, and the topics they involve, might justify my being taxed with proximity, did they not relate to a subject so interesting and intricate as that of Bactrian history; and I shall conclude them by inserting a new table of the reigns and successions of the Bactrian sovereigns, agreeably to the suppositions, the probability of which I have advocated.

### Table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sovereign</th>
<th>B.C. Reigned</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theodotus I.</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>established his sovereignty 1 to 12 of Bactrian era.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Euthydemus</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>began reign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eucratides</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>began reign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successor of Eucratides</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>began reign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The period B.C. 125, fixed for the destruction of the empire, liable to much distrust.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I continue to discover the coins of Eucratides in the same numbers, but have met with none of new types. I have noted that this monarch's coins are not found east of Kabul, affording the presumption that his sway did not extend thither.

Among the coins collected this year, I have not discovered one by which we can identify the successor of Eucratides; but among the new which may claim to be considered Bactrian, we have one with the classical name of Diomèdes.

We are also without any trace of Heliocles, who would appear to have no claim to be introduced among the early Bactrian sovereigns;
but if the coin discovered of him be clearly Bactrian, which the reverse probably would decide, he may still be admitted his rank among the later sovereigns of the Bactrian dynasty, or among those arising from its destruction.

We have this year procured intelligible specimens, which enable me to decipher some of those left in doubt in my Memoir of last year; and have fallen upon two or three altogether new, from the characters on the reverse, might be considered Bactrian; at all events, they are Greek, and I submit my opinion on them in the succeeding observations.

With so many coins before us of princes who have more or less pretensions of being Bactrian sovereigns, we may feel tempted to doubt whether the Grecian authority in Bactriana was subverted by the Getae at so early a period as that assigned, unless the fact be supported by the fullest historical evidence. It may be, the recorded subversion amounted to no more than a temporary inroad of barbarians, which may have indeed involved the loss of royalty in the family of Eucratides, and its assumption by some fortunate leader, who repelled the invasion; the probability appears to be that the Greek power in Bactriana, in the first instance, weakened by the incursions of the Getae and other Scythic tribes, was ultimately annihilated by the overgrown empire of Parthia. But a Greek authority must have existed to a much later period in the countries west of the Indus, which would appear to have been finally subverted by the Sakyan princes, who had established themselves in the regions east of the Indus. Without attaching extraordinary importance to the hyperbolical strains of a Carmen Seculare, we may observe, that Horace, who flourished about the commencement of the Christian æra, enumerates among the objects of sufficient magnitude to engage the attention of Augustus, the Bactrian empire, which we would have to have been destroyed above 120 years before the time he wrote:—

"Tu civitate quo desecat status
Curas, et orbis sollicitus, times
Quid Seres, et regnata Cyro
Bactra parent, Tanaisque discors."

Class Grecian—Series 2. Unrecorded Kings of Bactria.

I have thought proper to include in this general series all the coins, of whatever description, which may have Bactrian characters on the reverse legends. I by no means however wish to assert that all these princes ruled in Bactriana proper, perhaps no one of them did so. This series at present includes Antimachus, Hermæus I., II., III., Diomedes, Antilakides, Auisus*, Adelphortes, Palerkes, Basilis†, Alouokenes, Azu I., II., Demetrius, (?) and three other coins among the unidentified

* Lysius.—Ed.  † Azilisos.—Ed.
ones, or in all seventeen names: of these I am willing to transfer Antimachus to the regular Bactrian dynasty, Hermæus I., II., to the dynasty of Apollodotus and Menander, and Adelphortes, Basilis, and Azo, to a dynasty which I hope to prove, one day, to have existed distinctly at Massaga.


This year yielded me the same proportion of the coins of these princes, and I suspect we have found two other coins, which, with reference to the characters, may be classed with them, viz. Nos. 30 and 32 of the Greek coins now enumerated: if this be correct, we shall have five princes of this series.


Of these kings we have the topes or cenotaphs at Jelalabad: there appear to have been two great families; that of Hermæus and his descendants, whose coins are distinguished by the figure of Hercules, with his club on the reverse, and those of the princes, whose coins have a horseman on the obverse, and the figure of Ceres on the reverse: to these must unquestionably be added the great king whose coins bear the legend Baxiasv Baxiasw ΣΟΠΗΡ ΜΕΓΑΣ, and I make no doubt Unadpheros: the latter family is the more ancient; and if our views are right, came originally from Massaga. There are thirteen topes certainly, perhaps fourteen, at Jelalabad, which may safely be referred to these princes; five or six to the family of Hermæus, and the remainder to that of the others; if three of these be not the topes of saints, rather than of kings: this I infer from their position on eminences, and the absence of coins with the relics found in them.

Note.—Of the prince whose coinage is delineated as fig. 37 in the last Memoir, I have procured many other coins: but none enabling me to identify his name: these coins, like the former, all from Beghrám.

Class Indo-Scythic—Series 1 and 2. Coins of Kanerkos and Kadphis.

I have discovered that the topes of Kábul refer to the families of these princes, as do a number of topes near Chahárbug, or Jelalabad; but these latter I very much suspect to be duplicates of the former. This year has given us a number of golden medals of these princes, which are noted below.

I have not been yet enabled to locate the capital of the princes whose coins form the other series of this class.

Recapitulation of Greek coins collected from Beghrám, 1834.

Copper of Euthydemus, .................. 3
Apollodotus, .................. 31
Menander, .................. 56
Eucratides, .................. 92
Diomedes, .................. 1
Adelphortes, .................. 1
Various, ........................................ 5
Hermæus I, ..................................... 31
Hermæus II, ..................................... 5
Hercules type, ................................... 179
Megas, ........................................... 267
Unadpherros, .................................... 16
Antilakides, ..................................... 21
Lysius, ........................................... 21
Agathocles, ..................................... 19
Pantaleon, ........................................ 2
Leonine ........................................... 23
As fig. 37 of Memoir 1833, ...................... 14
Small Nysæans, .................................. 24

Total, 790 Greek copper coins.
Silver coin (drachma) of Antimachus, .. 1

Total, 791 Greek coins.

Analysis of Coins.

[With the present memoir Mr. Masson furnished drawings of all the coins here enumerated. Many of them however having been already figured in the plates published with our notes on the Ventura collection in June last, we have thought it unnecessary to lithograph the whole, and have consequently made selection of those only which are new types, or have more legible inscriptions than our own. The text, in justice to the author we, have inserted entire, merely substituting the word No. for Fig. and given a second reference to the plates where such as are new will be found.—Ed.]

Series 1st.—Recorded Kings of Bactria.

Euthydemus.

No. 1. Obverse.—Bearded bust. [Pl. II. fig. 1.]
Reverse.—Horse at speed. Legend Greek ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΕΥΘΥΔΗΜΟΥ.
No. 2. Obverse.—Bearded bust. (Fig. 2.)
Reverse.—Not represented, same as preceding figure.

No. 1. is one of three coins of the same type, two procured from Béghrám, and one from Jélalábád. These are the curious coins with a concave obverse, which were noted in my last Memoir of last year, having then one unrecognizable specimen from Béghrám. The first intelligible specimen was obtained at Jélalábád, on which I was delighted to find the name of Euthydemus. Fig. 2 is a single specimen from Béghrám, the obverse not concave.

Apollodotus.

Nos. 3, 4, and 5. Obverses.—Figure of Elephant. Legend Greek ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΑΠΟΛΛΟΔΟΤΟΥ ΣΩΤΗΡΟΥ. (Fig. 3; see vol. iv. Pl. XXVI. fig. 5.)
Reverses.—Figure of Brahminical Cow. Legend Bactrian.

These Figures represent the types found among seven silver coins of Apollodotus, comprised in a parcel of 121 Bactrian silver coins, purchased from an individual at Kábul, but discovered in the Hazaurehját. These coins essentially agree, the monograms only varying.

This year’s researches has elicited a circular copper coin of this prince, but not represented, being of similar type with his quadrangular coins.
Memoir on the Ancient Coins of Beghrâm.

Menander.

No. 6. (Fig. 4.) Obverse.—Bust, the head bound with fillet or diadem. Legend Greek ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΣΩΤΗΡΟΥ ΜΕΝΑΝΔΡΟΥ.

Reverse.—Warrior, standing to left; right hand upraised, holding a bundle of darts; left hand holding forth an embossed shield. Monogrammatical characters on either side of the feet. Legend Bactrian.

This fine silver coin was purchased at Kâbul.

Nos. 7 to 11. (Figs. 6, 8.) Obverses.—Busts. Legends as preceding.

Reverses.—As in preceding Figure. Legend Bactrian.

These types are selected from 110 silver coins of this prince procured this year, one received as a present in Kâbul, one procured at Beghrâm, and 108 procured with the seven of APOLLODOTUS just noted. These coins essentially agree, varying principally in the head-dress and position of the busts, and in the position of the figures on the reverses. Figs. 9 and 10 are distinguished by the spear or javelin in the right hand, and the nakedness of the bust: the monogrammatical characters on these coins vary much, and it is remarkable that scarcely any two of the 108 coins found in one parcel appear to have been struck with the same die, the differences in them, however slight, being conclusive as to that fact; it may further be observed, that copper coins of MENANDER are to be found, exhibiting all the types and monogrammatical characters to be found on these silver ones.

No. 12. (Fig. 5.) Obverse.—Bust. Legend Greek, as preceding figs.

Reverse.—Fish. (Dolphin ?) Legend Bactrian.

This fine copper coin was procured from Beghrâm, the monogrammatical characters ♂ are to be found on the silver coins noted above, as fig. 8.

Class Grecian—Series 2. Unrecorded Kings of Bactria.

Antimachus.

No. 14. (Fig. 9.) Obverse.—Helmeted and winged female (Victory ?) standing to the left, holding in extended right hand a palm branch. Legend Greek ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΝΙΚΗΦΟΡΟΥ ΑΝΤΙΜΑΧΟΥ. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXI. fig. 3.)

Reverse.—Mounted warrior at speed. Legend Bactrian.

This fine silver coin is one of six silver coins of similar type and size procured this year, one from Beghrâm, and five in the same parcel as the 108 of MENANDER and seven of APOLLODOTUS before noticed. The monogram ♂ on the obverse, is also to be met with on the coins of MENANDER; as fig. 9 of these plates. Were this monogram interpretable, we should have no difficulty in definitely appropriating these coins.

Hermaeus.

No. 15. Obverse.—Bust, head bound with fillet and diadem. Legend Greek ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΣΩΤΗΡΟΥ ΕΡΜΑΙΟΥ. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXIV.)

Reverse.—Figure of JUPITER enthroned. Legend Bactrian.

No. 16. (Fig. 11.) Obverse.—Bust, head bound with fillet or diadem. Legend Greek, as preceding figure.
Reverse.—Figure of Jupiter enthroned, with eagle or bird of Jove perched on extended right hand. Legend Bactrian.

These two fine silver coins were purchased at Kábûl. I have to apologize for having in my memoir of last year, asserted an opinion that Hermaeus was the founder of the Greek Nysian dynasty of kings; although it is certain that he ruled there, (that is at Nysa,) and even more easterly, as is evidenced by his numerous coins found both at Jelâlabâd and Peshâwar. The Bactrian characters on the reverses of this prince's coins, were not then noted with the attention they ought to have been. And the discovery since of two of his silver coins, (those now delineated,) and a single copper coin corresponding to No. 15, compel us to form other ideas of this prince, and authorize us to consider him, at least for the present, as one of the regular Bactrian dynasty. The enthroned figure on the reverse of No. 16, with the bird of Jove seated on the hand, we presume, admits not a doubt, that the figure itself is intended to represent Jupiter; and the similar figures on the reverses of the copper coins of this prince, although not manifestly exhibiting the eagle, may be supposed to personify the same deity, and not Hercules as before imagined. It seems probable, that the figures on the reverses of the silver coins of Ethydemus may be intended to indicate Jupiter. The copper coins, we had previously found, of Hermaeus, have very pointed features, and portray a prince considerably advanced in years—the two silver coins now before us, with the single copper coin discovered this year, exhibit the features of youth, and justify us in concluding that his reign commenced when he was young, as the great proportion of the copper coins justify the conclusion, that it terminated at an advanced period of his life. We may fairly allow to this prince a reign of twenty-four or twenty-five years, a term which would accurately fill up the period between the demise of Ethydemus and the succession of Eucratides, or, of that, from the demise of Eucratides, to the alleged destruction of the Bactrian empire by the Getæ; but a consideration of the general style of the execution of the coins of Hermaeus, (although the two coins now under notice are beautiful ones, especially No. 16,) will scarcely allow us to intrude him as the successor of Ethydemus: it is fair, however, to observe, that the coins of the two princes bear the same figures on the reverses, and that the forms of both are circular. Neither are we willing to admit him to have been the successor of Eucratides, for he would appear to have enjoyed a large reign, which we hardly suppose a prince who was alike a parricide would have done. It would be gratifying to detect the successor of Eucratides in Bactrian proper, and amongst the whole of the coins discovered at Beghrâm, holding their execution as the token of their precedence or antiquity, we find none which have equal pretensions with those of Hermaeus: but this only proves, that he succeeded to his authority in the Caucasian provinces, and this is what we suspect to have been the case; for when we observe his superior silver coinage, when we are satisfied that his reign was long, and that his dominions extended to the Indus, or beyond that of Eucratides, we repeat we can scarcely believe this powerful prince, and (if we judge from his portrait) beneficent one, to have been the parricide of his father, or him who was vanquished by the Getæ. The silver coin (No. 16), exhibits a strong resemblance to the silver coin of Menander, (No. 6), as does the bust in form and features; the legend is also similarly arranged. These circumstances may perhaps sanction an inquiry, whether Hermaeus may not have been the son and successor of Menander, depriv-
ed of his Caucasian provinces by EUCRATIDES on the death of his father, and recovering them after the murder of this prince, during the anarchy that then naturally prevailed. It is however more probable, as we have before hinted, that EUCRATIDES committed this act of aggression when MENANDER was still living, and this seems corroborated by all the coins of HERMAEUS found at Beghrám displaying an aged prince, while the coins before us prove, that he also ruled when young; whence we infer, that he must originally have reigned elsewhere, and as we find that his coins are met with very far eastward, we may presume that his original seat of empire was in that quarter, and that from thence he marched to the Caucasus, when the death of EUCRATIDES allowed him the opportunity: and in confirmation of which we find, that the Beghrám coins of this prince refer to the latter part of his reign. The proportion of his copper coins found at Beghrám, may also guide us in our estimate of the duration of his reign there. EUCRATIDES, we suppose, reigned 24 years; in 1833, we found 70 of his coins, and in 1834, 92, or 162 for 2 years; in 1833, we found of the coins of HERMAEUS 34, and in 1834, 31, or 65 for 2 years. Now by the common rule of three process, if 162 yield 24, 65 will yield 94, say 10 years for the reign of HERMAEUS at Beghrám: but we find that he must have reigned much longer somewhere else, which seems to verify the inferences we have before drawn; and as, we hope, in ANTIMACHUS we have found a son and successor for EUTHYDEMUS, so we hope that in HERMAEUS we have discovered the son and successor of MENANDER. The difference in the execution of the coins of this prince and of other Bactrian kings, as well as the striking diversity in the purity of the Greek characters, may perhaps be accounted for by supposing, that the better coins are those struck at the metropolitan mints, where Greek artists would be found, and that the inferior ones were struck at provincial mints, where, if Greek artists were not to be procured, the more expert native ones would be employed. We have discussed at some length the merits of the coins of HERMAEUS, but let us mislead no one; on subjects so difficult as these Bactrian coins, much is still left to conjecture, and at present, little more can be done than to expose the difficulties that attend them.

Diomedes.

No. 17. (Fig. 10.) Obverse.—Two erect figures, standing to the front, right hands holding spears, swords by the side. Legend Greek ΙΑΕΩΝ.ΟΤΗΡΟΣ ΔΙΟΜΗΔΟΤ. Reverse.—Humped cow. Legend Bactrian.

This is the type of a single quadrangular copper coin procured this year from Beghrám, fortunately presenting without doubt in the legend, the nomen and cognomen. DIOMES SOTER. The monogram on the reverse [ο] is also found on the coins of ANTIMACHUS and APOLLODOTUS.

Antilakides.

No. 18. Obverse.—Bust, the hair of the head behind, bound into a kind of pod resembling a bag-wig. Legend Greek, obscure, but undoubtedly ΒΑΞΙΑΕΝΣ ΝΙΚΗΦΟΡΟΣ ΑΝΤΙΛΑΚΙΔΟΤ. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXVI. fig. 10.) Reverse.—Two conical emblems, with two palm branches fixed between them. Legend Bactrian. This is a single specimen, (as to the circular form of the coin,) procured this year from Beghrám. The coin no doubt refers to the same prince whose coins are delineated in figs. 13 and 14, of Series 2, Class Grecian, of my last year’s memoir. The features of the prince on this coin are much younger than those marked on the quadrangular coins, and the monogram varies, being ΛΑΣ.
Grecian Coins - Recorded Kings of Bactria.

Unrecorded Kings of Bactria
Grecian Coins. Unrecorded Kings of Bactria.

Coins of the Nigsaan Kings

Indo-Scythic

Sassanian Coins
Monogrammatical and Symbolical Characters of Bactrian Coins.

**of silver coins**

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**of copper coins**

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**Menander**

**of silver coins**

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**of copper coins**

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**Hermes I**

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**Ases**

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**of the Nyscan Coins**

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**of the Leonine Coins**

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**of the Indo Scythic Coins**

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**Various**

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The characters on the legend are pure Bactrian, as are those on the coins of Ausius (Lysius), figs. 15 and 16, of Series 2, Class Grecian, of last year.

Hermæus.

No. 19. (Fig. 12.) Obverse.—Bust, with tuft or pod on top of head. Legend Greek, ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΣΩΤΗΡΟΣ ΕΡΜΑΙΟΤ. Reverse.—Horse. Legend Bactrian.

The type of this coin was given in our memoir of last year (fig. 38). The present year we procured a more perfect specimen from Jelálábâd: the coin is certainly Bactrian, judging by the characters on the legend of the reverse, and the pod on the head of the bust, together with the nature of the reverse, seem to militate against the opinion, that this coin may represent the quadrangular coinage of Hermæus before noticed.

Adelphortes.

Nos. 20, 21. (Figs. 13, 14.) Obverse.—Mounted warrior. Legend Greek, ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΠΑΛΑΤΡΙΟΥ ΔΙΚΑΙΟΤ ΑΔΕΛΦΟΙΤΩΤ. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXI. fig. 9.) Reverse.—Seated female deity, with mace or truncheon in right hand. Legend Bactrian.

This type was represented last year as fig. 44. Jelálábâd this year yielded two fair specimens, from which the Greek legend is undoubtedly as above inserted; the reverse legend is as manifestly Bactrian.

Palerkes.

No. 22. (Fig. 15.) Obverse.—Standing figure with trident in right hand. Legend Greek....ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΝ ΜΕΓΑΛΟΤ ΠΑΛΗΡΚΩΤ. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXI. fig. 9.) Reverse.—Seated figure. Legend Bactrian.

This type was represented last year as fig. 40. A more perfect specimen procured this year from Kâbul, identifies the legend to be as above cited, the word ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ being undoubtedly the one not plain.

Basilis (Azilisos.)

No. 23. (Fig. 16.) Obverse.—Horseman. Legend Greek....portion legible ΕΠΑΛΟΤ. AZIACOT. Reverse.—Elephant. Legend Bactrian.

This is a single specimen procured at Kâbul, the legend entire would probably have been ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΝ ΜΕΓΑΛΟΤ ΒΑΣΙΛΙΟΤ.

Aloukenou (Qy.) (Megalou Nonou ?)

No. 24. (Fig 17.) Obverse.—Figure of Hercules, with club. Legend Greek, obscure. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXI. fig. 10.) Reverse.—Infantry soldier, holding wattle in right hand, and armed with sword, spear and shield. Legend Bactrian.

This type was presented last year, as figs. 39 and 43. We have not discovered a single coin of this type during the present year, but introduce this figure here from the probability, on referring to the specimen we held, that the name of the prince was ΛΔΟΥΟΚΗΝΟΥ; the only doubt is as regards the letters ΚΗΝ.

Asou (Azou.)

No. 25. Obverse.—Horseman. Legend Greek, portion visible ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ....Ε....ΛΔΟΥ ΑΞΟΤ. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXII. fig. 9.) Reverse.—Humped cow. Legend Bactrian.

This is one of two specimens procured at Kâbul; the entire legend would undoubtedly be ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΝ ΜΕΓΑΛΟΤ ΑΞΟΤ.
No. 26. Obverse.—Humped bull, with monogram over the hump, and another under the head. Legend Greek, obscure. (See vol. iv. Pl. XXII. figs. 1, 2, 3.)

Reverse.—Monstrous animal, with symbolical monogram over the back. Legend, characters doubtful.

One of three specimens procured at Jelâldâbâd; the legend is in pure Greek characters, and by comparison is undoubtedly BAΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΝ ΜΕΓΑΛΟΤ ΑΞΟΤ. The characters on the reverse legend I apprehend not to be Bactrian, but rather Nysæan. The monograms on these coins vary: one specimen gives the form over the hump of the bull, and this coincides with the monogram on No. 25, with over the animal on the reverse: this form occurs on No. 23.

Unidentified Coins.

No. 27. Obverse.—Elephant. Legend defaced. (Vol. iv. Pl. XXI. fig. 11.)

Reverse.—Seated figure with trident. Legend defaced.

This is a single specimen from Kâbul. In absence of the legend, it may be pronounced Greek.

No. 28. Obverse.—Rampant lion. Legend Greek, obscure.

Reverse.—Humped bull. Legend Bactrian. (Omitted by mistake; like Azos coin.)

This type was represented last year; the present has afforded no new specimen, and we introduce it again, that it may not be lost sight of, and because we suspect part of the legend to bear the character ΔΗΜΗΦΘ. We at first inclined to read it ΔΗΜΗΤΡΙΟΤ, but we presume the character €, which is decisively plain, will not allow it.

No. 29. (Pl. II. fig. 18.) Obverse.—Bust, head bound with fillet or diadem. Legend Greek, portion legible OHTOPO.

Reverse.—Enthroned figure, probably Jupiter. Legend Bactrian.

This is a single specimen from Beghram, which had nearly given us the name of another Greek king, for after the insertion of the word BAΣΙΛΕΩΣ, there will be only room for one or two letters more, the first O may perhaps be a Δ.

No. 30. (Fig. 19.) Obverse.—Helmed bust, bearded.

Reverse.—Standing figure. Legend, unknown characters.

This is a single specimen from Beghram; the characters on the reverse are singular, and may have some affinity with those on the coins of Agathocles and Pantaleon.

No. 31. (Fig. 20.) Obverse.—Bust, head bound with fillet or diadem. Legend Greek, but defaced.

This is a single specimen from Beghram. A fragment of a coin, the reverse quite smoothed.

No. 32. (Fig. 21.) Reverse.—Figure erect, legend, unknown characters.

This is a single specimen from Beghram, the obverse had been hammered smooth: the characters, besides being singular, appear to vary on either side of the inscription; those to the right resemble the legends of Agathocles and Pantaleon.

Class Grecian—Series No. 4. Coins of Nysæan Kings.

Nos. 33 to 40. (Figs. 23 to 29.) Obverses.—Busts, head bound with fillet or diadem. Legends Greek, but illegible.

These figures represent the types of the very numerous coins of this description found, which have invariably on the reverse an erect figure of Hercules, resting on his club. They are given to shew the varieties of the legends, as well
as their incomprehensibility. Of all the coins of this class those of *Hermæus* are only intelligible (figs. 24 and 25, of our last year's memoir), and this prince seems to be entitled to be held the first of the line. From a tope at Jelalabad we extracted ten copper coins similar to fig. 40. The princes of this family appear to have been numerous. At Jelalabad we have five, if not six topes to be referred to them.

No. 41. (Fig. 30.) *Obverse.*—Horsemans. Legend Greek, but obscure, portion visible *OAIAIIHΣI.*

*Reverse.*—Female figure. Legend Nysan.

Single specimen from Kábul. The horsemen on the obverse, and the legend on the reverse, enable us to refer this coin to the Greek Nysan dynasty, but the legend is too difficult for interpretation.

*Class Indo-Scythic—Series Nos. 1 and 2.*

*Pl. III. Fig. 1. Obverse.*—Bust of king looking to the right. Sceptre in right hand, four-pronged monogram behind the head. Legend Greek *BACIAEVC OOHMO KAAPΣΙHΣC.*

This is one of six golden medals of the same prince, extracted from a tope at Good Durrah near Kábul. The reverse is not given, in no wise differing from that delineated in memoir of last year, fig. 24 of Indo-Scythic coins. The six medals essentially agree; but as the position of the bust varies, and there are other trivial but unimportant differences observable on all of them, they will have been struck at various times.

*Fig. 2. Obverse.*—Bust of king looking to the left. Sceptre in right hand. Legend Greek characters, PAO NANO PAO OOHPKI KOPANO.

*Reverse.*—Deity or saint looking to the right, lines of glory around the head, four-pronged symbol in front of figure. Legend Greek, NANA.

This golden medal was found in the same tope with the preceding one and the next to be described. The reverse NANA, enables us immediately to identify the prince as one of the Kanerkos family. The nature of the legend has been so fully displayed in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, that it becomes needless to dwell on it.

*Fig. 3. Obverse.*—Bust of king looking to the left. Sceptre in right hand. Legend Greek, probably same as on preceding coin, portion legible PAOOOKH-PKIKO PAO.

*Reverse.*—Figure of Deity or saint looking to the right. Right hand extended, four-pronged symbol in front of figure. Legend Greek HIPO. (? Mithra.)

This golden coin found with the preceding ones noted in same tope.

*Fig. 4. Obverse.*—Erect figure of prince looking to the left, right hand in act of sacrificing upon an altar, left hand holding staff. Legend Greek NANOPAOKA NHPKI KOPA . . . .

*Reverse.*—Figure of Deity or saint looking to the right, with four-pronged symbol on right hand of, and other in front of, the figure. Legend Greek NANA PAO.

Gold coin purchased in Kábul, the addition of PAO on the obverse legend may be noted clearly, from position indicating holy.

*Fig. 5. Obverse.*—Helmed bust of prince, looking to the left, head surrounded with circles of glory. Sceptre in either hand. Legend Greek PAONANO PAOOOVOKIKO PAO.

*Reverse.*—Figure of Deity or saint standing to the left, circles of glory around
the head, right hand extended, four-pronged figure in front of figure. Legend Greek ΑΡΟ.

Gold medal purchased in Kābul. This coin is interesting from the fine bust on the obverse, and from the new legend on the reverse*. No. 6. Obverse.—Figure of prince clad in mail, in act of sacrifice, left hand supporting tridental staff. Legend characters intended for Greek ΠΟΝΟΠΟΒΟΝΟΟΠΟΒΟΒΟΚΟ. (See observations on Kadphis Coins of vol. III.) Reverse.—Female figure, standing by side of cow. Legend apparently intended for ΟΠΝΟ.

No. 7. Obverse.—Same as preceding. Legend probably intended for RΑΝΟΝΟΟΡΟΒΟΚΟΡΟΝΟΝΟ. (See ditto.) Reverse.—Same as preceding. Legend probably ΟΠΝΟ. (Doubtless ΟΚΠΟ.)

These two gold coins were purchased at Kābul. They appear to be the gold coins of the prince whose copper coinage is delineated in fig. 12, Indo-Scythic coins of last year.

No. 8. Obverse.—Seated figure. Legend Greek, portion legible ΚΟΠΑΝΟ. Reverse.—Deity or saint, looking to the right. Four-pronged symbol in front of figure. Legend Greek ΝΑΝΑ. (See vol. iv. Pt. LΙ, figs. 4, 13.)

No. 9. Obverse.—Seated figure as in preceding. Legend illegible. (Do. fig. 5.) Reverse.—Deity or saint, looking to the left, with wreath in extended right hand. Four-pronged symbol in front of figure. Legend not apparent.

These coins (copper) were procured at Kābul, and introduced because, with reference to the seated figure on the obverse, they were of a type different from any we met with last year, although they clearly refer to the ΚΑΝΕΡΚΟΣ family.

Little need be remarked upon these Indo-Scythic coins, which appear to be likely to become more intelligible: suffice it to say, that eight types in the neighbourhood of Kābul, at least, may be referred to princes of these families of ΚΑΝΕΡΚΟΣ and ΚΑΦΦΙΣ.

Sassanian Coins.

At the foot of Plate III. are inserted a few specimens out of the 187 silver coins of this class, extracted from the principal Tope of Hiddah, near Jalalabad. The majority were small coins, like fig. 6.

Monograms.

Plate IV. comprises all the varieties of monogram hitherto observed on the coins of AΠΟΛΛΟΔΟΤΟΣ, ΜΕΝΑΝΔΡΟΣ, ΕΥΧΡΑΤΙΔΕΣ and their descendants. Most of them are at once perceived to be combinations of Greek letters; but whether used as expressive of dates, or as the initials of the die-engraver or mint-master of the day, is not yet determined, although that they are the latter seems the more probable conjecture. The later symbols on the Indo-Scythic and Leonine coins, &c. are of a different class, and do not seem formed from alphabetical combinations.

II.—Quotations from original Sanscrit authorities in proof and illustration of Mr. Hodgson’s sketch of Buddhism.

[The following paper has been printed in the Transactions of the London Asiatic Society; but, from accidental circumstances to which it is not necessary further to allude, somewhat inaccurately.

* Probably this is a transposition of the letters of AΘΟ. — Ed.
The shortest way of amending these errors, and supplying at the same time some further information calculated to make the paper more generally intelligible, is to reprint it at Calcutta. This the author has, accordingly, now enabled us to do, the new information being given in the shape of additional notes, which it would indeed have been scarcely worth while to print separately from the text to which they refer. It is not our custom to republish articles already printed, and we do so now only under express invitation from the author, whose researches in Buddhism, aided by local advantages possessed by no other writer, it is of the highest importance to have correctly reported and preserved.—Ed.

Preface.

Several distinguished orientalists having, whilst they applauded the novelty and importance of the information conveyed by my Sketch of Buddhism*, called upon me for proofs, I have been induced to prepare for publication the following translation of significant passages from the ancient books of the Sangatas, which still are extant in Nepál in the original Sanscrit.

These extracts were made for me (whilst I was collecting the works† in question) some years ago by Amíta Nanda Bandya, the most learned Buddhist then, or now, living in this country; they formed the materials from which chiefly I drew my sketch; and they would have been long since communicated to the public, had the translator felt sufficiently confident of his powers, or sufficiently assured that enlightened Europeans could be brought to tolerate the 'ingens indigestaque moles' of these 'original authorities,' which however, in the present instance, are original in a far higher and better sense than those of De Körös, or even of Upham. Without stopping to question whether the sages who formed the Bauddha system of philosophy and religion used Sanscrit or high Précrit, or both, or seeking to determine the consequent pretension of Mr. Upham's authorities to be considered original, it may be safely said, that those of Mr. De Körös can support no claims of the kind.


† The collection comprises, besides 60 volumes in Sanscrit, procured in Nepál, the very names of which had previously been unknown, some 250 volumes, in the language of Tibet, which were obtained from Lássta and Digarchi. But for the existence of the latter at Calcutta, Mr. De Körös's attainments in Tibetan lore had been comparatively useless. The former or Sanscrit books of Nepál are the authorities relied on in this paper. Since the first collection was made in Nepál, very many new works in the Sanscrit language have been discovered and are yet daily under discovery. The probability now is, that the entire Kahgyur and Stangyur may be recovered, in the original language. The whole series has been obtained in that of Tibet, 327 large volumes.

‡ These authorities however, even if allowed to be original, appear to consist entirely of childish legends. I allude to the three published volumes. The
The native works which the latter gentleman relies on are avowedly Tibetan translations of my Sanscrit originals, and whoever will duly reflect upon the dark and profound abstractions, and the infinite simally-multiplied and microscopically-distinguished personifications of Buddhism, may well doubt whether the language of Tibet does or can adequately sustain the weight that has been laid upon it.

Sanscrit, like its cognate Greek, may be characterised as a speech "capable of giving a soul to the objects of sense, and body to the abstractions of metaphysics." But, as the Tibetan language can have no pretensions to a like power, those who are aware that the Sangatas taxed the whole powers of the Sanscrit to embody in words their system, will cautiously reserve, I apprehend, for the Baudhā books still extant in the classical language of India, the title of original authorities. From such works, which, though now found only in Nepal, were composed in the plains of India before the dispersion of the sect, I have drawn the accompanying extracts; and though the merits of the "doing into English" may be small indeed, they will yet, I hope, be borne up by the paramount and (as I suspect) unique authority and originality of my "original authorities," a phrase which, by the way, has been somewhat invidiously, as well as laxly used and applied in certain quarters.

received hypothesis is that the philosophers of Ayudhya and Magadhā,(the acknowledged founders of Buddhism) preferred the use of Sanscrit to that of Prācrit, in the original exposition of their subtle system, appears to me as absurd as it does probable that their successors, as Missionaries, resorted to Prācrit versions of the original Sanscrit authorities, in propagating the system in the remotest parts of the continent and in Ceylon. On this ground, I presume the Prācrit works of Ceylon and Ava to be translations, not originals:—a presumption so reasonable that nothing but the production from Ceylon or Ava of original Prācrit works, comparable in importance with the Sanscrit books discovered in Nepal, will suffice to shake it in my mind. Sir W. Jones I believe to be the author of the assertion, that the Buddhists committed their system to high Prācrit or Pāli; and so long at least as there were no Sanscrit works of the sect forthcoming, the presumption was not wholly unreasonable. It is, however, so now. And Sir W. Jones was not unaware that Magadhā or Bihār was the original head-quarters of Buddhism, nor that the best Sanscrit lexicon extant was the work of a Baudhā; nor that the Brāhmans themselves acknowledged the pre-eminent literary merits of their heterodox adversaries.

But for his Brāhmicaal bias therefore, Sir William might have come at the truth, that the Baudhā philosophers employed the classical language.

Sir William was further aware, that the old Baudhā inscriptions of Gayā, Sanchi, Carli, &c. are Sanscrit, not Prācrit. To me this last circumstance is decisive against the hypothesis in question. Throughout Madhya Des and the Upper Deccan, the numerous monuments of the Buddhists bear inscriptions in Sanscrit, and Sanscrit only. The Pāli inscription at Gayā is recent, and avowedly the work of Burmese. [It is chiefly Burmese, not Pāli.—Ed.]
It is still, I observe, questioned amongst us, whether Brāhmaṇism or Buddhism be the more ancient creed, as well as whether the latter be of Indian or extra Indian growth. The Buddhists themselves have no doubts upon either point. They unhesitatingly concede the palm of superior antiquity to their rivals and persecutors the Brāhmins; nor do they in any part of the world hesitate in pointing to India as the cradle of their faith.

Formerly we might be pardoned for building fine-spun theories of exotic upon the African locks of Buddha's images: but surely it is now somewhat too late*, in the face of the abundant direct evidence which we possess, against the exotic theory, to go in quest of presumptions to the time-out-of-mind illiterate Scythians, in order to give to them the glory of originating a system built upon the most subtle philosophy, and all the copious original records of which are inshrined in Sanscrit†, a language which, whencesoever primevally derived, had been, when Buddhism appeared, for ages proper to the Indian continent.

The Buddhists make no serious pretensions to a very high antiquity: never hint at an extra Indian origin.

Sakya Sinha is, avowedly, Kshetriya; and, if his six predecessors had really any historical existence, the books which affirm it, affirm too, that all the six were of Brāhmaṇical or Kshetriyâ lineage. Sangata books treating on the subject of caste never call in question the antique fact of a fourfold division of the Hindu people, but only give a more liberal interpretation to it than the current Brāhmaṇical one of their day‡. The Chinese, the Mongols, the Tibetans, the Indo-Chinese, the Ceylonese and other Indian Islanders, all point to India as the fatherland of their creed. The records of Buddhism in Nepal and in Tibet, in both of which countries the people and their mother-tongues are of the Mongol stock, are still either Sanscrit or avowed translations from it by Indian pandits. Nor is there a single record or monument of this faith in existence, which bears intrinsic or extrinsic evidence of an extra Indian origin.§

* Recent discoveries make it more and more certain, that the cave temples of the Western Coast and its vicinity, are exclusively Bauddha. Every part of India is illustrated by splendid remains of Buddhism.

† The difference between high Prâcrit and Sanscrit, could not affect this question, though it were conceded that the founders of Buddhism used the former and not the latter—a concession however, which should not be facilely made, and to which I wholly demur.

‡ See the Bauddha disputation on caste. Royal Asiatic Society's Transactions.

§ See Crawfurd's remarks on the purely Indian character of all the great sculptural and architectural monuments of Buddhism in Java. Also Barrow’s remarks to the same effect in his travels in China. The Chinese Pudâ, is Vis-varuppâ Prajnâ or the polyform type of Diva Natura. See Oriental Quarterly
The speculations of a writer of Sir W. Jones's day (Mr. Joinville), tending to prove argumentatively, from the characters of Buddhism and Bráhmanism, the superior antiquity of the former, have been lately revived (see Asiatic Journal No. CLX.) with applause. But besides that fine drawn presumptions are idle in the face of such a mass of direct evidence as we now possess, the reasonings of Joinville appear to me altogether based on errors of fact. Buddhism (to hazard a character in few words), is monastic asceticism in morals, philosophical scepticism in religion; and whilst ecclesiastical history all over the world affords abundant instances of such a state of things resulting from gross abuse of the religious sanction, that ample chronicle gives us no one instance of it as a primitive system of belief. Here is a legitimate inference from sound premises. But that Buddhism was, in truth, a reform or heresy, and not an original system, can be proved by the most abundant direct evidence both of friends and of enemies. The oldest Sangata works incessantly allude to the existing superstition as the Mārcharya or way of the serpent, contradistinguishing their reformation thereof as the Bōddhi-charya or way of wise; and the Brāhmanical impugners of those works (who, upon so plain a fact, could not lie), invariably speak of Buddhism as a notorious heresy.

An inconsiderable section of the Sangatas alone, ever held the bold doctrine of mortal souls: and the Svābhāvika denial of a creation of matter by the fiat of an absolutely immaterial being springs, not out of the obesity of barbarian dulness, but out of the over refinement of philosophical ratiocination. Joinville's idea of the speculative tenets of Buddhism is utterly erroneous. Many of them are bad indeed: but they are of philosophy all compact, profoundly and painfully subtle-sceptical too, rather than atheistically dogmatic.

At the risk of being somewhat miscellaneous in this preface, I must allude to another point. The lamented Abel Remusat sent me, just before he died, a copy of his essay on the Sangata doctrine of the Triad; and Mr. Upham, I find, has deduced from Remusat's interpretation of that doctrine, the inference (which he supports by reference to sundry expressions in the sacred books of Ceylon), that I am in error in deny-

Magazine, No. xiv. pp. 218—222, for proofs of the fact that numberless Baudha remains have been mistaken for Bráhmanical by our antiquaries, and even by the natives. In the same work I have proved this in reference to Crawfurd's Archipelago, Oriental Quarterly, No. xvi. pp. 232, 235.

Yet, no sooner had I shown, from original authorities, how thoroughly Indian Buddhism is, than it was immediately exclaimed 'oh! this is Nepálése corruption! these are merely popular grafts from Bráhmanism.' The very same character belongs to the oldest monuments of Buddhism extant, in India and beyond it; and I have traced that character to the highest scriptural authorities.
ing that Buddhism, in its first, and most characteristic form, admits the distinction of Clerus et Laicus. It is difficult expressly to define that distinction; but it may be seen in all its breadth in Brahmānism and in Popery; whilst in Islamism, and in the most enthusiastic of the Christian sects, which sprung out of the Reformation, it is wholly lost. According to my view, Apostolic Christianity recognised it not*; the congregation of the faithful, the Church, was a society of peers, of brethren in the faith, all essentially equal, in gifts, as in place and character. On earth, there were no indispensable mediators, no exclusive professional ones; and such alone I understand to be priests. Again, genuine monachism all over the world, I hold to be, in its own nature, essentially opposed to the distinction of clergyman and layman, though we all know that monastic institutions no sooner are rendered matters of public law and of extensive popular prevalence, than, ex vi necessitatis, the distinction in question is superinduced upon them, by the major part of the monks laicising, and the rest becoming clergy†.

There are limits to the number of those whom the public can support in idleness: and whose would eat the bread of the public must perform some duty to the public. Yet who can doubt that the true monk, whether coenobite or solitary, is he who abandons the world to save his own soul; as the true clergyman is he who mixes with the world to save the souls of others? The latter in respect to the people or laics has a distinctive function, and, it may be also an exclusive one: the former has no function at all. Amongst entirely monastic sects, then, the exclusive character of priest is objectless and absurd: and who that has glanced an eye over ecclesiastical history knows not that in proportion as sects are enthusiastic, they reject and hate, (though nothing tainted with monachism) the exclusive pretensions of the clergy! Whoever has been able to go along with me in the above reflections can need only to be told that primitive Buddhism was entirely monastic, and of an unboundedly enthusiastic genius‡, to be satisfied that it did not recognise the distinction in question. But if, being suspicious of the validity

* I would not be understood to lay stress on this opinion, which is merely adduced to illustrate my argument.
† History informs us that, soon after monachism supervened upon our holy and eminently social religion, there were in Egypt as many monks almost as peasants. Some of these monks necessarily laicised, and the rest became clergy. The community of the Gosāins, and several others, of strictly ascetical origin, exhibit the same necessary change after the sects had become numerously followed.
‡ Its distinguishing doctrine is that finite mind can be enlarged to infinite; all the schools uphold this towering tenet, postponing all others to it. As for the scepticism of the Svabhāvikas relative to those transcendental marvels, creation and providence, it is sufficient to prove its remoteness from "flat Atheism," simply to point to the coexistence of the cardinal tenet first named.
of argumentative inferences, he demand of me simple facts, here they are. In the Suta Sahasrika, Prajna Paramitā, or Ratha Bhagavati, and also in the nine Dharmas (the oldest and highest written authorities), it is affirmed more or less directly, or is clearly deducible from the context, in a thousand passages (for the subject is not expressly treated), that the only true followers of Buddha are monks, the majority being coenobites, the rest, solitaries. The fullest enumeration of these followers (Bhikshu Srvāxaka or Srāmanā, Chailaka, and Arhata or Arhana or Arhanta) proves them to have been all monks, tonsured, subject to the usual vows, (nature teaching to all mankind that wealth, women and power, are the grand tempters,) resident in monasteries (Vihār) or in deserts, and essentially peers, though of course acknowledging the claims of superior wisdom and piety. The true church, the congregation of the faithful, is constantly said to consist of such only; and I am greatly mistaken indeed if the church in this sense be synonymous with the clergy; or, if the primitive church of Buddha recognised an absolutely distinct body such as we (i.e. Catholics, Lutherans, and Kirkmen) ordinarily mean when we speak of the latter. The first mention of an exclusive, professional active, minister of religion, or priest, in the Bawddha books, is in those of a comparatively recent date, and not of scriptural authority. Therein the Vajra Achārya (for so he is called) first appears, arrayed with the ordinary attributes of a priest. But his character is anomalous, as is that of every thing about him; and the learned Bauddhas of Nepal at the present day universally admit the falling off from the true faith. We have in these books, Bhikshus Srvāvakas, Chailaks, and Sākya-Vansikas*, bound by their primitive rules for ten days (in memory of the olden time) and then released from them; tonsured, yet married; ostensibly monks, but really citizens of the world.

From any of the above, the Vajra Achārya, is drawn indiscriminately; he keeps the keys of the no longer open treasury; and he is surrounded

* An inscription at Carli identifies the splendid Salivāhana with the head of the Saka tribe, which is that of  Sākya Sinha. The Sākya-Vansikas, or people of the race of Sākya, appeared in Nepāl as refugees from Brāhmaṇa bigotry, some time after Buddhism had been planted in these hills. Sākya is universally allowed to have been the son of king Suddhodana, sovereign of Magadha or Bihār. He is said to have been born in the "Asthān of Kapiḷa Muni," at Ganga Sagar, according to some; in Oude, as others say. His birth place was not necessarily within his father's kingdom. He may have been born when his father was on a pilgrimage to the shrine of the Saint Kapila. Sā'kya died, according to my authorities, in Assam, and left one son named Rahula Bhadra. The Sākas were Kshetrajña of the solar line, according to Bauddha authorities; nor is it any proof of the contrary that they appear not in the Brāhmaṇical genealogies. See note in the sequel.
with untested followers, who now present themselves for the first time. I pretend not to trace with historical nicety all the changes which marked the progress of Buddhism as a public institute and creed of millions up to the period of the dispersion: but I am well aware, that the primitive doctrines were not, because they could not be, rigidly adhered to, when what I hold to have been at first the closet speculation of some philosophers, had become the dominant creed of large kingdoms. That the latter character was, however, assumed by Buddhism in the plains of India, long before the dispersion, seems certain; and, as many persons may urge that the thing in question is the dominant public institute, not the closet speculation, and that whatever discipline prevailed before the dispersion must be held for primitive and orthodox, I can only observe that the ancient books of the Sangatas, whilst they glance at such changes as I have adverted to, do so in the language of censure; and that upon the whole, I still strongly incline to the opinion that genuine or primitive Buddhism (so I cautiously phrased it, originally) rejected the distinction of Clerus et Laicus; that the use of the word priest by Upham is generally inaccurate; and that the Sangha of the Buddhist triad ought to have been invariably rendered by Remusat into ‘congregation of the faithful’ or ‘church,’ and never into ‘clergy’ or ‘priesthood.’ Remusat indeed seems to consider (Observations, 28-9, and 32), these phrases as synonymous; and yet the question which their discrimination involves is one which, in respect to our own religion, has been fiercely agitated for hundreds of years; and still, by the very shades of that discrimination, chiefly marks the subsisting distinction between the various Churches of Christ!

Following the authority he has relied on, Mr. Upham was at liberty, therefore, to adopt a sense which would consist with my interpretation of phrases such as he alluded to, and which, of course, I found copiously scattered over the works I consulted. I always rendered them advisedly into English, so as to exclude the idea of a priesthood, because I had previously satisfied myself, by separate inquiry and reflection, that that cardinal tenet was repugnant to the genius of the creed, and repudiated by its primitive teachers. This important point may have been wrongly determined by me; but assuredly the determination of it upon such grounds as Mr. Upham’s is perfectly futile. Such words as Arhanta and Bandy, (which, by the way, are the correct forms of the Burmese Rahatun and the Chinese Bonze,) no more necessarily mean, priest, clergy, than do the Latin, fideles and milites, as applied to Christianity; and as for the word Sangha, it is indisputable that it does not mean literally priest*, and that it does mean literally congregation.

* Observations, p. 29.
If, as Remusat and Upham appear to insist is the case, every monastic follower of Buddha be a priest, then Bandya or Bonze* must be rendered into English by the word 'clergyman.' But there will still remain as much difference between Bandya and Sangha as, in Christian estimation, between an ordinary parson of the present day, and one of the inspired primitive professors. Of old, the spirit descended upon all alike; and Sangha was this hallowed and gifted congregation. But the glory has passed away, and the term been long sanctified and set apart. So has, in part, and for similar reasons, the word Arhata. But Bandya, as a generic title, and Bhikshu, Sravaka, and Chailaka, as specific ones, are still every-day names of every-day people, priests, if it must be so, but, as I conceive, ascetics or monks merely. In the thick night of ignorance and superstition which still envelopes Tibet, the people fancy they yet behold Arhatas in the persons of their divine Lamas. No such imagination however possesses the heads of the followers of Buddha in Nepál, Ceylon, or extra Gangetic India; though in the last mentioned country the name Arhata is popularly applied to the modern order of the clergy, an order growing there, as in Nepál, (if my opinions be sound) out of that deviation from the primitive genius and type of the system which resulted necessarily from its popular diffusion as the rule of life and practice of whole nations.

In conclusion I would observe, that, in my apprehension, Remusat's interpretation of the various senses of the Triadic doctrine is neither

* The possible meaning of this word has employed in vain the sagacity of sundry critics. In its proper form of Bandya, it is pure Sanscrit, signifying a person entitled to reverence, and is derived from Bandana.

Equally curious and instructive is it to find in the Sanscrit records of Buddhism the solution of so many enigmas collected by travellers from all parts of Asia; E. G. Elphinstone's mound is a genuine Chaitya, and its proper name is Manikálaya, or the place of the precious relic. The mound is a tomb temple. The 'tumuli eorum Christi altaria' of the poet, is more true of Buddhism than even of the most perverted model of Christianity; the cause being probably the same, originally, in reference to both creeds, viz. persecution and martyrdom, with consequent divine honours to the sufferers. The Bauddhas, however, have in this matter gone a step further in the descending scale of representative adoration than the Catholics; for they worship the mere image of that structure which is devoted to the inshrining of the relics of their saints; they worship the architectural model or form of the Chaitya.

The Chaitya of Sambhunath in Nepál is affirmed to cover Jyoti rupya Swayambhu, or the self-existent, in the form of flame: nor was there ever any thing exclusive of theism in theconnexion of tomb and temple: for Chaityas were always dedicated to the celestial Buddhás, not only in Nepál, but in the plains of India, as the Chaityas of Sanchi, of Gyá, and of Bág, demonstrate. The Dhyani Buddhás appear in the oldest monuments of the continent and islands.
very complete, nor very accurate. In a religious point of view, by the first member is understood the founder of the creed, and all who, following his steps, have reached the full rank of a Maha Yanika Buddha; by the second, the law or scriptures of the sect; and by the third, the congregation of the faithful, or primitive church, or body of original disciples, or even, any and every assemblage of true, i. e. of conventional ascetical observers of the law, past or present.

In a philosophical light, the precedence of Buddha or of Dharma indicates the theistic or atheistic school. With the former, Buddha is intellectual essence*, the efficient cause of all, and underrived. Dharma is material essence†, the plastic cause, and underrived, a co-equal by unity with Buddha; or else the plastic cause, as before, but dependent and derived from Buddha. Sangha is derived from, and compounded of, Buddha and Dharma, is their collective energy in the state of action; the immediate operative cause of creation, its type or its agent‡. With the latter or atheistic activity, Dharma is Diva natura, matter as the sole entity, invested with intrinsic activity and intelligence, the efficient and material cause of all.

Buddha is derivative from Dharma, is the active and intelligent force of nature, first put off from it and then operating upon it. Sangha is the result of that operation; is embryotic creation, the type and sum of all specific forms, which are spontaneously evolved from the union of Buddha with Dharma§. The above are the principal distinctions, others are which I cannot venture here to dwell on.

With regard to Remusat's remark, "ou voit que les trois noms sont placés sur le même niveau, comme les trois représentations des mêmes êtes dans les planches de M. Hodgson avec cette différence que sur celles-ci, Sanga est à droite, et Dharma à gauche," I may just add, that the placing of Sangha to the right is a merely ritual technicality, conformable to the puji of the Daksināchārās||, and that all the philosophers and religionists are agreed in postponing Sangha to Dharma.

* Bodhanatmaka iti Buddha, 'the intellectual essence is Buddha.'
† Dhurānatmaka iti Dharma, 'the holding, sustaining or containing substance is Dharma.' Again, Prakriteswari iti Prajna, 'the material goddess is Prājna,' one of the names of Dharma. The word Prājna is compounded of the intensive prefix pra, and jñāna wisdom, or jña to know. It imports the supreme wisdom of nature. Dharma is the universal substratum, is that which supports all forms and quality in the versatile world.
‡ Samudayatmika iti Sangha, 'the multitudinous essence is Sangha; multi-tude is the diagnosis of the versatile universe, as unity is of that of abstraction.
§ Prajnaupayāmakāng Jāyagata.
|| The theistic sects so call themselves, styling their opposites, the Svabhāvikas and Prajñikas, Vāmāchāre. The Paurānikas, too, often designate the Tantrikas by the latter name, which is equivalent to left-handed.
Description of the Sivatherium, [Jan.

I possess very many drawings exhibiting the arrangement mentioned by Remusat; but all subservient to mere ritual purposes, and consequently worthy of no serious attention. The Matantara, or variorm text of the pujarīs of the present day, displays an infinite variety of formulæ*, illustrated by corresponding sculptural and pictorial devices, embodied in those works, and transferred from them to the walls and interior of temples existing all over the valley of Nepal.

[To be continued.]


[The fossil here described is of such importance that we make no apology for reprinting the following article entire from the forthcoming volume of the Physical Researches of the Society, having prepared the engraving of the head, so as to serve both editions: it should be remarked, in regard to the engraving, that the figure of the palate and teeth is on rather a larger scale than the rest.—Ed.]

The fossil which we are about to describe forms a new accession to extinct Zoology. This circumstance alone would give much interest to it. But in addition, the large size, surpassing the rhinoceros; the family of Mammalia to which it belongs; and the forms of structure which it exhibits; render the Sivatherium one of the most remarkable of the past tenants of the globe, that have hitherto been detected in the more recent strata.

Of the numerous fossil mammiferous genera discovered and established by Cuvier, all were confined to the Pachydermata. The species belonging to other families have all their living representatives on the earth. Among the Ruminantia, no remarkable deviation from existing types has hitherto been discovered, the fossil being closely allied to living species. The isolated position, however, of the Giraffe and the Camelidae, made it probable, that certain genera had become extinct, which formed the connecting links between those and the other genera of the family, and further between the Ruminantia and the Pachydermata. In the Sivatherium† we have a ruminant of this description connecting the family with

* See the classified enumeration of the principal objects of Buddha worship appended to this paper. Appendix B.

† We have named the fossil, Sivatherium, from Síva, the Hindú god, and ṇapov belua. The Sívalik or Sub-Himalayan range of hills, is considered in the Hindu mythology, as the Lótiáh or edge of the roof of Síva’s dwelling in the Himalaya, and hence they are called the Síva-ala or Śib-ala, which by an easy transition of sound became the Sêwdilik of the English. The fossil has been discovered in a tract which may be included in the Sêwdilik range, and we have given the name of Sivatherium to it, to commemorate this remarkable formation so rich in new animals. Another derivation of the name of the hills, as explained by the Mahant or High Priest at Dehra, is as follows:

Sêwdilik a corruption of Síva-ala, a name given to the tract of mountains between the Jumna and Ganges, from having been the residence of Iswara Síva and his son Ganeś, who under the form of an Elephant had charge of the Westerly portion from the village of Dêdhí to the Jumna, which portion is also called Gangagja, gaja being in Hindú an Elephant. That portion Eastward from Dêdhí, or between that village and Haridévar, is called Dosthar, from its being the especial residence of Dost or Iswara Síva: the whole tract however between the Jumna and Ganges is called Síva-ala, or the habitation of Síva: unde der. Sêwdilik.
the Pachydermata, and at the same time so marked by individual peculiarities as to be without an analogue in its order.

The fossil remain of the Sivatherium, from which our description is taken, is a remarkably perfect head. When discovered, it was fortunately so completely enveloped by a mass of stone, that although it had long been exposed to be acted upon as a boulder in a water-course, all the more important parts of structure had been preserved. The block might have been passed over, but for an edging of the teeth in relief from it, which gave promise of something additional concealed. After much labour, the hard crystalline covering of stone was so successfully removed, that the huge head now stands out with a couple of horns between the orbits, broken only near their tips, and the nasal bones projected in a free arch, high above the chaffron. All the molars on both sides of the jaw are present and singularly perfect. The only mutilation is at the vertex of the cranium, where the plane of the occipital meets that of the brow: and at the muzzle, which is truncated a little way in front of the first molar. The only parts which are still concealed, are a portion of the occipital, the zygomatic fossae on both sides, and the base of the cranium over the sphenoid bone.

The form of the head is so singular and grotesque, that the first glance at it strikes one with surprise. The prominent features are—1st, the great size, approaching that of the elephant: 2d, the immense development and width of the cranium behind the orbits: 3d, the two divergent osseous cores for horns starting out from the brow between the orbits: 4th, the form and direction of the nasal bones, rising with great prominence out of the chaffron, and overhanging the external nostrils in a pointed arch: 5th, the great massiveness, width and shortness of the face forward from the orbits: 6th, the great angle at which the grinding plane of the molars deviates upwards from that of the base of the skull.

Viewed in lateral profile, the form and direction of the horns, and the rise and sweep in the bones of the nose, give a character to the head widely differing from that of any other animal. The nose looks something like that of the rhinoceros; but the resemblance is deceptive, and only owing to the muzzle being truncated. Seen from in front, the head is somewhat wedge-shaped, the greatest width being at the vertex and thence gradually compressed towards the muzzle; with contraction only at two points behind the orbits and under the molars. The zygomatic arches are almost concealed, and nowise prominent: the brow is broad, and flat, and swelling laterally into two convexities; the orbits are wide apart, and have the appearance of being thrown far forward, from the great production of the frontal upwards. There are no crest or ridges: the surface of the cranium is smooth, the lines are in curves, with no angularity. From the vertex to the root of the nose, the plane of the brow is in a straight line, with a slight rise between the horns. The accompanying drawings will at once give a better idea of the form than any description.

Now in detail of individual parts; and to commence with the most important and characteristic, the teeth:

There are six molars on either side of the upper jaw. The third of the series, or last milk molar, has given place to the corresponding permanent tooth, the denition of which and of the last molar is well advanced, and indicates the animal to have been more than adult.

The teeth are in every respect those of a ruminant, with some slight individual peculiarities.

The three posterior or double molars are composed of two portions or semi-cylinders, each of which incloses, when partially worn down, a double crescent of enamel, the convexity of which is turned inwards. The last molar, as is normal in ruminants, has no additional complication, like that
in the corresponding tooth of the lower jaw. The plane of grinding slopes from the outer margin inwards. The general form is exactly that of an ox or camel, on a large scale. The ridges of enamel are unequally in relief, and the hollows between them unequally scooped. Each semicylinder has its outer surface, in horizontal section, formed of three salient knuckles, with two intermediate sinuses; and its inner surface, of a simple arch or curve. But there are certain peculiarities by which the teeth differ from those of other ruminants.

In correspondence with the shortness of jaw, the width of the teeth is much greater in proportion to the length than is usual in the family: the width of the third and fourth molars being to the length as 2.24 and 2.2 to 1.55 and 1.68 inches, respectively: and the average width of the whole series being to the length as 2.13 to 1.76 inches. Their form is less prismatic: the base of the shaft swelling out into a bulge or collar, from which the inner surface slopes outward as it rises: so that the coronal becomes somewhat contracted: in the third molar, the width at the coronal is 1.93, at the bulge of the shaft 2.24. The ridges and hollows on the outer surface descend less upon the shaft, and disappear upon the bulge. There are no necessary pillars on the furrow of junction at the inner side. The crescentic plates of enamel have a character which distinguishes them from all known ruminants: the inner crescent, instead of sweeping in a nearly simple curve, runs zigzag-wise in large sinus flexures, somewhat resembling the form in the Elasmotherium.

The three double molars differ from each other only in their relative states of wearing. The antepenultimate, being most worn, has the crescentic plates less curved, more approximate and less distinct: the penultimate and last molars are less worn, and have the markings more distinct.

The three anterior or simple molars have the usual form, which holds in Ruminantia, a single semi-cylinder, with but one pair of crescents. The first one is much worn and partly mutilated: the second is more entire, having been a shorter time in use, and finely exhibits the flexuous curves in the sweep of the enamel of the inner crescent: the last one has the simple form of the permanent tooth, which replaces the last milk molar: it also shews the wavy form of the enamel.

Regarding the position of the teeth in the jaw; the last four molars, viz. the three permanent and the last of replacement, run in a straight line, and on the opposite sides are parallel and equi-distant: the two anterior ones are suddenly directed inwards, so as to be a good deal approximated. If the two first molars were not thus inflected, the opposite lines of teeth would form exactly two sides of a square: the length of the line of teeth, and the intervals between the outer surfaces of the four last molars, being almost equal, viz. 9.8 and 9.9 inches respectively.

The plane of detrition of the whole series of molars from rear to front is not horizontal, but in a slight curve, and directed upwards at a considerable angle with the base of the skull: so that when the head is placed, so as to rest upon the occipital condyles and the last molars, a plane through these points is cut by a chord along the curve of detrition of the whole series of molars at an angle of about 45°. This is one of the marked characters about the head:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teeth</th>
<th>Length, Inches</th>
<th>Breadth, Inches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Last molar right side</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penultimate do.</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antepenultimate do.</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last simple molar</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second do.</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interval between the surfaces of last molar, .......... 9.9 5.5
  Do. do. do. third molar, ............... 9.6 5.5
  Do. do. do. second do. ............... 8.4 4.5
  Do. do. do. first do. ............... 6.4 3.2

Space occupied by the line of molars 9.8 inches.

Bones of the Head and Face.—From the age of the animal to which the
head had belonged, the bones had become anchored at their commis-
sures, so that every trace of suture has disappeared, and their limits and
connections are not distinguishable.

The frontal is broad and flat, and slightly concave at its upper half. It
expands laterally into two considerable swellings at the vertex, and
sweps down to join the temporals in an ample curve; and with no angu-
larity. It becomes narrower forwards, to behind the orbits; and then
expands again in sending off an apophysis to join with the malar bone,
and complete the posterior circuit of the orbit. The width of the bone
where narrowest, behind the orbit, is very great, being 16.2 inches. Partly
between and partly to the rear of the orbits, there arise by a broad base,
passing insensibly into the frontal, two short thick conical processes. They
taper rapidly to a point, a little way below which they are mutilated in
the fossil. They start so erect from the brow, that their axis is perpen-
dicular to their basement; and they diverge at a considerable angle. From
their base upwards they are free from any rugosities, their surface being
smooth and even. They are evidently the osseous cores of two intra-
orbital horns. From their position and size they form one of the most
remarkable features in the head. The connections of the frontal are no-
where distinguishable, no mark of a suture remaining. At the upper end
of the bone the skull is fractured, and the structure of the bone is exposed.
The internal and outer plates are seen to be widely separated, and the
interval to be occupied by large shells, formed by an expansion of the diplo-
eto plates, as in the elephant. The interval exceeds 2½ inches in the
occipital. On the left side of the frontal, the swelling at the vertex, has its
upper lamina of bone removed, and the cast of the cells exhibits a surface
of almond-shaped or oblong eminences, with smooth hollows between.

The temporal is greatly concealed by a quantity of the stony matrix,
which has not been removed from the temporal fossa. No trace of the
squamous suture remains to mark its limits and connection with the fron-
tal. The inferior processes of the bone about the auditory foramen have
been destroyed, or are concealed by stone. The zygomatic process is long,
and runs forward to join the corresponding apophysis of the jugal bone,
with little prominence or convexity. A line produced along it would pass
in front, through the tuberosities of the maxillaries, and to the rear along
the upper margin of the occipital condyles. The process is stout and
thick. The temporal fossa is very long, and rather shallow. It does not
rise up high on the side of the cranium: it is overarched by the cylinder-
like sides of the frontal bone. The position and form of the articulating
surface with the lower jaw are concealed by stone which has not been
removed.

There is nothing in the fossil to enable us to determine the form and
limits of the parietal bones; the cranium being chiefly mutilated in
the region which they occupy. But they appear to have had the same
form and character as in the ox; to have been intimately united with the
occipitals, and to have joined with the frontal at the upper angle
of the skull.

The form and characters of the occipital are very marked. It occu-
pies a large space, having width proportioned to that of the frontal, and
considerable height. It is expanded laterally into two aks, which com-
mence at the upper margin of the foramen magnum, and proceed upwards and outwards. These also are smooth, and are hollowed out downwards and outwards from near the condyles towards the mastoid region of the temporal. Their inner or axine margins proceed in a ridge arising from the border of the occipital foramen, diverging from each other nearly at right angles, and enclose a large triangular fossa into which they descend abruptly. This fossa is chiefly occupied by stone in the fossil, but it does not appear shallow, and seems a modification of the same structure as in the elephant. There is no appearance of an occipital crest or protuberance. The bone is mutilated at the sides towards the junction with the temporals. Both here and at its upper fractured margin its structure is seen to be formed of large cells with the diploe expanded into plates, and the outer and inner lamellae wide apart. This character is very marked at its upper margin, where its cells appear to join on with those of the frontal. The condyles are very large, and fortunately very perfect in the fossil; the longest diameter of each is 4.4 inches, and the distance measured across the foramen magnum, from their outer angles, is 7.4 inches: dimensions exceeding those of the elephant. Their form is exactly as in the Ruminantia, viz. their outer surface composed of two convexities meeting at a rounded angle: one in the line of the long axis, stretching obliquely backwards from the anterior border of the foramen magnum; on the other forwards and upwards from the posterior margin, their line of commissure being in the direction of the transverse diameter of the foramen. The latter is also of large size, its antero-posterior diameter being 2.3 inches, and the transverse diameter 2.6 inches. The large dimensions of the foramen and condyles must entail a corresponding development in the vertebræ, and modify the form of the neck and anterior extremities.

The sphenoidal bone, and all the parts along the base of the skull from the occipital foramen to the palate, are either removed, or so concealed by stone, as to give no characters for description.

The part of the brow from which the nasal bones commence is not distinguishable. The suture connecting them with the frontal is completely obliterated: and it is not seen whether they run up into a sinus in that bone, or how they join on with it. Between the horns there is a rise in the brow, which sinks again a little forward. A short way in advance of a line connecting the anterior angles of the orbits, there is another rise in the brow. From this point, which may be considered their base, the nasal bones commence ascending from the plane of the brow, at a considerable angle. They are broad and well arched at their base, and proceed forward with a convex outline, getting rapidly narrower, to terminate in a point curved downwards, which overhangs the external nostrils. For a considerable part of their length they are joined to the maxillaries: but forwards from the point where they commence narrowing, their lower edge is free and separated from the maxillaries by a wide sinus: so that viewed in lateral profile their form very much resembles the upper mandible of a hawk, detached from the lower. Unluckily in the fossil, the anterior margins of the maxillaries are mutilated, so that the exact length of the nasal bone that was free from connection with them cannot be determined. As the fossil stands, about four inches of the lower edge of the nasals, measured along the curve, are free. The same mutilation prevents its being seen how near the incisives approached the nasals, with which they do not appear to have been joined. This point is one of great importance, from the structure it implies in the soft parts about the nose. The height and form of the nasal bones, are the most remarkable feature in the head: viewed from above they are seen to taper rapidly from a broad base to a sharp point; and the vertical height of their most convex part above the brow at their base, is 3½ inches.
The form of the maxillaries is strongly marked in two respects: 1st, their shortness compared with their great width and depth: 2nd, in the upward direction of the line of alveoli from the last molar forwards, giving the appearance (with the licence of language intended to convey an idea of resemblance without implying more) as if the face had been pushed upwards to correspond with the rise in the nasals; or fixed on at an angle with the base of the cranium. The tendency to shortness of the jaw was observed in the dimensions of the teeth, the molars being compressed, and their width exceeding their length to an extent not usual in the Ruminantia. The width apart, between the maxillaries, was noticed before; the interval, between the outer surfaces of the alveoli, equalling the space in length occupied by the line of molars. The cheek tuberosities are very large and prominent, their diameter at the base being 2 inches, and the width of the jaw over them being 12.2 inches, whereas at the alveoli it is but 9.8 inches. They are situated over the third and fourth molars; and proceeding up from them towards the malar, there is an indistinct ridge on the bone. The infra-orbital foramen is of large size, its vertical diameter being 1.2 inch; it is placed over the first molar, as in the ox and deer tribe. The muzzle portion of the bone is broken off at about 2.8 inches from the 1st molar, from the alveolar margin of which, to the surface of the diastema, there is an abrupt sink of 1.7 inch. The muzzle is here contracted to 5.8 inches, and forwards at the truncated part to about 4.1. The palatine arch is convex from rear to front, and concave across. No trace of the palatine foramina remains, nor of the suture with the proper palatine bones. The spheno-palatine apophyses and all back to the foramen magnum* are either removed or concealed in stone. In front, the mutilation of the bone, at the muzzle, does not allow it to be seen, how the incisive bones were connected with the maxillaries: but it appears that they did not reach so high on the maxillaries as the union of the latter with the nasals. The same cause has rendered obscure the connexions of the maxillaries with the nasals, and the depth and size of the nasal echancrure or sinus.

The jugal bone is deep, massive and rather prominent. Its lower border falls off abruptly in a hollow descending on the maxillaries: the upper enters largely into the formation of the orbit. The posterior orbital process unites with a corresponding apophysis of the frontal, to complete the circuit of the orbit behind. The zygomatic apophysis is stout and thick, and rather flat. No part of the arch, either in the temporal or jugal portions, is prominent: the interval between the most salient points being greatly less than the hind part of the cranium, and slightly less than the width between the bodies of the jugals.

The extent and form of the lachrymals, cannot be made out, as there is no trace of a suture remaining. Upon the fossil, the surface of the lachrymary region passes smoothly into that of the adjoining bones. There is no perforation of the lower and anterior margin of the orbit by lachrymary foramina, nor any hollow below it indicating an infra-orbital or lachrymary sinus. It may be also added, what was omitted before, that there is no trace of a superciliary foramen upon the frontal.

The orbits are placed far forwards, in consequence of the great production of the cranium upwards, and the shortness of the bones of the face. Their position is also rather low, their centre being about 3.6 inches below the plane of the brow. From a little injury done in chiseling off the stone, the form or circle of the different orbits does not exactly correspond. In the one of the left side, which is the more perfect, the long

* With the exception of a portion of the basilary region, which resembles that of the Ruminants.
axis makes a small angle with that of the plane of the brow: the antero-posterior diameter is 3.3 inches, and the vertical 2.7 inches. There is no prominence or inequality in the rim of the orbits, as in the Ruminantia. The plane of the rim is very oblique: the interval between the upper or frontal margins of the two orbits being 12.2 inches, and that of the lower or molar margin 16.2 inches.

* Dimensions of the Skull of the Sivatherium Giganteum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From the anterior margin of the foramen magnum to the alveolus of 1st molar,</td>
<td>18.95 .478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From do. to the truncated extremity of the muzzle,</td>
<td>20.6 .5263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From do. to the posterior margin of the last molar,</td>
<td>10.3 .262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the tip of the nasals to the upper fractured margin of the cranium,</td>
<td>18.0 .4568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From do. to do. along the curve,</td>
<td>19.0 .482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From do. do. along the curve, to where the nasal arch begins to rise from the brow,</td>
<td>7.8 .198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the latter point to the fractured margin of the cranium,</td>
<td>11.2 .294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the tip of the nasals to a chord across the tips of the horns,</td>
<td>8.8 .216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the anterior angle, right orbit, to the first molar,</td>
<td>9.0 .251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From the posterior do. do. to the fractured margin of the cranium,</td>
<td>12.1 .3075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Width of cranium at the vertex (mutilation at left side restored), about</td>
<td>22.0 .559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. between the orbits, upper borders,</td>
<td>12.2 .3095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. lower borders,</td>
<td>16.2 .4103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. behind the orbits at the contraction of the frontal,</td>
<td>14.6 .3705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. between the middle of the zygomatic arches,</td>
<td>16.4 .4169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. between the bodies of the malar bones,</td>
<td>16.62 .432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. base of the skull behind the mastoid processes (mutilated on both sides),</td>
<td>19.5 .496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. between the cheek tuberosities of the maxillaries,</td>
<td>12.2 .3995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. of muzzle portion of the maxillaries in front of the first molar,</td>
<td>5.8 .149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. of do. where truncated (partly restored),</td>
<td>4.1 .104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. between the outer surfaces of the horns at their base,</td>
<td>12.5 .312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. . . . do. . . . fractured tips of ditto,</td>
<td>13.65 .347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpendicular from a chord across tips of do. to the brow,</td>
<td>4.2 .165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth from the convexity of the occipital condyles to middle of frontal behind the horns,</td>
<td>11.9 .302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from the body of the sphenoidal to do. between the horns,</td>
<td>9.94 .232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from middle of the palate between the 3rd and 4th molars do. at root of the nasals,</td>
<td>7.52 .192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from posterior surface last molar to extremity of the nasals,</td>
<td>13.0 .331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from grinding surface penultimate molar to root of the nasals,</td>
<td>10.3 .262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from the convexity near the tip of the nasals to the palatine surface in front of the first molar,</td>
<td>5.53 .14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth from middle of the alæ of the occipital to the swell at vertex of frontal,</td>
<td>8.98 .228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from inferior margin of the orbit to grinding surface 5th molar,</td>
<td>7.3 .186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. from the grinding surface 1st molar to edge of the palate in front of it,</td>
<td>2.6 .906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space from the anterior angle of orbit to tip of the nasals,</td>
<td>10.2 .2995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antero-posterior diameter left orbit,</td>
<td>3.3 .084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vertical do. do.</td>
<td>2.7 .0883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antero-posterior diameter of the foramen magnum,</td>
<td>2.3 .058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transverse do. do.</td>
<td>2.6 .066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long diameter of each condyle,</td>
<td>4.4 .112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short or transverse do. of do.</td>
<td>2.4 .0603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interval between the external angles of do. measured across the foramen,</td>
<td>7.4 .188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among a quantity of bones collected in the neighbourhood of the spot in which the skull was found, there is a fragment of the lower jaw of a very large ruminant, which we have no doubt belonged to the Sivatherium:

* To facilitate comparison with the large animals described in Cuvier's Ossemen Fossiles, the dimensions are also given in French measure.
and it is even not improbable that it came from the same individual with the head described. It consists of the hind portion of the right jaw, broken off at the anterior third of the last molar. The coronoid apophysis, the condyle, with the corresponding part of the ramus, and a portion of the angle are also removed. The two posterior thirds only, of the last molar remain; the grinding surface partly mutilated, but sufficiently distinct to show the crescentic plates of enamel, and prove that the tooth belonged to a ruminant. The outline of the jaw in vertical section, is a compressed ellipse, and the outer surface more convex than the inner. The bone thins off, on the inner side towards the angle of the jaw, into a large and well marked muscular hollow: and running up from the latter, upon the ramus towards the foramen of the artery, there is a well defined furrow, as in the Ruminantia. The surface of the tooth is covered with very small rugosities, and striæ, as in the upper molars of the head. It had been composed of three semi-cylinders, as is normal in the family, and the advanced state of its wearing proves the animal from which it proceeded to have been more than adult.

The form and relative proportions of the jaw agree very closely with those of the corresponding parts of a buffalo. The dimensions compared with those of the buffalo and camel are thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sivatherium</th>
<th>Buffalo</th>
<th>Camel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Depth of jaw from the alveolus last molar,....</td>
<td>4.95 inch</td>
<td>2.65 inch</td>
<td>2.70 inch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest thickness of do.</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Width of middle of last molar,</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of posterior third of do.</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No known ruminant, fossil or existing, has a jaw of such large size; the average dimensions above given being more than double those of a Buffalo, which measured in length of head 19.2 inches (.489 mètres); and exceeding those of the corresponding parts of the rhinoceros. We have therefore no hesitation in referring the fragment to the Sivatherium Giganteum.

The above comprises all that we know regarding the osteology of the head from an actual examination of the parts. We have not been so fortunate hitherto, as to meet with any other remain, comprising the anterior part of the muzzle either of the upper or lower jaw*. We shall now proceed to deduce the form of the deficient parts, and the structure of the head generally, to the extent that may be legitimately inferred, from the data of which we are in possession.

Notwithstanding the singularly perfect condition of the head, for an organic remain of such enormous size, we cannot but regret the mutilation at the muzzle and vertex, as it throws a doubt upon some very interesting points of structure in the Sivatherium: 1st, the presence or absence of incisive and canine teeth in the upper jaw, and their number and character if present; 2nd, the number and extent of the bones which enter into the basis of the external nostrils; and 3rd, the presence or absence of two horns on the vertex, besides the two intra-orbital ones.

* In a note received from Captain Cauley while this paper is in the press, that gentleman mentions the discovery of a portion of the skeleton of a Sivatherium in another part of the hills: See Journal As. Soc. Vol. IV. "During my recent trip to the Siwaliks near the Pinjor valley, the field of Messrs. Baker and Durand’s labours, I regretted much my inability to obtain the dimensions of one of the most superb fossils I suppose that ever was found. It was unfortunately discovered and excavated by a party of work people employed by a gentleman with whom I was acquainted; and although I saw the fossil when in the rock, I was prevented from getting the measurements afterwards. This specimen appeared to consist of the femur and tibia, with the tarsal, metatarsal, and phalanges of our Sivatherium." It is much to be regretted that such an opportunity should have been lost of adding to the information already acquired of this new and gigantic Ruminant.—Sec.
Description of the Sivatherium,

Regarding the first point, we have nothing sufficient to guide us with certainty to a conclusion, as there are ruminants both with and without incisives and canines in the upper jaw; and the Sivatherium differs most materially in structure from both sections. But there are two conditions of analogy which render it probable that there were no incisives. 1. In all ruminants which have the molars in a contiguous and normal series, and which have horns on the brow, there are no incisive teeth. In the camel and its congeners, where the anterior molars is unsymmetrical and separated from the rest of the series by an interval, incisives are present in the upper jaw. The Sivatherium had horns, and its molars were in a contiguous series; it is therefore probable that it had no incisives. Regarding the canines there is no clue to a conjecture, as there are species in the same genus of ruminants both with and without them. 2. The extent and connections of the incisive bones are points of great interest, from the kind of development which they imply in the soft parts appended to them.

In most of the horned ruminantia, the incisives run up by a narrow apophysis along the anterior margins of the maxillary bones, and join on to a portion of the sides of the nasals; so that the bony basis of the external nostrils is formed of but two pairs of bones, the nasals and the incisives. In the camel, the apophyses of the incisives terminate upon the maxillaries without reaching the nasals, and there are three pairs of bones to the external nostrils, the nasals, maxillaries and incisives. But neither in the horned ruminants, nor in the camel and its congeners, do the bones of the nose rise out of the plane of the brow with any remarkable degree of saliency, nor are their lower margins free to any great extent towards the apex. They are long slips of bone, with nearly parallel edges, running between the upper borders of the maxillaries, and joined to the ascending process of the incisive bone, near their extremity, or connected only with the maxillaries; but in neither case projecting so as to form any considerable re-entering angle, or sinus, with these bones.

In our fossil, the form and connections of the nasal bones, are very different. Instead of running forward in the same plane with the brow, they rise from it at a rounded angle of about 130°, an amount of saliency without example among ruminants, and exceeding what holds in the rhinoceros, tapir, and palæotherium, the only herbivorous animals with this sort of structure. Instead of being in nearly parallel slips, they are broad and well arched at their base, and converge rapidly to a sharp tip, which is hooked downwards, over-arching the external nostrils. Along a considerable portion of their length they are unconnected with the adjoining bones, their lower margins being free and so wide apart from the maxillaries, as to leave a gap or sinus of considerable length and depth in the bony parietes of the nostrils. The exact extent to which they are free, is unlucky not shown in the fossil, as the anterior margin of the maxillaries is mutilated on both sides, and the connection with the incisives destroyed. But as the nasal bones shoot forward beyond the mutilated edge of the maxillaries, this circumstance, together with their well defined outline and symmetry on both sides of the fossil, and their rapid convergence to a point with some convexity, leaves not a doubt that they were free to a great extent and unconnected with the incisives.

Now to determine the conditions in the fleshy parts, which the structure in the bony parietes of the nostrils entails.

The analogies are to be sought for in the ruminantia and pachydermata. The remarkable saliency of the bones of the nose, in the Sivatherium, has no parallel, in known ruminants, to guide us; and the connection of the nasals with the incisives, or the reverse, does not imply any important difference in structure in the family. In the Bovine section, the Ox and the Buffalo have the nasals and incisives connected: whereas they are
separate in the Yak* and Aurochs. In the Camel, they are also separate, and this animal has greater mobility in the upper lip than is found in other ruminants.

In the Pachydermata, both these conditions of structure are present and wanting in different genera; and their presence or absence is accompanied with very important differences in the form of the corresponding soft parts. It is therefore in this family that we are to look for an explanation of what is found in the Sivatherium.

In the Elephant and Mastodon, the Tapir, Rhinoceros, and Palæotherium, there are three pairs of bones to the external nostrils; the nasals, the maxillaries, and incisives†. In all these animals, the upper lip is highly developed, so as to be prehensile, as in the Rhinoceros, or extended into a trunk, as in the Elephant and Tapir; the amount of development being accompanied with corresponding difference in the position and form of the nasal bones. In the Rhinoceros, they are long and thick, extending to the point of the muzzle, and of great strength to support the horns of the animal; and the upper lip is broad, thick, and very mobile, but little elongated. In the Elephant, they are very short, and the incisives enormously developed for the insertion of the tusks, and the trunk is of great length. In the Tapir, they are short and free, except at the base, and projected high above the maxillaries; and the structure is accompanied by a well developed trunk. In the other Pachydermatous genera, there are but two pairs of bones to the external nostrils, the nasals and the incisives: the latter running up so as to join on with the former; and the nasals, instead of being short and salient, with a sinus laterally between them and the maxillaries, are long, and run forward, united to the maxillaries, more or less resembling the nearly parallel slips of the Ruminantia. Of this genera, the Horse has the upper lip endowed with considerable mobility; and the lower end of the nasals is at the same time free to a small extent. In all the other genera, there is nothing resembling a prehensile organ in the upper lip.

In the Sivatherium, the same kind of structure holds, as is found in the Pachydermata with trunks. Of these it most nearly resembles the Tapir. It differs chiefly in the bones of the nose being larger and more salient from the Chaffron; and in there being less width and depth to the naso-maxillary sinus, than the Tapir exhibits. But as the essential points of structure are alike in both, there is no doubt that the Sivatherium was invested with a trunk like the Tapir.

This conclusion is further borne out by other analogies, although more indirect than that afforded by the nasal bones.

1st.—The large size of the infra-orbital foramen. In the fossil, the exact dimensions are indistinct, from the margin having been injured in the chiseling off of the matrix of stone: the vertical diameter we make out to be 1.2 inch, which perhaps may be somewhat greater than the truth; but any thing approaching this size, would indicate a large nerve for transmission, and a highly developed condition of the upper lip.

2nd.—The external plate of the bones of the cranium is widely separated from the inner, by an expansion of the diploe in vertical plates, forming large cells, as in the cranium of the Elephant; and the occipital is expanded laterally into alæ, with a considerale hollow between, as in the Elephant. Both these conditions are modifications of structure, adapted for supplying an extensive surface for muscular attachment, and imply a thick fleshy neck, with limited range of motion; and, in more remote sequence, go to prove the necessity of a trunk.

† Cuvier. Ossemens Fossiles, tome iii. p. 29.
3rd.—The very large size of the occipital condyles, which are greater both in proportion, and in actual measurement, than those of the Elephant, the interval between their outer angles, taken across the occipital foramen, being 7.6 inches. The atlas, and the rest of the series of cervical vertebrae, must have been of proportionate diameter to receive and sustain the condyles, and surrounded by a large mass of flesh. Both these circumstances would tend greatly to limit the range of motion of the head and neck. But to suit the herbivorous habits of the animal, it must have had some other mode of reaching its food; or the vertebrae must have been elongated in a ratio to their diameter, sufficient to admit of free motion to the neck. In the latter case, the neck must have been of great length, and to support it and the load of muscles about it, an immense development would be required in the spinal apophysis of the dorsal vertebrae, and in the whole anterior extremity, with an unwieldy form of the body generally. It is therefore more probable that the vertebrae were condensed, as in the Elephant, and the neck short and thick, admitting of limited motion to the head: circumstances indirectly corroborating the existence of a trunk.

4th.—The face is short, broad, and massive, to an extent not found in the Ruminantia, and somewhat resembling that of the Elephant, and suitable for the attachment of a trunk.

Next with regard to the horns:—

There can be no doubt, that the two thick, short, and conical processes between the orbits, were the cores of horns, resembling those of the Bovine and Antilopine sections of the Ruminantia. They are smooth, and run evenly into the brow without any burl. The horny sheaths which they bore, must have been straight, thick, and not much elongated. None of the bicorned Ruminantia have horns placed in the same way, exactly between and over the orbits: they have them more or less to the rear.

The only ruminant which has horns similar in position is the four-horned Antelope* of Hindustán, which differs only in having its anterior pair of horns a little more in advance of the orbits, than occurs in the Sivatherium. The correspondence of the two at once suggest the question, "had the Sivatherium also two additional horns on the vertex?" The cranium in the fossil is mutilated across at the vertex, so as to deprive us of direct evidence on the point, but the following reasons render the supposition at least probable:

1st.—As above stated, in the bi-cavicorned Ruminantia, the osseous cores are placed more or less to the rear of the orbits.

2nd.—In such known species as have four horns, the supplementary pair is between the orbits, and the normal pair well back upon the frontal.

3rd.—In the Bovine section of Ruminantia, the frontal is contracted behind the orbits, and upwards from the contraction, it is expanded again into two swellings, at the lateral angles of the vertex, which run into the bases of the osseous cores of the horns. This conformation does not exist in such of the Ruminantia as want horns, or as have them approximated on the brow. It is present in the Sivatherium.

On either supposition, the intra-orbital horns are a remarkable feature in the fossil: and if they were a solitary pair on the head, the structure, from their position, would perhaps be more singular; than if there had been two additional horns behind.

Now to estimate the length of the deficient portion of the muzzle, and the entire length of the head:—

In most of the Ruminantia, where the molars are in a contiguous uninterupted series, the interval from the first molar to the anterior border of the incisive bones is nearly equal to the space occupied by the molars; in some greater, in some a little less, and generally the latter. In other

* The Tetracerus or Antelope Quadricornis and Chekara of authors.
Sivatherium

on a scale of one-seventh

Etched by Jas. Rhinesep. from drawings by Capt. Coultley.
GIGANTEUM.

of the original.
Ruminantia, such as the Camelidae, where the anterior molars are insymmetrical with the others, and separated from them by being placed in the middle of the diasteme, this ratio does not hold; the space from the first molar to the margin of the incisives being less than the line of molars. In the Sivatherium, the molars are in a contiguous series, and if on this analogy we deduce the length of the muzzle, we get nearly 10 inches for the space from the first molar to the point of the incisives; and 28.85 inches for the whole length of the head, from the border of the occipital foramen to the margin of the incisives; these dimensions may be a little excessive, but we believe them not to be far out, as the muzzle would still be short for the width of the face, in a ruminant.

The orbits next come to be considered. The size and position of the eye form a distinguishing feature between the Ruminantia and the Pachydermata. In the former, it is large and full, in the latter, smaller and sunk; and the expression of the face is more heavy in consequence. In the Sivatherium the orbit is considerably smaller in proportion to the size of the head than in existing ruminants. It is also placed more forward in the face, and lower under the level of the brow. The rim is not raised and prominent, as in the Ruminantia, and the plane of it is oblique: the interval between the orbits at their upper margin being 12.2 inches, and at the lower, 16.2 inches. The longitudinal diameter exceeds the vertical in the ratio of 5 to 4 nearly, the long axis being nearly in a line from the nasomaxillary sinus across the hind limb of the zygomatic circle. From the above we infer that the eye was smaller and less prominent than in existing ruminants; and that the expression of the face was heavier and more ignoble, although less so than in the Pachydermata, excepting the horse; also that the direction of vision was considerably forwards, as well as lateral, and that it was cut off towards the rear.

This closes what we have been led to infer regarding the organs of the head. With respect to the rest of the skeleton, we have nothing to offer, as we are not at present possessed of any other remains which we can with certainty refer to the Sivatherium*. Among a quantity of bones† collected from the same neighbourhood with the head fossil, there are three singularly perfect specimens of the lower portions of the extremities of a large ruminant, belonging to three legs of one individual. They greatly exceed the size of any known ruminant, and excepting the Sivatherium Giganteum, there is no other ascertained animal of the order, in our collection, of proportionate size to them. We forbear from further noticing them at present, as they appear small in comparison for our fossil: and besides, there are indications in our collection, in teeth and other remains, of other large ruminants, different from the one we have described.

The form of the vertebrae, and more especially of the carpi and tarsi, are points of great interest, to be ascertained; as we may expect modifications of the usual type adapted to the large size of the animal. From its bulk and armed head, few animals could be strong enough to contend with it, and we may expect that its extremities were constructed more to give support, than for rapidity of motion. But, in the rich harvest which we still hope to reap in the valleys of the Markanda, it is probable that specimens to illustrate the greater part of the osteology of the Sivatherium will at no very distant period be found.

* See Note to page 17.—Sec.
† We note here a very perfect cervical vertebra of a Ruminant in our possession, which must have belonged to an animal of proportions equal to that of the Sivatherium, but from certain characters, we are inclined to suspect that it is allied to some other gigantic species of Ruminant, of the existence of which we have already tolerable certainty. Of the existence of the Elk, and a species of Camelidae, Lieut. Baker of the Engineers has shewn us ample proof.
The structure of the teeth suggests an idea regarding the peculiarities of the herbivorous habits of the animal. In the description it was noticed that the inner central plate of enamel ran in a flexuous sweep, somewhat resembling what is seen in the Elasmotherium, an arrangement evidently intended to increase the grinding power of the teeth. It may hence be inferred, that the food of the Sivatherium was less herbaceous than that of existing horned ruminants, and derived from leaves and twigs: or that as in the horse, the food was more completely masticated, the digestive organs less complicated, the body less bulky, and the necessity of regurgitation from the stomach less marked than in the present Ruminantia.

The following dimensions, contrasted with those of the Elephant and Rhinoceros, will afford a tolerably accurate idea of the size of the Sivatherium. They are characteristic, although not numerous:

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<td>From margin of foramen magnum to the first molar,</td>
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<td>Greatest depth of the skull,</td>
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<td>Long diameter of the foramen magnum,</td>
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If the view which we have taken of the fossil be correct, the Sivatherium was a very remarkable animal, and it fills up an important blank in the interval between the Ruminantia and Pachydermata. That it was a ruminant, the teeth and horns most clearly establish; and the structure which we have inferred of the upper lip, the osteology of the face, and the size and position of the orbit, approximate it to the Pachydermata. The circumstance of any thing approaching a proboscis is so abnormal for a ruminant, that at the first view, it might raise a doubt, regarding the correctness of the ordinal position assigned to the fossil; but when we inquire further, the difficulty ceases.

In the Pachydermata, there are genera with a trunk, and others without a trace of it. This organ is therefore not essential to the constitution of the order, but accidental to the size of the head, or habits of the animal in certain genera. Thus in the Elephant, nature has given a short neck to support the huge head, the enormous tusks and the large grinding apparatus of the animal; and by such an arrangement, the construction of the rest of the frame is saved from the disturbance which a long neck would have entailed. But as the lever of the head became shortened, some other method of reaching its food became necessary; and a trunk was appended to the mouth. We have only to apply analogous conditions to a ruminant, and a trunk is equally required. In fact, the Camel exhibits a rudimentary form of this organ, under different circumstances. The upper lip is cleft; each of the divisions is separately movable and extensible, so as to be an excellent organ of touch.

The fossil was discovered near the Markanda river, in one of the small valleys which stretch between the Kyârda-dün and the valley of Pindor, in the Sîdâlık or sub-Himalayan belt of hills, associated with bones of the fossil Elephant, Mastodon, Rhinoceros, Hippopotamus, &c. So far as our researches yet go, the Sivatherium was not numerous. Compared with the Mastodon and Hippopotamus, (H. Sinâlensis, Nobis, a new species characterized by having six incisors in either jaw;) it was very rare.

Northern Dob, Sept. 15, 1835.
IV.—Horary Observations of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Wet-bulb Thermometer, made at Calcutta on the 21st and 22nd of December, 1835, by Mr. H. Barrow, Astr. and Math. Inst.-maker to the H. C.

[Having ourselves inadvertently omitted the hourly observations appointed by the Meteorological Association at the Cape to be taken on the above day, we are most happy in being able to supply the omission from Mr. Barrow’s register. As the Barometer registered monthly at the Assay office stands .014 higher than Mr. B.’s, that quantity must be added to the Bar. indications at 32° (in col. 7) to produce an accuracy.—Ed.]

The barometer and wet-bulb thermometer were in a large room to the north, the doors and windows of which were open during the whole time. In the reductions* ‘030 has been used as the constant for capillary attraction, and it is only necessary to add that the barometer is of the mountain construction, with a screw at the bottom to bring the surface of the mercury to zero.

(Calcutta mean time.)

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<td></td>
<td>Noon</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>.930</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>.909</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.950</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>.890</td>
<td>9.1</td>
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<td>.039</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>.881</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.977</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>.987</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>.914</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Of column 3, but not of column 7, which is fortunate, as we do not apply any correction for capillarity in our own register.—Ed.
V.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 6th January, 1836.

The Honorable Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair. Sir Charles D'Oyly, Bart.; E. A. Blundell, Esq. and Dr. H. Falconer, proposed at the last meeting were duly elected members.

The meeting then proceeded to the annual election of office-bearers, when by scrutiny of names, the Rev. Dr. Mill, W. H. Macnaghten, Esq. Sir J. P. Grant, and Sir B. Malkin, were chosen Vice-Presidents for the ensuing year; and Messrs. H. T. Prinsep, J. R. Colvin, C. E. Trevelyan, C. H. Cameron, D. Hare, Ram Comul Sen, Captains Forbes and Pemberton, and Dr. Pearson, members of the Committee of Papers.

The Secretary communicated the results of the past year's proceedings. The number of new members added to the list in 1835 had been,

Ordinary members, ........................................... 28
Associate members, ........................................ 4
Honorary members, ........................................ 5

The loss by death, one; by departure to Europe, three; and withdrawal, one; in all, ........................................... 5

The financial operations of the year were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Payments</th>
<th>R. A. P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To House Establishment and contingencies from 1st Nov. 1834, to 30th Nov. 1835,</td>
<td>2,961 8 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Salary of Curator, and Museum contingent, from 1st May to 30th Nov. 1835,</td>
<td>1,473 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Copies of the Journal supplied to members to 31st Dec.,</td>
<td>1,056 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Printing 500 copies of Index,</td>
<td>1,310 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Ditto, 400 ditto, catalogue of Library Asiatic Society,</td>
<td>240 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Binding charges,</td>
<td>489 10 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Building Repairs,</td>
<td>1,175 8 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Purchase of a Cabinet,</td>
<td>100 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Balance in Bank of Bengal,</td>
<td>389 15 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, Sa. Rs.</strong></td>
<td><strong>8,096 14 1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receipts</th>
<th>R. A. P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By Balance of last year's account,</td>
<td>3,101 10 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By Quarterly Collections and admission fees, realized,</td>
<td>5,157 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By two Dividends on the estate of Mackintosh and Co.,</td>
<td>717 12 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By Sale of Researches,</td>
<td>22 7 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, Sa. Rs.</strong></td>
<td><strong>8,096 14 1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subscriptions due (partly irrecoverable), ........................................... 2,435 0 0
Interest of Govt. Paper not drawn, 1,417 11 11

thus leaving an available balance, without encroaching on the capital stock, of about 3,000 rupees to meet the expences of the current year, besides the quarterly subscriptions, which by a resolution of the 6th November will henceforth be collected in Company's rupees.

The separate account of the publication of Oriental works from the date of their transfer from the Committee of Public Instruction was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Payments</th>
<th>R. A. P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To Pundits for correcting press,</td>
<td>130 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Maulavi for ditto,</td>
<td>217 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Binding charges, paper, &amp;c.,</td>
<td>100 10 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Printing prospectus, &amp;c.,</td>
<td>21 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Postage,</td>
<td>38 15 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Freight and Package, &amp;c.,</td>
<td>46 2 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, Sa. Rs.</strong></td>
<td><strong>583 4 5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receipts</th>
<th>R. A. P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By Sale of Sanscrit Books,</td>
<td>90 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By Ditto of Arabic ditto,</td>
<td>584 8 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By Subscriptions not collected, for works delivered to the parties,</td>
<td>7,403 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total, Sa. Rs.</strong></td>
<td><strong>8,077 8 0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
leaving a profit of Sa. Rs. 3,367 2 7 upon the year's operations, to meet the current printing expenses, in addition to the chance of further sale of the works now completed.

The ordinary publications of the Society during the past year, had been confined to the Index of the first 18 volumes of Researches, and a new edition of the Library Catalogue.

On the 6th May, it was resolved to give additional attention to the Society’s museum of Natural History. A Curator and establishment were appointed, and measures were taken to accommodate the museum of antiquities, models, images, &c. in the gallery around the staircase, leaving the lower suite of apartments entirely open for objects of Natural History.

To the gallery also was added the fine collection of pictures, munificently presented by the sons of the late Mr. Home, one of the oldest members of the Society. These alterations and the preparation of Mineral Cabinets had enhanced considerably the year's expenses, but the good effect had amply compensated. To the museum of fossil remains, some splendid additions had been conferred by Colonel Burney, Colonel Colvin, and Mr. Dean, and the collection of recent Osteology and of birds had been properly arranged and classified. A catalogue raisoncée had simultaneously been prepared by the Curator which would hereafter be submitted to the Committee of Papers for publication. In the mean time the strenuous assistance of members and friends of the institution was solicited to render the Society's museum worthy of public attention.

The resolution of the Government to make over the library of the College of Fort William to the "Public Library" lately instituted in Calcutta was coupled with a reservation of all the works exclusively oriental of which it is known that the College possesses a very extensive and valuable collection, comprising the whole library of Tippu Sulta’n. These, it was generally understood, the Government would be willing to transfer to the Asiatic Society should a request be expressed by this body to obtain them. As their possession would necessarily involve an increase of establishment, the Committee of Papers had hitherto hesitated making any application on the subject, but it was evidently desirable that such an opportunity of enriching its collection should be hailed with eager desire by a body devoted to the cultivation and study of Indian literature and history.

Library.

Two books in manuscript and six maps in the Burmese character, together with thirteen sketches and maps in the Assamese character were presented by Colonel G. Cooper, 34th Regt. N. I.

The Indian Journal of Medical Science, No. 25—by the Editors.

The Meteorological Register for Nov., 1835—by the Surveyor General.

On the salutary effects of the Convolvulus Nil upon the human constitution. M. S.—by G. Cooper, Esq. the Author.

A Prospectus of an intended publication "Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum," by M. Eugène Jacquet, Paris, was submitted for the information of members, and intending subscribers.

[Published on the cover of the November number.]

Museum.

One bow, a bird-cage, eleven arrows of sorts, and a specimen of the copper coin in use amongst the Choârs; together with an Assam arrow-head for killing tigers, were presented by G. Cooper, Esq.
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

A bit of petrified tamarind from Triewcurry on the Coromandel Coast, and a vulture, (Vultur Ponticerianus,) and a Mandarin's cap, were presented by Dr. L. Burlini, for T. F. de Cruze, Esq.

A Pavoonye (Acridotheres Malabaricus) was presented by Mr. J. Stephenson.

Read a letter from J. Bell, Esq. forwarding for inspection an animal called "the Slow Lemur" described in the 4th volume of the Asiatic Researches, by the late Sir William Jones, and giving some further particulars of his habits.

Literary.

The Secretary apprized the meeting that he has received from Mr. W. H. Smoult, the box of papers of the late Mr. Moorcroft, which were in possession of the late W. Fraser, Esq. and which he was willing to place at the disposal of the Society, on the conditions expressed by the deceased: viz. that any profit accruing from their publication should go to the benefit of Mr. Moorcroft's relatives in England.

The Society entirely concurring in this view resolved, that they should be immediately forwarded to Professor Wilson in England, to be made use of along with the former manuscripts, on the conditions specified.

A letter from the Vicar Apostolic of Cochin China, was read, requesting the Society to forward the specimen of the Dictionary, which he regretted to hear could not be printed in Calcutta, to the Oriental Translation Fund in England, in case that body should be inclined to patronize its publication.

A letter was read from Captain C. M. Wade, transmitting a second memoir by Mr. Charles Masson, on the ancient coins discovered at Beghrám in the Kohistán, at Jelálábad and Kábúl.

The memoir had been detained in Capt. Wade's possession, since the month of June last, in consequence of some official correspondence with Col. Potterger to whom the coins to which it relates have been finally forwarded for the Bombay Government.

The present memoir adds the names of Diomedes, Palerkos, Alourenes (?) to those already known, and gives some valuable information on the sites of the Alexandria ad calcem Caucasian, &c. It is published at length in the present number.

Wednesday Evening, the 3rd February, 1836.

Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair.

Lieut.-Col. J. Colvin, Engrs., Lieut.-Col. L. R. Stacy, John Neave, Esq. C. S., and Lieut. A. Cunningham, were proposed as Members by Mr. James Prinsep, seconded by Sir Edward Ryan.

Rájah Vijaya Govinda Singha Behadur of Purnea was also proposed by Mr. James Prinsep, seconded by Koomar Radhacant Deb.

Read, a letter from Mr. E. A. Blundell, acknowledging his election as a Member of the Society.

Read the following letter from His Highness Prince Esterhazy, Ambassador of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Austria at the British Court:
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society. 55

"London, August 4, 1835.

"Sir,

"In reply to the letter you addressed to me on the 25th January last, I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the boxes containing each twenty-five copies of a Tibetan Dictionary and Grammar, prepared for publication by the Hungarian Traveller Mr. Alexander Csoma Körösy, and printed at the expense of the British Indian Government, under the auspices of the Asiatic Society.

"These fifty copies being destined by Mr. Körösy to be presented by the different public Institutions of His Imperial Majesty's dominions, I lose no time in assuring you, that the learned Author's intentions shall be faithfully fulfilled.

"The enclosed letters and the Oriental works you have sent to the Antic Councillor von Hammer, have also been forwarded to their destination.

"I have not failed to inform my Government of the liberality with which the Indian Government has replaced the sum of 300 ducats, transmitted through this Embassy to Mr. Csoma de Köröös, which had been lost by the failure of Messrs. Alexander and Co., and anticipating its intentions, I seize with great pleasure this opportunity to express to you, and through your means to the Indian Government, as well as to the Asiatic Society, the high sense I entertain of the kind protection afforded to my learned countryman in His Britannic Majesty's dominions in India. Allow me to offer my sincerest thanks for such generous conduct.

"I have the honor to be, &c.

"ESTERHAZY."

Copy of this letter was directed to be communicated to the Government and to Mr. Csoma Körösy, who left Calcutta a short time since on a tour through Tirhut and to the west of India.

Read a letter from H. Chamier, Esq., Chief Secretary to the Govt. of Fort St. George, directing that the Sixty Copies of 4th, 5th, and 6th volumes of Fatawá Alemgiri, subscribed for by the Madras Govt. should be forwarded, and enclosing remittance for the same.

Also similar letters from the Register of the Sadar Dewani, and the Secretary of the College Council of Fort William.

Library.

Read a letter from F. Marquet, Esq., Secretary to the Société de Physique de Geneve, forwarding vols. 5 and 6 of their Transactions for presentation to the Society, and requesting an interchange of publications.

Read a letter from M. Brousse, Secretary to the Royal Academy of Arts, Sciences, &c. at Bordeaux, acknowledging the receipt of vols. 17 and 18, Asiatic Researches, and of a copy of M. Csoma de Köröös's Tibetan Dictionary and Grammar, and forwarding for presentation to the Society, a copy of its Transactions from 1819 to 1834, inclusive, 5 vols. handsomely bound.

The Indian Journal of Medical Science, Nos. I and II, for 1836—by F. Corbyn, Esq.

Report on the State of Education in Bengal, presented by Messrs. Willis and Earle, on behalf of Rev. Mr. Adam.
Two copies of a Sketch of the Solar System, translated into Bengali, by Mahá Rañah Kali Kesam Behadur, and presented by the translator.

Meteorological Register for December, 1835—by the Surveyor General.

Museum.

The Secretary presented on the part of his Excellency General Bhima Sinha, Minister to the Rajah of Nepál:

Two elaborate drawings of Kathmandu, and of a temple and bridge in the hills. A richly ornamentally Kukri and Khonta: two large elephant’s tusks, and three pods of musk.

A model as large as life, of a native carrying a bullock on his shoulders was presented by Dr. F. Corbyn.

Literary and Antiquities.

The Secretary read the following extracts from the correspondence of Mr. Vigne, from little Tibet and from Cashmir, of which valley this traveller is stated to have made a beautiful series of drawings, and an accurate panoramic view, which will be much prized in Europe.

"Iskardo, 10th September, 1835.

"I have now been in this very wild and extraordinary place four days, and am pleased with every thing. I set off from Cashmir by boat to Bundurpur, seeing everything done myself to prevent delay, and took leave of the Governor about 12 o’clock. We had a merry glide of it till night, when the musquitoes became exceedingly numerous and troublesome; arrived at Bundurpur on the great lake the next morning, and heard the agreeable intelligence that a mounted guard of 10 men were awaiting my arrival in Ahmad Shah’s frontier. I spent the rest of the day in a visit to the Shumladier hill, and the next morning we were fairly off. At that station I was joined by Nasim Khan, the same man that had eaten your salt for a month and some days, with a letter from Ahmad Shah. He told me he had been waiting three days in the neighbourhood, not liking to make his appearance among the Sikhs. I like the man much, he is very intelligent and amusing. What a glorious view we had on the second morning, two-thirds of Cashmir and towards Tibet, one mountain in particular of immense height, totally covered with snow from the shoulders upward, named "Diarmul."

"In three days we reached Guress, a very pretty valley, a little higher than Cashmir, entirely surrounded by the loftiest mountains, but bare; merely growing back wheat, vetches, and barley. After leaving Guress, we passed a place which a few men could defend against an army; where the Sikhs and Tibetans fought two days. Further on after passing over a most desolate country, I was met by Ahmad Shah’s son. I had heard there were some marauders in the neighbourhood, but did not really imagine there was any truth in the account. However, the young Rajah, a very intelligent young fellow, assured me there were, and that his father had sent him to protect me. Imagine the wildness of this scene. Discordant but not altogether unmilitary music gave notice of his approach, and at last, he appeared with some forty sepoys, and led horses. The next morning, we marched in company with him, while the approach of the thieves was hourly expected. They had but one way to come, and when we arrived near the scene of action, I observed parties stationed in different places on the mountains, to prevent all escape. Suddenly an alarm was sounded, and gave notice of their
approach, and the thieves were soon surrounded, and cut up. **Ahmad Shah** was there in person. I met him on the field of battle. He said he was so happy at having destroyed the robbers, and seeing me there, that if he were at Iskardo, he did not know what he should do to manifest his joy. We all sat down in a large ring. His sepoys shewing their wounds, and I administered pills, to keep off fever. Of the thieves some returned, 72 killed, 15 escaped; but I don't think there were so many. They treated the wounded men horribly. The enemy came from the neighbourhood of Peshaur, and were driving off men, women, and cattle. I am delighted with the old Rajah. He appears to have some excellent English ideas about him, and enjoyed the scene amazingly. The book, said to have been written by the old Missionary, does not, he assures me, exist. He shewed me an Armenian Testament that he had bought of some pedlar, which probably gave rise to the report. His faith in the theory of his descent from **Alexander** is strong. He talks freely of every thing in and about the country, and has sent out men to procure me all kinds of curiosities. We make an excursion to a hot spring on the road to Yarkand in a day or two, and shall have some shikär, &c.

I shall quit this extraordinary place, (a vale partly desert, washed by the Attock, a noble stream, quarter mile wide, some 15 miles long, and surrounded by bare rugged mountains on every side, of vast height,) in about 12 days or so: the snow will then begin to fall. I expect a cold march of it. He is very proud of his rock crystal, of which I can bring away as much as I please. As to the productions of the valley, I am making myself fully master of them. He refuses no sort of information. The fort is on a rock covered with alluvial soil, raised in the very centre of the valley, from the bed of what was once most likely a lake. In size, shape, and appearance, washed on two sides of the river, it bears some resemblance to Subathu; as to the works, a few shells for the wood, and round shot for the stone, would destroy them in a few hours. It would be ridiculous (certain death) to attempt going to Yarkand. Since **Moorcroft** was at Ladkhat, they have got the picture of an Englishman, so I am assured, painted on the wall, that all who see one may know him. Yarkand is about a month's march—a harkara could go in 12 days. I am going to a classical sort of equestrian sport in a day or two, such as I was happy to hear remarked was played in the time of **Iskander.** It had struck me that the course was precisely the shape of the course of **Caracalla** at Rome.''

"**Cashmir, 23rd October, 1835.**"

"Here I am safe and well; arrived yesterday after a very severe march of 25 days from Iskardo, over as rough roads, if they deserve the name, as can be seen any where. I have with me four Yáks and all kinds of things. I hope to start hence in about 10 days, and shall come the shortest road to Láhor. So pray oblige me by making some arrangements about the Indus. I should like to hire a boat, men, &c. It must be big enough to carry my Yáks. They are not tall but heavy. I expect Baron **Hugel** here in two or three days, and suspect I shall have a very narrow escape of stopping another year in India, but must do every thing I can to get off in time."

"**Cashmir, 30th October, 1835.**"

"I wrote to you a few days ago, to mention my safe return, but forget to send the enclosed inscriptions. Pray post them off at your earliest convenience to **Csoma de Körös,** author of the Tibetan Dictionary, or some person competent to undertake their examination and request a translation, if possible, and soon; with my compliments. I began my panoramic view from the Tukht
yesterday, the weather continues fine. There is nothing new to communicate, excepting that I hear the Baron is coming the Jammú road, and cannot be far off now. I must be at Bombay by the middle of January."

Of the inscriptions alluded to in the last extract, one at least is in clear Tibetan characters, and will be doubtless easily decyphered by M. Csoma de Körös, to whom they will be sent at Malda.

The Baron Hugel had deviated from his proposed tour after ascending the pass from Bundurpur to Iskardo into little Tibet, on account of the advanced season; he had since joined M. Vigne at Lahor.

The Rev. Mr. Bateman, in a letter from Bombay, communicated a facsimile of an inscription, supposed to be in Cufic characters, found by Captain Thomas Jervis, at the village of Wara, in the Southern Konkan; the original stone of which he had presented to the Bombay Literary Society.

The inscription is apparently in the elongated form of Nāgārī character, found on the coins of the Saurashtra group. (See Journal, vol. iv. Pl. XLIX. p. 684,) and may in time be made out.

Mr. Traill, Commissioner of Kemaon, presented further facsimiles of the inscriptions at Bageswar, near Almorah, which were made over to the Rev. Dr. Mill, V. P. for examination.

Read an extract of a private letter from Lieut. A. Cunningham, Engineers.

Lieut. C. pointed out, in reference to the motto APΔOXPO on one of General Ventura's coins (fig. 9 of Pl. XXXVIII. vol. iv.) that the same name might be traced on the coin depicted as fig. 6, Pl. I. vol. xvii. of the Researches, of which he possessed a more legible duplicate: thus forming the most perfect link between the Indo-Scythic and Canouj coins. The cornucopia is borne by both the standing and sitting females of this type.

An anonymous address "To the Members of the Asiatic Society," signed "Veritas," Hobart Town, Vandiemans's Land, September, 1835, developed a new theory of the origin of the Yugas of the Hindus, and called upon the Society to examine the subject more closely.

Whatever may be thought of the address, which from its want of authentica tion cannot be noticed, it is satisfactory to find the Society's Researches made the subject of study in the new colony.

Physical.

Lieut.-Col. Colvin presented on the part of Lieutenants Baker and Durand, three fossils from the Dadupur collection, of great interest.

1. Part of the jaw of a rhinoceros, with two milch teeth attached.
2. The molar tooth of a camel; of which new fossil genus, they possess now the entire head. (See Journal for December, 1835.)
3. A very distinct head of a fish.

To these Colonel Colvin added, on his own part, four fragments of the fossil shell of a tortoise, of gigantic dimensions.

The same officer presented on the part of Lieutenant Baker, a series of the fossil shells from the stratum of blue marl, underlying hard sand, gravel, and yellow sand, inclined at an angle of 45° in the low range of hills at the head of the Delhi Canal. A sketch of the strata accompanied.

A note from Mr. B. H. Hodgson called the Society's attention to a paper
and drawing of a new species of *Columba*, submitted to the Society several years since, of which by some inadvertence no notice had been taken.

A duplicate of the article was now furnished.

It appears that the bird is described as new by the Zoological Society in 1832, thus depriving the author here of the priority of discovery and publication.

Specimens of Cinnyris Mahtrattensis and Rynchea Capensis—presented by M. Bouchez.

A specimen of Raia Thouriniana—presented by Captain Lloyd, Indian Navy.

Specimens of Squalus Zygœna and Maximus—presented by Mr. F. Shaw, of the Surveying Vessel *Flora*.

A collection of skins of birds, of snakes, fishes, Crustacea and Mollusea—presented by Lieut. Montriou, Indian Navy, and Mr. F. Shaw.

This collection was received only a few days ago but the following genera and species have been determined.


Of these genera, the following species have been ascertained: Dicurrus Indicus, Trichiurus Argenteus, Polynemus Paradiseus, Golieides Rubicunda, Pleuronectes Pan, Tetradon Patoca, Clupea Aclara, Chanda Rucinnius, Pimelodes Etor; Monoculus Polyphemus; Balanus Striatus, Pholas Orientalis, Cerithium Telescopium, and Sulcatum; Pyrula Vespertilio, Dolum Pomum, and Cassis Areola.

The Python Amethystina, presented some months ago by Mr. Cheine, died during the very cold weather of last month. He changed his skin at the beginning of December, and refused to eat afterwards; remaining in a semi-torpid condition till the coming on of the (for this country) extreme cold of the middle of January.

A collection of skins of birds—presented by W. D. Smith, Esq.

A memoir by Messrs. Falconer and Cauley, on the peculiarities of two new species of fossil Hippopotamus, found in the Siwalik range, was read.

The great distinction between the Hippopotamus of the *sub-Himalayus* and the fossils described by Cuvier, and also the existing animal of South Africa, consists in its having six incisor teeth, in lieu of four. This marked difference has led the authors to a subdivision of the genus into *Hexaprotodon* and *Tetraprotodon*. The former comprising the two or more varieties hitherto discovered in India, in a fossil state. Their account will appear in the coming volume of the Physical Researches.

A series of Geological specimens from the Shekhowatí country, were presented by Mr. Falconer.

A memoir on a Geological collection made in the country between Hyderabad and Nagpur, and presented to the Society by the collector, Dr. Malcolmson, with a descriptive map, was submitted.

[This will shortly be published in the Journal.]
### Meteorological Register, kept at the Assay Office, Calcutta, for the Month of January, 1836.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day of the Month</th>
<th>Observations at 10 A.M.</th>
<th>Observations at 4 P.M.</th>
<th>Register Thermometer Extremes</th>
<th>Wind</th>
<th>Weather</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Wet Barometer</td>
<td>Maximum Ceiling</td>
<td>Maximum Hygrometer</td>
<td>Standard Barometer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>29,970</td>
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<td>392</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>96</td>
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<tr>
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This has been the coldest month experienced in India for a very long period. On the night of the 18th, ice was naturally formed in the Botanical garden—it was plentiful in Tiput and other places to the north.
I.—Account of Rumbówe, one of the States in the Interior of Malacca.

Rumbówe has generally been accounted by the Portuguese and Dutch Governments at Malacca as the principal of the states in the interior; but their ideas, like our own, until of late years, of the relative situation of these states, both political and geograpical, appear to have been very erroneous. At the present time, indeed, much interesting matter remains in obscurity, and must remain until the peninsula has been more thoroughly explored.

These notions of the superiority of Rumbówe over the sister state arose probably from the circumstances of its proximity to, and early connexion with, Naning; and from that of its capital being the crowning place of the deputed sovereign from Menangkábdwe.

Tradition ascribes its name to a large Marabówe tree, anciently growing near its western frontier, on one of the banks of the Marabówe stream, not far from its embouchement into the Rumbówe branch of the Lingie river.

There was a small hamlet here, when I visited the place in 1832, consisting of four or five Malay houses. The word Marabówe is supposed to have been corrupted into Rumbówe.

The area of Rumbówe proper, not including the dependencies, is said not to be quite so spacious as that of Naning. The nearest point of its frontier is distant about 25 miles N. W. from the town of Malacca.

Boundaries.—It is bounded towards the N. E. by Sríminánti and Súngie Ujong; towards the south, by part of Naning and Johóle; to the west, by part of Naning and Salengore, and to the east, by part of Sríminánti and Johóle.
The boundary marks with Sríminánti are the mountains of Lépat, Câjáng, and Gúnnong tujoh; with Súngie Ujong, Bukit Augim, part of the right branch of the Lingie river, and Parentian tinglyh; with Nanging*; with Jhóle, the hill of Bukit Pábei; and with Salangore, the Lingie river.

Rumbówe contains two divisions, viz. Rumbówe Ulá and Rumbóweחיל; each under its four Súkús, who are all subject to the control of one Panghûtú.

The Lingie river forms the channel of communication, by water, of Rumbówe with the straits of Malacca, into which it falls about eight miles to the eastward of Cape Rachúdo. This river is about 450 yards broad, and takes a north-by-easterly course into the interior, to the distance of about six miles, when it divides into two branches. The one to the left, called Battang Pennar, goes up to Lingie, and the Súngie Ujong tin mines, taking a N. W. by N. course; and the one to the right, called Battang Penágie, takes a N. E. by E. course, to Bander, in Rumbówe. It has its rise among the mountains of this state. The three principal posts of Rumbówe are situated on the banks of Battang Penágie; viz. Sempong, six miles from the mouth at the point of the river’s bifurcation; Padís, on the right bank, five or six miles further up; and Bander, about eight miles beyond Padís.

The river, up to Sempong, is navigable for vessels of 125 tons, ranging from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 fathoms, high-water, and vessels of nine tons may pass up, without much difficulty, to Padís; and to Lingie, on the other branch.

In entering the mouth of the river care must be taken to avoid the eastern bank, in consequence of hidden rocks, which run off to sea. The channel near the western bank is deep and safe.

Regarding Padís, the following remarks are extracted from some notes taken during a trip up the river in 1833. Two or three miles in advance of Ramoan China Kechil, on the right bank of the river, on the summit of a small hill commanding it, is Rúja Alt’s (the Iang de pertúán Besár) stockaded house. The place is named Padís, from a small stream that flows into the river about a quarter of a mile nearer Sempong. The river, several hundred yards above and below Padís, had been partially blocked up by large trees felled completely across. In one place we passed through a formidable chevaux de frise of pointed stakes, bound together, and running from bank to bank.

On this part of the river the stockade bears most; it is most judiciously placed to annoy an enemy passing up with so many obstacles in his course. We contrived to get over them with consi-

* See paper on Nanning, vol. IV. 297.
derable difficulty, although the trees had since been cut in two, and broken down. At high-water, they might however be readily passed. The river was blockaded in this fashion during the Naning disturbances, and the engineer on this occasion was no other than our friend in the boat, the Laks-amána of Rumbówe. Sempong, as before stated, is situated at the point of the river's bifurcation. In 1833, it consisted only of two or three huts; in the foremost of which was a small battery, consisting of seven swivels, and an iron 3-pr. of sufficient range to command both branches of the river. It is the place selected by the Rumbówe chiefs to levy the duty on the tin passing down from Sungie Ujong.

At the close of 1833, and commencement of 1834, many fugitives settled here, in consequence of the disturbances at Lingie, together with a small colony from Sumatra, under a Panglima named Kammer. The place is now strongly stockaded by the Iang de pertíyan Múda Sayad Saban, by whom every encouragement is held out to settlers.

Population.—Rumbówe, including Kroh and Tamping, contains about 9,000 inhabitants. The principal places are Bander, Senpong, Chembong, Kaling, and Battu Ampar. Chembong, with its environs, is said to contain about 600 houses, and drives a petty trade in timber, dammer, and wax, which are bartered for opium, cloths, iron utensils, and tobacco.

Chembong is the residence of the Panghūlú of Rumbówe; Bander, Padás, and Sempong those of the Iang de pertúans.

Besides Malays are several aboriginal tribes inhabiting the steeps of the mountains, and the forests, who subsist principally by hunting. The natives give them the general appellation of Orang Benúa, people of the soil or country.

They are subdivided into several tribes: among the most remarkable of which are the Udáí, Sakkye, Jakún, and Rayet Utan. I have seen several specimens of the two last, but do not perceive any material dissimilarity between them, save that the latter, by enjoying freer intercourse with the Malays, have become more civilized; at least, as far as a shew of dress and ornaments is implicated.

They differ much from the descriptions given of the Semang in the interior of Quedah, and the thick-lipped, woolly-haired Papúan. Their features are of the Malay caste; their hair sometimes straight, like that of the generality of Asiatics, but more frequently curling; at the same time, very different from the frizzly locks of the African.

Their stature is shorter, but they do not differ much in complexion from the Malay.

The Malays entertain a high estimation of the skill of those singular tribes in medicine, and the knowledge of the virtues of herbs, roots,
plants, &c. investing their sages, Páyongs, even with supernatural powers, such as the Tújoh Besawye, &c.

These tribes are to be found over the whole of the interior of this part of the peninsula, particularly in Ulu Colang, Sángic Ujong, Johôle, Jompôle, Jellabu, Ulu Máar, and Segáméet. They are skilled in the composition of the celebrated upas poison, with which they tip the points of their arrows. The Sámpitan, a long tube, through which the poisoned darts are blown, and a spear, are their favorite weapons. The cloth that encircles their loins is made from the fibrous bark of the Terrap tree.

The influence of their Botins, or chiefs over the election of the Panghátú of Sángic Ujong, has been mentioned. In Johôle, they exert a similar power. It may be also remarked here, that in Rumbówe there are two distinctions of the high Malayan tribe called Bóodoanda, viz. Bóodoanda Jakún, and Bóodoanda Jawa. The Panghátúls of all these states must necessarily be of one of these two tribes.

Government.—Rumbówe was formerly under the immediate sway of its Panghátú and Ampat Súkú; but of latter days, the Iang de pertúaun Múda claims equal, if not superior power to the Panghátúl.

The first chief who assumed the title of Iang de pertúaun Múda of Rumbówe was Rája Assil, the son of the second Menangkábówe prince Rája Adil; he was appointed by the then Iang de pertúaun Besár (his son-in-law Rája Itam), with the concurrence of the Panghátúls of the four states; and it is stated, had assigned to him, as a subsistence, two-sixths of the duty levied on the tin passing down the river from Sángic Ujong, (the duty was then 2 dls. per bhar,) and the revenues of the districts of Kroh and Tampin, near the foot of the mountain of that name.

In 1812, Assil was driven out of Rumbówe, as previously mentioned, by the Panghátú and Súkú, assisted by Rája Ali; and died in Naning in 1814 or 15. Rája Ali supplanted him; but, being elected as Iang de-pertúaun Besár in 1832, was succeeded in the Múdashihip by his son-in-law, the present chief, Sayad Saban.

This office being an innovation on ancient usage is, consequently, secretly disliked by the Malays, especially where its privileges are so ill defined and unsettled; and one in which right would appear synonymous with might.

Another change within the last few years has taken place in the constitution of this state; instead of the council of the Ampat, or four, Súkú, it consists now of eight, or the Súkú Iang de-lápan; who, with the Panghátú, now form a deliberative body, like the Archons of Athens, of nine.
The Panghulú is alternately elected from the two tribes, Bódoända Jakán and Bódoända Jawa. The following circumstances, according to tradition, led to this custom:

"When the king of Johore appointed nine Panghulús over the nine Negris in the interior of Malacca, the heads of the leading tribes in Rumbówe, viz. those of the Bódoända Jakán and Jawa, disputed regarding the superiority of their respective claims to the honor. His Highness of Johore, after due deliberation, came to the decision that the selection of a Panghulú should not be made from one tribe exclusively, but that each should have the privilege alternately."

This judgment, we are assured, gave entire satisfaction, and at all events, seems to have been adhered to in subsequent elections.

It must not be omitted here to state, that the title of Lélah Mähá-raja was given by the king to the Panghulús of the tribe Bódoända Jakán, and that of Sédía Rája to those of the Bódoända Jawa; with the exception of this custom, the office of Panghulú is hereditary, agreeably to the law of Perpüti Sabútang prevailing in Menangkábówe, and provided the heir be not insane or an imbecile. The present Panghulú is of the tribe Bódoända Jakán, he succeeded his predecessor Bahúgo, of the tribe Bódoända Jawa, in 1819.

Súkus.—Under the Panghulú are the eight Súkus, or heads of the tribes, into which the population of Rumbówe is divided; and who act as their representatives in councils of state, where like the former Súkus of Naning and Súngie Ujong, they possess considerable influence. Nothing of any public importance can be agreed on without their concurrence; and their unanimous vote on disputed points bears down that of the Panghulú. The Iang de-pertuán Besúr and Müdá always exert more or less influence over their councils. The signature of the Súkus is necessary to the ratification of any treaty, or other similar public document.

Formerly there were only four Súkus who had share in the councils, viz. those of Rumbówe Ilir; but latterly those of Rumbówe Ulá have been admitted, as alluded to above. This change was effected by the policy of the two Iang de-pertuáns, in order to lessen the influence of the Panghulú and former Súkus, and to increase their own.

The names of the tribes and titles of the individuals who represent them are as follow:

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<th>Tribes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Rumbówe Ilír.</td>
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<td>Rumbówe Ulá.</td>
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<td>Bátutu Ampar, .... Gompur Mahárája.</td>
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<td>Paysa Kámba Dárrnt, .... Sáma Rák.</td>
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<td>Mancal, ........................ Sangsúra Phálíwan.</td>
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<td>Sa Melongang, ............... Mendálka.</td>
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<td>Tiga Nénik, ........................ Bongsa de Bálìang.</td>
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<td>Sri Lummah, ...... Senda Mahárája.</td>
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To this list may be added the names of four inferior tribes, which
being scanty in number, and most of them of foreign origin, are represented by the heads of the more important tribes, viz. Tiga, Battu, Anak Malacca, Anak Achi, (children of Malacca and Achi,) and Tannah Dattar. The Bódoónda tribes are represented by the Panghulás.

Malays, strangers to Rumbówe, while residing there, are amenable to the head of the tribe to which they belong. Settlers are immediately classed in their respective tribes. Those from Menangkábówe generally enter that of Báttu Ampar, which is the principal of the five tribes that originally emigrated from Menangkábowe; viz. those of Muncal, Báttu Ballang, Tiga Báttu, and Tannah Dattar.

A man marrying into another tribe becomes a member of that of the woman, as also the children.

Some of the tribes have peculiar privileges; it is said that the Bódoóndas, though guilty of the highest crimes, are exempt from capital punishment; banishment and fines being the only penalty to which they are liable. The circumstance of the Panghulás of the independent states being necessarily Bódoóndas has already been adverted to*.

Although the Malays, like the Greeks and Romans, entertain the highest veneration for old age, still the claims of descent supersede those conferred by years, particularly with regard to the heads of tribes, who have precedence in the councils of the state, conformably to the rank of the tribe they represent. An instance of this, and the power sometimes exercised by the Súkás in election, fell under my own observation. At Súngie Sípát, on the frontier of Rumbówe, in 1833, among the assembly of Malay chiefs there, I observed a boy, whose dress and weapons betokened some rank, and to whom a considerable degree of deference was shewn by the natives. On inquiring, I found him to be the head of the principal tribe, and that, although a younger brother, he had been elected by the Súkás as the head of his tribe or clan, in consequence of his elder brother's imbecility. This boy affixed his name, or rather his mark, (for neither he nor any of his seven compeers could write,) immediately after the Panghulá of Rumbówe, before the rest of the Súkás, some of whom were venerable old men, and grown grey in office.

Mantris.—There are two Mantris in Rumbówe, viz. Suroh Rája, and Andíka Mantri, both of the tribe Bódoónda Jawa.

Their functions are ill defined, but are principally, I believe, to assist the chiefs with their advice.

* The division of the people of these states into tribes, some of which bear the names of places in Menangkábowe, is a strong additional proof of their origin.
States in the Interior of Malacca.

They have no vote in councils, and their influence must be almost entirely personal.

Laksámanas.—The Laksámanas are also two, Passar and Khatib. The navigation of the river and maritime matters are entrusted to these officers.

Panglimas.—The war-chiefs, or Panglimas, are four in number, viz. two Panglima Prangs, Pandika Rája, and Panglima Dallam. Their duties are similar to those of the former Panglimas of Naning.

Pertáma.—There is another officer, appointed by the Iang de pertáman Besár, whose functions, fortunately for the liege subjects of Rumbówe, are seldom called into exercise. This is the Pertáma, or executioner. The modes of putting criminals to death are generally confined to the Panchong "فَتَلْح" and Sílang "سائغ".

The former is decapitation: the latter has been already described.

Passing up the Rumbówe river, on some high ground on the left bank between Sempong and Pídas, a leafless, blighted tree was pointed out to me by one of the Laksámanas who stated the foot of it to be the place where criminals, subjects of Rumbówe, were put to death by Sílang "سائغ".

Religion.—The inhabitants of Rumbówe, like those of the other states of the interior, with the exception of the aborigines, profess the tenets of Islám. They are divided into seven Mükuns, or parishes, to each of which is attached a mosque, with distinct establishments of priests, as in Naning.

A Kázi named Ha'ji Hashim Sri Lummah presides over the whole. The religious customs, fasts, and festivals are similar to those observed in Naning.

Visit to Rumbówe.—As Rumbówe has seldom been penetrated by Europeans, the following memoranda, from my note book, of a visit paid to the chiefs at its capital, Bander, in 1832, by the then Governor of the Straits, the Honorable Mr. Ibbetson, and Brigadier Wilson, C. B. may not perhaps be wholly devoid of interest.

Early on the morning of the 21st October, I joined from camp at Alorgajeh, the Governor's suite at Tábu, the principal village of Naning, and late the residence of the ex-Panghuld Dholl Sayad.

After breakfasting under one of the thatched quarters that had escaped the pioneer's axe and brand on the late evacuation of this out-post, the party started on horseback along a foot-path, through a wooded country with the Rumbówe hills on the right, to Chirána pútih, the last village of Naning. This was formerly a populous place. And the residence of the ex-Panghuld's sons, but we found it now entirely deserted, and its houses falling into rapid decay and ruin. Here it was
stated that Dhill Sayad had a manufactory for gun-powder during his late resistance to the Company's troops.

Leaving Chirina pūth to the left, the path abruptly turns to the right, over or rather through a muddy sāwah, and leads towards the foot of Gúnong Tampin. Along the skirt of this mountain, through a dense forest, the party had to travel in Indian file, the narrow foot-path being in several places blocked up by large forest trees lying across to Qabar Feringī, or the Frank's grave, which is a mere mound in the jungle. This is one of the boundary marks of the Rumbów and Nāning territories, and is traditionally said to be the grave of a Portuguese officer, slain by the natives in one of those frequent skirmishes which took place between the followers of the gallant Albuquerque and the "rebellious Menangkabówes." The path to Cóndóng, from Qabar Feringī, lay through the jungle at the foot of the Rumbów range, and gradually improved as we approached that village. Cóndóng is a populous hamlet, the first in the Rumbów side of the boundary line, and is situated at the foot of the mountain of Gúnong Rumbów, on whose steep sides, amidst luxuriant forests, appeared singular patches of partially cleared ground, and a few rude huts, the habitation of the lords of the woods and rocks, the Jakúns. None of their sylvan eminences however, nor their attendant Hamadryades, condescended to favor the party with their appearance.

From Cóndóng to Páday Lóko, the forest decreased in size and denseness, and here and there were traces of clearing and cultivation. A few small verdant patches, not deserving the name of plains, and two or three rivulets, were passed through. The distance from Cóndóng to Páday Lóko is about three miles.

From Páday Lóko to Ligon, the road is bad, passing for the most part over heavy rice-grounds. The cultivation increased progressively as the belt of forest, the natural boundary between Nāning and Rumbów, was left behind, until we reached the banks of the Rumbów river at Ligon. This stream was just fordable; its waters muddy, and evidently swolln by the rains.

After passing by a miserable path over a very extensive and well cultivated sheet of rice-ground, where the horses were frequently up to the saddle flaps in mud, fording another stream, and crossing a broad swampy plain, from the grassy tufts of which flew the startled lapwing and whistling plover, the cavalcade halted before the mud fort of Bander. From its gate issued a motley crowd of well-dressed Malays, brandishing spears, muskets, pemurasses, (a sort of blunderbuss,) and umbrellas of state, white and yellow, headed by the Múda of Rumbów, and one of the sons of the Ilang de pertúan Besúr, Rája Ali.
The Governor, and Brigadier Wilson, were received by these chiefs with every demonstration of welcome and respect, conducted into the fort, and ushered by Raja Ali into a large temporary building, apparently erected for the occasion, opposite the Raja's primitive palace of thatch.

A salute from the fort jinjals was then fired, much to the discomfiture of one of the pieces, which, possibly from not being accustomed to powder, burst into divers rust-incrusted fragments.

Refreshments were served in, on a large flat tray; they consisted principally of dried fruits, dates, conserves, and sweetmeats, in which, as usual, sugar and oil were manifestly predominant. These were placed on small China dishes, and a number of minute cups of the same material, filled with the steaming infusion of Souchong, fresh from China, sans sucre et sans lait, were warmly pressed upon us.

In the evening, Raja Ali introduced two antique ladies, dressed with almost more than Spartan simplicity. The one his mother, the Princess Dowager Tuánku Putih, and the other, his venerated kinswoman, his aunt. These ogresses of high degree would have rivalled in flow of language and exuberance of gesticulation the most vivacious dowagers, date 1770, Madame du Deffand always excepted.

Tuánku Putih is represented to be a woman of strong masculine mind, and to have considerable influence over her son Raja Ali.

The fort of Bander consists of low mud walls, now covered with grass, inclosing a space of ground about 80 yards square.

Around and outside of the walls runs a strong and high palisade. Six high cavaliers of wood, roofed in with atap, overlook the faces of the work. On each of their platforms two iron guns are mounted, except on that over the gate-way, where there is a serviceable brass gun, bearing the mark of the Dutch East India Company; the date 1756, A. D. and the maker's name, Peter Seest.

Besides the 12 guns in the cavaliers, were 18 or 20 jinjals lying about the parapets. The houses of the Raja and his personal attendants are within the area comprised by the fort walls.

After passing the night on mattresses and pillows, covered with dirty red silk, embroidered in gold, and which had evidently been abstracted from the Zenáia, the party left Bander early on the following morning.

The Governor and Brigadier Wilson proceeded en route to Malacca via Pádas and the Língie river. Lieut. Balfour, of the Madras Artillery, and myself, returned by Brissú, to camp, which we reached the same evening.
Sayad Sában, the present Iang de pertúan Múda of Rumbówe, is the son of an Arab named Sayad Ibrahim by his concubine Sri Kamis, a Malay slave girl, a Khóna-zúda of Zain-ud-Din, formerly Capitan Malíyú in Malacca. He is a native of Chembong in Rumbówe, whither his father, a rigid zealot, had proceeded to promulgate and expound the tenets of the Korán.

His son, Sayad Sában, principally resided in Rumbówe, but occasionally at Malacca. Being naturally ambitious, he early sought to connect himself by marriage with the ruling families in Rumbówe, and Siac, in Sumatra. He first married a daughter of the Iang de pertúan Múda of Jállabu, Rája Sabun, a son of the second Menangkabówe prince, Rája Adil. He then crossed the straits, and obtained the hand of one of the Siac chief’s daughters. His next matrimonial connexions were with Rája Ali’s family.

Sayad Sában is young, active, and intriguing; but at present well disposed to the British Government. Without the bigotry of his father, he entertain a thorough contempt for the apathetic opium-eating Malay chiefs, his colleagues in power. He has a taste for war, and proved of great service in placing his father-in-law, Rája Ali, over the heads of his competitors. His activity both for and against the troops in the Naning expeditions are well known.

By his own talents and address, the religious influence of his father, and from his Arab extraction, a circumstance to which the Malays invariably pay great deference and respect, and his high connexions, in the securing of which he has shewn great tact and forethought, this adventurer has risen to the Múda-ship of Rumbówe, and is now aspiring to the entire sovereignty of the states in the interior.

Bennie, the present Panghilú of Rumbówe, is an elderly, grave person, with an unpleasing cast of features purely Malayan. He is at heart inimical to the claims of the Múda and Rája Ali. During the disturbances at Lingie, in 1833, he shamefully deserted his stockade, leaving it with several guns, and a quantity of ammunition, in the hands of the vassal chief Kátas; not without being strongly suspected of having received a considerable bribe for this piece of treachery. He assisted the ex-Panghilú of Naning during the time he was in arms against Government. Bennie is addicted to opium-eating, and like other Malays of this class, is not, as experience has shewn, proof against the temptations of a bribe coming in the shape of this fascinating drug.

Among the Súkás, few are men of any talent or worthy of any particular notice. Pakkat, an aspirant to the Panghilú-ship, and Suroh
Rája, one of the Mantris, are much looked up to by the Malays, with whom their opinions and councils have considerable influence.

I had an opportunity of hearing a very long improviso speech from the latter of these Malayan Ciceros, at Sángie Sipat, on the boundary question. His position, unlike that of European orators, was a squatting one, on his hams, with the knees pliantly folded in front. The style of his address, like that of the generality of Asiatics, was grave and pompous; but the flow of his words easy and unbroken, except by a few little attentions bestowed on his betel-pounder (Gobik), by which his right-hand was kept in almost continual motion.

The speech, however, was so long, that the Panghūlā of Rumbówe was fairly snoring before the customary Ah, bagitu lah! announced the finale of the effusion. Touching the gift of eloquence, I have observed that the Malays of the interior have generally a better and freer manner of expressing themselves than those of the coast; the language in which they clothe their sentiments is far more figurative, and full of metaphors, drawn from natural objects, and cannot fail to strike the hearer as highly pleasing and simply poetical. Their popular traditions are seldom put to writing, being committed to memory by some of their elders, and sometimes by old Malay ladies of rank, who are regarded by the simple natives, much in the light of a casket containing a valuable gem. Many of their customs are singular and peculiar, and deserving of more attention than has hitherto been paid them.

II.—Quotations from Original Sanscrit Authorities in proof and illustration of Mr. Hodgson’s Sketch of Buddhism.

[Continued from page 38.]

**Quotations.**

*The Swabhávika Doctrine.*

1. All things are governed or perfected by Swabháva*: I too am governed by Swabháva. (Ashta Sahasrika.)

2. It is proper for the worshipper at the time of worship to reflect thus: I am Nirlipt†, and the object of my worship is Nirlipt; I am that God (Iswara) to whom I address myself. Thus meditating, the worshipper should make puja to all the celestials: for example, to Vajra Satwa Buddha, let him pay his adorations, first, by recollecting that all things with their Vija mantras came from Swabháva in this or-

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* Swa, own, and bháva, nature. Idiosyncrasy.
† Intact and intangible, independent.
der:—from the *vija* of the letter Y, air; from that of the letter R, fire; from that of the letter V, or B, water, and from that of the letter L, earth; and from that of the letter S, Mount Suméra. On the summit of Suméra is a lotus of precious stones, and above the lotos, a moon crescent, upon which sits, supremely exalted, Vajra Satwa. And as all (other) things proceed from Swabháva, as also does Vajra Satwa, thence called the self-existent†. (Pujá kand.)

3. All things and beings (in the versatile universe) which are alike perishable, false as a dream, treacherous as a mirage, proceed, according to some, from Swabháva, (nature,) and according to others, from God, (Iswara;) and hence it is said, that Swabháva and Iswara are essentially one, differing only in name‡. (Ashta Sahasrika.)

4. At the general dissolution of all things, the four elements shall be absorbed in Súnyiká-Akásh (sheer space) in this order: Earth in water, water in fire, fire in air, and air in Akásh, and Akásh in Súnyáta, and Súnyáta in Tathata, and Tathata in Buddha, (which Mahá Súnyáta||) and Buddha in Bhávana, and Bhávana in Swabháva. And when existence is again involved, each shall in the inverse order, progress from the other. From that Swabháva, which communicates its property of infinity to Akásh, proceeded into being, in Akásh, the letter A. and the rest of the letters; and from the letters, Adi Buddha¶ and the other Buddhas; and from the Buddhas, the Bodhi-Satwas, and from them the five elements, with their Vija Mantras. Such is the Swabhávika Sansár; which Sansár (universe) constantly revolves between Pravritti and Nirvritti, like a potter's wheel. (Divya Avadán.)

* Root, radix, seed.
† This may teach us caution in the interpretation of terms. I understand the dogma to announce, that infinite intelligence is as much a part of the system of nature as finite. The mystic allusion to the alphabet imports nothing more than its being the indispensable instrument and means of knowledge or wisdom, which the Buddhists believe man has the capacity of perfecting up to the standard of infinity.
‡ See the note on No. 3, on the Yatnika system.
§ Tathata, says the comment, is Satya Juyan; and Bhávana is Bhóva or Satta, i.e. sheer entity.
|| See note on quotation 1 of the section A'Gdi Buddha.
¶ Here again I might repeat the caution and remark at quotation 2. I have elsewhere observed, that Swábhávika texts, differently interpreted, form the basis of the Aísvarika doctrine, as well as that the Buddhas of the Swábhávikas, who derive their capacity of identifying themselves with the first cause from nature, which is that cause, are as largely gifted as the Buddhás of the Aísvarikas, deriving the same capacity from A'Gdi Buddha, who is that cause. See remarks on Remusat apud Journal of Bengal Asiatic Society, Nos. 32, 33, and 34.
5. *Mahá Súnyáta* is, according to some, *Swabháva*, and, according to others, *Iswara*; it is like the ethereal expanse, and self-sustained. In that *Mahá Súnyáta*, the letter A, which the *Vija Mantra of Upáya*, and the chief of all the *Vija Mantras* of the letters, became manifest. (*Rucha Bhágavati.*)

6. Some say creation is from God: if so, what is the use of *Yatna* or of *Karma*?† That which made all things, will preserve and destroy them; that which governs *Nirvritti*, governs *Pravritti* also. (*Buddha Charitrakávya.*)

7. The sandal tree freely communicates its fragrance to him who tears off its bark. Who is not delighted with its odour? It is from *Swabháva*. (*Kalpalata.*)

8. The elephant’s cub, if he find not leafless and thorny creepers in the green wood, becomes thin. The crow avoids the ripe mango‡. The cause is still *Swabháva*. (Do.)

9. Who sharpened the thorn? Who gave their varied forms, colours, and habits to the deer kind, and to the birds? *Swabháva!* It is not according to the will (*ichchha*) of any; and if there be no desire or intention, there can be no intend or designer. (*Buddha Charitra.*)

10. The conch, which is worthy of all praise, bright as the moon, rated first among excellent things, and which is benevolent to all sentient beings, though it be itself insensate, yields its melodious music, purely by reason of *Swabháva*. (*Kalpalata.*)

11. That hands and feet, and belly and back, and head, in fine, organs of whatever kind, are found in the womb, the wise have attri-

*Upaya*, the expedient, the energy of nature in a state of activity. See the note on No. 6, of the section *A'li Sangha*.

† See the note on quotation 9 of this head. *Yatna* and *Karma* may here be rendered by intellect and morality.

‡ These are assumed facts in Natural History; but not correct.

§ Here is plainly announced that denial of self-consciousness or personality in the causa causarum which constitutes the great defect of the *Swabhávika* philosophy: and if this denial amount to atheism, the *Swabhávikas* are, for the most part, atheists; their denial also of a moral ruler of the universe being a necessary sequel to it. Excepting, however, a small and mean sect of them, they all affirm eternal necessary entity; nor do any of them reject the soul’s existence beyond the grave, or the doctrine of atonement. Still *Newton’s* is, upon the whole, the right judgment, ‘Deus sine providentia et dominio nihil est nisi fatum et natura.’ The *Swabhávika* attempts to deify nature are but a sad confusion of cause and effect. *But*, in a serious religious point of view, I fail to perceive any superiority possessed by the immaterial pantheism of Bráhmans over the material pantheism of the *Buddhists*. Metempsychosis and absorption are common to both.
butet to Swabhāva; and the union of the soul or life (A'tma) with body, is also Swabhāva. (Buddha Charitra Kāvyā.)

12. From Swabhāva (nature) all things proceeded; by Swabhāva all things are preserved. All their differences of structure and of habits are from Swabhāva: and from Swabhāva comes their destruction. All things are regulated (suddha) by Swabhāva. Swabhāva is known as the Supreme. (Pujā kand,—from the Rucha Bhāyagavati, where the substance is found in sundry passages).

13. Akāsh is Swābhāvikā, because it is established, governed, perfected (suddha) by its own force or nature. All things are absorbed in it: it is uncreated or eternal; it is revealed by its own force; it is the essence (A'tma*) of creation, preservation, and destruction; it is the essence of the five elements; it is infinite; it is intellectual essence (Bodhanātmika). The five colours are proper to it; and the five Buddhas; and the letters. It is Sānvyāta; self-supported; omnipresent; to its essence belong both Pravṛtti and Nirvṛtti. This Akāsh, which is omnipresent, and essentially intellectual†, because infinite things are absorbed into it, is declared to be infinite. From the infinite nature of this Akāsh were produced all moving things, each in its own time, in due procession from another, and with its proper difference of form and habits. From the secret nature of Akāsh proceeded likewise, together with the Vij Mantra of each one, air with its own mobility; and from air, fire with its own heat; and from fire, water with its intrinsic coldness; and from water, earth with its own proper solidity or heaviness; and from earth, Mount Sumeru with its own substance of gold, or with its own sustaining power (Dhātvātmika); and from Sumeru, all the various kinds of trees and vegetables; and from them, all the variety of colours, shapes, flavours, and fragrances, in leaves, flowers, and fruits. Each derived its essential property (as of fire to burn) from itself; and the order of its procession into existence from the one precedent, by virtue of Swabhāva, operating in time. The several manners of going peculiar to the six classes of animate beings (four-legged, two-legged, &c.), and their several modes of birth, (ovi-

* One comment on the comment says, A'tma here means sthān or ālaya, i. e. the ubi of creation, &c.
† Akāsh is here understood as synonymous with Sānvyāta, that is, as the elemental state of all things, the universal ubi and modus of primal entity, in a state of abstraction from all specific forms: and it is worthy of note, that amidst these primal principles, intelligence has admission. It is therefore affirmed to be a necessary end, or eternal portion of the system of nature, though separated from self-consciousness or personality. In the same manner, Prājña, the sum of all things, Diva natura, is declared to be eternal, and essentially intelligent, though a material principle.
parous, &c.*) all proceeded from Swabhāva. From the Swabhāva of each mansion or habitat (Bhavāna) resulted the differences existing between the several abodes of all the six orders of animate beings. The existence of the foetus in the womb proceeds from the Swabhāva of the union of male and female; and its gradual growth and assumption of flesh, bones, skin, and organs, is caused by the joint energy of the Swabhāva of the foetus, and that of time, or the Swabhāva of the foetus, operating in time. The procession of all things from birth, through gradual increase, to maturity; and thence, through gradual decay, to death, results spontaneously from the nature of each being; as do the differences appropriated to the faculties of the senses and of the mind, and to those external things and internal, which are perceived by them. Speech and sustenance from dressed food in mankind, and the want of speech and the eating of grass in quadrupeds, together with the birth of birds from eggs, of insects from sweat, and of the Gods (Devatīs) without parentage of any sort: all these marvels proceed from Swabhāva.

(Comment on the Pujā kand, quotation 12.)

The Aiswarika System.

1. The self-existent God is the sum of perfections, infinite, eternal, without members or passions; one with all things (in Pravritti), and separate from all things (in Nirvritti), infiniformed and formless, the essence of Pravritti and of Nirvritti†. (Swayambhū Purāṇa.)

2. He whose image is Śūnyāta, who is like a cypher or point, infinite, unsustained (in Nirvritti), and sustained (in Pravritti), whose essence is Nirvritti, of whom all things are forms (in Pravritti), and who is yet formless (in Nirvritti), who is the Iswara, the first intellectual essence, the A’di Buddha, was revealed by his own will. This self-

* By etcetera, understand always (more Brāhmaṇarūm). That Buddhism forms an integral part of the Indian philosophy is sufficiently proved by the multitude of terms and classifications common to it, and to Brāhmaṇism. The theogony and cosmogony of the latter are expressly those of the former, with sundry additions only, which serve to prove the posteriority of date, and schismatical succession, of the Buddhists. M. Cousin, in his course of philosophy, notices the absence of a sceptical school amongst the Indian philosophers. Buddhism, when fully explained, will supply the desideratum; and I would here notice the precipitation with which we are now constantly drawing general conclusions relative to the scope of Indian speculation, from a knowledge of the Brāhmaṇical writings only—writings equalled or surpassed in number and value by those of the Buddhists, Jains, and other dissenters from the existing orthodox system of Vyūsa and Sankara A’chārya.

† Pravritti, the versatile universe; Nirvritti, its opposite, the world and the next. Pravritti is compounded of Pra, an intensive, and vṛitti, action, occupation, from the root vā, to blow as the wind; Nirvṛtī, of Nir, a privative, and vṛitti, as before.
existent is he whom all know as the only true Being; and, though the state of Nirvrtti be his proper and enduring state, yet, for the sake of Pravrtti, (creation), having become Pancha-jnyanatmiKA, he produced the five Buddhas thus; from Svo-suddha-dharma-dhatuajnyan, Vairo chana, the supremely wise, from whom proceed the element of earth, the sight, and colours; and from Adarshana-jnyan, Akshobhya, from whom proceed the element of water, the faculty of hearing, and all sounds; and from Pratyavekshana-jnyan, Ratna Sambhava, from whom proceed the element of fire, the sense of smell, and all odours; and from Samta-jnyan, Amitdha, from whom proceed the element of air, the sense of taste, and all savours; and from Krityanushtha-jnyan, Amogha Siddha, from whom proceed the element of ether, the faculty of touch, and all the sensible properties of outward things dependent thereon. All these five Buddhas are Pravrtti kdmang, or the authors of creation. They possess the five jnyans, the five colours, the five mudras, and the five vehicles*. The five elements, five senses, and five respective objects of sense, are forms of them†. And these five Buddhas each produced a Bodhi-Satwa, (for the detail, see Asiatic Society’s Transactions, vol. xvi.) The five Bodhi-Satwas are Srishtikimang, or the immediate agents of creation; and each, in his turn, having become Sarvaguna, (invested with all qualities, or invested with the three gunas,) produced all things by his fiat. (Comment on quot. 1.)

3. All things existent (in the versatile universe) proceed from some cause (hetu): that cause is the Tathdgata‡ (Adi Buddha); and that

* See Appendix A.
† The five Dhyani Buddhas are said to be Pancha Bhuta, Pancha Indriya, and Pancha Ayatan akar. Hence my conjecture that they are mere personifications, according to a theistic theory of the phenomena of the sensible world. The 6th Dhyani Buddha is, in like manner, the icon and source of the 6th sense, and its object, or Manasa and Dharm, i. e. the sentient principle, soul of the senses, or internal sense, and moral and intellectual phenomena. In the above passage, however, the association of the five elements is not the most accredited one, which (for example) associates hearing and sounds to AkA.</p>
which is the cause of (versatile) existence is the cause of the cessation or extinction of all (such) existence: so said Sákya Sinha. (Bhadra Kalpavadan.)

4. Body is compounded of the five elements: soul, which animates it, is an emanation from the self-existent. (Swayamabhu purána.)

5. Those who have suffered many torments in this life, and have even burned in hell, shall, if they piously serve the Tri Ratna (or Triad), escape from the evils of both. (Avadán Kalpalatá.)

6. Subandu (a Rája of Benares) was childless. He devoted himself to the worship of Iswara (A'ídi Buddha); and by the grace of Iswara a sugar-cane was produced from his semen, from which a son was born to him. The race* remains to this day, and is called Ikshava Aku. (Avadán Kalpalatá.)

likewise (proprio vigore) the ultimate cessation of them. The epithet Tathágata, therefore, can only be applied to A'ídi Buddha, the self-existent, who is never incarnated, in a figurative, or at least a restricted, sense;—cessation of human births being the essence of what it implies. I have seen the question and answer, 'what is the Tathágata? It does not come again,' proposed and solved by the Raksha Bhagyavatí, in the very spirit and almost in the words of the Vedas. One of a thousand proofs that have occurred to me how thoroughly Indian Buddhism is. Tathágata, thus gone, or gone as he came, as applied to A'ídi Buddha, alludes to his voluntary secession from the versatile world into that of abstraction, of which no mortal can predicate more than that his departure and his advent are alike simple results of his volition. Some authors substitute this interpretation, exclusively applicable to A'ídi Buddha, for the third sceptical and general interpretation above given. The synonyme Sugata, or 'well gone, for ever quit of versatile existence,' yet further illustrates the ordinary meaning of the word Tathágata, as well as the ultimate scope and genius of the Buddhist religion, of which the end is, freedom from metempsychosis; and the means, perfect and absolute enlightenment of the understanding, and consequent discovery of the grand secret of nature. What that grand secret, that ultimate truth, that single reality, is, whether all is God, or God is all, seems to be the sole proposition of the oriental philosophic religionists, who have all alike sought to discover it by taking the high priori road. That God is all, appears to be the prevalent and dogmatic determination of the Bráhmanists; that all is God, the preferential but sceptical solution of the Buddhists; and, in a large view, I believe it would be difficult to indicate any further essential difference between their theoretic systems, both, as I conceive, the unquestionable growth of the Indian soil, and both founded upon transcendental speculations, conducted in the very same style and manner.

* That of Sákya Sinha, and said by the Buddhists to belong to the solar line of Indian Princes. Nor is it any proof of the contrary, that the Pauránika genealogies exhibit no trace of this race. Those genealogies have been altered again and again, to suit current prejudices or partialities. The Bráhmans who
7. When all was void, perfect void, (Súnya, Mahá Súnya) the triliteral syllable Aum became manifest, the first created, the ineffably splendid, surrounded by all the radical letters (Vijá Akshara), as by a necklace. In that Aum, he who is present in all things, formless and passionless, and who possesses the Tri Ratna, was produced by his own will. To him I make adoration. (Swayambhu purána).

The Kārmika System.

1. From the union of Upáya and Prajná*, arose Manas, the lord of the senses, and from Manas proceeded the ten virtues and the ten vices; so said Súkya Sinha. (Divya Avadan.)

2. The being of all things is derived from belief, reliance, (pratyaya,) in this order: from false knowledge, delusive impression; from delusive impression, general notions; from them, particulars; from them, the six seats (or outward objects) of the senses; from them, contact; from it, definite sensation and perception; from it, thirst or desire; from it, embryotic (physical) existence; from it, birth or actual physical existence; from it, all the distinctions of genus and species among animate things; from them, decay and death, after the manner and period peculiar to each. Such is the procession of all things into existence from Avidyá, or delusion: and in the inverse order to that of their procession, they retrograde into non-existence. And the egress and regress are both Karma, wherefore this system is called Kārmika. (Súkya to his disciples in the Racha Bhagavatí.)

3. The existence of the versatile world is derived sheerly from fancy or imagination, or belief in its reality; and this false notion is the first Karma of Manas, or first act of the sentient principle, as yet unindividualized? and unembodied. This belief of the unembodied sentient principle in the reality of a mirage is attended with a longing after it, and a conviction of its worth and reality; which longing is called Sanscár, and constitutes the second Karma of Manas. When Sanscár becomes excessive incipient individual, consciousness arises (third Karma); thence proceeds an organised and definite, but archetypal body, the seat of that consciousness, (fourth Karma;) from the last results the existence of [the six sensible and cognizable properties of] natural† objects, moral and physical, (fifth Karma.) When the

obiterated throughout India every vestige of the splendid and extensive literature of the Buddhás, would have little scruple in expunging from their own sacred books the royal lineage of the great founder of Buddhism.

* See the note on quotation 6 of the section A'li Sanyha. Also the note on quotation 1 of the Yatnaka system.

† So I render, after much inquiry, the Shad Ayatan, or six seats of the senses external and internal; and which are in detail as follows: Rupa, Savda, Ganda,
archetypally embodied sentient principle comes to exercise itself on these properties of things, then definite perception or knowledge is produced, as that this is white, the other, black; this is right, the other wrong, (sixth Karma.) Thence arises desire or worldly affection in the archetypal body, (seventh Karma,) which leads to corporeal conception, (eighth,) and that to physical birth, (ninth.) From birth result the varieties of genus and species distinguishing animated nature, (tenth Karma,) and thence come decay and death in the time and manner peculiar to each, (eleventh and final Karma.) Such is the evolution of all things in Pravritti; opposed to which is Nirvritti, and the Rasa, Sparsa, Dharma. There is an obvious difficulty as to Sparsa, and some also as to Dharma. The whole category of the Ayatans expresses outward things: and after much investigation, I gather, that under Rupa is comprised not only colour, but form too, so far as its discrimination (or, in Kārmika terms, its existence) depends on sight; and that all other unspecified properties of body are referred to Sparsa, which therefore includes not only temperature, roughness, and smoothness, and hardness, and its opposite, but also gravity, and even extended figure, though not extension in the abstract.

Here we have not merely the secondary or sensible properties of matter, but also the primary ones; and, as the existence of the Ayatans or outward objects perceived, is said to be derived from the Indriyās, (or from Mānās, which is their collective energy,) in other words, to be derived from the sheer exercise of the percipient powers. Nor is there any difficulty thence arising in reference to the Kārmika doctrine, which clearly affirms that theory by its derivation of all things from Pratyaya (belief), or from Avidya (ignorance). But the Indriyās and Ayatāns, with their necessary connexion, (and, possibly, also, the making Avidya the source of all things,) belong likewise to one section at least of the Swabhāvika school; and, in regard to it, it will require a nice hand to exhibit this Berkleyan notion existing co-ordinately with the leading tenet of the Swabhāvikas. In the way of explanation I may observe, first, that the denial of material entity involved in the Indriyā and Ayatān theory (as in that of Avidya) respects solely the versatile world of Pravritti, or of specific forms merely, and does not touch the Nirvrittikā state of formative powers and of primal substances, to which latter, in that condition, the qualities of gravity, and even of extended figure, in any sense cognizable by human faculties, are denied, at the same time, that the real and even eternal existence of those substances, in that state, is affirmed.

Second, though Dharma, the sixth Ayatān, be rendered by virtue, the appropriated object of the internal sense, it must be remembered, that most of the Swabhāvikas, whilst they deny a moral ruler of the universe, affirm the existence of morality as a part of the system of nature. Others again (the minority) of the Swabhāvikas reject the sixth Indriya, and sixth Ayatān, and, with them, the sixth Dhyāni Buddha, or Vajrā Sattva, who, by the way, is the Magnus Apollo of the Tāntrikās, a sect the mystic and obscene character of whose ritual is redeemed by its unusually explicit enunciation and acknowledgment of a “God above all.”

The published explanations of the procession of all things from Avidya appear to me irreconcilably to conflict with the ideal basis of the theory.
recurrence of Nirvrittī is the sheer consequence of the abandonment of all absurd ideas respecting the reality and stability of Pravritti, or, which is the same thing, the abandonment of Avidya: for, when Avidya is relinquished or overcome, Sanscīra and all the rest of the Karmas or acts of the sentient principle, vanish with it; and also, of course, all mundane things and existences, which are thence only derived. Now, therefore, we see that Pravritti or the versatile world is the consequence of affection for a shadow, in the belief that it is a substance; and Nirvrittī is the consequence of an abandonment of all such affection and belief. And Pravritti and Nirvrittī, which divide the universe, are Karmas; wherefore the system is called Kārmika. (Comment on Quotation 2.)

4. Since the world is produced by the Karma of Manas, or sheer act of the sentient principle, it is therefore called Kārmika. The manner of procession of all things into existence is thus. From the union of Upōya and of Prōjna, Manas proceeded; and from Manas, Avidya; and from Avidya, Sanscīr; and from Sanscīr, Vijñāna; and from Vijñāna, Nāmarūpa; and from Nāmarūpa, the Shad Aystan*; and from them, Vedana; and from it, Trishna; and from it, Upadīn; and from it, Bhava; and from it, Jati; and from it, Jātirūpa Manas, (i.e. the sentient principle in organized animate beings) emanated the ten virtues and ten vices. And as men's words and deeds partake of the character of the one or the other, is their lot disposed, felicity being inseparably bound to virtue, and misery to vice, by the very nature of Karma.

Such is the procession of all things into existence from Manas through Avidyā; and when Avidyā ceases, all the rest cease with it. Now, since Avidyā is a false knowledge, and is also the medium of all mundane existence, when it ceases, the world vanishes; and Manas, relieved from its illusion, is absorbed into Upōya Prōjna†. Pravritti is the state of things under the influence of Avidyā; and the cessation of Avidyā is Nirvrittī: Pravritti and Nirvrittī are both Karmas. (Another comment on quotation 2.)

* i.e. colour, odour, savour, sound, the properties dependent on touch, (which are hardness, and its opposite, temperature, roughness and smoothness, and also I believe gravity and extended figure,) and lastly, right and wrong. They are called the seats of the six senses, the five ordinary, and one internal. In this quotation I have purposely retained the original terms. Their import may be gathered from the immediately preceding quotations and note, which the curious may compare with Mr. Colebrooke's explication. See his paper on the Baudhāy philosophy, apud Trans. Roy. As. Socy. quarto vol.

† The Vāmāchāras say into Prōjna Upōya: see note on quotation 6 of the section Aḍī Sangha.
5. The actions of a man’s former births constitute his destiny*. (Punya paroda.)

6. He who has received from nature such wisdom as to read his own heart, and those of all others, even he cannot erase the characters which Vidhātri† has written on his forehead. (Avadan Kalpalatā.)

7. As the faithful servant walks behind his master when he walks, and stands behind him when he stands, so every animate being is bound in the chains of Karma. (Ditto.)

8. Karma accompanies every one, every where, every instant, through the forest, and across the ocean, and over the highest mountains, into the heaven of Indra, and into Pātāla (hell); and no power can stay it. (Ditto.)

9. Kanāl, son of king Aśoka, because in one birth he plucked out the golden eyes from a Chaitya, had his own eyes plucked out in the next; and because he in that birth bestowed a pair of golden eyes on a Chaitya, received himself in the succeeding birth eyes of unequalled splendour. (Avadan Kalpalatā.)

10. Sa’kya Sinha’s son, named Ra’hula Bhadra, remained six years in the womb of his mother Yasodrā. The pain and anxiety of mother and son were caused by the Karmas of their former births. (Ditto.)

11. Although I had required (Śūkya speaks of himself) a perfect body, still, even in this body, defect again appeared; because I had yet to expiate a small residue of the sins of former births. (Lallitā Vistara.)

The Yātika System.

1. Iswara (A’di Buddha) produced Yatna from Prajnaṣ; and the cause of Pravritti and Nirvritti is Yatna; and all the difficulties that

* Dāivyā, identified with A’di Buddha by the theistic, and with Fate, by the atheistic doctors. The precise equivalent of the maxim itself is our ‘conduct is fate.’
† Bramha, but here understood to be Karma.
‡ Chaitya is the name of the tomb temples or relic-consecrated churches of the Buddhists. The essential part of the structure is the lower hemisphere; above this a square basement or Toran always supports the acutely conical or pyramidal superstructure, and on all four sides of that basement two eyes are placed. Wherever the lower hemisphere is found, is indisputable evidence of Buddhism, e. g. ‘the topes’ of Manikulaya and of Peshawar. In niches at the base of the hemisphere are frequently enshrined four of the five Dhyāni Buddhas, one opposite to each cardinal point. Akshobhya occupies the eastern niche; Ratna sambhava, the southern; Amitabha, the western, and Amoghasiddha, the northern. Vairochana, the first Dhyāni Buddha, is supposed to occupy the centre, invisibly. Sometimes, however, he appears visibly, being placed at the right-hand of Akshobhya.

§ This, as I conceive, is an attempt to remedy that cardinal defect of the older Sūdibhāvika school, viz. the denial of personality, and conscious power and wisdom in the first cause. To the same effect is the Karmika assertion,
occur in the affairs of this world and the next are vanquished by Yatna (or conscious intellectual effort). (Divya Avadan.)

2. That above mentioned Iswara, by means of Yatna, produced the five Jñáns, whence sprang the five Buddhás. The five Buddhás, in like manner, (i.e. by means of Yatna,) produced the five Bodhi satwas: and they again, by the same means, created the greater Devatás from their bodies, and the lesser ones, from the hairs of their bodies. In like manner, Brahma' created the three Lokas* and all moving and motionless things. Among mortals, all difficulties are overcome by Yatna; for example, those of the sea by ships, those of illness by medicine, those of travelling by equipages—and want of paper, by prepared skin and bark of trees. And as all our worldly obstacles are removed by Yatna, so the wisdom which wins Nirvritti for us is the result of Yatna; because by it alone are charity and the rest of the virtues acquired. Since therefore all the goods of this world and of the next depend upon Yatna, Sa'kya Sinha wandered from region to region to teach mankind that cardinal truth. (Comment on Quotation 1.)

3. That A'di Buddha, whom the Svabhávikas call Svabháva, and the Aiswárikas, Iswara†, produced a Bodhi satwa, who, having migrated through the three worlds, and through all six forms of animate existence, and experienced the goods and evils of every state of being, appeared, at last, as Súkya Sinha, to teach mankind the real sources of happiness and misery, and the doctrines of the four schools of philosophy‡; and then, by means of Yatna, having obtained Bodhi-jñána, and having fulfilled all the Páramítás (transcendental virtues), he at length became Nirván. (Divya Avadán.)

4. Sa’kya Sinha, having emanated from that self-existent which, according to some, is Svabháva, and according to others, is Iswara, was produced for the purpose of preserving all creatures. He first adopted the Prawritti Mórga (secular character), and in several births exercised Yatna and Karma, reaping the fruits of his actions in all the three worlds. He then exercised Yatna and Karma in the Nirvritti

that Manas proceeded from the union of Upáya and Prájña. Karma I understand to mean conscious moral effort, and Yatna, conscious intellectual effort, Their admission in respect to human nature implies its free will, as their assignation to the divine nature implies its personality.

* The celestial, terrene, and infernal divisions of the versatile universe.

† Passages of this entirely pyrrhonic tenure incessantly recur in the oldest and highest authorities of the Buddhists; hence the assertion of the preface that Sugatism is rather sceptical than athetically dogmatic.

‡ Expressly called in the comment the Svabhávika, Aiswárika, Yatniká, and Kárniká systems. I find no authority in Sangata books for the Brahminical nomenclature of the Bauddha philosophical schools.
Mārga (ascetical or monastic character) essaying a release from this mortal coil, fulfilling the ten virtues from the Śatya to the Dwāpara Yuga, till at last, in the Kali Yuga, having completely freed himself from sublunary cares, having become a Bhikshu*, and gone to Buddh Gyā, he rejected and reviled the Brāhmanical penance, did all sorts of true penance for six years under the tree of knowledge on banks of the Niranjana river; conquered the Namuchimaraf, obtained Bodhi-jnyān, became the most perfect of the Buddhās, seated himself among the Bodhi satwas, (Ananda ’Bhikshu’ and the rest,) granted wisdom to the simple, fulfilled the desires of millions of people, and gave Moksha; to them and to himself. (Lallita Vistāra.)

5. A hare fell in with a tiger: by means of Yatna the hare threw the tiger into a well. Hence it appears that Yatna prevails over physical force, knowledge, and the Mantras. (Bhadra Kalpadvand.)

6. Nara Sinha (Rāja of Benares) was a monster of cruelty. Satta Swāmā Rāja, by means of Yatna, compelled him to deliver up 100 Rājkumārs, whom Nara Sinha had destined for a sacrifice to the gods. (Bhadra Kalpadvand.)

7. Sudhana Kumāra found a beautiful daughter of a horse-faced Rāja named Druḍma. By means of Yatna he carried her off, and kept her; and was immortalized for the exploit. (Swayambhu Purāna.)

Aḍī Buddha.

1. Know that when, in the beginning, all was perfect void (Mahā-sunyātaḥ), and the five elements were not, then Aḍī Buddha, the stainless, was revealed in the form of flame or light.

* Mendicant: one of the four regular orders of the Buddhās.—See the Preface.
† A Daitya of Kānchanaapara, personification of the principle of evil. Bodhi-jnyān is the wisdom of Buddhism. Ananda was one of the first and ablest of Sa’kya’s disciples. The first code of Buddhism is attributed to him.
‡ Emancipation, absorption.
§ The doctrine of Sunyāta is the darkest corner of the metaphysical labyrinth. 18 kinds of Sunyāta are enumerated in the Raksha Bhagavati. I understand it to mean generally space, which some of our philosophers have held to be plenum, others a vacuum. In the transcendental sense of the Buddhās, it signifies not merely the universal ubi, but also the modus vivendi of all things in the state of quiescence and abstraction from phenomenal being. The Buddhās have eternised matter or nature in that state. The energy of nature ever is, but is not ever exerted; and when not exerted, it is considered to be void of all those qualities which necessarily imply perishableness. Most of the Buddhās deem (upon different grounds) all phenomena to be as purely illusory as do the Vedantists. The phenomena of the latter are sheer energies of God; those of the former are sheer energies of Nature, deified and substituted for God. See note on quot. Aḍī Sangha. The Aiswarikas put their Aḍī Buddha in place of the nature of the older Swabhāvikas. See Journal of As. Soc. No. 33, Art. 1.
2. He in whom are the three gunas, who is the Mahā Mūrti and the Visvarūpa (form of all things), became manifest: he is the self-existent great Buddha, the A’di nāth, the Mahēswara.

3. He is the cause of all existences in the three worlds; the cause of their well being also. From his profound meditation (Dhyān), the universe was produced by him.

4. He is the self-existent, the Iswara, the sum of perfections, the infinite, void of members or passions: all things are types of him, and yet he was no type: he is the form of all things, and yet formless.

5. He is without parts, shapeless, self-sustained, void of pain and care, eternal and not eternal*; him I salute. (Karanda Vyūha.)

6. A’di Buddha is without beginning. He is perfect, pure within, the essence of the wisdom of thatness, or absolute truth. He knows all the past. His words are ever the same.

7. He is without second. He is omnipresent. He is Nairatmya lion to the Kūtirtha deer†. (Nam sanqūti.)

8. I make salutation to A’di Buddha, who is one and sole in the universe; who gives every one Bodhi-jñayān; whose name is Upōya; who became manifest in the greatest Sunyāta, as the letter A. Who is the Tathagata; who is known only to those who have attained the wisdom of absolute truth. (Ditto.)

9. As in the mirror we mortals see our forms reflected, so A’di Buddha is known (in Pravritti) by the 32 lakshanas and 80 anuvinjanas. (Ditto.)

10. As the rainbow, by means of its five colours, forewarns mortals of the coming weather, so does A’di Buddha admonish the world of its good and evil actions by means of his five essential colours‡. (Ditto.)

* One in Nirvṛtti; the other in Pravṛtti; and so of all the preceding contrasted epithets. Nirvṛtti is quiescence and abstraction: Pravṛtti, action and concretion. All the schools admit these two modes, and thus solve the difficulty of different properties existing in cause and in effects.

† Comment says, that Nairatmya is ‘ Sarva Dharmanām nirabhās lakshanang’; and that Tīrtha means Moksha, and Kūtirtha, any perversion of the doctrine of Moksha, as to say it consists in absorption into Brahma: and it explains the whole thus, ‘ He thunders in the ears of all those who misinterpret Moksha, there is no true Moksha, but Sunyāta.’ Another comment gives the sense thus, dividing the sentence into two parts, ‘ There is no atma (life or soul) without him: he alarms the wicked as the lion the deer.’ The first commentator is a Suśravāśika; the second, an Aśvāmikā one.

‡ White, blue, yellow, red, and green, assigned to the five Dhyani Buddhas.

For a detail of the lakshanas, anuvinjanas, balas, basitas, &c. of the neighbouring quotations, see Appendix A.
11. A’di Buddha delights in making happy every sentient being; he tenderly loves those who serve him. His majesty fills all with reverence and awe. He is the assuager of pain and grief. (Ditto.)

12. He is the possessor of the 10 virtues; the giver of the 10 virtues: the lord of the 10 heavens; lord of the Universe: present in the 10 heavens. (Ditto.)

13. By reason of the 10 jñāṇas, his soul is enlightened. He too is the enlightener of the 10 jñāṇas. He has 10 forms and 10 significations, and 10 strengths, and 10 basitas. He is omnipresent, the chief of the Munis. (Ditto.)

14. He has five bodies, and five jñāṇas, and five sights; is the mūkat of the five Buddhas, without partner. (Ditto.)

15. He is the creator of all the Buddhas: the chief of the Bodhi-satwas are cherished by him. He is the creator of Prajñā, and of the world; himself unmade. Aliter, he made the world by the existence of Prajñā; himself unmade. He is the author of virtue, the destroyer of all things*. (Ditto.)

16. He is the essence of all essences. He is the Vajra-ātma. He is the instantly-produced lord of the universe; the creator of Akāsh. He assumes the form of fire, by reason of the Prajñya-rupi-jñāṇa, to consume the straw of ignorance. (Ditto.)

A’di Prajñā, or Dharma.

1. I salute that Prājñā Paramitā, who by reason of her omniscience causes the tranquillity-seeking Sāvakas† to obtain absorption; who, by her knowledge of all the ways of action, causes each to go in the path suited to his genius, of whom wise men have said, that the external and internal diversities belonging to all animate nature, as produced by her, who is the mother of Buddha (Buddha Mūtra) of that Buddha to whose service all the Sāvakas and Bodhi-satwas dedicate themselves. (Pan-chawingsati Sahasrika.)

2. First air, then fire, then water, then earth‡, and in the centre of earth, Śuméru, the sides of which are the residence of the 33 millions

* The comment on this passage is very full, and very curious, in as much as it reduces many of these supreme deities to mere parts of speech. Here is the summing up of the comment: 'He (A’di Buddha) is the instructor of the Buddhas and of the Bodhi-satwas. He is known by the knowledge of spiritual wisdom. He is the creator and destroyer of all things, the fountain of virtue.' Spiritual wisdom is stated to consist of Sīla, Samādhi, Prājñā, Vīmūkhti, and Jayān.

† Name of one of the ascetical orders of Buddhists. See Preface.

‡ In this enumeration of material elements, Akāsh is omitted: but it is mentioned, and most emphatically, in quo. 4, as in the 50 other places quoted. In
of gods (Devatás), and above these, upon a Lotos of precious stones, sustaining the mansion of the moon (or a moon-crescent) sits Prójñá Paramita, in the Lallita-isan manner*; Prójñá, the mother of all the gods (Prasú-bhagavatán), and without beginning or end, (anádyant.) (Bhadra Kalpavadán.)

3. I make salutation to the Prójñá Deví, who is the Prójñá Paramita, the Prójñá rupa, the Nir rupa, and the universal mother. (Pujá kand.)

4. Thou Prójñá art, like Akásh, intact and intangible; thou art above all human wants; thou art established by thy own power. He who devoutly serves thee serves the Tathágata also. (Ashta Sahasrika.)

5. Thou mighty object of my worship! thou Prójñá, art the sum of all good qualities; and Buddha is the Gúrús of the world. The wise make no distinction between thee and Buddha. (Ashta Sahasrika.)

6. O thou who art merciful to thy worshippers, the benevolent, knowing thee to be the source of Bauddha excellence, attain perfect happiness by the worship of thee! (Ditto.)

7. Those Buddhas who are merciful, and the Gúrús of the world, all such Buddhas are thy children. Thou art all good, and the universal mother (Sakalajagat Pítá Mahí). (Ditto.)

8. Every Buddha assembling his disciples instructs them how from unity thou comest most multiformed and many named. (Ditto.)

9. Thou comest not from any place, thou goest not to any place. Do the wise nowhere find thee†? (Ditto.)

10. The Buddhas, Pratyéka Buddhas, and Srávakas‡, have all devoutly served thee. By thee alone is absorption obtained. These are truths revealed in all Shóstras. (Ditto.)

11. What tongue can utter thy praises, thou of whose being (or manifestation) there is no cause by thy own will. No Purána hath revealed any attribute by which thou mayest certainly be known. (Ditto.)

12. When all was Sunyáta, Prójñá Deví was revealed out of Akásh with the letter U; Prójñá, the mother of all the Buddhas and Bodhisatwas, in whose heart Dharma ever resides; Prójñá, who is without the world and the world’s wisdom, full of the wisdom of absolute truth:

like manner, the five elements are frequently mentioned, without allusion to the 6th, which however occurs in fit places. Omission of this sort is no denial.

* i. e. one leg tucked under the other, advanced and resting on the bow of the moon-crescent.
† The force of the question is this, the wise certainly find thee.
‡ The Buddhas are of three grades: the highest is Mahá Yána, the medial, Pratyéka, and the lowest, Sraváka. These three grades are called collectively the Tri-Yána, or three chariots, bearing their possessors to transcendental glory.
the giver and the ikon of that wisdom; the ever living (Sanatani); the inscrutable; the mother of Buddha*. (Pujà kand.)

13. O Prájná Déví! thou art the mother (Janani) of all the Budhás, the grandmother of the Bodhi-satwas, and great grandmother of all (other) creatures! thou art the goddess (Isóni). (Ditto.)

14. Thou, Sri Bhagavati Dévi Prájná, art the sum of all the sciences, the mother of all the Budhás, the enlightener of Bodhi-jñyán, the light of the universe! (Ganakárandha Vyúha.)

15. The humbler of the pride of Namuchi-mára, and of all proud ones: the giver of the quality of Satya; the possessor of all the sciences, the Lakshmi; the protector of all mortals, such is the Dharma Ratna. (Ditto.)

16. All that the Budhás have said, as contained in the Mahá Yína Sútra and the rest of the Sútras, is also Dharma Ratna†. (Ditto.)

17. Because Buddha sits on the brow, the splendour thence derived to thy form illuminates all the ethereal expanse, and sheds over the three worlds the light of a million of suns, the four Devatás, Brahma, Vishnu, Mahésa, and Indra, are oppressed beneath thy feet, which is advanced in the Alir-Asan. O Arya Túrá! he who shall meditate on thee in this form shall be relieved from all future births. (Saraká Dhará‡.)

18. Thy manifestation, say some of the wise, is thus, from the roots of the hairs of thy body sprang Akásh, heaven, earth, and hades, together with their inhabitants, the greater Devatás, the lesser, the Dáityas, the Siddhás, Gandharbas, and Nágas. So too (from thy hairs), wonderful to tell! were produced the various mansions of the Budhás, together with the thousands of Budhás who occupy them§. From thy own being were formed all moving and motionless things without exception. (Ditto.)

19. Salutation to Prájná Déví, from whom, in the form of desire,

* Sugatjá, which the Vámaúáhrs render, ' of whom Buddha was born; † the Dakshináhrs, ' born of Buddha,' or goer to Buddha, as wife to husband.
† Hence the scriptures are worshipped as forms of A'úi Dharma Sútra, means literally thread (of discourse), aphorism. Sákya, like other Indian sages, taught orally, and it is doubtful if he himself reduced his doctrines to a written code, though the great scriptures of the sect are now generally attributed to him. Sútra is now the title of the books of highest authority among the Budhás.
‡ Composed by Sarvajna Mitrapada of Kashmir, and in very high esteem, though not of scriptural authority.
§ These thousands of Budhás of immortal mould are somewhat opposed to the so called simplicity of Buddhism! whatever were the primitive doctrines of Sákya, it is certain that the system attributed to him, and now found in the written authorities of the sect, is the very antipodes of simplicity.
the production of the world was excellently obtained*, who is beautiful as the full moon, the mother of A'di Buddha, (Jinindra Matra,) and wife of (the other) Buddha, who is imperishable as adamant. (Sūdhana Māla.)

20. That Yoni, from which the world was made manifest, is the Trīkonākār Yantra. In the midst of the Yantra or trīkon (triangle) is a bindū (point, cypher): from that bindū, A'di Prājñā revealed herself by her own will. From one side of the triangle A'di Prājñā produced Buddha, and from another side, Dharma, and from the third side, Sangha. That A'di Prājñā is the mother of that Buddha who issued from the first side; and Dharma, who issued from the second side, is the wife of the Buddha of the first side, and the mother of the other Buddhas. (Comment on quotation 19.)

21. Salutation to Prājñā Pāramitā, the infinite, who, when all was void, was revealed by her own will, out of the letter U. Prājñā, the Sakti of Ēpāya, the sustainer of all things, (Dharmiki) the mother of the world, (Jagat-mātra;) the Dhyānrāpa, the mother of the Buddhás. The modesty of women is a form of her, and the prosperity of all earthly things. She is the wisdom of mortals, and the ease, and the joy, and the emancipation, and the knowledge. Prājñā is present every where. (Sūdhana Māla.)

A'di Sangha.

1. That A'mitabha, by virtue of his Samta-jñyān, created the Bodhisatwa named Padma-pāni, and committed to his hands the lotos†. (Gunakāranda Vyūha.)

* Dharmadya-saugata Kamrupini, variously rendered, 'well got from the rise of virtue,' 'well got from the rise or origin of the world;' also as in text, Dhar-madya, the source of all things, signifies likewise the Yoni, of which the type is a triangle. See 20. The triangle is a familiar symbol in temples of the Buddha Saktis, and of the Triad. Δ The point in the midst represents either A'di Buddha or A'di Prājñā, according to the theistic or atheistic tendency of his opinions who uses it. Our commentator is of the Vāmāchār or Atheistic school, and such also is his text.

† Type of creative power. A'mitabha is the 4th Dhyani or celestial Buddha: Padma-pāni is his Ēzōn and executive minister. Padma-pāni is the præsens Divus and creator of the existing system of worlds. Hence his identification with the third member of the Triad. He is figured as a graceful youth, erect, and bearing in either hand a lotus and a jewel. The last circumstance explains the meaning of the celebrated Shadakshari Mantra, or six-lettered invocation of him, viz. Om! Mane padme hon! of which so many corrupt versions and more corrupt interpretations have appeared from Chinese, Tibetan, Japanese, Mongolese, and other sources. The mantra in question is one of three, addressed to the several members of the Triad. But the præsens Divus, whether he be Augustus or Padma-pāni, is every thing with the many. Hence the notoriety of this
2. From between his (Padma-páni’s) shoulders sprang Brahma; from his forehead, Mahá Déva; from his two eyes, the sun and moon; from his mouth, the air; from his teeth, Saraswati; from his belly, Varuna; from his knees, Lakshmi; from his feet, the earth; from his navel, water; from the roots of his hair, the Indras and other Devatás. (Ditto.)

3. For the sake of obtaining Nirvṛtti, I devote myself to the feet of Sangha, who, having assumed the three Gunas, created the three worlds. (Pujá kánd.)

4. He (Padma-páni) is the possessor of Satya Dharma, the Bodhisatwa, the lord of the world, the Mahá-satwa, the master of all the Dharmas. (Gunakárdanda Vyúha).

5. The lord of all worlds, (Sarvalokádhípa,) the Sri-mán, the Dharma Rája, the Lokéswara, sprang from A’di Buddha (Jinatmíja.) Such is he whom men know for the Sangha Ratna. (Ditto.)

6. From the union of the essences of Upáya and of Prájñá proceeded the world, which is Sangha.

mantra, whilst the others are hardly ever heard of, and have thus remained unknown to our travellers.

* From A’mitábha Buddha immediately: mediate from A’di Buddha.
† Such is the Aiswarika reading. The Prájnikas read ‘from the union of Prájña and Upáya.’

With the former, Upáya is A’di Buddha, the efficient and plastic cause, or only the former; and Prájñá is A’di Dharma, plastic cause, a biunity with Buddha, or only a product. With the latter, Upáya is the energy of Prájña, the universal material cause.

The original aphorism, as I believe, is, ‘Prájñapayatmakang jagata,’ which I thus translate: ‘From the universal material principle, in a state of activity, proceeded the world.’ This original Sutra has, however, undergone two transformations to suit it to the respective doctrines of the Triadic Aiswarikas and of the Kármikas. The version of the former is, Upáyprájñanakang sangha; that of the latter is, Upáyprájñatmakang manasa. Of both, the Upáya is identical with A’di Buddha, and the Prájñá with A’di Dharma. But the result—the unsophisticated jagat of the Prájnikas, became A’di Sangha, a creator, with the Aiswarikas; and Manasa, the sentient principle in man, the first production, and producer of all other things, with the Kármikas. Avidyá, or the condition of mundane things and existences, is an illusion, alike with the Prájnikas and with the Kármikas. But, whilst the former consider Avidyá the universal affecion of the material and immediate cause of all things whatever; the latter regard Avidyá as an affection of manas merely, which they hold to be an immaterial principle and the mediate cause of all things else, A’di Buddha being their final cause. The phenomena of both are homogeneous and unreal: but the Prájnikas derive them, directly, from a material source—the Kármikas, indirectly, from an immaterial fount. Our sober European thoughts and languages can scarcely
P. S. With regard to the consistency or otherwise of the view of the subject taken in the sketch of Buddhism, with the general tenor of the foregoing quotations, I would observe, that the ideal theory involved in the Práñika, Swabhávika, and in the Karmika doctrines, was omitted by me in the sketch, from some then remaining hesitation as to its real drift, as well as its connexion with those schools, and no other. Upon this exclusive connexion I have still some doubt. For the rest, I retain unchanged the opinions expressed in the sketch, that the Karmika and Yátnika schools are more recent than the others—that they owe their origin to attempts to qualify the extravagant quietism of the primitive Swabhávikas, and even of the Aiswarikas—and that their contradistinguishing mark is the preference given by them respectively to morals, or to intellect, with a view to final beautitude. The assertion of the Ashtasahasrika, that Swabháva, or nature absolutely disposes of us, not less than the assertion of others, that an immaterial abstraction so disposes of us, very logically leads the author of the Buddha Charitra to deny the use of virtue or intellect. To oppose these ancient notions was, I conceive, the especial object of those who, by laying due stress on Karma and Yatna, gave rise to the Kármika and Yátnika schools. But that these latter entertained such just and adequate notions of God’s providence, or man’s free will, as we are familiar with, it is not necessary to suppose, and is altogether improbable. None such they could entertain if, as I believe, they adopted the more general principles of their predecessors. The ideal theory or denial of the reality of the versatile world, has, in some of its numerous phrases, a philosophical foundation; but its prevalence and popularity among the Buddhists are ascribable principally to that enthusiastic contempt of action for which these quietists are so remarkable. Their passionate love of abstractions is another prop of this theory.

cope with such extravagancies as these: but it would seem we must call the one doctrine material, the other, immaterial, idealism.

The phenomena of the Práñikas are sheer energies of matter, those of the Karmikas, are sheer (human) perceptions. The notions of the former rest on general grounds—those of the latter, on particular ones, or (as it has been phrased) upon the putting the world into a man’s self; the Greek ‘‘panton metron anthropos.’’
APPENDIX A.

Detailed Enumeration of some of the principal Attributes of A’di Buddha, referred to in the proceeding Quotations under that Head.

दारिंशक्षणमणि |
चकाक्षितपारिपादनता १
सुरत्तिहतपारिपादनता २
जानाबद्वसमुत्सितपारिपाद सत्ता ३
श्रुतवचासपादतत्त्व ४ प्रमोदत्ता ५
दोषमृत्ता ६ अध्यात्मप्रतिष्ठा ७ णह्यात्मता ८
उवाङ्गपादता ९ चाणागर्त्ता १०
रेणेवधस्थता ११ पतुदवारता १२
कार्यवत्वलुग्मतत्त्व १३ शून्यवचनता १४
श्रुताशिवा १५ प्रतिविश्वासकर्मातमा १६
उपाद्वावसमुखता १७ भिक्षुपृवेक्कायत १८
सुह्मेतसक्समता १९ चित्तासागरता २०
रघुराजता २१ नाथाधिपरिशंकलता २२
उपिक्षिषरसर २३ प्रभुविज्ञना २४
प्रकाशरत २५ मिस्त्रवत्ता २६ युक्ततुम २७
समस्तता २८ चंदनाकालगर्ता २९
अभिविद्यमता ३० यमचलारितस्सनता ३१
अभिविधनेत्र ३२

अष्टैति चातननानि |
आतावनखता १ सिद्धनखता २ हुमनखता ३
उपगुम्बित ४ उपनुषीमुग्मिता ५ गृढिरत ६
नामसिबिरता ७ मुखविवश धाता ८ खविवम्पादता ९
चित्रविकालगमता १० नामविकालगमता ११
उपविकालगमता १२ उपविकालगमता १३
प्रदिपालगमता १४ चालगमता १५
अबिलगमता १६ भनगमता १७ श्रहगमता १८
चनुपूरवेहारता १९ रुचिविथता २० श्रुद्धगमता २१
चित्रदगमता २२ परिपूर्णांजनता २३
प्रयुचासपालगमता २४ समकस्म २५
चित्रसिनेता २६ सुकुमारगमता २७
कासिनगमता २८ उपायामगमता २९
गिरीयकुरीता ३० प्रस्तवगमता ३१
स्विन्यमोघस्मयता ३२ बितिमिरुपालगमता ३३
हांगिरुचिता ३४ श्रुद्धकुचिता ३५
अबिकुचिता ३६ अच्छाकुचिता ३७
Quotations from original Sanscrit
 Authorities on Buddhism.

1836.

Authorities on Buddhism.
APPENDIX B.

Classified Enumeration of the principal Objects of Baudhā Worship.

Ekāmnāyā.

Upāya.

'Adi-Buddha.

Mahā-Vairochana.

Ekāmnāyāl.

Prajnā.

Prajnā-pāramitā.

Dvāyāmnāyā.

1. 2.

Upāya. Prajnā. { Root of theistic doctrine.

1. 2.

Prajnā. Upāya. { Root of atheistic ditto.

Trayāmnāyā.

2. 1. 3.


2. 1. 3.


1. 2. 3.


Pancha-Buddhāmnāyā.

4. 2. 1. 3. 5.


Pancha-Prajnāmnāyā.

4. 2. 1. 3. 5.


Pancha-Sangha-Āmnāyā.

4. 2. 1. 3. 5.


Pancha-Sanbha-Prajnāmnāyā.

4. 2. 1. 3. 5.


Matantara-Pancha-Buddhāmnāyā.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.


Matantara-Pancha-Prajnāmnāyā.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.


Matantara-Pancha-Sangha-Āmnāyā.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.


Matantara-Pancha-Sangha-Prajnāmnāyā.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.


Matantara-Pancha-Buddhāmnāyā.

4. 2. 1. 3. 5.


Matantara-Pancha-Prajnāmnāyā.

4. 2. 1. 3. 5.


Shad-A'mnāyā- Buddhaṃ.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.

 Authorities on Buddhism.

6. 4. 5. 7. Saddharmapundarīka. Samādhirāja. Lankāvatāra. Tathāgataguhāyakā.

O 2
III.—Notes explanatory of a Collection of Geological Specimens from
the Country between Hyderabad and Nagpur. By J. G. Malcolmson,
Assistant Surgeon, Madras Establishment. Pl. V.

I had the pleasure of forwarding from Madras, a selection of geolo-

gical specimens, collected in May, 1833, between the cities of Hyderabad

and Nagpur. I regret, that circumstances prevented my doing this

sooner, and that the notes in explanation of the localities whence they

were obtained, must now be short and imperfect; I hope, however,

that the specimens themselves will be of use in illustrating the geology

of a tract of country hitherto undescribed, and which connects the

formations of the south-east of the Deccan, with those in the neigh-

bourhood of the valley of the Narbada.

From my inability to identify, describe, and figure the numerous

fossils, discovered in the tract of country between the Godavery

and the town of Hinganghat, 47 miles south of Nagpur, and the

importance of these, in reference to the questions as to the relative

age of the great trap formation of the Deccan, and of the west of

India, and the clay-slate formation of Voysey, with its associated sand-


one, and the periods of elevation of the granitic rocks, on which

* See his account of the diamond mines of Banganapilly.—As. Res. xviii.
they appear universally to rest; I am induced, contrary to my former intention, to take to England with me, those specimens of which there are no duplicates. The separation of the collection would greatly lessen its value, by depriving me of the opportunity of comparing, with each other, and with arranged collections, the fragments of those of which duplicates were not preserved, and of thus restoring the fossils of which no perfect specimen was found. A selection of the most perfect were, also, sent to Mr. Lyell, but as he considers it requisite that numerous species should be ascertained previous to arriving at any conclusion as to the age of the fossiliferous rocks, it may be for the advantage of Indian geology, to submit the rest of the specimens to him; and on the characters being determined, to return a portion of them to India. There are, however, a sufficient number of duplicates to illustrate the outlines of the geology of the interesting tract of country referred to, and to connect the singular phenomena observed, with others, to the west and east of the route, and in the countries of the peninsula to the south, and the Bengal provinces to the north. The outline map includes several places, inserted in the plans published along with Dr. Voysey's papers and Captain Jenkin's Account of the Mineralogy of Nagpur, p. 199, of the 18th volume of the Asiatic Researches; the interval between which, it will assist in filling up. I shall seldom use mineralogical terms, except I have had an opportunity of comparing the specimens with those collected by persons well acquainted with the science; and when they do occur, an examination of the specimens will afford the means of correcting any errors that may be fallen into. The geological relations of the strata were ascertained with as much care as the nature of the country permitted, and no exertion was spared in tracing them as far as possible, both on the plains, at the foot of the hills, and their most inaccessible summits. My avocations however were unfavourable, and a person more at leisure would find an ample field to reward his labours. He must, however, be prepared to pursue his examinations in the height of the hot season, when the grass and wood jungle are less luxuriant, and the plains free from their covering of jawiri and other grain.

Some account has already been published* of the country between Masulipatam and Hyderabad, on which I had not an opportunity of making many observations. One or two points, however, deserve to be noticed, as the specimens collected in this part of the route are similar to those found north of Hyderabad as far as Nirmal, and throw some light on appearances on which important inferences have been too hastily founded.

* Asiatic Researches, vol. xviii.
Notes on Geological Specimens from

At page 70, volume ii. of the Gleanings in Science, a desire is expressed by a gentleman at home, stated to be of high scientific acquirements, that specimens should be collected from the face of the hill of Beirwarah, where it has been cut through by the Kistnah river; and the author of the queries seems to be impressed with a belief, that a lake had formerly existed some way above it, towards Warapilly. The distance, however, between the Warapilly ghat and Beirwarah, is considerable; and I do not think, that there are any decided appearances at the former of the blue limestone of the clay-slate formation having constituted the margin of a lake. The strata at the upper part of the rising ground to the north of the river are as hard as those lower in the valley, or on the opposite bank. A specimen of this rock, of a pure white color, and of great hardness, which I broke from the summit of the ascent above Warapilly, well known to travellers from the difficulty of riding over the large smooth slabs of marble, and which would have been admirably adapted for lithographic purposes, had it been free from minute crystals of quartz, was sent to you about three years ago by Captain Smith of the Madras Engineers. The junction of this rock with the granite to the north, could not be seen, the country being flat, and covered with low jungle. Jaspers and fragments of trap are found in the bed of the river, and the granite to the north is intersected by numerous dykes of greenstone, usually running from S. E. by E. to N. W. by W. To the south of the river, the country is lower, and for some way beyond the town of Dachapilly, the limestone, usually dipping slightly to the south, continues to be the surface rock; which, whenever I have met with it, on the Kistnah, at Cuddapah, near Auk, and the diamond mines of Banganapilly, and at Tarpurthi in Bellary, or in the neighbourhood of the Wurrah, affords the best indications of success to experiments in boring; copious springs spontaneously rising from it, or being lost in the interstices between its nearly horizontal strata.

At Beirwarah, the river Kistnah appears to have cut a channel through the short ridge of hills, which terminates on either side in rather precipitous cliffs, and admits the stream into the great alluvial plains extending to the mouths of the Kistnah and Godavery. Above, the country has much the appearance of having once been an extensive lake, the bottom of which now forms the rich plain extending to Condapilly to the N. W., and Munglegaherry to the south of the river. It

* I use this term of Dr. Voysey, but think its adoption more objectionable than argillaceous limestone, used by Colonel Cullen in the Madras Transactions. It would be better to characterise it as "blue limestone," "Cuddapah limestone," or other term involving no opinion as to its geological relations.
is probably here, that Captain Herbert's correspondent observed that the "hardness and composition of the rock appeared to differ, according to the pressure they have been subjected to." I believe, that specimens of the rocks of the bottom of the hill, have been sent to the Asiatic Society by Dr. Benza, and that they are composed of the peculiar gneiss of the coast. Felspar is common, and some of the varieties possess considerable beauty. There are the remains of a rock pagoda cut in a mass of compact felspar, above the road, leading along the edge of the precipice over the river, portions of which have fallen, the natural fissures of the rock exposing it to this kind of decay. On the top of the hill the soft friable white rock, No. 2*, is found, and is carried away by the natives for the purpose of whitening the walls of their houses. It corresponds exactly with specimens from Vizagapatam, described as gneiss by Heyne, and containing imperfect garnets. It is not, however, either its site as lying above other rocks, or its exposed situation, that has led to its decay, so much as the composition of the ridge where the edges of the strata rise to the south. The strata dip at a very considerable angle a little to the south of east. A careful survey of the hills from the summit shows, that they are short insulated ranges, such as are found over the Circars and other tracts, rising from a level country; and that had a lake existed in the plain above, every slight rise of the river would have carried its waters round their shoulders to the north and south. The rise in the line of bearing of the strata of the hill north of the river, and the appearance of that to the south, do not support the opinion that the lake was drained by the river deepening its channel. I do not know whether it can be supposed to derive any support from a tale told of the river god (Krishna) having induced the patron of the hill, who seems to be a form of Shiva, to permit him to get his head through, and that then he forced a passage. The granitic hills of Condapilly are seen a few miles to the N. W.; and in the midst of the plain, rising out of it like an island, are some great masses of hornblende rock, No. 6; and Dr. Benza informs me that he saw dykes of the same kind of greenstone passing through the gneiss at Beirwarah. A mile and a half further on the road to Hyderabad is a quarry of granitic rock, devoid of hornblende, and containing only a very little felspar and a few scattered garnets. A little beyond this, the rocks assume the decided characters of the great granite formation of the Deccan, with which Dr. Voysey's papers have made your readers acquainted. The geological structure of the Circars is in nothing so peculiar, as in the extensive

* The numbers refer to specimens deposited in the Society's Cabinet.—Ed.
distribution of the singular sandstone-like gneiss described by Heyne; and which, in hand specimens, it is often impossible to distinguish from the sandstone also found in many localities: and I do not know a more interesting subject of inquiry, than that of ascertaining whether this singular rock is metamorphic, and the sandstone altered by the intrusion of the great masses of porphyry so commonly found near these equivocal rocks, and by the numerous greenstone dykes and masses scattered over the whole of these districts. The diamond mines of Mulavelly are at no great distance from Condapilly, to the right of the road, situated in a basin between hills covered with jungle. The sides of which, one-third from the top, were found by Dr. W. Davidson to be strewn with a sandstone conglomerate; but he was prevented getting to the top by the approach of night. Fragments of this are found in the gravel, of which I believe specimens have already been sent to the Society, intermixed with much kankar: and from some pits in the valley, most of the lime used in the district is procured. The soil of the country on the Hyderabad Military road, after leaving the alluvial plain above Beirwarah, is formed of decomposed granite, but contains much lime. This admixture, and the kankar nodules, are probably of recent origin; as I observed, in a valley to the right of the road north of the hill fort of Yeralagundah, about 18 miles from Beirwarah, a stream trickling over granite rocks, and depositing lime on all the branches and rocks around. Some pieces of stone of considerable size have thus been formed, and recent specimens, containing remains of branches, or of grass, easily crumble to pieces, and are carried away by the stream. The source of the spring I was prevented from ascertaining, by the approach of night; and as an excuse for leaving this and other interesting circumstances unexplored, I must state, that being in Medical charge of the European regiment, during a sickly season, I could not command my own time of marching, or sufficient leisure.

The character of the granite of the Deccan continues well marked throughout the remaining part of the route to Hyderabad, and dykes and imbedded masses of a fine crystalline greenstone or hornblende rock of great hardness are frequently seen. These last have occasionally irregular shapes, and in one or two instances, that of the italic or other irregular curve; and near Secunderabad, they appear to be connected with the dykes, in the neighbourhood of which they are found. It was also frequently observed, that the various substances entering into the composition of the granite in the neighbourhood of these dykes or masses, formed very large and distinct crystals; and the imbedded greenstone, though often intimately united with the
granite, was in others more loosely connected, and easily separated by the progress of decomposition, leaving rounded cavities in the rock.

A circumstance of more importance, however, is the occurrence of the beds of kankar in this tract, being, as far as I have observed, always near some of the greenstone dykes or beds, and frequently under or intermingled with masses of granite, which is in a rapid state of decay: these are usually rounded, partly from the progress of decomposition, and sometimes from the tendency to concentric forms, which it occasionally undoubtedly assumes. The small detritus is in some places accumulated to a great depth, and it has been stated by Dr. Christie, that this debris is, at a considerable depth, again consolidated by pressure. In the Edinburgh Journal of Science, 1828-29, this is also mentioned as a fact, common to the rocks of other parts of India. With every respect for his authority, I cannot avoid the conviction, that the inference was founded on imperfect observation, and that it has since been employed in Europe, in support of an ill-founded theory.

No. 15, is "Mhurrum" or gravel found in deepening a well at Bolaram, (six miles from Secunderabad,) upwards of 50 feet deep, during the very dry season of 1832, and is not in the slightest degree consolidated. A loose block, which had resisted decomposition, was found above it, and contains mica, (No. 15,) a rare ingredient in the granite of Hyderabad. Much of the debris at Secunderabad is, however, consolidated by lime, which is seen to agglutinate the fragments, or to pass in vein-like lines or nodules through the gravel. Occasionally there are only a few fragments of quartz or felspar scattered through the kankar, or they appear to be inserted into the surface, as in No. 10, which is extremely hard. Generally, however, the agglutinated gravel is friable, and the cement less obvious. The debris is also sometimes united into pulverulent masses, by the oxidation of the iron contained in the sienite; but this takes place at the surface, and seldom acquires any great degree of hardness. Specimens of the granite in the neighbourhood of Hyderabad are numbered 14; and the appearance of the surface of that polished by the continual passage of hyenas, in the entrance of the caverns formed in the pile of gneiss or granite of the "Chitá hill," near the cantonment, has been described in the 1st volume of the Journal of the Asiatic Society, (No. 12.) The greenstone occasionally has distinct crystals of felspar scattered through it, without the porphyry thus formed, losing the remarkable degree of toughness possessed by the black rock; but, as observed by Sir H. Davy, the decomposition of the felspar is more rapid than of the other parts, (No. 19.) The greenstone is familiarly
known by the name of "black granite," and forms, when finely polish-
ed, the beautiful tombstones of the Golconda mausoleums, and the
pillars of that in which HYDER and TIPPU SULTAN are deposited, at
Seringapatam. The remarkable quartz veins in the neighbourhood of
Hyderabad have been described by VOYSEY and CHRISTIE; it is there-
fore only necessary to mention, that they occasionally exhibit a more
or less regular crystallization, and at the same time, acquire the fine
tints of the amethyst. It is seldom that they are sufficiently regular
and perfect for the purposes of the lapidary; such specimens were,
however, discovered a few years ago, close to the European barracks,
and at a little distance from a great greenstone dyke, but not in direct
contact with the quartz bed containing the crystals, which, on the
contrary, passes into the ordinary sienitic granite of the country. The
colour of the amethystine quartz seems to be derived from magnetic iron
ore, which is disseminated in grains both through the milky quartz
and the granite, amongst which they are found, and has not been noticed
elsewhere in the neighbourhood. The amethystine quartz was again
met with 60 miles north of Secunderabad, near Bekanurpettah, in loose
masses, along with that variety of laterite found near Beder, and
described by VOYSEY, and which is seen along the coasts of Malabar
and at Boranghur in the Southern Concan resting on basalt. The rising
ground on which they were found is composed of granite; but the
country around is of a black trap soil, and numerous low flat ranges
of basaltic hills are seen to the north, the east, and the west. A vein
of white quartz is also met with as at Secunderabad, but the specimens
differ, in containing irregular shaped geodes of agate, lined with crys-
tals, or a red opake mamillary quartz, approaching to calcedony. The
iron in these is usually imperfectly mixed with the quartz, and from
the appearances above described, and the quartz having in several
specimens been changed into a red jasper, the surrounding trap may
be supposed to have altered the rocks. The colouring matter seems
to have been afforded by the laterite, which is found in the neighbour-
hood apparently in dykes, and in contact with the quartz which inter-
sects the granite; but there being no section, and the water-worn
surface only being visible, no evidence could here be obtained, in
support of any of the opinions entertained by geologists, relative to
this singular formation. The amethysts are also found south of Jan-
ganapilly, and at Kamareddypettah, and Mr. W. GEDDES met with
them, of a greenish yellow tinge, south of Balcondah.

Granite Tract between Hyderabad and the Nirmul Hills.

The valleys and some plains about Bekanurpettah are composed of
black soil, mixed with calcedonies, &c.; and to the west of the road
are some flat hills, which I had not an opportunity of examining. They corresponded in their steep sides and flat summits with the trap hills to be presently described, and Mr. Geddes informed me, that they are formed of amygdaloidal trap, based on decaying granite. With these interruptions, the granite continues to Kamareddy petta, but the mamillary eminences, and the tors and logging stones formed from their decomposition, are of more rare occurrence. The granite, however, still continues to exhibit the lamellar structure, and is easily split into large slabs. In some instances, where the lamellae are thin, the vertical fissures which frequently intersect them in right lines, and greatly assist the progress of decomposition, cause the rock to break into regular rhomboids. The last "tor stones" observed on the road to Nagpur were north of Jakrampilly, where they occurred on a lofty hill, on which there is a small pagoda. After leaving the basaltic hills near Bekenurpetta and Jungampilly, black soil is seen in the valley below a large tank, and some dykes of greenstone pass the road in the direction of S. by E. to N. by W. at Kamareddy petta: the granite is lamellar white, with black mica and some hornblende, and fragments of amethystine quartz are scattered about. A little to the north of the town, on ascending a very gentle ascent, the red soil and granite give way to black soil, derived from decomposed trap rock, which is concentric on the top, but lower down is arranged in imperfect strata. On descending the hill to the north, the black soil conceals the granite for a short distance; but at the bottom of the hill, and in the bed of a small water-course, it is seen of the same appearance as before. Immediately beyond this, there is a very remarkable hill, which is seen from a considerable distance standing out from the gently undulating country, and possessing the peculiar form of the trap hills of the Deccan. It lies five miles north of Kamareddy petta, and four miles south of the village of Nugger, and is marked on the specimens as the "hill of Nugger." On approaching it by a very gradual ascent, the soil changes to black; and all at once the hill rises with nearly perpendicular sides, constituting a narrow ridge, about half a mile in length, and of a shape approaching to that of an Italic / running nearly N. by E. to S. by W. The hill is entirely formed of basalt, as its form had led me to expect. Above and in the body of the hill it has a concentric globular structure, the external layers of which are remarkably soft, and on the top of the hill resemble a peperino; lower down it is soft, of a greenish color, and soapy feel, (Nos. 66 and 69.) The nuclei left undecayed on the top, are exceedingly hard and tough, of a deep black colour, and contain large crystals of olivine, and small globules of calcidony. Many small but very characteristic specimens
of this last mentioned mineral, which had been imbedded between the concentric nodules, were picked up (No. 67). At the bottom of the hill, the basalt loses its concentric form, and occurs in tables or laminae, having the appearance of having been subjected to violent forces. It sounds under the hammer when struck. Various specimens of the trap are much loaded with iron, sometimes in grains of a reddish brown colour; at others, it appears as if it had been partially smelted, and is not very different in its appearance from some examples of laterite. Much of the "kankar" that abounds in the soil is coloured with iron, while other portions are perfectly white; it is not, however, confined to the soil, as it was observed to have formed between two laminae of the basalt, and by the gradual deposition of the lime, to have nearly broken up the upper stratum. From between some of the vertical fissures in the tables, and round the large rounded masses that occur in them, a formation of "kankar" projects in several places half a foot from the surface of the rock. It was evident, that the water loaded with lime, percolating through the alluvial black soil, or through the rock itself, gradually deposits the earth, where its accumulation is favoured by circumstances, of which the most important is the occurrence of an impervious rock or soil below that supplying the lime; and this explains the absence of organic remains in this recent formation, except where, in soils rich in lime, it forms round the roots of plants, and unites with itself, here and there, a fresh-water shell. No. 47, is a specimen illustrative of these views, taken from the south bank of the Godavery. The rock over which the river flows is granite, intersected by some great dykes of greenstone, (No. 44,) whose surface has a smooth metallic coating where washed by the stream. They project eight or ten feet, and are divided into numerous rhomboidal masses by fissures, into which lime has been deposited; and in the bed of the river, numerous fragments of calcedonies, zeolites, and other minerals found in volcanic rocks, are partially cemented by lime. The banks are mostly composed of black cotton soil, and the lower part is covered with small irregular loose slabs, resembling the dried cow-dung used for fire; which are found in situ projecting from the bank, and connected above with portions formed round the roots of plants, and below with other layers spread out between different strata of the alluvial earth.

From the top of the hill of Nugger above spoken of, numerous insulated hills, and short ranges of a similar form, are seen to rise from the granitic tract to the east and west, but they do not observe any particular line of bearing, although the whole group seems to pass in a direction from east to west, like the other basalt ranges of the
table land. From this hill to four or five miles north of Nirmul (a large town nine miles north of the Godavery) as in almost all other parts of the peninsula, is intersected by numerous greenstone dykes, which generally run from N. by W. to S. by E. These dykes are of great importance to the agriculture of the country, as the granitic soil is extremely thin and poor, except in the valleys, where the clay formed by the decomposed felspar accumulates, and bears fine crops of rice, for which water is collected in tanks, often in a great measure formed of natural mounds of rounded or angular fragments of greenstone, which is little subject to decomposition. At Jakrampilly, there is a remarkable dyke of this kind, which can be traced for several miles by a series of tanks on one side of it: it is also remarkable in exhibiting, where it rises into a small hill near the village, the gradual transition of the granite into the greenstone, and in the latter, having a tendency to split into regular forms. When once a fissure, however small, is formed, the rain washes a gradually increasing portion of lime and other soluble parts of its surface into the interstices, until the masses are separated, in which the alterations of temperature probably assist. It is difficult to account for the manner in which the greenstone passes into granite in this instance; but it is evident, that it has been raised by the granite above the continuation of the dyke at either end of the hill. I have been more minute in the description of the hill of Nugger, principally with the view of affording some information relative to the distinction of the basalt ridges, which have burst through the granite of the Deccan, from the greenstone dykes, which are of such frequent occurrence. The presence of olivine; the soft wacke in which the globular basalt is embedded; the less crystalline structure; the passage into amygdaloid containing calcedonies, zeolites, &c. and the granite in the neighbourhood of all the smaller masses of basalt, differing little from that at a distance, may perhaps be sufficient to distinguish these important rocks from each other. The separation of the different ingredients of the granite into large crystals, and the insulated masses of greenstone found in it near the dykes, prove, that the rock had been softened by heat; but judging from the appearance and great length of many of these dykes, I do not think that they were of contemporaneous formation with the rock through which they pass. Near one of these, at Secunderabad, a smooth, wall-like dyke of white granite passes through the sienite.

At Balcondah, 21 miles north of Jakrampilly, these dykes occur on the large scale, and the granite is much separated into its constituent parts, the felspar being of a fine red colour. Nine miles further north, in the bed of the Godavery, the felspar is of a still more beautiful red
colour; but good specimens could not be removed. Veins of quartz also occur at Balcondah, with turbid milky spots, as if altered by heat, and large imbedded crystals, (No. 42.)

* Sichel Hills; locally known as the Nirmul range.

Nirmul is surrounded by granite hills, containing much hornblende and a little schorl; and the summits of some of them appear to resemble the greenstone of Jakrampilly, but they were not examined. After passing some small ranges of hills, the ascent of the Nirmul chain commences five or six miles north of the town, and the road continues amongst lofty hills covered with forest, by a succession of ascents and descents, for 40 miles, when it descends by the Muklegandy ghat to the town of Eidlabád, nearly on the level of the flat country of Berár.

The southern ascent of Nirmul ghat, is the most deep and difficult, the hills not rising in a series of terraces as they do to the north; yet it is not easy to ascertain the precise direction of the part of the hill range over which this pass leads, on account of the projecting spurs and low hills at their base, the thick forest with which it is covered, and from its having something of a curved form. The general direction is from W. N. W. to E. S. E., which corresponds with that of the Sichil range, to which these hills belong, and which extends from the great lake water of Lonar to the neighbourhood of Mungapett, where the silicious fossil wood (marked "fossil wood," Mungapett), was found in 1828. On approaching the hills, the granite is observed to become soft, and to decompose rapidly. In the bed of a stream it has a remarkable concentric appearance, which was also observed in the centre of the hills south of Thitnoor, where it is covered by trap, on which fossils were found. No schistose rock was found here, but 20 miles to the east of Nirmul, and a few miles south of the mountains, hornblende slate occurs on the granite, and along with it the magnetic iron ore described by Vorskly in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, vol. II. It is not a sand, as might be inferred from his description; but the grains of iron are either mixed with the hornblende or occur in a sandstone-looking gneiss, from which the hornblende had disappeared. Specimens of the rock, which I saw dug up, and of the sand formed by pounding it on protruding masses of granite, are forwarded. The softer pieces were at once reduced to powder, while the harder were first roasted; and the one was then easily separated by washing in small shelving hollows dug in the clay. It is then melted, and its quality said to be improved by using teak branches: the iron is soft, but part is used in the mixture from which wootz steel is formed. The strata of the schists have been broken and elevated, but the

* Also called "Shesha."
dip and direction are in two places the same. Here also, the granite was seen, in the bed of a torrent, in thin concentric scales, not unlike the extremities of petrified trees, caused by the unequal waste of the component parts, the quartz projecting unaltered.

On approaching the hills, the soil gradually became black, with scattered fragments of calcined; and at the first part of the ascent, which is for some distance very gradual, a singular fragment (No. 49) of semi-vitrified matter was met with, containing small white crystals of felspar. It could not be distinguished from a piece of granite fused in a steel furnace, with which it was compared by Dr. Voysey. At the same place there were fragments so much like iron slag, that till I found them in a large mass resembling a dyke, I supposed that they were the product of a furnace, (No. 49.) The granite continues the surface rock a little further, passing into a black hard basalt, intermixed with many white spots, apparently of felspar; but I saw none of them rounded or distinctly crystallized, forming amygdeloid or greenstone porphyry, such as occur at the lower part of the pass leading to Eidlâbad. On ascending the last part of the base of the hills, the surface was strewn with calcinedonies, quartz, (No. 52) and other minerals of the same family, and amongst them, a few fragments of a softish white clayey and silicious stone, containing small shells of fresh water families. The trap then became softer, more vesicular with calcinedonies, zoolites, &c. imbedded, and the surface covered with tabular crystals of the same kind as those so remarkable in the Poonah trap rocks; and latterly concentric, the external layers decomposing, and the nucleus lying in a soft greenish wacke. I spent several hours in ascending the highest points of the range, but was unable to discover any beds of fossil shells; large blocks of quartz were, however, observed, with a singularly angular surface, and sometimes with fine capillary crystals, much of which was found with the fossil fragments; and afterwards, in the same position and partaking of the characters of the fossiliferous masses found in situ. These blocks were seen extending along the steep face of the hill at the same level as if they had been forced out of the mountain, or rather, as if the basalt, when erupted, had covered, and partially melted the bed on which it lay, and thus caused the singular appearance of those blocks. The highest summit east of the pass is caped by some horizontal strata, having some resemblance to sandstone that had been altered and blackened by heat; what its real nature was, I could not determine.

The hills, for 44 miles by the road, are arranged in terraces with steep sides and flat summits, rising now and then into conical elevations, with rounded or flat tops, and inclosing narrow valleys, abounding
in streams, or small table lands with water every where near the surface. On some of the ridges, the globular basalt becomes columnar, near which no trace of fossils, and hardly any calcedonies have been found. A thick wood and grass jungle, composed of very different plants from those most common on the granite hills, cover the whole tract, and render it unhealthy for the greater part of the year. In a deep valley, about the middle of the hills, where the Kurm or Kurrum river passes through them, the basalt is seen to rest on friable granite, (as near Nirmul to the south and Eidlabad to the north, and at one or two other places,) and a level plain of considerable extent and deep black colour extends to Etchoda to the neighbourhood of the shelly rock. The fossils were first found at Munoor, and between that village and Thitnoor, which is near the top of the Maklegandy ghaut. The most remarkable were found in the beautiful grey chert*, which either projects from the basalt in which it is imbedded, or rests in large blocks on the surface. The side on which they rest is remarkably smooth and even, while the others are rough and covered with bivalve shells of great size, and some of them having the epidermis still entire, resembling a recent bed of shells on the sea shore. A few univalves also occur converted into flint, and it is remarkable, that one small bivalve, thus altered, retains its colours. The masses are evidently in situ, and have probably been consolidated by the basalt, with which they are surrounded, or on which they rest. Some specimens exhibit a mixture of sand and mud, merely slightly agglutinated and intermixed with fragments of shells; the greater part is converted into chert spotted with fragments, or containing the shells in a perfect state; in other places, the materials have arranged themselves into an ename-like substance around irregular cavities containing fine crystals of purplish quartz, and in one specimen a formation of calc spar has taken place. Throughout the rock perfect bivalve shells, both closed or open, occur in the situation in which they had lived and been entombed. The most perfect are closed, and some of them are easily separated from the rock to which they are slightly united at a few points only; they are filled with the stone, mixed with fragments of minute shells, and some are entirely converted into chert, which retains the form even of the ligaments so completely as almost to lead one to expect to be able to open them.

Between Munoor and Thitnoor, masses of red chert project from amongst the basalt, and contain various shells, mostly univalves of small size, and some of them evidently belonging to fresh water genera. Near to these many fragments of different kinds were found

* See labels on specimens.
lying loose on the surface, and abounding in shells of various families. (See specimens.) Those in the green crystalline mass, resembling an ore of copper, were in many instances converted into quartz crystals, retaining the perfect form of the shells; one of these of exquisite beauty, which has been unfortunately broken, was found in the interior of a larger one: others were imbedded in a tough white clay rock, so soft as to soil the fingers. The greatest part consisted of a siliceous rock, partly converted into a black bituminous flint, or a coarse quartz, partially altered into calcedony, into which the majority of the shells were converted. Some, on the contrary, retained the structure of the shell unaltered, and effervesced with acids.

Amongst these, the fragments containing the fossil seeds of chara, associated with fresh-water shells, were found. The gyrgonites were not observed at the time the specimen was found, but the rock to which it belonged could not be far distant, as the shells are of the same species as in other specimens, having a similar mineralogical structure. In other fragments, remains of grasses appearing half consumed were seen; and in the large protruding mass of red chert, containing shells converted into calcedony, I discovered what I take to be the tooth of an herbivorous quadruped. A few of the shells I believe to be marine, and at the distance of half a mile, the principal masses of grey chert, containing the large marine shells, were found.

On descending towards Thitnoor, granite is seen at one place, and above, much quartz, having a slag-like surface of the kind seen above Nîrmul occurs. A few specimens of black chert, with shells, were picked up in the bed of a nulla at Thitnoor, where it was also found in sitâ. A loose piece of reddish and green flint, with shells, was also met with in a ravine three miles further north. Much lime and kankar was here mixed with the black soil, or was deposited in the water-courses; the greater part probably derived from the decomposed basalt, or from such layers of a soft white limestone, as were found between the laminae of basalt, in digging pits to obtain water for the troops, when encamped at Etchoda. A compact stratified limestone, however, occurs in the vicinity.

The pass from Thitnoor, called the Muklegandy ghat, is formed of several terraces, of which three only are remarkable, and a steep descent between each. The surface rock of the second terrace is a rough, white limestone, which appeared to be consolidated in nodules, until it was broken, and found to consist of a great variety of shells, many of great size, but difficult to remove entire, forming a rock of a crystalline texture. The strata are horizontal, and in one place, where it is cut through by a torrent, the rock is 12 feet thick, and is seen to
rest directly on granite of a reddish color. The shells are of very various forms: several belong to the genus Ostrea of Linnæus; one very perfect Cardia was entire, both valves being connected, and one fragment, of a very large shell, has the water-worn appearance often seen on the sea-shore. The edges of the large shells are harder than the rest of the rock, and stand out from it, which has led the natives to compare its surface to the impression left by the feet of sheep, and to name it "Bakrí ke pán ke pathar." Over the surface, many fragments of basalt, calcedonies, &c. are scattered, derived from a lofty spur of the higher point of the mountain, which rises precipitously from the terrace within a few hundred feet of the fossil strata. A very remarkable mass of soft peperino, resembling ashes, of which a specimen is forwarded, seemed to proceed from the limestone, where it begins to be lost amongst the debris of the mountain; and amongst the loose fragments, were some very tough clayey stones, having the forms of small univalve shells adhering and embedded.

The facts above described, and the nature of the different fossil beds, more especially this great accumulation of marine shells resting immediately on granite, and the fossil seeds of charæ, now perhaps first found in India, leave no doubt on my mind, that this wild mountain country, now covered with a dense forest, had once been the bed of an inland sea or great estuary, on whose shore the charæ and associated fresh-water shells had flourished.

On descending the pass towards Eidlabád, the rock changes to amygdaloidal trap, with occasional masses of greenstone porphyry, having large crystals of felspar imbedded. The opake milk-white quartz, and the beautiful white porous crystalline mineral, which accompany the fossils, were found here, and were not met with elsewhere. At the foot of the pass, granite re-appears, and protrudes in great masses from the soil, for about four miles on either side of the town of Eidlabád*.

**Basaltic Tract between Eidlabád and Nágpur.**

The greater variety of rocks that occur between Eidlabád and Nágpur, and the interesting appearances they exhibit, will render it necessary to enter somewhat more into detail in describing the localities whence the specimens were collected; so as to afford the means of determining their relations to each other, and to the fossil deposits already described; as well as to the great western trap formation, and the stratified rocks to the north and south.

* The localities of some other minerals found in the Nirmul hills are marked on the specimens. The blood-red chert found in the valley of Ankúi is remarkable.
The bed of the small river of Eidlabád (see map) is covered by numerous fragments of the argillaceous blue limestone, so well known as underlyng the diamond breccia in the Cuddapah district south of the Kistnah. Three miles higher up, the stream runs over the slightly inclined strata of a fine white sandstone, having some quartz fragments imbedded, rising towards some lofty ranges of trap formation to the east, (the Manik-gurh hills*) and are some places converted into a quartz-like mass, as is seen in some of the Cuddapah sandstones. It probably rests on the blue limestone, which is seen to pass into a soft bluish or reddish clayslate in the bank of a stream a few miles north.

About 10 miles N. of Eidlabád, the limestone is found on the surface, forming smooth slabs, having much calcareous spar and rock crystal between the strata, and in their veins through the rock, and in the course of the natural figures, numerous small round perforations are arranged in lines, and occasionally filled with soft calcareous matter. On a rising ground south of Zeynád, the marble had occasionally a dip of 40 degrees; but for the most part it was nearly horizontal, and the direction of the dip was quite irregular. In the nala of Zeynád, which runs over limestone, there is much tuff, having small pieces of the limestone imbedded, and evidently formed from the water of the stream (specimens No. 85); a similar formation is, however, found in a few places on the high level ground to the S. W. To the east of the village a gently rising ground extends nearly N. E. and S. W. for about three miles, and terminates in a small hill, which rises rather abruptly. The slope is formed of nearly horizontal slabs of marble, the edges of the strata being exposed by the gradual rise of the surface. In following the ridge to within half a mile of the little hill to which it rises, a singular appearance presented itself: a dyke of perfectly vertical stratification, about three feet in thickness, projects two feet from the general surface; its exterior is singularly irregular and altered, the constituents of the rock being formed into crystalline or flint-like minerals of lime, argil, or silex, while the internal structure retains the characters of the blue limestone. On following this natural wall for about half a mile, it is concealed by globular basalt, which has burst through the strata, and in forming the termination of the little ridge, has covered the surrounding limestone, of which a portion has been so singularly displaced. The basalt is vesicular, and resembles much of that found in the Nirmul hills. No fossils were found here; but in the ascent from the second terrace of the Muklegandy ghát, where the great bed of marine shells was incumbent on granite, the same limestone was seen

* The Manik-gurh hills run from N. by E. to S. by W. almost at right angles to the Nirmul range.
in situ, greatly broken up by the eruption of the precipitous trap ridge, on which it was seen. The thickness of the grass and wood jungle prevented its being traced with sufficient accuracy. Fragments of the same rock were also seen at Thitnoor; and a very similar rock was observed in horizontal strata at Muneer, not far from some great blocks, containing marine fossils, in one specimen of which small univalve shells were found. But as this locality was only examined by torch light, I could form no judgment as to the formation being the same; although the total absence of fossils in the blue limestone, over extensive tracts in which I have searched for them, incline me to think that they are different.

The relative age of the blue limestone and great trap formation, to which these hills belong, being ascertained by these and other facts; it may be hoped, that a careful comparison of the fossils will assist in determining the period to which other rocks occurring to the north and south belong. I have not been able to detect amongst them any of the Himálaya fossils; but some fragments found in indurated clay at Jirpoh, near the hot springs in the valley of the Nerbada, and in a specimen from the Gawilgurh fossil rock, described by Dr. Voysey in the 18th vol. of the As. Res. appear to belong to some of the same shells.

The march to the Payngunga river is over a flat country of black soil, modified in some places by a mixture of earth derived from slate clay, which appears occasionally at the surface, and of the same kind as that found below the limestone of Cuddapah, or which takes its place under the diamond breccia of Banganapilly. Jaspers, striped red and white, are found in the black soil. Scattered over this extensive plain are a number of small conical hillocks of white kankar, apparently formed by springs issuing from the centre, and now dried up: in some of them the apex is a little depressed. Several long straight ranges are seen at a distance, generally flat on the summits, but occasionally rising into cones, with a lengthened base, corresponding to the direction of the hills. About half up the greatest height a remarkable line extends all along, on which the summits appear to rise as on a terrace, or like the parallel roads of Glen Roy.

The pebbles of the Payngunga are principally calcernonyes of a reddish color and the blue limestone. No. 93 is a specimen of the calcareous sandy tuff from the banks of this fine river; it is found as high as 25 feet above the water at the fort; and is always horizontal, with black soil between the layers, which are from an inch to three feet thick. The surface is irregular, but seldom or ever shoots into branches like the tuña of the Godavery, and holes occasionally occur in
the layers, from a deficiency of lime; in other places, it projects three or four feet, in consequence of the soft soil being washed away. In one of the specimens, numerous recent shells are imbedded, which correspond in situation to a layer of these left in the sand by the last fall of the river; and it is evident, that the tuffa is formed from the infiltration of the lime with which the black soil and the water of the river abound, into layers of sand. In all these rivers, and in the stream of Bibbery and others running into the Godavery above Badrachellam, beds of limestone conglomerate, cementing agates and calcadonies, are continually forming.

The country between the Payngunga and Kair has at all seasons many springs and streams of pure water; which give a lively and beautiful green to the vegetation, when the surrounding country is burned up by the scorching heats of May*. The first of these streams is at Lingtee, the water of which is loaded with lime, which it deposits on its bed in a thick incrustation of tuff. Loose pieces of branches, petrified by lime, were found on the banks, and a wall of kankar six feet high in contact with No. 95, seemed to have been formed from a spring which had gushed from a fissure in the blue limestone, which is here the surface rock, and rests on a reddish, very friable slate clay, as is seen in a section a mile further down the stream. The black flint, No. 96, resembling anthracite, was found higher up. This stream, which, in the driest weather, has sufficient water to drive a mill, is said to have its source about six miles distant in a low range of hills, over which the road passes more to the east, a little to the north of Urjuna, and three and a half miles from Lingtee. At this village, a small stream takes its rise in a hot spring, whose temperature, as it gushes from beneath the wall of a half ruined reservoir was, in December, 1833, almost 87°. Copious springs also rise in the bed of the little stream; and globules of gas are extricated from round holes in the mud; but on endeavouring to collect a quantity, it was found that there were considerable and irregular intervals between each jet of air, nor did it always issue from the same place. The springs rise through the blue limestone so often mentioned, which, in a section in the north bank, is seen to have been raised by some violent forces, in a very singular manner, so as to form a series of irregular piked gothic arches, overlaid by partially broken but horizontal strata. The spaces within the arches are filled with fragments of the same rock, all evidently forced from below. The bed of the stream has a covering of sand,

* The same was observed of the beautiful stream at Bibbery, in the month of May, 1828, and inclines me to think, that it derives its source in springs like those of Kair, to be presently described. It rises in the Nirmul range.
which, some way below, is agglutinated by lime into a tolerably hard rock. The sand is derived from a quartzose sandstone, which crops out in two or three places from the ascent south of the spring. The strata are not horizontal, but neither the dip nor line of bearing could be observed.

North of Urjuna the rock is concealed by the soil as far as the Pindee ghat, nearly a mile distant, which passes over the steep low range, in which the Lingtee nulla rises. Its top is rounded, but on either hand, several conical summits are seen outlying from the range, which extends for some way from N. W. to S. E. On leaving the plain of Urjuna, the blue limestone disappears, and the hill is found to be composed of the usual black concentric basalt, the nuclei of which are exceedingly hard, and contain much olivine: they are imbedded in a soft grey or greenish wacken. I was surprised to find the road and a ravine descending from the hill strewn with the limestone I had left below, and did not quite credit the guide, who pointed to the top of the hill as the locality from which they came. I, however, soon came to it in situ, in its characteristic large smooth slabs, which render it so difficult to pass on horseback. They were observed to be slightly convex upwards, to be very much fissured in various directions, and if taken in the mass, to have a slight anticlinal dip, although on the top the slabs were horizontal and several places remarkably altered, as if they had been half fused; the argillaceous and siliceous matters having arranged themselves into beautiful streaks of a pale blue enamel, passing into chalcedony, or crystallized in minute prisms. Some parts of these strata had acquired a deep black color, and a flinty hardness. On descending the hill on the opposite side, the same appearances presented themselves, and left no doubt of the limestone having been raised from its connections by the intrusion of the basalt, which had slightly bent the strata, and in doing so, had caused the numerous fissures, and the alteration of structure. North of the Pindee ghat, there are a number of very low rising grounds, flat on the top, and composed of black globular trap rocks: and on the valleys, many large coarse masses of chalcedony are scattered; of which, on a slight examination, I saw none in the hills. Near this, the limestone, No. 97, was found in the bed of a nulla. A little further on, there are two very black conical hills of trap, and at their feet, great fragments of rock crystal, but of no beauty, and having cavities lined with chalcedony. From hence to Kair, the country is more level, rising however a little, to the right of the road; and four miles from the Pindee ghat, and the same distance from Kair, I found the sandstone, Nos. 99 and 100. It was only seen in a small nulla where its strata appeared
to be horizontal, and was white, red, or of a fine yellow, easily decomposed, and having small metallic veins passing through its substance, No. 100, and in one or two places, passed into a breccia, cemented by lime. No other rock is found at a higher level. I had been induced to examine this extensive slope, as the occurrence of the blue limestone suggested the probability of a sandstone or breccia being found above it, as at Cuddapah, before I discovered the sandstone at Urjuna, and near Eidlábád; I was therefore much gratified by finding it, although different in mineralogical characters. The country did not afford any section, but the sandstone probably rests on the blue limestone, which is met with at a lower level, two miles to the north-east. A mile and a half south of Kair*, the road crosses a small river, where there are some masses of travertine several yards square, which have been carried down by the stream: they are entirely composed of petrified branches and leaves, with a cement in some parts of considerable thickness, and more or less crystalline, or resembling kankar.

The stream rises near the town in copious hot springs, whose water is considered to be exceedingly pure and delicious; but when taken from one of the springs, where it can be directly received, was found to be acid to the taste, and, on boiling, deposited lime, which the carbonic acid had held in solution. Bubbles of gas are also extricated with the water, from one of the springs. The lime separates in its course, giving a whitish appearance to the water of the pools, while it sparkles near the springs and in the rapids, as was the case also at Lingti. The temperature of the spring, in 1831 and 1833, was 87° and is the same in May, June, and December; but the difference to the feelings, according to the temperature of the air, is so great, as to have led to the belief that it is cold in the day and hot at night; the thermometer, however, showed that it was the same at 3 P.M. and 5 A.M. of the 5th June, when that of the air was 100° and 81°. The principal spring rises at the root of a great Banian tree below the pagoda, and is stated by the devotees to flow in the same profusion the whole year, which they account for by saying that it flows from the Ganges at Benares. This and other springs form a stream, that increases as its course is followed downwards, notwithstanding that much is directed to gardens, and a fine sheet of paddy in the bend of the river thus formed. About half a mile below the spring, the first formation of rock is found crossing the stream like a dyke, but of considerable breadth; others more remarkable are found lower down, and after a winding course of 2½ miles, it seems to cease. The congeries of branches, roots, and even

* This small town must not be confounded with a large place of the same name on the Godavery.
trees, sometimes hollow, and always in concentric rings of deposit, forms a beautiful sight when in masses of several tons weight. The strata were seen in one place to be 12 feet thick, and to rest on the common black alluvial soil ; near this, it had filled the original bed of the stream, and forced it to find another channel : and in two places, a fall of three or four feet, forming a pretty cascade, seemed to be occasioned by the growth of the rock, and the wearing away of the channel below. The deposit often conceals the remains of plants, with a smooth coating of considerable thickness and firmness, frequently rounded in irregular sections of large circles ; in others, in nodulous forms of great beauty, covering over the extremities of the smaller or larger branches, and occasionally preserving the wood in an hermetically-sealed cavity. The roots of the Banian now and then pass into the empty tubes, as if they were the mould on which they are formed ; others probably form on the weeds, which flourish in the wildest luxuriance along the banks : one of these I found to be 24 feet in height. Recent shells, such as now inhabit the stream, were found in many places enveloped in the stone. One fine specimen of *lymnea* was attached to the side of the rock, as if it had been arrested there by the deposit of stone around it, and which has taken its shape ; its fine surface, where it adhered, being that of the fresh shell; while the coating exhibited the color and fracture of the tuffa of the hillocks south of the Payngunga, and others exactly similar, near the town of Kair. Roots and branches were seen to lie in the deep water without a coating of stone; but the series of observations so accurately described by Mr. Lyell was completed, by finding where the stream fell over some rocks, a plant still living, whose roots were thickly interwoven, and the leaves on a level, and just above the water, cemented into a mass of firm white tuffa. (Specimens of the water and tuffa were formerly sent.)

The spray seemed, therefore, to produce the deposit more quickly; but specimens of moss growing below the water were also converted into sharp brittle spicule.

Below, some blocks were softened, and as if in part redissolved. Amongst the petrified plants, one tree 1½ foot in diameter was seen; and also a few leaves; but these were rare, I suppose from their rapid decay and smooth surface; one of them seemed to belong to a species of lotus seen in a pool above, and another seemed to be the leaf of aloe. In some places the tuffa was sandy, and in one or two slightly tinged with iron; some of it had a fine crystalline appearance, and considerable hardness; while other specimens could not be distinguished from kankar. A tendency to the formation of a bluish white scum was observed on the surface of the still water, both here and at Lingtee: a slight
smell resembling sulphur was also occasionally perceived; and at the latter, our people procured water of a very offensive taste, although perfectly clear, from a well which I did not see.

The water abounds with animal life, and the banks are covered with a profuse vegetation, amongst which many fine insects were seen; and in the hot season, all forms of life seem to gather round this oasis in the black burned-up country around. The banks and water affording so much food, vast numbers of birds of different species, game, doves, kings-fishers, herons, &c. are collected together, whose habits a naturalist might spend months in observing, without exhausting the field of inquiry.

All the springs seemed to be equally loaded with calcareous matter, and similar formations by springs now closed up are seen on a rising ground down the river. Here too, the globular trap again appeared on the surface in several places, of small extent; one was a little to the west of the greatest formation of travertine, and another below the ford where the hard nuclei were surrounded by layers of a grey friable wacke like that of the Nirmul hills, and are curiously divided into compartments by tuffaceous partitions. Near to this, the blue limestone is again found in extensive slabs, slightly raised from its horizontal position; but as usual in no regular direction, the strata occasionally meeting each other at an obtuse angle. The same remark applies to the rock as seen to the north of the springs on the road to Won, and to almost every other place where I have met with it. Near the last mentioned bed of basalt, some irregularly inclined strata of blue rock, having a granular sandstone-like aspect, were seen, and at no great distance, large loose masses of vesicular scoriae were found, (specimens Nos. 109, 115.)

But the most interesting appearances are seen, in a small irregular rising ground, above the pagoda at the principal spring, which will be best understood by an inspection of the specimens 104. The basis of the rock is a tough white limestone, projecting from the gentle rising ground in very irregular masses, passing into curious and beautiful jasperous minerals, often coated with minute rock and other crystals; and the whole is perforated by large cavities, and even holes, evidently formed when the rock had been erupted in a semifluid state. Much tuffa is associated with these altered rocks, filling up many of the cavities, and having various minerals imbedded. I believe that few places exhibit so many of the most interesting effects of volcanic action, as the small district around Kair; more especially in altering a stratified rock of apparently uniform structure, so as to form a great variety of mine-
ral*). A good deal of sandstone has been used in the old buildings, which the inhabitants stated to be brought from Sacra, five miles to the west.

To the north of Kair, the limestone resumes its blue color; the soil is black, and a little further on, mixed with calcedonies, &c. In the nulla at Won, quartz sand, sandstone, and a mineral resembling pudding-stone were picked up; and at the foot of the hill, the remarkable vegetable fossil figured in the fifth number of the Madras Journal, and now deposited in the museum of the Bengal Society. The small hill of Won is composed of sandstone of different colors, red, white, and yellow, and waved lines of a black color from disseminated iron, pass through it in various directions—the composition of which is the same as that in which the fossil is contained, and No. 100, from between Urjuna and Kair. The strata have been elevated by the convulsions to which the rest of the district has been subjected, and have a dip from the apex of the hill, varying from 35 to 55 degrees: their direction on the southern face of the hill, is nearly from E. to W., but to the west they turn off towards the rising ground on which the town is situated, the line of bearing of the strata being from S. E. to N. W. The swell of the hill extends some way to the east, but the country is on the whole level. This sandstone is also found to the eastward in the basin of the Wurdah and Godavery, beyond Chanda.

Sand derived from these rocks forms the soil for two miles north of Won: between that and the Wurdah, it consists of the basaltic black soil, and the gravel of that river is composed of calcedonies, agates, &c. of which a calcareous conglomerate, in horizontal strata, two or three feet thick, has been formed, No. 123.

At Waronah, white sandstone and a yellow slate, apparently belonging to the clay slate formation to which Voysey refers the blue limestone, is used in building; and one obtained from a hill five miles distant, which I had not time to visit. Most of the pagodas between Hingan ghat and Chanda are built of the same materials. Between Waronah and Chiknee the country is level, well cultivated, and the water within a few feet of the surface; much fever prevails after the rains, although there is no wood or marsh. Basalt protrudes from the level soil, and near it, the bed of a small nulla displays strangely altered strata of the red slate clay, seen at Lingtee, which is broken up, and intermixed with crystalline nodules and layers of calcareous

* In some specimens, the surface has the appearance of a semifused brick, which had assumed something of a regular arrangement, whilst the centre is composed of the blue limestone little altered.
spar, having a red clay in the interstices. The specimen (No. R. 5) gives an imperfect idea of the singular appearance of this rock. At Dyeghám, two miles further north, and about the same distance south from Chiknee, it is seen dipping to the west of south at a considerable angle, is much fissured, and is reticulated with beautiful veins of calcareous spar, filling up the vertical interstices, which vary from a line to half an inch in breadth; they intersect each other in all directions without disturbance, and were evidently formed at one time.

To the east of this, and of the village of Chiknee, there is a very gentle rise of the country, and concentric basalt and great round trap boulders are seen wherever the soil has been removed. On this are found numerous great blocks of indurated clay, of remarkable hardness, and exhibiting all the varieties of that mineral, of flinty slate, of compact schist, and of semi-opal*. Many of these masses are also found imbedded in the basalt; and on a very careful examination, the inference could not be avoided, that they owed their different appearances to the greater or less heat to which they had been exposed. Most of them are full of large and small univalve shells, many of which are of fresh-water genera. Many of the shells are changed into opal, others are covered, or their shape taken and preserved by quartz crystals; while the shells of a few can be separated unaltered, and effervesce with aids. The spines of the small shells are often insulated in cavities in the rock, and their crystalline surface is often very beautiful, when examined with the microscope. Some vertebrae and the head of a fish were met with; but from the great toughness of the rock, part only could be broken off, and a portion of the same block was converted into a red flint, with shells changed into opal. A large loose block of a slaty structure was found near this, containing fragments of very large bivalve shells of great thickness, along with wood converted into a black flint, intersected by fine veins of a light purple opal; and other bivalves which had been crushed together, were found in a flinty state on the upper part of the rising ground. I do not think that I go beyond the limits of correct inference, in supposing these shells to have lived in a mud formed from the decomposition of the clay-slate found in the neighbourhood, and through which the trap is seen to have burst†.

* Loose specimens of this rock was seen by Mr. W. Geddes, Surgeon of the Madras European Regiment, in 1829, who directed my attention to ascertain their position.

† Shells were first found here by Mr. W. Geddes, late of the Madras Medical Establishment.

R 2
The country to Naugri continues to be composed of basalt, which is in some places tabular, with green earth between the laminæ; and the soil is covered with calcédonies, ribbon and pudding stone, jaspers, resembling those found in the Nirmul hills, to which the whole character of the formation remarkably assimilates, and leaves no doubt of their belonging to one great period of protrusive violence.

At Naugri, fossils like those of Chiknee are formed; and with the conical masses of calcédony, having a smooth flat base of cachelong, the centre being filled with quartz crystals and calc spar; which were afterwards seen in situ at Hingan ghat, inserted between the globular basalt with the apex downwards, the peculiar appearance of the base being perhaps caused by slow cooling.

At Hingan ghat, a number of blocks, loose, of a black and red chert, containing silicified branches of dicotélydonous trees, and a very perfect portion of a palm (date?) tree were discovered: and the same kind of rock, but without fossils, protruded from the basalt a little below Colonel Lambton’s tomb. The basalt was globular, but seems to have had a tendency to form five or six-sided prisms. The rest of the route to Nagpoor is over a level country, from which a few insulated trap hills rise abruptly, on whose summits basaltic columns are occasionally met with. On the south side of the small range of hills near the city, these columns are very regular, and inclined to the south, at an angle of 45°, in consequence of which many of them have fallen.

The flat top of the hill forms a pavement of the ends of similar columns perpendicular to the horizon. The round flat topped hill of Sitabuldee, which is accurately described by Voysey in the 18th volume of the As. Rs. is separated a few hundred yards from the extremity of this range, and rests on a decomposing granitic rock; its great and irregular masses show a similar tendency to crystalline arrangement, and thin sheets of calcédony are found in the joints.

To connect these observations with those published in the As. Researches and Journal, on the countries south of the Nerbada, it is necessary to mention, that at the cantonment of Kampty, eight miles north of Nagpoor, the sandstone is met with in the north bank of the Kanan river; and a mile higher up, the granite has been forced through the strata, bending or converting them into quartz rock. The crystals of felspar and plates of mica are remarkably large, and mica slate is seen in a quarry a few hundred yards distant. Beyond this are some small hills of upraised gneiss; near to which a conical hill of curiously altered rock, resembling that above the hot springs of Kair, has burst through a limestone, which it appears to have converted into a fine crystalline bed, like that found in the primitive districts of Scotland.
From the summit of this volcanic rock the basaltic hill of Sitabuldee and others are seen to the south and west; and at the same distance to the north, the rounded mica slate and granitic hills of Ramtesk, which extend into the Bengal territory south of Sápur.

An examination of the map will impress more strongly, than any thing I can urge, the importance of examining the whole Sichel or Shesha range, from the great lake water of Lonar, (to which the attention of your readers was called in the number of Journal for June, 1834,) to the fossil beds of the Nírmul hills; and from thence to Bibbery, the fossiliferous localities above Mungapett, and the hot springs of Byorah and Badraehellam. Other hot springs are also said to be found in the Nírmul range, regarding which I could get no correct information.

There are three other points to which it may be well to call the attention of such of your readers as may have an opportunity of visiting these localities.

1st. Whether the Sichel hills really terminate about Mungapett, or are continued in broken ranges towards Rajamundry? I have long considered it probable that the dykes so common in the Circars are connected with the great basaltic ranges which cross the Deccan in nearly the same direction; and Dr. Bénza has recently discovered a bed of marine fossils on the top of a basaltic hill five miles south of Rajamundry, and a little above the alluvial plains of the mouths of the Godavery.

2nd. Whether the basaltic hills near the Manjerah river, on which Dr. Voysey discovered fossils, are connected with those of Bekanurpettah and Nugger above described; and whether they belong to the same geological period as the Nírmul hills?

3rd. I entertain little doubt that the basaltic formation of the valley of Berar and the basin of the Panah river, which falls into the Tapti, belongs to the period of eruption which elevated the Nírmul fossils from the bed of the sea; before, however, coming to this conclusion, with reference to the northern part of the valley, the connection between the localities of the Nírmul and Chiknee fossils with those of the Gawilgurh hills (A. R. vol. 17th) must be ascertained.

4th. The exact relations of the crater of Lonar to the great volcanic district to the N. W. where fossils have not yet been met with.

But as the difficulties opposed to the investigation of the greater part of such wild and unhealthy tracts will probably prevent these desiderata being soon supplied; I hope that a sufficient number of organic remains have been obtained from the central point of the district, to enable an experienced geologist to arrive at a tolerably correct esti-
mate of the relative age of part of the great trap formation of the N. W. of India, which the President of the Geological Society in the anniversary address to that body in 1833, stated to be quite unknown: "no vestiges of secondary or tertiary formations having been detected within the region described."


The following description of a new species was originally sent to the Society six years ago, but it does not appear to have been published. It has since been described as new by the Zoological Society in 1832. With the description went a drawing, coloured, and large as nature. Owing to the tardy appearance of the Society's quarto volume, the papers that did appear there had been forestalled: thus red-billed Erolia, but also my Circaetus Nipalensis, take precedence, by two years, of Gould's Bidorhynch a Struthersii and his Haematornis Undulatus, which are the same species under new names. Both birds are types of new genera: see the Journal of the Zoological Society under date Dec. 27th, 1831, quoted, pp. 170 and 174. I described them both two years and some months previously: as the dates of the papers and the proceedings of your Society can prove*.


This elegant species is found in the woods of the valley of Népál. It is seen exclusively in the wild state, and is very shy, seldom or never entering the cultivated fields for the purpose of feeding, but adhering almost always to the woods, and living upon their produce, in the shape of grass, seeds, and berries.

Except in the breeding season, it is very gregarious, and it breeds, I am told, only once a year, laying its eggs in June and July. I cannot bring it exactly under any of the ABCDarian† allotments of the numer-

* We can offer no further explanation of the loss of the author's MS. than was before given (J. A. S. IV.) neither can we find the plate to which he alludes. But we take this opportunity of circulating a lithograph of the Erolia and bearded Vulture described in vol. IV., which may serve as a peace offering to the justly offended author.—Ed.

† A. orbits and tarsi plumose.
B. orbits plumose, tarsi naked, tail even.
C. orbits plumose, tarsi naked, tail wedged.
D. orbits naked,
  a. feathers of the neck and quills simple.
  b. feathers of the neck notched at tips.
  c. quills bifid at tips.
ous species of this genus, according to the specification of those allotments in the 14th vol. of Shaw's Zoology, as will be perceived by the following enumeration of characteristic particulars.

There is a naked space round the eyes. Two-thirds of the tarsi are plumose, the remaining third only being naked, and the toes also are naked. The quills are simple at their tips. The feathers of the neck are sub-elongated and acuminated at their tips. The tail is even.

In an earlier vol. of Shaw, the Abcdarian division of the species is not carried so far as in the vol. just mentioned: and the following disposition of species, to be found in vol. xi. p. 2, of that work, has at least nothing inconsistent with the enumeration of significant particulars above given in reference to our bird.

A. tail equal.

a. orbits naked, feathers of the neck elongated, and acuminated at their tips.

Comparing, for the sake of further illustration, our bird with the Columba Livia, or common pigeon, it differs in being larger; in having the soft membrane at the base of the bill less tumid and mealy; in having a somewhat longer tail, and shorter, and more lowly feathered tarsi, not to mention the naked space round its eyes, and other diagnostic particulars, which have been separately explained.

The wings are about the same length as in the common species; but owing to the tail being longer than in that species, they have the appearance of being shorter, and they do not reach within two inches of the extremity of the tail.

What further illustration of this species may be needed will be best gathered from a perusal of the details of size and proportions given below, and contrasted with those of the common pigeon. I now proceed to the plumage, in respect to which our bird bears a strong resemblance to the Parabolid pigeon. The principal colour is a dark slaty blue, deepened into more or less perfect black in the quills and tail feathers; and shewing clearest on the lower part of the back, on the lesser tail and wing coverts above, on the thighs, and on the whole of the tail and wing coverts below. Upon the lower part of the hind neck, the upper part of the back, the lesser wing coverts above, and the most part of the body below, the principal colour is almost superseded by a rich purplish tinge; and all the feathers so tinged, save those of the upper back and of the sides of the body, are further adorned by being broadly margined or pointed with pale clear bluish grey. The head and top of the neck are wholly of the softest bluish grey, which colour, as it descends the body, forming in its descent the margins and points just noted, gradually decreases in quantity, and fades in hue. It pre-
vails rather on the lower than upper surface of the neck, and in respect to the body, is no where seen above, except in the shape of some roundish dots of nearly pure white on the lesser wing coverts.

The bill is black, shewing faintly a purplish tinge, which is more clearly visible in the basal membrane of the bill, and on the naked orbits. In front, the legs and feet are black green; elsewhere, they are yellowish. The claws are clear, lively yellow. The iris of the eyes hoary grey or white.

The female is as large almost as the male, from which she differs only in having the bluish grey of the head less clear and pale, and in wanting almost entirely the purplish tinge, which adds so much beauty to certain parts of the plumage of the male, especially the upper part of his back, and the lower part of his belly. This species is, I fancy, questionless new; and as it seems to be peculiar to these mountains, if not to Népál proper, Columba Nipalensis would be a very appropriate name for it.

Dimensions and weight of the Columba Livia and Columba Nipalensis.

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<th></th>
<th>C. L.</th>
<th>C. N.</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feet</td>
<td>inches</td>
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<td>Tip of bill to tip of tail,</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>Length of bill (to the gape),</td>
<td>0 0$rac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of tail,</td>
<td>0 5</td>
<td>0 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of a wing,</td>
<td>0 8$rac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>0 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expanse of wings,</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>2 1$rac{1}{2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of tarsi,</td>
<td>0 1$rac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>0 1$rac{1}{2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of central toe and nail,</td>
<td>0 1$rac{1}{2}$</td>
<td>0 1$rac{1}{2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight,</td>
<td>11$rac{1}{2}$ oz.</td>
<td>12$rac{1}{2}$ oz.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Valley of Népál, Dec. 1829.

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V.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 2nd March, 1836.

W. H. Macnaghten, Esq. V. P. in the chair.

Lieut.-Col. J. Colvin, Engineers, Lieut. Col. L. R. Stacy, John Neave, Esq. C. S., Lieut. A. Cunningham, Engineers, and Raja Vijaya Govinda Singha Behadur, proposed at the last meeting, were ballotted for, and duly elected members of the Society.

Read a letter from Mr. Alexander Beattie, withdrawing from the Society.

Read a letter from W. H. Macnaghten, Esq. Secretary to the Government of India, Political Department, acknowledging the receipt of a copy of the communication from His Excellency Prince Esterhazy.

Read the following reply from Government to the Secretary's letter, written in pursuance of the resolution of the last meeting, in regard to
the oriental manuscripts and printed volumes of the Fort William College Library***.

To James Prinsep, Esq.
Secretary to the Asiatic Society.

Sir,  
I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, dated the 6th instant, and in reply to state, that the Governor of Bengal accepts the offer of the Asiatic Society to provide rooms for the accommodation of, and to hold accessible to the public, the Oriental portion of the late Library of the College of Fort William, and has ordered the books to be made over on the following conditions: The books are to be the property of the Government until the Honorable Court of Directors shall decide whether they shall be made over absolutely or not, the Society to be ruled of course by their decision. The Government to allow the Asiatic Society a monthly sum of 78 Rupees, (stated by the Secretary of the College to be the minimum expense for custody of the books,) in consideration of the Society's providing for establishment and keeping the books clean and in proper repair. All other charges to be provided by the Society. The above allowance to cease, in case of the property in the books being made over to the Society.

Fort William,  
the 24th Feb. 1836.  

H. T. PRINSEP,  
Secy. to Govt.

Resolved, that the Society acquiesce in the terms proposed by the Government, and that the Secretary do take measures for receiving the books and granting receipts for them to the Secretary of the College Council in the course of their daily transfer.

Library.

The following books were presented:  
Transactions of the Agricultural and Horticultural Society of Calcutta, vol. 2nd—by the Society.  
The following by Professor Bopp:  
Glossarium Critica Linguae Sanscritae, two editions, 1829, 1832—by Professor Bopp.  
Glossarium Sanscritum, 1830—by ditto.  
Nalus, Maha-bharati Episodium, 1830—by ditto.  
Diluvium, cum tribus alis Maha-bharati praestantissimis Episodiis, 1829—by ditto.  
Über einige Demonstrativstämme und ihren Zusammenhang mit verschiedenen Propositionen und Conjunctionen im Sanskrit und den mit ihm verwandten Sprachen, 1830.  
Über den Einfluss der Pronomina auf die wortbildung im Sanskrit und den mit ihm verwandten Sprachen, 1832—by ditto.  
Ardschun's Reise zu Indra's Himmel, uebst anderen Episoden des Maha-bharati—by ditto.  
Conjugations System, 1 vol. 12mo. 1816—by ditto.  
Die Sunddut, 1 vol. 12mo. 1829—by ditto.  
The following books were received from the book-sellers:  
Roget's Physiology, 2 vols.  
Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, England, vol. 5th.  

*** The resolution, by inadvertence, was omitted in the printed proceedings. It was to the effect, that as Government had been pleased to transfer the European portion of the College Books to the New Public Library, the Society begged to tender accommodation in its rooms for the Oriental portion of the same, the Government agreeing to pay the establishment necessary for its due preservation while in deposit.

_Museum of Antiquities, &c._

Facsimiles of inscriptions on two slabs of stone at the entrance of a very ancient Temple, supposed to be Buddhist, on the Hill Fort of Gualior, taken by Mrs. Sale, were forwarded by Major Sutherland, Resident at Gualior.

Extract of a letter from Colonel H. Burney, dated Ava 15th January, announced the transmission via Rangoon, of a small box containing some Buddhist images found by Captain Hannay at Tagoung, 100 miles above Ava on the Irawadi.

"Captain Hannay's last letter is dated from Tsen-bo, (the Semboon of the Map of the Burmese Empire compiled in the Surveyor General's Office in 1825,) three stages above Baman. He must have reached Mogoung on the 5th instant. He speaks in the highest terms of the general appearance of the country, and estimates the population, particularly on the right bank of the Irawadi, to be much more numerous than I had imagined. At Baman he was much interested by the Chinese, who were inquisitive but civil; and he estimates the breadth of the Irawadi at Baman, to be _full two miles_ during the rainy season! The Sherelee and other rivers falling into it are too inconsiderable to have any connexion with M. Klaproph's Tsen-po.

"I am writing to you in great haste. The cold at Ava this year is unusually great; the thermometer at this moment has fallen to 45°, and I am sitting in an open verandah without a fire, and shivering under a piercing northerly air, which seems to be coming directly from the snowy mountains."

Extract of a letter from W. Ewer, Esq. was read on the subject of the interlined writing on the Lath at Allahabad, which he reported to be in too imperfect a state to be copied or decyphered.

Mr. Ewer reminded the Secretary that he had communicated a drawing of the trident at Barahaut and the inscriptions on it 10 years ago.

A letter from Col. Stacy was received, on the point in dispute of the relative antiquity of the striking of coin in India.

A tabular view of the statistics of Muttra was presented by Captain R. Wroughton, who promised to furnish similar tables of all divisions of the country measured by himself as a part of the grand revenue survey.

An accurate meteorological register, kept in Nipal by Capt. Robinson, for 1835 was received from the Resident at Katmandhu.

A register of the thermometer for the same year, from Mr. Edgeworth at Amballa.

The following models from Nipal were presented by Dr. A. Campbell:
1. Sugar-cane mill, or press, called _Tusa_ by the Newars, and _Rulu_ by the Parbattias.
2. Oil press, called _Chikon-sa_.
3. Water-mill, called _Pan-Chaki_ of the northern Doab, and western hills, and _Kau_ by the Newars.
4. Spade, called _Koo_ by the Newars, _Kodali_ by the Parbattias.
5. Crutch, called _Kurmughan_ by the Newars, used for breaking the clods and pressing the soil.
6. _Roochi-mughan_, used by the Newars to cover sown wheat, and _Gayha_, or upland rice.
7. _Chassu-mughan_, used to smooth the flooded beds, in which the seeds of the _Malsi_ and _Toki_ is sown, and also prepare the soil for sowing vegetables, pepper (red), ginger, &c.
8. _Roo Retcha_, used for weeding the flooded rice.
9. _Chong Kooki_, used in weeding the _Gayha_, or dry land rice, _coud_ (a vetch) or other drill crops.
10. _Rooè_, used for spreading grain to the sun, and collecting it in heaps after its removal from the straw.
11. Ooghan-Okua, used for husking grain.
12. Rooti, used for making Chaul (rice) from Dhan, and for pounding bricks.
13. Chou Rummu, bhangy.
14. Plough, used by Parbuttias.
15. Keka, used to separate seeds from the cotton.
16. Yeau, spinning wheel.
17. Weaver's loom.
18. Rooti, carpenter's adze.
19. Phoko, used as a saw.
20. Daha, carpenter's chisel.
22. Tulip.
24. Ditto of rice in the valley of Nipal.
25. Ditto of variety of rice called Malsi.
26. Two specimens of mustard seeds.
27. Specimen of pea stalactite.
29. Two pen cases and inkstands.
30. Two inkstands.
31. Two Buddhhas.
32. Nipal sword.
33. Ditto ditto.

Also the following Nipalese Musical Instruments:
1. Phonga, (trumpet,) Newari.
4. Nog Pheni, or Turi, Parbatthiah.
5. Bansuli, (flute or fife.)

Also, several specimens of Cotton and Woollen cloth manufactured at Nipal, Tibet, and Bhoote, marked from No. 18 to 23.

Physical.

The Secretary presented, in the name of Mr. W. Cracroft, a very fine collection of the fossil impressions of vegetables and fossil woods in the coal and shale of Newcastle in New South Wales, just received from that place, along with a number of geological specimens and many rare shells, encrinite, &c.

Mr. C. Betts presented a piece of fossil wood from the sandstone above the coal beds of Burdwan; to which the natives give the name of Asurhár, or "giant's bone."

Three specimens of soil, and five of minerals, of Nipal, and a collection of skins of birds, presented by Dr. A. Campbell of Nipal.


A specimen of EURINORYNCHUS GRISEUS, or Pigmy Spoonbill, presented by — NEWCOMBE, Esq.

This bird is one of the rarest in the world; but a single specimen having been found before: the Curator was requested to draw a description of it for publication.

A specimen of Remora, presented by C. W. Smith, Esq.

A note on the Charrotherium, one of the new pachydermatous genera, discovered in the Sivalik range, by Messrs. Falconer and Cautley, was read.

The letter accompanying it notices the discovery also of the remains of birds, in the same rich fossil field.
### Meteorological Register, kept at the Assay Office, Calcutta, for the Month of February, 1836.

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<th>Register Therometer Exteriors</th>
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<th>Weather.</th>
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<td>Temperature of the dry Thermometer in air</td>
<td>Diff. of M. R.</td>
<td>T. Depression</td>
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We beg to correct a trifling mistake in our note on Mr. Barrow's horary barometrical observations, published in our last number. The first barometric column contains the actual readings, and are not, as we supposed, corrected for the curvature of tube—this correction is applied along with correction for temperature to the bar. at 32° C. column: the equation to reduce the observations to our own instrument is correct.

We are now happy to announce the safe arrival of our standard Barometer from England, the duplicate of the Royal Society's instrument, It will in future be registered.
I.—Memoir of the Life and Writings of St. Nierses Clagensis, sur-
named the Graceful, Pontiff of Armenia. By Johannes Avdall.

[Submitted to the Asiatic Society, 1st May, 1829*.]

At a period when Armenia was labouring under the lamentable
effects of intestine broils and foreign invasions; when she was subjected to the ruinous consequences of dissensions that existed between the leaders of the Armenian and Greek Churches, when tyranny and persecution of the most violent kind strode hand in hand in her territories, Providence deemed it necessary, out of sympathy for the sufferings of human beings, to raise up a person, who, by a happy combination of the qualities of a great mind, with those of a good heart, might be a proper instrument of knitting more closely man to man, and of removing disturbances from the Church of Christ, whose very essence is formed of love, meekness, and peace.

The individual, in whom the illustrious subject of this Memoir found a father, was called Apirat, a prince famed for uncommon bravery and glorious achievements, who flourished in Armenia near the close of the eleventh century. He claimed his origin from the Pehlavic race, and had the happiness of perpetuating his memory by giving birth to four sons, known under the appellations of Basil, Shahan, Gregory,

* This paper was handed to us by a Member of the Committee of Papers of the Asiatic Society for 1829, on his departure for the Cape. It had been unfortunately mislaid among his papers. Although, (as the author's presentation letter says,) "it is not of a scientific nature, and consequently little adapted to the taste of the present age," still, considering that it is descriptive of the public acts of the greatest author and divine that flourished in Asia in the middle of the 12th century, and illustrative of the religious differences that separate the Church of Armenia from that of Greece, it cannot fail to interest many of our readers.—Ed.
and Nierses. The latter was born in the year 1100, in the castle of Zovs, which was the hereditary property of Apirat. Allied by the ties of consanguinity to Gregory Vikayaser*, who then wielded the pontifical sceptre in Armenia, Apirat entrusted to him the education of Gregory and Nierses, who were, by the direction of their guardian, admitted into the monastery raised on the summit of the Black Mountain. Gregory Vikayaser, when he had attained to a good old age, was by the repeated solicitations of the prince Basil the Sly, and his illustrious lady, induced to change the place of his residence, and spend the remainder of his days near them, at Rapan, situated in the vicinity of the city of Cheson. On his departure from the monastery of the Black Mountain, he took with him his wards, Gregory and Nierses, having entertained favourable anticipations of their future greatness and celebrity. Some time after his having eventually settled in the Red Convent, near Cheson, perceiving that his career was daily drawing to a close, he sent for Parsick, whom he had previously nominated his successor, and for Basil the Sly, to whose kind care and protection he intrusted the lads Gregory and Nierses, the former being of the age of about 13 years, and the latter only 10 years, old. He also added, in the presence of those by whom he was surrounded, that, agreeably to his nomination, Parsick should immediately after his death be invested with the pontifical authority of Armenia. On the elevation of the latter to that high station, he began to shew the greatest regard for the welfare and education of his wards, Gregory and Nierses, and accordingly placed them under the superintendence of Bishop Stephen, a divine of high attainments and profound erudition, in order, that they might by his immediate tuition be instructed in theology and the literature of the west. Gregory and Nierses continued to proceed in their education with two other fellow scholars, named Sarkies† and Ignatius, whose valuable productions have perpetuated their fame in the recollection of posterity.

* Vikayaser (ἡ λυτρωτικὴ λέαφρον) is the compound of ἡ λυτρωτικὴ martyr, and ἱππος love, signifying lover of martyrs, which is an epithet given to Gregory in consequence of the extreme veneration which he displayed for the memory of martyrs, and the great avidity with which he translated their lives from the Greek and Syriac languages.

† These two worthies are peculiarly distinguished among the divines, who flourished in Armenia in the twelfth century. At the special desire of the pontiff Gregory, Ignatius wrote a commentary on the Gospel of St. Luke, which is held in general admiration for the perspicuity of its style and the sensible observations with which it abounds. Sarkies claims an equal share of veneration from his countrymen for his valuable productions, which have been handed down to us. They consist of Commentaries on the seven General Epistles, on
Parsick having established the seat of his pontificate at the desert of Shughr, in the vicinage of Cheson, felt great interest in frequently visiting the Red Convent, in order that his occasional presence might enhance the utility and efficiency of the institution. Two years after this, considering that the qualifications and good conduct of Gregory were worthy of sacerdotal dignity, Parsick conferred on him the order of priesthood, when he had just attained the age of 15 years. Removed from the Red Convent, Gregory remained with Parsick in the pontifical house, where the latter with paternal care and exertions instilled into the mind of the former such principles of virtuous habits and sound doctrine, as might befit him for the high office which he was destined to fill.

Having enjoyed the pontifical authority for about eight years, Parsick was cut off by sudden death. Before, however, this melancholy event, he summoned the dignitaries of the church of Armenia, as well as some of the nobility of the country, and in their presence, nominated his ward Gregory as successor to the pontificate, presenting him with his pontifical robes and sceptre. Accordingly, the bishops and clergy of the nation having assembled in the Red Convent, anointed Gregory with great honors Pontiff of all Armenia. Though of the age of twenty years only, the mental and moral qualities of Gregory peculiarly adapted him for the responsibility of the high situation.

Gregory having, by new improvements, strongly fortified the castle of Zovs, which had devolved on him after the death of his father, removed thither the seat of his spiritual government. After the lapse of several years, Nierses, at the particular desire of his brother Gregory, quitted his monastic seclusion, and entered into clerical orders. During the ceremonies of his ordination, the pontiff Gregory bestowed on him the appellation of Nierses, in veneration of the memory of Nierses the Great*, who was of Parthian and Pehlavi extraction. By what name he was originally designated, no mention is made in the works of any of our historians. His profound learning and exemplary virtues soon raised him to the high dignity of a bishop, in whose capacity he was from time to time sent by the pontiff on visitations to the most populous provinces of Armenia, for the purpose of enlightening the minds of the ignorant, and pouring the balm of comfort into the hearts of the afflicted. Wherever he visited, his footsteps were marked with the Prayers of St. Gregorius Narekensis, and on the Prophecy of Isaiah. That of the General Epistles was published in Constantinople in the year 1744; but those of the two latter have not as yet been discovered.

* For particulars of the life of Nierses the Great, vide my translation of the History of Armenia, vol. i. page 181.
national improvements and spiritual good. By his peculiarly mild temper and upright principles, he was held in general estimation, and considered a very valuable member of the fraternity to which he belonged.

At this period, it must be recollected, the city of Antioch was in the possession of the Latins, who found it necessary to convene a general assembly for the purpose of taking into consideration some heavy charges that were preferred against Rodolph, the Archbishop of that city, to his holiness Innocent the Second. Being deservedly distinguished among foreigners for the intense zeal they displayed both in the cause of Christianity and humanity, the pontiff of Armenia and his brother Nierses were invited to become participators in the proceedings of the council. They met with a very honourable reception from the Latins, whose admiration of the graceful tone of their conversation could only be equalled by the surprise with which they caught every sentiment which fell from the lips of those bright ornaments of the Armenian church. On the conclusion of the meeting, which led to the deposition of Rodolph from his episcopal dignity, the pontiff Gregory went on a pilgrimage to the city of Jerusalem, and his brother Nierses having returned to the castle of Zovs, performed the duties of a proxy during the absence of his brother from the seat of his pontificate.

Dissensions now arose among the Armenians and Syrians residing in some part of Mesopotamia, through the dissemination of the heretical doctrines of the Thondrakian sect*, which were calculated to mislead the simple and the illiterate. Thulkuran, an Armenian nobleman, eminently distinguished for his exemplary piety and benevolence, viewed the progress of these heresies with great apprehensions for the safety of the established Church of Armenia, and in consequence, endeavoured to check the evil, by communicating the state of things to the pontiff Gregory, and soliciting him to take measures for effectually exterminating the sect. The latter, after giving the subject due consideration, communicated with his brother Nierses on the best way of pro-

* The founder of this sect was an Armenian by the name of Sumbat, who flourished in Armenia in the beginning of the ninth century. He was born in Zarehavan, a village situated in the province of Zalcotin; but in consequence of his long residence in Thondrak, he received the appellation of Thondrakensis, and his followers were known by that of Thondrakians. His mind was imbued with the heretical principles of the Paulicians, and the whole course of his life was marked with the greatest moral depravity, impiety, and wickedness. Like the Sadducees, he disbelieved the doctrine of future rewards and punishments, and in imitation of the opinions of Epicurus denied that God was the creator and preserver of the world. He refused his assent to the creed of the graces of the Holy Ghost, the efficacy of the Sacraments of the Church, and the existence of sin, laws, and justice.
tecting the Church from the impending danger, and imposed upon him the task of addressing a general letter to the Armenian inhabitants of Mesopotamia, descriptive of the confession of the orthodox faith of the Armenian Church, and contradictory of the heterodox opinions of the Thondrakians. **Nierses** performed the injunctions of his brother in such a successful manner, as to silence those who were inimically disposed towards the Church, and to restore peace and unanimity amongst the community of that place.

In the year 1142, the Grecian emperor **Johannes Porphyrogenitus** led a considerable army into the country of Cilicia, in order to put down the power of the Scythians, which had already begun to assume a formidable appearance in that quarter. During his short stay in the city of Anarzaba, the emperor expressed a desire of having an interview with the Armenian pontiff **Gregory** and his brother **Nierses**. On their being presented to the emperor, they met with a kind reception, and were seated next to his imperial majesty. A conversation then ensued relative to the doctrines and ceremonies of the Armenian Church, and the sound judgment with which they answered the interrogations of the emperor, excited his regard and admiration. This afforded him a favourable opportunity of acquiring a correct notion of the state of the Armenian Church, and of removing from his mind that unjust prejudice with which he was in the habit of viewing the Armenians. The example of their monarch was soon followed by the majority of the people, who began to relax in the persecution with which they afflicted a nation whom by a common faith they ought to have protected from similar cruelties, when inflicted by the unbelieving Musulmans.

Apprehensive, through the perturbed state of the country, of an attack upon his paternal castle of Zovs by foreign invaders, the pontiff **Gregory** consulted his safety by quitting the place of his residence, and fixing the seat of his pontificate in the fortress of Hiromcla. Built on the confluence of the rivers Marzman and Euphrates, and strongly fortified by nature, Hiromcla proved an insuperable bar against an invasion. Formerly it was in the possession of the prince Basil the Sly, and now it was under the control of the countess **Joscelyn**. The pontiff **Gregory** and his brother **Nierses** met with a very hospitable reception from this illustrious lady, who felt the greatest delight in rendering their situation comfortable, and was exceedingly pleased with their charming and edifying conversation.

On the decease of her husband, who had been seized by **Noured-Din**, the chief of Aleppo, and who died in confinement, the dowager countess **Joscelyn** thought it safe to quit Hiromcla for Europe.

Previously, however, to her departure, she made over the management of the fortress to the pontiff Gregory and his brother Nierses on the following condition: "I am about to quit this place," said she, "and proceed to my country. I leave this fortress as a trust in your hands, with a desire that in case my son happen to come to this quarter, you shall deliver it over to him as his patrimonial property; but if otherwise, you shall be entitled to its possession." On the arrival of young Joscelyn in Hiromcla, he was made master of it in conformity with the desire of his mother. After a short residence in this place, Joscelyn determined to quit it for Europe. In consequence of this intention, the fortress was sold to the Armenian pontiff Gregory, who, according to the historians Vardan and Kirakus, established in it the seat of his pontifical government, and raised there a very magnificent Church, embellished with splendid cupolas.

About the year 1165, when Gregory had attained to a good old age, and enjoyed the pontifical office for a period of 53 years, he began to be solicitous for the nomination of a successor. He expressed a desire of conferring that spiritual dignity on his brother Nierses, who was also past the meridian of life. The latter, though the offer was several times made to him by Gregory, was unwilling to accept it. Finally, anticipating the approach of his death, Gregory ordered a general meeting of all the Armenian bishops, monks, and priests to be held in the pontifical house at Hiromcla, for the purpose of considering the best mode of nominating a successor to the pontificate. In this assembly, after making an impressive speech on the approaching termination of his career, and the necessity of electing a successor worthy of the high station which he filled, he expressed his choice of investing his brother Nierses with the pontifical authority, which proposition met with the unanimous and cordial approbation of the audience. Nierses, who had made up his mind to exchange the troubles of a busy life for the sweets of solitude, in vain endeavoured to decline the offer of that responsible situation. Overcome by the repeated solicitations of the assembly, he was at last obliged to accept the office of the pontificate, with a view of promoting the general welfare of the nation. Immediately after this, Gregory anointed Nierses pontiff of all Armenia, and adorned him with the pontifical robes. He placed in his hand the sceptre of authority, and saluted him with the greatest reverence and submission as the head of the Church. When the ceremonies of the election were over, Nierses rose and delivered a most excellent speech, expressive of his acknowledgments for the high honor that had been conferred on him, and descriptive of the nature of the responsible duties which he was bound to perform in the spiritual dignity to which he
was elevated. By this oration the audience were not only assured of the zeal and interest which he would feel for the welfare of his flock, but were also struck with a forcible conviction of the goodness of the heart and the grandeur of the mind, from which these graceful sentiments emanated. It was owing to a peculiarly sweet tone of his expressions, and a remarkably fascinating flow of the sentiments of his inspired mind, that he was distinguished by the appellation of the Graceful, Κλαβίσες, as he was latterly known by the cognomen of Clajensis, γλαβάγης in consequence of exercising the functions of his sacerdotal office in the fortress of Hiromela. About three months after the election of Nierses, his brother Gregory departed this life Anno Domini 1166, and was entombed in a sepulchre prepared during his life time.

Soon after the death of his brother, Nierses, the pontiff, set about improving the state of the churches, and promoting the spiritual welfare of his flock. And as the Armenians in that time, like those in our days, were dispersed in various parts of the globe, that is to say, in the territories of Armenia, in Greece, Persia, Georgia, Aluans, Egypt, and other quarters, he found it essentially necessary to extend spiritual comforts even to his distant congregation, by sending to them pious and able missionaries, for the purpose of curing the wounds of the afflicted, and enlightening the minds of the ignorant. Not contented with the good that was likely to result from the zealous exertions of these preachers of the gospel, he, at the early part of his pontificate, and by the unanimous consent of his bishops, addressed a general epistle at great length to the people of his Church, which was couched in sentiments full of heavenly wisdom*. In this letter, after mentioning the death of his brother Gregory, and taking a short view of the relative duties imposed upon him by his being elevated to the pontifical throne, he states the orthodox creed of the Church of Armenia, which is immediately followed by preceptive exhortations best adapted to persons of every age and rank. The letter itself is divided into different sections, the first of which is directed to conventuals, who are assimilated to the stars; the second, to the primates of monasteries, who are compared to the eyes; the third, to the bishops, who are likened to the head, countenance, and stewards; the fourth, to the priests, who are made to resemble parents; the fifth, to the nobility; the sixth, to the military order; the seventh, to the citizens; the eighth, to the husbandmen and peasantry; and the ninth, to the female sex in general. The immediate object of the writer was to excite a love of virtue and piety amongst his congregation, and to be instrumental in eradicating from their

* This pastoral epistle was published in Venice with a Latin translation in the year 1829.
minds such unwholesome principles, as are calculated to render human nature waste and deformed. There are also extant several epistles written by Nierses to different individuals, about matters temporal and spiritual, amongst which his correspondence with the authorities of Greece, relative to the contemplated union of the Greek and Armenian Churches, claims pre-eminence. Of this I shall have occasion to give a detailed account in the following pages:

The attention of Nierses the Graceful was chiefly engrossed by a fervent desire of introducing various useful plans of improvement into the Church of Armenia. He succeeded in his endeavours of reforming it from the remnants of those irregularities, which were some of the baleful consequences of foreign invasions, and which were still pre-eminent in several parts of Armenia. He strove with great vigilance to restore to the Church that splendour, which it enjoyed during the glorious reign of the Christian kings of Armenia. He ordered old copies of the Prayer Book of the Armenian Church to be brought to him from various distinguished monasteries of Armenia major, and by a careful comparison of their contents, he modelled the liturgy with considerable improvements, which is to this day in general use amongst all the Armenians. He made several additions to the Prayers that were read on Good Friday and the Pentecost. According to the authority of Mukhitar, the pontiff, it appears that up to the time of Nierses the Graceful, the Church of Armenia performed the ordination of priests and bishops conformably to the custom and ceremonies of the Greek Church; but Nierses, on his elevation to the pontifical throne, adopted a new mode of ordination, not materially different from those of the sister Churches.

Prior to the beginning of the twelfth century, poetry was a perfect blank in Armenian literature. Though metrical pieces and songs can be traced in our history to have been repeated and sung by the Armenians in different periods, yet no record is handed down to us as to the existence of regular poetry in the Armenian language. According to a faithful writer* of that time, great credit is due to Nierses the

* Nierses Lambronensis, a contemporary and relation of Nierses the Graceful, pays a handsome and just tribute to his genius, learning, and virtues in a poetical panegyric which he composed on him shortly after his death. In alluding to the honor due to him for his being the first who introduced poetry into the Armenian language, the panegyrist writes thus:

quot;Who first with grace Homeric numbers strung,
And touching in fair Armenia sung,
His verses soothe and elevate the soul,
And bend our stubborn hearts to their control.quot;
Graceful as the first poetic writer in Armenia, whose talented productions have deservedly gained him the title of the Prince of Armenian Poets. Gifted by nature with a great genius, Nierses devoted his leisure to the composition of melodies, anthems, and hymns, which are to this day sung in our Church to the admiration of all. Some of these poetical pieces are acrostic, the first letters of the stanzas composing the name of the author or the entire alphabet of the Armenian language. He also wrote several treatises and panegyrics, both in prose and verse, on dominical feasts, patriarchs, martyrs, and angels. During the days of his priesthood, he composed a brief history of Armenia in verse, from the period of Haic to the twelfth century. A variety of miscellaneous pieces are also extant by this author, several of which he wrote before his elevation to the pontifical throne. At the express desire of his nephew Apirat, he produced in verse a pathetic Elegy on the destruction of the devoted city of Edessa by the victorious army of Zenghi, the chief of Aleppo, which memorable event took place on the 23rd of December, 1144. This little work, which abounds with vivid descriptions and patriotic feelings, was for the first time published at Madras in the year 1810. Another edition of it was lately published by the Asiatic Society of Paris. The European public may shortly expect an English translation of it, which I have undertaken to execute. On his being raised to the dignity of a bishop Nierses produced another excellent work entitled oglobin ‘Jesus the Son,’ which is a poetical description of the principal events that are recorded in the Old and New Testaments. During this time he composed that admirable prayer which commences with ‘I confess with faith,’ and which is now so popular amongst the generality of the Armenians. It consists of twenty-four verses, typical of the twenty-four hours of the day, and the number of the books of prophecy. Regarding this prayer, the author says in the records of old manuscripts, ‘I have written this in a plain and easy style, that it should be intelligible to general readers.’ It is held in such great estimation by my countrymen, that a translation of it into twenty-four languages was published in the year 1823 by the Muktharian Society in Venice! Nierses was not unaware of the benefit of combining utile dulci in the variety of his literary productions. He

† The Armenian text was published at Calcutta in 1832. The translation has not yet appeared.—Ed.
‡ This work is very popular with the Armenian literati, and has run through several editions, the latest of which was published at Venice in the year 1830.
wrote several entertaining fables and pleasing enigmas, with a view of affording to his countrymen a source of innocent pleasure of the mind. Besides those already enumerated, he produced several other little works, which, like many valuable antiquities, have not escaped the devouring jaws of time.

The fame of the sanctity and wisdom of Nierses the Graceful having spread through various countries of the globe, many distinguished individuals addressed him letters comprising questions on the most difficult points of religion, which he answered with such skill as to carry conviction to the mind of every reasonable being. At the special desire of Vardan, one of the venerable monks of the convent of Haghbat, he undertook writing a commentary of a sublime panegyric on the Holy Cross, the production of David the philosopher, distinguished by the cognomen of the Invincible. When the work was completed and presented to Vardan, he highly admired the profound learning and the inspired sentiments with which it abounded. There are also a few philosophical treatises extant in our language, which some of our historians attribute to the pen of this bright luminary of the Armenian Church.

Great intimacy existed between Nierses and Georgius, primate of the convent of Haghbat, who was eminently distinguished for his piety and rectitude of conduct. The latter, who held a constant communication with the former, solicited him in a letter to use his endeavours to procure a copy of the Memoirs of St. Sarkies the General. Nierses succeeded in obtaining the work, which was written in the Syrian language. He ordered it to be translated into Armenian by a Syrian priest, named Michael, who was tolerably conversant with the Armenian language. This translation was subsequently revised by Nierses in the year 1156, while he was a bishop. A copy of this work, written in Hiromela, in the year 1198, about twenty-five years after the death of Nierses, is preserved in the library of the Mukhitharian Society at Venice. Annexed to this work, which appears to have been transcribed from the manuscript of Nierses himself, is a commentary of the general Epistles of St. James, St. Peter, St. John, and St. Jude, written in a concise and comprehensive style, and compiled from the works of Greek and Syriac theologians, whose names are specified. But who was the compiler of this work is not known, as no mention is made of him in the old records. In another copy of the same, which was written in the year 1335 at the convent of St. Thaddeus, situated in the province of Artaz, the compilation of the work is attributed by the transcriber to Nierses. This is, however, a mere conjecture, for it can be clearly perceived from the style that it is not the production of
Nierses. Perhaps a transcript made by him from the original was left in the pontifical house at Hiromcla.

In the evening of his life, Nierses commenced writing a commentary on the Gospel of St. Matthew. He had performed it as far as "Think not that I am come to destroy the law or the prophets: I am not come to destroy, but to fulfil," when the termination of his earthly career put a stop to its completion. After the lapse of a considerable time, it was finished by Johannes Zorzerensis. There is another work by the talented Nierses, which was intended as a guide for monastic life, and which he wrote while he enjoyed the dignity of priesthood. The profound learning which characterises his writings, the peculiarly beautiful style in which they are composed, and the divine spirit of benevolence which pervades every page of his compositions, are convincing proofs that the author of them was endowed with a mind of most extraordinary powers, and filled with divine inspiration. His voluminous lucubrations, which have been handed down to us by the unanimous applause of past generations, are highly creditable both to his head and heart as a man, a patriot, a divine, and a philosopher. Few can rise from the perusal of his works without being moved by feelings of reverence and admiration for the greatness of the mind from which they have emanated. Nierses Lambronensis, the grandson of General Shahan, the brother of Nierses the Graceful, who was one of his distinguished contemporaries, and had many opportunities of personally experiencing his mental and moral qualities, pays a just tribute to the memory of this paragon of learning in a poetical panegyrical which minutely treats of the many amiable virtues with which he was adorned. The panegyrist properly dwells on the meritorious exertions, which Nierses the Graceful made to promote the public good, on his exemplary piety and devotion, his rigid and abstemious habits, his continual studies and philosophical reflections, and the warm sympathies with which his heart glowed in relieving the distress of the poor, the orphan, the widow, the sick, the captive, and others who were doomed to suffer miseries and calamities.

During the pontificate of Nierses the Graceful, there still appeared in some parts of Armenia remnants of a peculiar tribe of Armenians, known under the appellation of Հերեցկորից. (the Sons of

* This people had probably derived their mode of worship from the ancient Persians, and perfectly agreed in the tenets of the Guebres of the present day. They adhered to the doctrines of Zerdasht or Zoroaster, who considered the sun as the grand receptacle of fire, and placed the existence of the Deity in the fiery element spread over all the universe.

T 2
the Sun,) who had continued in their ancestral superstitions, and not
deviated from paying homage to the sun since the days of Gregory
the Illuminator, the second Apostle of Armenia. Through the zealous
exertions of the Armenian missionaries, whom the pontiff *Nierses*
sent to different quarters of the country, the darkness of paganism,
that had so long overhung the heads of these unbelievers, gradually
began to vanish, and after the lapse of a few years, the whole of that
tribe embraced Christianity, and were admitted into the fellowship of
the Church of Armenia.

Contemporary with *Nierses* the Graceful, there was in Armenia
*Mukhithar*, an assiduous follower of *Æsculapius*, and eminently dis-
tinguished for his Medical and Astronomical knowledge. He had the
gratification of cultivating the friendship of *Nierses*, from whose
conversation he derived the greatest delight and spiritual comfort.
At the particular request of this celebrated naturalist, *Nierses* wrote
a beautiful poem, descriptive of the beauties and excellencies of heaven-
ly bodies. He added to it another small poem on the Creation of
the World, and the mystery of the incarnation of our Saviour*. The
latter is acrostic, the first letters of the verses of it composing
this sentence ὑποθηκάζων μὴ ἔρχομαι ἀπόδιδα διὰ ἀνάφλεξιν ἀπὸ τοῦ
Σωτῆρος. "Doctor *Mukhithar*, accept from *Nierses* this poem!" I hope
it will not be considered here out of place to say, that this learned phy-
sician has left a very valuable work on Medicine, which is replete with
wise observations and useful experiments. It was composed during the
time, and by the desire, of *Gregory* the pontiff, the successor of
*Nierses* the Graceful†.

One of the most remarkable actions that marked the earthly career
of *Nierses* the Graceful, was the contemplated union of the Armenian
and Greek Churches. This desirable object, which originated from a
most unexpected event, was undertaken during the lifetime of his
brother *Gregory*, the pontiff, and prior to his being invested with the
supremacy of the Church of Armenia. But alas for the peace of
Christianity! before the laudable undertaking was carried into execu-
tion, both Armenia and Greece were unexpectedly deprived of the
only instruments by which such a happy change possibly could have
been effected!

During the last days of the pontificate of *Gregory*, dissensions
arose between the two Armenian princes, *Thorose* the Great Panse-

* These two little poems are also published in conjunction with the work called
"Jesus the Son."

† This rare Manuscript work was discovered in the *Royal Library of Paris*,
and published in *Venice* two years ago.
bastus and Lord of Cilicia, and Oshin the Sebastus and Lord of Lambron. The reason of this unfortunate difference was, that the former insisted upon the latter to profess obedience to himself, and to decline becoming tributary to the Greeks, while Oshin thought it safer to continue his allegiance to the Greek emperor, than to acknowledge the ascendency of Thorose. Blinded by selfishness, and provoked by mutual resistance, they were at last necessitated to have recourse to an appeal to arms, which was attended with fatal consequences to both parties.

The pontiff Gregory, viewing these unfortunate circumstances with a spirit of national sympathy, imposed upon his brother Nierses the task of effecting a reconciliation between the two princes by his mild and fascinating address. Nierses succeeded in his endeavours of restoring to them peace and friendship, which were soon after followed by a happy alliance between them, Thorose marrying his daughter to Hethum, the son of Oshin. On the celebration of this marriage, Oshin desired Nierses to accompany him to Lambron, with a view that its inhabitants might be benefitted by his edifying instructions and evangelical discourses. During their journey they had occasion to enter the city of Mamestia, which was then in the possession of the Greeks. Here they met Alexius, the protostrator or generalissimo of the Greek army, who was the son-in-law of the emperor Manuel, and had come thither with the design of visiting the frontiers that belonged to the Grecian empire. On his first interview with Nierses the Graceful, Alexius was struck with admiration by the grace and learning which pervaded every part of his conversation. One day religion being the topic of their conference, Alexius expressed a desire of being furnished with information as to the cause of the division of the Church of Christ into so many doctrinal opinions. The promptitude with which Nierses answered every question that was put to him, created in Alexius a deep sense of veneration for him as an erudite divine, and left no appearance of doubt in his arguments. Nierses convinced him that the difference of opinions between the Christian Churches merely existed in words and forms, and assured him that the creed of the Armenian Church was consonant to that of the Church of Greece.

Alexius desired Nierses to commit the whole of their conversation to writing, which he promised to present to the emperor, and to exert every nerve in effecting a union between the two Churches. He also proposed to him the solution of a few important points, which from their intricate nature had created a difference of opinion between the divines of the Greek Church.
Nierses accepted the proposition with great interest, and accordingly wrote an epistle to him full of sound doctrine and incontrovertible proofs. He commenced the latter by saying, "I was extremely delighted by the opportunity of holding a conference with you, O philanthropic and pious nobleman, respecting the doctrines and forms of the Armenian Church! But as sentiments embodied by human utterance are liable to be effaced from the tablets of memory, by the lapse of time, by reason of the cessation of our remembrance, I do not hesitate to furnish you with a written account of all that you were pleased to hear from me. I shall endeavour to perform my task with as much propriety and precision, as my time and abilities will admit of. Encouraged by the love of knowledge, with which you are distinguished, I feel no small alleviation in the execution of my difficult undertaking. It may not be perhaps superfluous to add, that all my arguments are drawn from that pure source of religious truth, for which our divine fathers of old are so deservedly characterised."

This preamble is immediately followed by an orthodox confession of the Holy Trinity, and of the incarnation of our blessed Saviour. It is here asserted, that the Church of Armenia admits the duality of nature in Christ, and that the Armenians by the term "one nature," acknowledge by implication an unconfounded union of the divinity and human nature of our Saviour. It is also added that the Armenian Church, according to old customs, commemorates the nativity of our Saviour on the 6th of January, and that it is a gross fabrication that the Armenians observe the Annunciation day on the preceding day of the Epiphany. That in consequence of a want of olives, the Armenians make preparation of unction by the oil of odorous flowers. That they pay due reverence to pictures. That in constructing crosses of wood, nails are with no other intention affixed to them than with that of joining the parts together; while those made of silver and gold are without nails. That the prayer Ὠ GFX ὨὉ “Holy God,” is offered in the Armenian Church to Jesus Christ, and not to the Father, or the Holy Ghost. That the custom of partaking of milk, butter, and cheese, on

* About half an hour previously to the commencement of high mass, the following short prayer is addressed to the Son in the Armenian Church: ῶ GFX Ὠ Χпон Ὠἅγιος Ὠαμνός Χπνός Χπνός Ὠαμνός, Ὠ τῶν Ὠκοινωνῶν Ὠλαοῦ Ὠδρόπονός Χπνός, Ὠἀμνός Ὠδρόπονός Ὠάμνός Χπνός, Ὠτῶν Ὠκοινωνῶν Ὠλαοῦ Ὠδρόπονός Χπνός, Ὠτῶν Ὠκοινωνῶν Ὠλαοῦ Ὠδρόπονός Ὠάμνός, Ὠτῶν Ὠκοινωνῶν Ὠλαοῦ Ὠδρόπονός Ὠάμνός. "Holy God, Holy and Mighty, Holy and Immortal; who wast crucified for us, have mercy upon us." An erroneous impression had been made on the minds of the Greeks, that this prayer was indiscriminately addressed to either of the persons of the Holy Trinity, and by this conviction, they traced a fundamental error in the doctrines of the Armenian Church.
Saturdays and Sundays during the lent, has now become obsolete amongst the Armenian people, and though it is still continued by a few of the nobility, its entire abandonment will be effected in a short time. That the custom of using pure wine, unmixed by water, in the Holy Communion, has obtained in the Armenian Church since the days of the blessed Gregory the Illuminator. Finally, the writer explains the nature of the abdominal fasting, which is observed by the Armenians a few weeks before the commencement of the Lent.

Alexius, on receiving from Nierses the foregoing epistle, expressed his grateful acknowledgments for the same, and permitted him to take his departure for Lambron, after having bestowed on him every mark of honor suitable to his rank and office. Nierses having remained in the latter place for a short time, quitted it for Hiromcla, where he met his brother Gregory, the pontiff, and related to him every particular of the communication that had passed between him and the Grecian generalissimo Alexius.

On the fulfilment of the immediate object of the letter of Nierses the Graceful, on its being put into the hands of the emperor Manuel, and the patriarch Michael, they immediately ordered it to be translated into Greek, and felt great satisfaction at the opportunity that had offered itself of effecting a union between the Greek and Armenian Churches. The perusal of the translation filled their minds with admiration of the mild spirit and rare talents of the writer, and afforded them encouragement to carry the contemplated scheme into execution. Hereupon the emperor sent a deputation to Armenia, consisting of Sumbat and Aruhk, both of Armenian extraction, with a letter to Gregory the pontiff, dated September, 1167, expressive of his earnest desire of seeing the consummation of the happy union which was in contemplation. In order to proceed in this undertaking with facility and success, he wished that Nierses the Graceful should be sent to Constantinople, thinking that the presence of both parties might in a great degree be conducive to an amicable settlement of the existing differences. The following is a copy of the letter in question:

"Manuel Comnenus Porphyrogenitus, ever mighty and great, Augustus, emperor of Greece, and faithful king of God Jesus Christ, to his holiness Lord Gregory, the excellent pontiff of Armenia, sendeth love and greeting. It is the imperative duty of all those, who by the medium of the baptismal font have entered into the fellowship of Christ, to have due regard for the fulfilment of divine justice, and to display special care and zeal for the advancement of love, peace, and unanimity amongst that class of people, who have Christ as the foundation of their religion. They are bound to use their unremitting endeavours to knit all the Christians with the bonds of union; to make them followers of one shepherd, who became incarnate to save us from perdition, to bring them under
the guidance of one pastoral crook; to cause them to 'lie down in green pastures' of orthodox faith; to render them participators of the vital stream of wholesome doctrines, and to gather them within the pale of one Catholic Church. Elevated by Providence to the highest station that can be allotted here to a human being, I consider the duties of governing my empire less sacred, less beneficial, than those which oblige me to be instrumental in effecting an union of the Christian Churches. Impressed with this conviction, I shall, as far as time and circumstances will permit, strive to consummate an object, which involves the temporal and spiritual welfare of mankind.

"It is not less becoming to your excellent fraternity, who have made the scriptures and the laws of God your chief studies, and rendered yourselves conversant with the orthodox doctrines of the fathers of the Church, to use your friendly and influential co-operation in securing the welfare of the inward man, by collecting from the only source of life the dews of truth and salvation. Of your desire to promote this laudable object, we have been informed by our beloved son-in-law Alexius, who delivered to us a letter bearing a detailed account of the conference that had taken place between you and him concerning the contemplated union of the sister Churches. It is our intention to give due deliberation to the state of the Armenian Church, and to institute inquiries into the creed thereof. A translation of the letter of your holiness was read by us with uncommon interest, and afforded us a source of the greatest satisfaction. Assured of the moral and Christian virtues, for which your holiness is so eminently distinguished, we feel real pleasure in rendering our aid to the consummation of an object highly desirable both to God and man.

"With this view we would propose to you to dispatch your brother Nierses to our capital, as we are perfectly convinced that a man of his extensive information, varied knowledge, virtuous conduct, and amiable disposition, will not only be able to afford satisfaction to the Head of our Church, and the synod in general, but particularly tend to remove the difficulties which will otherwise be experienced from time and place. Let the insignificant cause of division, which subsists between the two Churches, be removed if it lie within the scope of possibility; and let not Christ, who redeemed us from eternal punishment by his precious blood, be considered a stumbling block, but the Head of the corner and the True Foundation of our faith, which unites us together in spirit. Let Christ be the centre of all our religious inquiries, the Anchor of all our spiritual aspirations, and the Director of all our ecclesiastical affairs. In him we founded our belief, to him our hearts were fixed, and by him our wounds were healed. From the Great Bestower of so many blessings you will no doubt obtain for your zeal in the sacred cause of Christianity that recompense which is reserved for the enjoyment of the elect. We have thought it necessary to depute our faithful servant Sumbat, bearing this letter, with directions to induce you to despatch your brother Nierses to Constantinople. He is also authorised to give you such other information, as might have a connexion with the immediate object of his mission. You may safely credit all that will be said by him on this subject. Adieu!"

While preparations were in progress at the capital of Greece for depatching the embassy to Armenia, the pontiff Gregory terminated his earthly career. The Church of Syria was also at the same time
deprived of its supreme pastor, whose station was immediately filled by an able and worthy successor. News of the proposed union of the sister Churches having spread throughout the Christian countries which held a close intercourse with Armenia, the patriarch of Syria deputed two learned bishops to Hiromcla, for the purpose of taking a part in the proceedings of the council, which was shortly to be held by Nierses the Graceful, for furthering the views of the intended union.

On the arrival of the embassy at Hiromcla, Sumbat delivered the imperial letter to Nierses the pontiff, communicating to him many interesting particulars on the part of the emperor, and persuading him to accompany him to Constantinople; but the duties of his high office rendering his absence from the pontifical house indispensable at that very juncture, Nierses sent a reply to the emperor, full of spirit and wonderful observations. As the letter itself is of great length, I shall here only give an outline of its contents:

"I had the honor to receive the letter of your Imperial Majesty, addressed to my late lamented brother and immediate predecessor in the pontificate of Armenia. By the perusal of the inspired sentiments expressed in it by your godly Majesty, our hearts thrilled with that inexpressible delight which a person feels on recovering from the influence of sleep, and enjoying the vivifying beams of the glorious orb of day. It is gratifying to us to observe, that your Majesty is worthy of not only bearing the name of the true Emmanuel, but also of his co-operation in 'breaking down the middle wall of partition between us.' Endowed with these peculiar gifts of heaven, your Majesty is condescendingly pleased to accost us with a cheering voice, and propose measures for eradicating from amongst us that hatred, which has proved so baleful to the interests of Christianity, and the welfare of our country. I am so exceedingly delighted with your Majesty's invitation, that I would, even if I were dead, like Lazarus, arise from the grave, and obey the divine voice which summons me to your presence; but violent disturbances abroad, and the urgent duties of my avocation at home, present insuperable barriers to my paying a visit to Constantinople. Notwithstanding these obstacles, I should still feel diffident to attempt discussing a question of so much weight in your august presence, from a conviction that the sphere of my knowledge would look like a mere drop in comparison with the vast ocean of your Majesty's qualifications. All that were great and noble in Armenia, to our national misfortune, have now ceased to exist. The only comfort, with which we cheer our hearts in the melancholy gloom that overhangs our civil destinies, is derived from the circumstance of our Church being based on the solid foundation of Catholic faith. We place our confidence in the mercies of God, that the divine power which excited love and good-will amongst us, shall consummate a happy union between the two Churches.

"Should your Imperial Majesty be graciously pleased to visit Armenia, for the furtherance of this desirable object, you will, by that act of condescension, display in your soul the stamp of that humility, with which the heavenly King came to the world to bestow salvation on mankind. We are sure that you will join with us in the conviction, that the lustre of glory reflected on your mighty empire by
splendid victories, and the aggrandizement of territories, will be cheerless and evanescent when contrasted with that of restoring peace to the Church of Christ, by blunting the weapons of the incorporate enemy, and suppressing envy and hatred, which like cankers have preyed on the very vitals of our spiritual existence. Our Lord Jesus Christ, viewing the baneful consequences of pride predominant in human nature, had recourse to humility as to an infallible cure of the spiritual infirmities under which mankind were labouring; and by means of his divine love and meekness, conciliated the hearts of those who were estranged from him by the infringement of his laws and ordinances. In imitation of the example set to us by our blessed Redeemer, it behoves your Imperial Majesty to make your dictatorial authority subservient to mildness and humility, in removing the cause of estrangement that exists between the two nations. As a tree which is bent to the ground is liable to be broken by a sudden and violent effort to restore it to its upright position, so a division amongst the members of Christ, rendered obdurate by time, is incapable of being removed by force. It stands in need of a long and patient application of spiritual ointment, I mean the exercise of a kind, mild, and conciliatory spirit on the part of your Imperial Majesty towards the Armenians placed under the sway of your government.

"Many of your people, to our great national misfortune, consider that the only means of conforming to the laws and justice of God, and of being worthy of inheriting the kingdom of heaven, consist in pouring upon us torrents of abuse, in destroying our Churches, in breaking our crosses, in overturning our altars, in ridiculing our religious ceremonies, and in harassing and persecuting the ministers of our Church. This unchristian animosity is carried to such a pitch, as to shame the horrid cruelties of the worst of unbelievers. Galled and persecuted by Moslem despotism, we have hitherto in vain sought protection in the sympathies of Christianity. Hence it must be inferred, that such a course of action not only fails to unite the divided, but tends to divide the united. The first effectual recipe, that can be applied to our spiritual distempers, is to make an exchange of the inveterate hatred for human love and kindness, and as a matter of consequence, to stimulate thereby the inhabitants of Armenia major to an acquiescence in the projected union. We humbly solicit your Imperial Majesty to order special prayers to be offered up in all the Churches throughout your empire, that the Almighty may be pleased to crown our undertaking with success. We have taken care that similar measures shall be adopted by our clergy in every quarter of Armenia.

"We have also particularly to request, that in case Providence assist us in discussing matters on the intended union in a general council, no mark of distinction or superiority should be observed between the Greek and the Armenian. Let no tone of authority be assumed by the former in denoting such points of the doctrines of our Church as are not accordant with those of yours, and no fault be imputed to the latter in boldly supporting the truths and dignity of their Church. Marks of distinction are only observable in the discussion of civil and temporal affairs. It is true that you claim pre-eminence in the attainment of knowledge and the exercise of earthly power; yet all those who are strengthened by the graces of regeneration in the baptismal font, are according to St. Paul 'one in Christ Jesus.' If, therefore, it may be pleasing to the Almighty to smile on our endeavours, and to bring our undertaking to a successful termination, we shall, in the assembly to be convened for the purpose, lay Christ
as the Rock and the Head of the corner over the two sundered walls of our Churches. Let not the subject be discussed with that fruitless and violent mode of controversy, which has hitherto been carried on by the sister Churches with detrimental consequences on both sides. Let brotherly love, unanimity, and an ardour after divine truths distinguish the whole course of the proceedings of the council. Let us, in accordance with the injunctions of St. Paul, bear one another’s burden, and the infirmities of the weak, and so fulfil the law of Christ. In laying open our spiritual distempers to the observation of one another, let each party reciprocally look for, in the other, a sympathising and confidential physician. Whatever may be beyond the reach of our penetration, let it be referred to the testimony of those whose judgment and experience have rendered them distinguished in the decision of similar questions. Able physicians do not consider their qualifications under-rated by taking medicines from the hands of their scholars, when they are labouring under the attacks of sickness. The eyes, though sharp enough in seeing the objects presented to their gaze, fall short of beholding themselves and the members of the body by which they are surrounded; and on their being attacked with soreness, they seek a cure from the eyes and hands of another. What has been stated above, will, we hope, be considered sufficiently satisfactory to your Imperial Majesty. We have communicated to you multum in parvo, and have desired your ambassador to furnish you with such other information, as may be thought to content the ardour of your curiosity. Adieu! Augustus Emperor! May your Majesty live long under the protection of the Almighty.’’

At the express desire of SUMBAT, who was at the head of the embassy, NIERSES the Graceful drew out another form of the Creed of the Armenian Church, being assured that it would tend to throw more light on the disputed points of religion, and carry conviction to the mind of every philanthropic inquirer. The contents of this letter were a clear, distinct, and comprehensive recapitulation of all that he had stated in the former one, presented to ALEXIUS, the son-in-law of the emperor. The letter commenced with the following beautiful preamble:

“‘It now becomes us to address ourselves to you, not with eloquence of speech, in which we are deficient, but in the truth of the spirit, in which we were instructed by those favoured with divine inspiration. We do not attempt giving colour to a schismatical darkness, by clothing our Creed with the light of orthodox faith, as we have unjustly been supposed to do by others guilty of a similar line of conduct; but what we have stored in the invisible spirit, we embody the same in visible writing, by the testimony of our minds, and the dictation of the Holy Ghost, who sees, judges and examines the utmost recesses of our hearts.’”

After making long and sensible observations on the mystery of the Holy Trinity, and the incarnation of Jesus Christ, leaning on the incontrovertible testimonies of the Fathers of the Church, he proceeds thus:

“‘Concurring in the fundamental principles of the Christian religion, we believe that the word, who was made flesh according to St. JOHN, was not changed into flesh by being divested of his divine nature, but that by an unconfounded
union with body, he was actually made flesh, and continued without flesh, as he was from the beginning. We believe that there are not two persons in Christ, one with flesh and the other without flesh; but that the very Christ is both with flesh and without flesh. He was made flesh by human nature, of which he partook, and remained without flesh in divine nature, which he had from the beginning. He is both visible and invisible, perceivable and unperceivable by the touch, beginning and unbeginning in time, the Son of Man, and the Son of God, coessential with the Father in divinity, and concomitant with us in humanity."

After taking a comprehensive view of the mystery of the incarnation of our Saviour, he dilates on His divine and human wills, and clearly demonstrates, that the will of the humanity of Christ was always and in every respect obedient to that of his divinity:

"The human will had no ascendancy over the divine, as in us the passions very often domineer over the reason; but the divine will always exercised its dominion over the human: for the actions of the human were all guided and directed by the power and sway of the divine.

"In accordance with the doctrine of the wonderful union of the divine and human wills that exist in the person of Christ, we concur in the consistency of attributing his operations to a natural and supernatural agency. We do not ascribe his superior actions only to the divinity, unconnected with the humanity; nor his inferior acts only to the humanity, unconnected with the divinity. Were it not truly proper to connect the great with the little, how could it consistently be said that the Son of Man descended from heaven, and that God was crucified and bled on the cross? To the unconfounded union of both the divinity and humanity we attribute the divine and human operations of Christ, who sometimes as a God acted in the superior power of God, and sometimes as a man, acted in the capacity of man, as it is easily demonstrated by the whole course of his dispensations from the beginning to the close of his divine mission. He felt hunger as a man, and fed thousands with a few loaves as a God. He prayed for us and on our behalf as a man, and accepted with his Father the prayers of all his people as a God. In humanity he was brought as a lamb to the slaughter, and was dumb as a sheep before her shearsers; but he is the Word of God, by whom the heavens were created, in his divinity. He died in human nature as a man, and raised the dead by divine power as a God. He suffered the pangs of death as a man, and conquered death by death as a God. It was not the one that died, and the other that conquered death; but it was Christ himself, who died, who lives, and who vivifies the dead. For the same Christ, being a man, and of a mortal nature, and being a God, and of an immortal nature, not dividing into two the unconfounded union of the divinity and humanity, so as to render the one un忍受able and immortal, and the other susceptible of tortures and death, he suffered on the cross for the salvation of mankind with the inexplicable combination of these contrarieties, yielding in human nature to tortures and death, and in divinity, being free from pain, and immortal. He that died in human nature, was alive in divinity; he that was tortured on the cross, remained also free from the pangs of torture; he that perspired through fear, levelled on the ground his assailants; he that was unjustly humiliated and strengthened by angels, strengthens all his creatures; he that is Creator of the universe, coequal in divinity with the Father, was born from his creature, and
partook of our nature. He is proclaimed by the preachers of the gospel to be perfect God and man, uniting in his person divinity and humanity in a manner far surpassing the union of the soul and body; for the former, being commended into the hands of the Father, was separated from the latter, but the divinity continued inseparable from both of them*.

The preceding creed is immediately followed by a detailed account of the forms and ceremonies observed in the Armenian Church, similar to that which the writer had previously drawn out at the particular request of Alexius. It is concluded by the following short paragraph:

"In the perusal of our letter, wherein the creed and the observances of our Church are explained in a comprehensive style, we humbly hope that your Gracious and Imperial Majesty will not deny us the candour and sincerity with which our sentiments are embodied in writing. Let us not be suspected of parasitical subterfuges in the communication of our thoughts, and let it be remembered that we have stated in this nothing which is at variance with simple truth, and the genuine effusions of our hearts."

The motives of the writer in making this assertion were to silence the mouths of such miscreants of his nation, as had gone over to the Church of Greece, and were invidiously endeavouring to baffle the consummation of the proposed union, by rendering the doctrines and ceremonies of the Armenian Church censurable in the eyes of the Emperor and Patriarch of Constantinople.

On the return of the embassy to the Court of Greece, the letter of Nierses was put into the hands of the emperor Manuel, who personally presented it to the patriarch. A translation of it being read before a numerous assembly of the dignitaries of the Greek Church, they were struck with admiration at the irresistible arguments which it comprised. They were stimulated by its contents to the abandonment of the inveterate hatred which they bore towards the Armenians, and unanimously agreed in effecting the contemplated union between the two Churches. The emperor, excited by an intense desire of promoting this sacred cause, proposed to pay a visit to Armenia, accompanied by some of the learned theologians of Greece, with a view of meeting Nierses the Graceful, and holding with him a conference on the religious differences that existed between the two nations; but he was unfortunately prevented from the fulfilment of his intention by the

* This clear, lucid and unequivocal confession of faith is enough to carry conviction to the minds of the most fastidious of our accusers, that the Church of Armenia is totally free from the heresies of Eutyches! Let it also satisfy such misinformed, misled, and misguided, writers as Mr. Charles Mac Farlane, author of the sublime Tale of Constantinople, entitled "The Armenians," that we Armenians are not Eutychians, as he is led to believe from the misrepresentations of the Romanists.
commotions which at that time prevailed in the west. He consequently chose the alternative of deputing in May, A.D. 1170, to Hiromcla, Lezion Master Theorianey, a Greek divine, eminently distinguished for his theological and philosophical attainments, with Johannes, the learned Abbot of an Armenian monastery, from Philippopolis, generally known by the appellation of Uthman, bearing an imperial letter addressed to the pontiff of Armenia, in these terms:—

“...It afforded us great joy to learn your willingness to effect a happy union between the sister Churches, and acquiescing in your laudable views, we have deputed learned and pious men to confer with you on our behalf, and use every means in their power to remove the wall of partition between us.”

On the arrival of the deputation at Hiromcla, Theorianey and Johannes were kindly received by the Armenian bishops that were assembled by Nierses the Graceful in the pontifical house, for the purpose of adopting the best mode of carrying the proposed union into execution. Nierses, on the letter of the emperor being presented to him by Theorianey, shewed the latter every mark of honor and kindness, which his rank and the immediate object of his mission required. Theorianey had brought with him a copy of the letter of Nierses, addressed to the emperor, with a view of obtaining an explanation on some points that appeared doubtful to them, and of satisfying their minds as to the reality of some assertions that were made by those who were inimically disposed towards the Armenian Church. To these ends an assembly of the Armenian and Greek bishops was held in Hiromcla, who commenced discussing the important points with decorum, mildness, and moderation. Theorianey, in the course of perusing the letter of Nierses to the assembly, proposed, in proper order, several questions for solution, to which Nierses made replies, full of convincing proofs. The course of discussions comprised queries on the duality of nature and will in the person of Christ, (about which point great stress was laid on this saying of Cyrillus: “The incarnate Word is of one nature,” which admits of various constructions,) the exact day of the commemoration of the nativity of our Saviour, the propriety of the prayer “Holy God,” which was offered in the Armenian Church, the preparation of the holy unction, the necessity of performing prayers within the Church, and the decrees of the council of Chalcedon. At the conclusion of the meeting, Nierses, in his endeavours to remove an erroneous impression from the mind of Theorianey, that the Armenians were monophysites, cited from a work of Johannes the philosopher, a renowned pontiff of Armenia, several proofs corroborative of the duality of nature in Christ. “The work in question,” said he, “which was before imperfectly known but to a few of our nation, was afterwards unanimously adhered to by my predecessors in the ponti-
produce of Armenia.’" The work was, at the desire of Theorianey, produced at the meeting, and a few passages of the same being read to him, he highly admired its wholesome doctrine. A transcript of it was accordingly made out at the request of Theorianey, who wished to take it to Constantinople for the inspection of the emperor and patriarch. The proceedings of this council were committed to writing by Theorianey, as it appears from the panegyric written by Nierses Lambronensis on Nierses the Graceful. Theorianey’s account of this meeting was, in the year 1578, published in Greek and Latin, in conjunction with the records of the fathers of the Church.

Before the mission had quitted Constantinople for Hiromcla, the emperor Manuel communicated to Michael, the patriarch of Syria, his intention of acceding to an union of the Greek and Armenian Churches. Theorianey, on his arrival at Hiromcla, wrote to Michael, soliciting his presence at the Council of union which was shortly to be held in the pontifical house of Armenia. The latter deputed a proxy in the person of Johannes, bishop of Cheson, who, reaching Hiromcla after the meeting had terminated, felt great displeasure at the acquiescence of Nierses the Graceful in the doctrines of the Greek Church, and began to censure him, as the representative of his patriarch, for such a line of conduct. Nierses, by sensible observations, convinced him of the propriety and necessity of the union, and desired him that on his return to Syria he should use every means in his power to secure the consent of Michael to the removal of the religious differences which had for ages disturbed the peace of the sister Churches.

On the departure of Theorianey for Constantinople in October in the year 1170, Nierses addressed a letter to the emperor, of which the following is an outline.

"In delivering your Imperial letter to us, Theorianey assured us of the love and good-will, which you are graciously pleased to exercise in increasing the spiritual and temporal welfare of our nation. The proposal of effecting this happy union between the two Churches could proceed from no other source, than from a mind gifted with the choicest blessings of heaven, and entirely devoted to the service of its Creator. Enriched with every thing that is great and good, you burn with the desire of becoming a partaker of our spiritual poverty. On a conference held between us and the learned divines, whom your Majesty was pleased to depute, the veil of the unjust aspersions with which the two nations were covered, was rent asunder. By the collision of contrary opinions, the truth, which was surrounded with a mist of falsehood, burst to light, and shone with redoubled splendour. The result of the council of union is conducive to carrying conviction to the mind of every reasonable being, that the Greeks are free from the heresy of the Nestorian* division, and that the

* For the Nestorian heresies, see Eusebius’s Ecclesiastical history, tom. iii. pp. 256 and 257.
Armenians are also free from that of the Eutychian* confusion. Concurring in the fundamental principles of religion, the Armenians and Greeks are united together by the grace of God in the similarity of the creed of the Catholic and Apostolic Church. Fixed in the determination of our happy union, I shall address all our bishops residing in different quarters of Armenia, and ask their consent to some important points proposed by you for our acceptance, lest by their being excluded from taking a part in the furtherance of this desirable object, the result of our endeavours may prove contrary to our sanguine expectations. I have also, conformably with the desire of Theorianey, furnished him with another letter descriptive of the confession of our Church."

In this letter, after treating of the incarnation of our Saviour, in accordance with the tenor of his former one, he adds, that it is consistent with the orthodox faith to admit duality of nature in Christ, by reason of his perfect divinity and perfect humanity; that the Armenians, by attributing one nature to the incarnate word, on the authority of Cyrillus, confess an unconfounded and indivisible combination of the divine with the human nature; and that the Church of Armenia anathematizes those who, in the sense of the heretical doctrine of Eutyches, may confessedly ascribe one nature to Christ.

On the return of Theorianey and Johannes Uthman to Constantinople, they felt great satisfaction in presenting to the emperor the letter of Niæses, together with an account of the proceedings of the council. The perusal of these interesting documents afforded the greatest delight to the emperor, the patriarch, and the other dignitaries of the Greek Church. Their joy at the favourable prospect of their undertaking could only be increased by a sense of veneration, with which they were impressed on their being informed by Theorianey of the piety, mildness, and pleasant address of Niæses the Graceful. The fame of the amiable qualities of the pontiff of Armenia rivetted the hearts of the Greeks to the cause of the sacred union, and made them exclaim with admiration, "Behold the wise course pursued by the pontiff of Armenia, and consider the orthodox creed followed by himself and the whole of his congregation! Thanks to Heaven, that in these

* The heresies of Eutyches are thus alluded to by Eusebius in his Ecclesiastical History:

'Ως δ' οὖν καθελείς Ε'υτυχῆς οὖκ ἐλήλυθε· τὰ δὲ, καὶ παραγενόμενος ἐάλω, εἰρήκει γὰρ, ὁμολογῶ εκ δύο φύσεως γεγενήσθαι τὸν Κύριον ἡμῶν πρὸ τῆς ἐνώσεως· μετὰ δὲ τὴν ἐνώσιν, μίαν φύσιν ὁμολογῶ. δὲ οὖδὲ τὸ σῶμα τοῦ Κυρίου ὁμοοιόμοιον ἡμῖν ἔλεγεν εἰναι· καθαρέται μεν.

days of degeneracy we see a pastor of the Church adorned with so many Christian and moral virtues!” The hatred which the Greeks manifest-
ed towards the Armenians gradually began to abate, and a sort of
generous sympathy was felt by the former, for the lamentable degra-
tation to which the latter were reduced in a political point of view. They
could not, however, reconcile themselves to the idea, that the Armenians,
after conforming to the fundamental principles of orthodox faith, and
admitting duality of nature in our Saviour, should still persist in as-
serting one nature in the union of his divinity and humanity. Though
the arguments, with which the Armenians endeavoured to clear their
minds on this subject, were perfectly sound and correct, yet the
Greeks could not overcome their reluctance to make such concessions
to them, and were consequently anxious that this obstacle to their
union, together with a few others of minor importance, originating
from certain observances of the Armenian Church, might prudently
and speedily be removed.

Hereupon the emperor came to the determination of sending another
embassy to Hiromela, consisting of the abovementioned Theorianey
and Johannes Uthman, who were furnished with letters from the
emperor and patriarch Michael, bearing date December, 1172, and
instructed to urge Nierses to apply himself with increased interest and
assiduity to the fulfilment of the object in view, lest the death of either
of them might put a stop to the successful termination of their under-
taking. Nine points connected with the creed of the Church of Greece
were distinctly stated in the imperial letter, for the consideration and
subsequent acceptance of the Armenians. It was also proposed by
the emperor, that those points, but particularly that of the duality of
nature in Christ, should be discussed, and admitted by the Armenians
in a general council to be held for that purpose. Should they, how-
ever, be reluctant in conceding to some of the points alluded to, they
might communicate their objections in a letter addressed by their
pontiff to the emperor. The proposed points are the following:

I. Anathematize those who admitted one nature in Christ, that is
to say, Eutyches, Deescorus, Severius, Timotheus, and the follow-
ers of their heresies.

II. Confess in our Lord Jesus Christ, one Son, one person, one
hypostasis formed of two perfect natures, which are inseparable, indi-
divisible, unchangeable, unalterable, unconfounded; so as not to consi-
der Christ in a separate sense the Son of God and the Son of the holy
Deiparous, but to acknowledge in him unconfusedly the Son of God
and the Son of Man, and to confess him to be both God and Man in
the duality of his nature. Confess in him the duality of actions and
natural will, both divine and human, not resisting each other, but the human will following and obeying the divine. III. The prayer "Holy God" should be offered in your Church by the omission of "who wast crucified for us," and the conjunction "and." IV. You should conform to the Church of Greece in commemorating the feasts, that is to say, the Annunciation day, on the 25th of March; the Nativity, on the 25th of December; the Circumcision, on the eighth day after the birth of Christ, to wit, on the 1st of January; the Baptism on the 6th of January; the Presentation of our Saviour to the temple on the fortieth day after his birth on the 2nd of February, and in like manner, agreeing with us in observing all the dominical feasts, as well as those of the holy Virgin Mary, of St. John, of the Apostles and of others. V. The preparation of the unction should be made of the oil of the fruit of trees. VI. The Communion Service should be performed with leavened bread, and wine mixed with water. VII. Let Armenian Christians, both clergy and laity, remain within the Church, during the hours of prayer and the performance of communion service, with the exception of public penitents, who are prohibited by ecclesiastical canons from staying in the midst of the Church during the time. VIII. You should accept the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh general assemblies. IX. The choice of the nomination of your pontiff should be vested only in the emperor of the Greeks.

On the arrival of the embassy at Hiromela, Theorianey and Johannes Uthman met with a very kind reception from Nierses the Graceful, who having respectfully received the letters of the emperor and patriarch of Constantinople, communicated the contents of them to the principal bishops and friars of the Armenian Church, who had repaired to Hiromela from the mountains of Taurus and the frontiers of Mesopotamia. Though they were easily persuaded to concede to the chief points proposed by the Greeks, yet great difficulty existed in obtaining the consent thereto of other Armenian bishops, whose number amounted to upwards of three hundred, and who were living in different distant quarters, especially in the frontiers of Armenia major, save the body of monks who resided in monasteries, and who were almost of an equal number. Consequently, Nierses thought it necessary to summon these worthies to the general meeting which was shortly to be convened for taking into consideration the points proposed by the authorities of Greece, and communicating the result of the assembly in a suitable letter to the emperor. He conceived the unanimous voice of all the principal dignitaries of the Church of Armenia indispensably necessary in the adoption of the points, which were the connecting links of the sister Churches, lest, he
feared, an unfortunate division might be created amongst the Armenian ecclesiastics, and the result of their undertaking be attended with lamentable detriment.

The ambassadors of the court of Constantinople applauded the wise precautions which marked every act of the pontiff of Armenia, but seeing that the council could not possibly be held before the setting in of the summer, they determined to depart from Hiromcla. Nierses, in conjunction with Theorianey, addressed letters to Michael, the patriarch of the Syrian Church, communicating to him the points which were proposed by the Greeks for their acceptance, and soliciting the favour of his presence in the council that was shortly to be held at Hiromcla for that purpose. Michael being prevented by his various avocations from going to Hiromcla, sent in his room the friar Theodorus, who was eminently distinguished for his profound learning and conversancy with the Syrian, Greek, Armenian, and Turkish languages. On the arrival of the latter at Hiromcla, he was received by Nierses with every kind of respect due to his rank. A discussion arose between them on the import of the words "substance" and "nature," which, according to the doctrine of Aristotle, admitted of various constructions. Theodorus, widely differing from the sentiments expressed by Nierses on this subject, immediately took his departure from Hiromcla. In the mean while, Theorianey and Johannes Uthman returned to Constantinople, furnished with letters addressed by Nierses to the emperor Manuel and the patriarch Michael. Nierses promised them to convene a general council for the decision of the question of the intended union, and to endeavour to make the concessions they required. "I shall assiduously try," says he, "to overcome the long received customs of my countrymen, which prevail on them with the power of a second nature, and to force them to an acquiescence in such of the points proposed in your letters, as may possibly be reconciled to their minds. In so doing, we shall only be actuated by a desire of promoting divine love and peace amongst us, but not by an idea of turning from errors into truth. The acceptance of the rest of the points either must be overlooked by you, or left to time, and the happy union which shall shortly be effected amongst us."

Immediately after this, Nierses addressed letters to all the Armenian bishops, abbots, and friars residing in different quarters of Armenia, Syria, Aluans, Georgia and Persia, communicating to them all that had passed respecting the union of the sister Churches. He also desired them to pray to the Almighty for the consummation of the laudable object in view, and to take an early opportunity of going to Hiromcla for the purpose of being present in the council that was
shortly to be convened. Moreover he deputed one friar Stephen with a letter, inviting the Armenian clergy of Ani and Hagghbat to the proposed assembly.

But alas! how often human endeavours and expectations are frustrated before they have attained to maturity! On the lapse of a few months, while Nierses was engaged in preparations for holding the council of union, his earthly career was by the inscrutable dispensation of God terminated, Anno Domini 1173, in the seventy-third year of his age. He enjoyed the supreme dignity of a pontiff for seven years, and in that period ordained only seven bishops. His remains lay in state for several days, during which time numbers of Armenians thronged to the pontifical house with a desire of kissing the hand of the deceased. Among those who had assembled there to pay their last tribute of veneration to the virtues of the deceased pontiff of Armenia, were Nierses Lambronensis and several bishops and friars of distinction.

This melancholy event plunged the nation into the greatest distress, for they had lost in Nierses the Graceful a vigilant pastor, a kind father, a faithful friend, a gifted divine, and a most zealous advocate of the truth of Christianity. Gregory Basil, the nephew of the deceased pontiff, who was living at a great distance from Hiromela, on hearing of the dangerous illness of the latter, immediately repaired thither to see his uncle ere he breathed his last. On his arrival at that place, he found Nierses dead. He evinced the greatest sorrow at the lamentable catastrophe which had fallen on his family and the nation in general. The funeral of the deceased pontiff was performed with the greatest pomp and honors, that his rank and exalted station deserved, being attended by almost all the dignitaries of the Armenian Church, the nobility and other distinguished members of the nation, whose heartfelt sorrow, at the irreparable loss which the Church and the state had sustained, could distinctly be read in the melancholy expressions of their downcast countenances. His remains were deposited in a sepulchre which was dug near that of his brother Gregory, and a very splendid mausoleum was afterwards raised over him, bearing upon it a suitable inscription commemorative of his moral and Christian virtues.

News of this melancholy event reaching Constantinople, filled the heart of the emperor with the most poignant grief, and spread general regret throughout the Greek empire, every Greek sympathising with the Armenians for the loss which they had sustained in the person of their gifted pontiff. When his grief had comparatively subsided, the emperor wrote a letter of condolence to Gregory Basil, who had by
the unanimous voice of the nation succeeded his uncle in the government of the Church of Armenia. The progress of the religious union of the two nations, which was unfortunately impeded by the Church of Armenia's being deprived of its head, was renewed by the communications of the emperor with the pontiff Gregory, who, emulating the laudable example of his immediate predecessor, manifested equal zeal and inclination in the restoration of peace to the bosom of the Church of Christ. Before, however, the question of the long wished-for union was happily decided, Greece was deprived of her most illustrious, pious, and virtuous ruler, in the year of our Lord 1180, which melancholy catastrophe proved a death-blow to the nearly-finished structure of peace, and blasted in the bosoms of every Armenian and Greek the hopes of their future union!

II.—Discovery of Buddhist Images with Deva-nagari Inscriptions at Tagoung, the Ancient Capital of the Burmese Empire. By Colonel H. Burney, Resident at Ava.

[Read before the Society, 6th April, 1836.]

I have the pleasure to forward to you a couple of images of Gaudama in Terracotta, which Captain Hannay has just sent down to me from Tagoung. On both there is an inscription, apparently in the same old Deva-nagari character, as in the inscription No. 2, of the Allahabad column, and probably consisting of the same words as those on the image of Buddha found in Tirhut, and in the other ancient inscriptions described in No. 39 of the Journal of the Asiatic Society*.

Tagoung, written Takoung, (or according to Sir W. Jones's system, Takaung, but pronounced by the Burmese Tagoung,) you will find placed in our maps a little above the 23rd degree of north latitude, and on the eastern or left bank of the Erawadi river. Captain Hannay, however, has ascertained its latitude by an observation of the sun to be 23° 30' N., and several Burmese itineraries in my possession make its distance from Ava 52 taings, or about 100 miles. The Burmese consider Tagoung to have been the original seat of their empire, and the site of an ancient city, which was founded before the time of Gaudama, by a colony that emigrated from Central India. Some faint remains of an old city are still to be seen on this spot, where among the ruins of some pagodas, Captain Hannay found the images I now send you. No one here can decipher the character of the inscriptions, but on showing to some of the learned, the account

* This is precisely the case:—even to the form of the letters—the dialect however seems to be Magadhi or Pâhi, dhammâ and pabhavâ for dharmâ and prabhavâ, &c. See the accompanying plate.—Ed.
of the *Bauddha* inscriptions given in the 39th No. of the Journal of the Asiatic Society, the words "*Ye dhamma, &c.*" were immediately recognised, and supposed to be those placed under these images of *Gaudama* also. The two figures seen standing on each side of *Gaudama* in one of these are not, as I had supposed, his two favorite disciples, *Mouggalan* and *Thárepouttara*, but figures of a preceding *Buddha* named *Dr'penkara*, who first delivered the prophetic annunciation to *Gaudama*, whilst the latter was existing in the state of *Thoomeda* hermit, declaring that after myriads of years, which he would take in perfecting himself in every virtue, he would attain the state of a *Buddha*. The learned Burmese confirm Dr. Mills's opinion, and Mr. Hodgson's information, that there is no connexion between the last two lines and the first two produced by M. Csoma de Körös, in the 39th No. of the Journal of the Asiatic Society. The last two, they say, are intended to show the points of instruction delivered, not by *Gaudama* only, but by every preceding *Buddha*, and they translate the *Páli* thus:

"The not doing of every kind of evil, fulfilling of good, and purifying and cleansing the heart: these above mentioned are the precepts of *Buddhas.*"

With the first two lines beginning "*Ye dhamma,*" the Burmese books connect the following anecdote:

On the third year after *Gaudama* had attained the state of a *Buddha*, whilst he was residing at Welawoon monastery in the city of *Yazagyo* (Rajgiri,) one of his disciples, named *Ashen Athazi Matt'hee*, went into that city to receive charitable donations, and was met by *Oopadeittha*, the son of the female *Brahman* *Tháre*, and a disciple of *Thein-zen Parabaik*, some kind of heretics so called. *Oopadeittha* asked *Ashen Athazi Matt'hee*, who was his teacher, what were his opinions; the latter replied, "My teacher is the most excellent Lord *Gaudama*, his doctrines are as boundless as the sky. I am but lately become a *Yahan*, and know a little of them only." *Oopadeittha* begged that he would repeat a little of them only, when *Athazi Matt'hee* recited the two lines beginning with the words *Ye dhamma*; but the moment he finished the first line, *Oopadeittha* was converted. He then followed the other to *Gaudama*, who received him as a disciple, and changed his name into *Thárepouttara*, or the son of *Tháre* the female *Brahman*, by which name he was ever after distinguished as one of the favorite disciples of *Gaudama*, and is always figured as seated on his right hand, whilst *Mouggalan*, the other favorite disciple, is seen on the left hand. Hence, these words have ever since been considered, as Mr. Hodgson states, as a *confessio fidei*
among Buddhists. Before giving the Burmese explanation of these two lines, I must premise, that according to their system of belief, there are four Theettsa, fundamental truths, or moral laws in the universe, a knowledge of which Gaudama attained intuitively at day-break of the morning on which he was perfected into a Buddha under the pipal-tree at Gaya, and therefore, one of his titles is Thamana than-boudhattha, said to mean, he who intuitively acquired a knowledge of the four Theettsa. These four Theettsa are called Doukkha Theettsa, Thamoudaya Theettsa, Niraudha Theettsa, and Megga Theettsa.

1. Doukkha Theettsa means the law of suffering and being, to which all sentient beings are certainly subject whilst revolving, according to the destiny of their good or evil conduct, in the three different states of existence, whether as a Nat or inferior celestial being, a man, or a brute.

2. Thamoudaya Theettsa is the law of evil desires and passions, by which all sentient beings are certainly affected.

3. Niraudha Theettsa is the termination of or emancipation from the operation of the two preceding laws. Not being subject to age, sickness, death, or misery, and being in a state of ease, quiescence and duration uninterrupted. This is Neibban.

4. Megga Theettsa is the cause or the way of reaching the last, and is explained by some to be the Meggen Sheet ba, or the eight good ways, which, as translated by Mr. Judson, are right opinion, right intention, right words, right actions, right way of supporting life, rightly directed intelligence, caution, and serenity. Others explain it to be the Meg le dan, four grand ways, or four grand orders of Ariya, each subdivided into two classes, and an Ariya is a man who has extinguished evil desires and passions, and attained proficiency in certain virtues and miraculous powers.

Now the Burmese say, that Gaudama’s doctrine shows, that the first of the above Theettsas is the effect, and the second the cause, and that the third only can emancipate us from the eternal thraldom and suffering of the two first, and that this third is to be obtained only by means of the fourth. The lines are thus literally translated:

"The law (of suffering and being) proceeds from a cause, which cause (the law of evil desires and passions) the Tathagata preaches, and Niraudha, the means of overcoming or terminating those (two laws). These are the opinions of Maha Thamana, or the great Yahan. Dhamma, according to the Burmese, is not "human actions," or "all sentient existences" only, but the law which governs or affects them, the fundamental law of the moral world.

All that the Burmese know of the emigration from Central India,
and of the founding and history of the old city of Tagouny, is given in the 3rd volume of the Chronicles of the Kings of Ava. Here is an abstract of the tale.

Long before the appearance of Gaudama, a King of Kauthala* and Pinjalarit, desiring to be connected by marriage with the King of Kauliya, sent to demand a daughter, but receiving a refusal on the ground of his being of an inferior race, he declared war and destroyed the three cities of Kauliya, Dewadaha, and Kappilawot, which were governed by the Tháki race of kings†. These cities were afterwards restored, and the Tháki line re-established; but on the occasion of the above disaster, one of the Tháki race of kings, Abhi'rája, the king of Kappilawot, retired with his troops and followers from Central India, and came and built Tagouny, which was then also styled Thengat tha ratha and Thengat tha nago. Here had stood a city in the times of the three preceding Buddhas. In the time of Keekuthan it was called Thanthaya pirä; in that of Gounágoun, Rathu pirä, and in that of Katthaba, Thendwè. On the death of king Abhi'rája, his two sons, Kan Yázá gyee and Kan Yázāngay, disputed the throne, but agreed by the advice of their respective officers to let the question be decided in this way, that each should construct a large building on the same night, and he, whose building should be found completed by the morning, should take the throne. The younger brother used planks and bamboos only, and covered the whole with cloth, to which by a coat of white-wash he gave the appearance of a finished building. At dawn of day, Kan Yázá'gyee, the elder brother, seeing the other's being completed, collected his troops and followers, and came down the Brawadi. He then ascended the Khyendwen, and established himself for six months at Kule; Toungnyo, calling it Yázágyo, and sent his son Moodootsitta to be king over the Thoonaparan Pyoos, Kanyan, and Thet, who then occupied the territory between Pyoos, Arracan, and Pagan, and had applied to him for a prince. Kan Yáz'a-gyee then built the city Kyouk padoung to the east of the Guttshapawad, and resided there for 24 years. From thence he went and took possession of the city of Dinianwadee, or Arracan, which had originally been founded by a king Mayayo, and having constructed fortifications, a palace, &c. took up his residence there.

* Kauthala, (Kosala) Dr. Wilson considers to be the same as the present territory of Oude. Some of the Burmese consider Pinjalarit to have been a kingdom in the Punjab.
† See No. 20 of the Journal of the Asiatic Society for an account of the origin of the Shákya race, which the Burmese call Tháki and Thakya Tháki.
‡ Kule is a territory to the southward of Manipur.
The younger brother, Kan Yaza ngay, took possession of his father's throne at Tagoung, where the undermentioned 33 kings reigned in succession.

1. Abheeraja.
2. His son Kan Yaza ngay.
3. His son Zaboodeepa Yaza.
4. His son Thengatha Yaza.
5. His son Weippana Yaza.
6. His son Dewata Yaza.
7. His son Munika Yaza.
8. His paternal uncle Naga Yaza.
9. His younger brother Einda Yaza.
10. His son Thamoodi Yaza.
11. His son Dewa Yaza.
12. His son Mahienda Yaza.
13. His son Wimala Yaza.
14. His son Thihanu Yaza.
15. His son Dengana Yaza.
16. His son Kantha Yaza.
17. His son Kaleinga Yaza.
18. His son Thendwe Yaza.
19. His son Thiha Yaza.
20. His younger brother Han-tha Yaza.
21. His son Wara Yaza.
22. His son Aloung Yaza.
23. His son Kaulaka Yaza.
24. His son Thuriya Yaza.
25. His son Then-gyi Yaza.
26. His son Taing-gyiit Yaza.
27. His son Madu Yaza.
28. His son Menha-gyi Yaza.
29. His son Than thu thiha Yaza.
30. His son Danenga Yaza.
31. His son Heinda Yaza.
32. His son Mauiriya Yaza.
33. His son Bheinnaka Yaza*.

In the reign of the last-mentioned king, Bheinnaka Yaza, the Chinese and Tartars from the country of Tsein, in the empire of Gandalureet, attacked and destroyed Tagoung. That king, collecting as many of his people as he could, retired up the Mali river, where upon his death his followers were divided into three portions. One portion proceeded to the eastward and established the 19 Shan states, whence they are called king Bheinnaka's race. Another portion came down the Eravadi, and joined the Thunaparanta kingdom, which was inhabited by the Kanyan and Thet people, and was the seat of Mudut-seitta and other kings of the Thákí race. A third portion remained near the Mali river, with the last king's principal wife named Naga Zein. About this period, Gaudama appeared in Central India, and a dispute occurred between king Pathanadi Kauthala of Thawotthi‡ and a king of Kappilawot, named Maha Nama. The former had applied for a daughter in marriage, and the latter, unwilling to deteriorate his race, sent, instead of one of the princesses of royal blood, a daughter named Wathaba Khettiya, whom he had by a slave girl. She was however received as a queen, and bore a son, who was named prince Wit'hat'hoopa. When this prince grew up, he paid a visit to Kappilawot, and on his departure, the spot which he had occupied was termed the place of a slave-girl's son, and washed with milk. Hearing this, the prince vowed revenge, and

* The title of these kings is Rája, but the Burmese pronounce it Yaza.
† Sravasti in Oude, according to Dr. Wilson.
declared that as soon as he became king, he would wash the necks of the Kappilawot people with blood. Accordingly, on his accession to the throne, he set out three times with an army to attack the Thaki race of kings, but was stopped by Gaudama. On the fourth time, Gaudama, foreseeing the future destiny of these kings, would not interfere, and king Wit'hat'hoopa destroyed Kappilawot, Dewadaha, and Kauliya, three cities in the empire or country of Thekka, the seats of the Thaki race of kings.

On this occasion one of the Thaki race, named Daza Yázá, retiring from Central India, came first and established himself at Mauroya, which now goes by the name of Mweyen. Thence he proceeded and founded the city of Thendwè; and changing his residence once again, he came to Mali, and met with the before mentioned queen Nága Zein, the widow of king Bheinnaka. Finding her to be of the same Thaki race as himself, he married her, and founded the city of Upper Pagan. He next rebuilt the ancient city of Tagoung, calling it Pinjularit, and Pinja Tagoung, or the fifth Tagoung, and finally established himself there, assuming the title of Thado Zaboodifa Daza Yázá, dividing his followers into classes, organizing an army, and granting titles and honors. The undermentioned line of kings reigned in succession over this new Tagoung.

1. Thado Zabudipa Daza Yázá.
2. Thado Taing ya Yázá.
3. Thado Ya'cha ya.
4. Thado Tagwon ya.
5. Thado Lhan byan ya.
6. Thado Sîwè ——.
7. Thado Galoun ya.
8. Thado Naga ya.
10. Thado ya Haula.
11. Thado Poung shi.
12. Thado Kyouk shi.
13. Thado Tshen louk.
14. Thado Tshen dein.
15. Thado taing gyit.
16. Thado Men gyi.
17. Thado Mahâ Yázá.

None of these kings reigned long, the country having been much molested by evil spirits, monsters and serpents. The last mentioned king having no son by his principal queen Keinnari-Dewi, made her brother Khebaduta the heir apparent or Crown Prince. At this time the people of Dimiawadi came to the spot inhabited by the Pyús, and attacked and carried off king Tambula, who was of the Thaki race, and lineally descended from king Mudutseitta, the son of Kan Yazagyee. His queen, Nan Khan, retired with as many followers as she could to the lake of Thakya.

In the 40th year, after Gaudama’s death, whilst Thado Mahá Yázá the 17th king of Tagoung was reigning, an immense wild boar appeared, and committed great destruction in his country. The Crown Prince went forth against the animal, and pursued it for several days,
until he overtook and killed it near Prome; and then finding himself so far from home, he determined on remaining where he was as a hermit. Here he was joined by two of his nephews, named Maha Thambawa and Tsula Thambawa, twins borne by his sister the queen of Tagoung, but being blind, the father had insisted upon their being put to death. The mother, after secreting them for some time, placed them at last on a raft, and set them afloat on the Eravadi. The Royal Chronicles give an interesting account of the voyage of the two Princes, who are cured of their blindness by a monster at Tsagain*, and who at length reach the country near Prome, and are recognized and received by their uncle. The Kanyan and Pyùs had quarrelled after the people of Arracan had carried off their king, but the former, being victorious, settled themselves near Prome under their queen Nan Khan, whilst the Kanyans retired, and established themselves at Sandoway and on the borders of Arracan. Through the recommendation of the hermit Prince of Tagoung, the queen Nan Khan married one of his nephews Maha Thambawa, who became king of the Pyùs, and established the Prome or Thare Khettara empire, 60 years after Gaudama's death, 484 B.C.

After the destruction of the Prome Empire, a king Thamauddarit, nephew of the last king of Prome, founded Pagùn; but the country being much molested by certain wild animals, a young man named Tsaudi destroyed them, and the king gave him his daughter in marriage, and appointed him his successor. He declined the throne however in the first instance, and placed his old teacher Yat'the-gya'ung upon it; and on the death of the latter, the young man ascended the throne of Pagùn in the Pagùn era 89, A.D. 167, with the title of Pyù Tsaudi. But this Pyù Tsaudi, or third king of Pagùn also is said to have been of the Tagoung royal race, and a Thàkî Prince. His father, Thado Adaítta Yázá, was lineally descended from the 17th king of Tagoung, Thado Maha Ya'za', but during his reign Tagoung having again been destroyed by evil spirits and monsters, as well as by the Chinese and Tartars, he had quitted the country, and settled with his family in a private capacity at Mali, supporting himself as a gardener. After receiving a suitable education, the son Pyù Tsaudi came down to Pagùn, in order to seek his fortune, and then distinguished himself by killing the wild animals as before-mentioned.

No further mention of Tagoung can I find in the Royal Chronicles, until we come to the 6th vol., in which, after being told that a daughter of Athenkhaya, the founder of Tsagain, was married to Thado Tshen-dein, of the Tagoung royal race, and had a son named Yahu'la,
who was seven years of age, when king Theehapade alias Men-byouk ascended the Tsagain throne, and to whom at the age of 16 that king had granted the city of Tagoung as a jaghir, together with the title of Thado men-bya. We are informed, that in the Burmese year 725, A. D. 1363, when the Shan chief Tho Khyeen bwa came down from Mogoung and Monhyeen to attack Tsagain, his army was first stopped at Tagoung by Thado men-bya, but that the Shans soon took that city, and completely destroyed it, its governor flying to Tsagain with a single elephant. This governor, Thado men-bya, afterwards took possession of the Tsagain and Penya kingdoms, and in the Burmese year 726, A. D. 1364, founded the city of Ava, and the line of the kings of Ava.

Tagoung, after the Shans destroyed it, does not appear to have been restored, and it is now but a village with a few ruins. The district of Tagoung is the jaghir of the late Wungyee of Rangoon's daughter, who is one of the inferior queens, styled Tagoung Men-thani, princess of Tagoung. Thado was a title peculiar to the Tagoung royal race. It is remarkable, that some of the names in the two lists of the kings of Tagoung correspond. The Burmese chronicles give no details of the reign of any of these kings, excepting of the first in each list, and of the last in the second list. One old work, Zabudipa kwon-gya, takes notice only of the second list of sovereigns; and states that Daza Yaza retired from Central India, and came to Tagoung, about 300 years before the appearance of Gaudama. As the last mentioned, or 17th king, Mahá Yázá, is also stated to have ascended the throne 20 years after Gaudama's death: this would allow a duration of about 18 or 20 years to the reign of each of the king's preceding, corresponding with the average of king's reigns as fixed by Sir Isaac Newton. The great point with the Burmese historians is to show that their sovereigns are lineally descended from the Thakí race of kings, and are "Children of the Sun*;" and for this purpose, the genealogy of even Alompра, the founder of the present dynasty, is ingeniously traced up to the kings of Paqán, Prome, and Tagoung. The countenances of the figures in the accompanying images are very different from those you see in all modern Burmese mages†.

* One of the king of Ava's titles is Ne dvеt bхуеn, Sun-descended Monarch.
† They are very nearly of the same character as those found at Sárñáth, and may have been made there or at Gaya for exportation, as is the custom to the present time.—Ed.
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III.—On the preparation of Opium for the China market: written in March 1835, and then communicated to the Benares and Behâr Agencies.

By D. BUTTER, M. D. Surgeon 63rd B. N. I. late opium examiner of the Benares Agency.

1. In committing to paper, for the use of my successor in office, the following observations, I would beg, once for all, to disclaim the idea of their being infallibly correct: for, although they are the result of ten years' attention to their various subjects, I am aware of the disadvantages under which an individual labours, upon whom falls the task of first writing upon any subject involving the discussion of obscure questions, and who is thus deprived of the benefit of the judgment of other persons; and am prepared to find my remarks hereafter greatly modified by the progress of discovery.

2. The great object of the Bengal Opium Agencies is to furnish an article suitable to the peculiar tastes of the population of China, who value any sample of opium in direct proportion to the quantity of hot-drawn watery extract obtainable from it, and to the purity and strength of the flavour of that extract when dried and smoked through a pipe. The aim, therefore, of the agencies should be to prepare their opium so that it may retain as much as possible its native sensible qualities, and its solubility in hot-water. Upon these points depend the virtually higher price that Benares opium brings in the China market, and the lower prices of Behar, Malwa, and Turkey opium. Of the last of these, equal (Chinese) values contain larger quantities of the narcotic principles of opium; but are, from their greater spissitude, and the less careful preparation of the Behar and Malwa, incapable of yielding extract in equal quantity and perfection of flavour with the Benares.

3. It therefore becomes a question, how the whole process of the production of opium, from the sowing of the seed to the packing of the chests for sale, should be conducted so as to preserve with the least injury its native flavour and its solubility.

4. There can be no doubt that the quantity and richness of the milk obtained from each poppy-head depend greatly upon the geological and other physical conditions of the locality which produces it; especially the soil, sub-soil, manuring, and irrigation; and also upon the seed which is employed. But as these matters are, in the present circumstances of the Bengal agencies, little open to choice or control, the first practical enquiries which claim our attention relate to the extraction of the juice and its treatment while in the hands of the koeris.

5. Of the various processes for the preparation of sugar and medicinal extracts from vegetable juices, it is well known that distillation in
vacuo is incomparably the most efficient in preserving unaltered the original taste of the sugar, and the taste, solubility, and therapeutic powers of the extracts. It is also known that this process owes its superiority to the exclusion of the chemical as well as the physical agency of the atmosphere, to its rapidity of exsiccation, and to the comparative lowness of temperature at which it is performed. When sugar-cane juice, after even half an hour's exposure to the air, is boiled in a narrow deep vessel, and under the pressure of the atmosphere, vaporisation goes on so slowly that the sugar has time to undergo the vinous and acetous fermentations, whereby a certain portion of it is converted into vinegar, before the heat can be raised high enough to check this change; and the high temperature, to which it is so long exposed during this slow vaporisation, chars another portion, and converts it into molasses. Other vegetable juices, under similar circumstances, undergo analogous transformations: much of their substance is converted into vinegar; and the high temperature causes a partial decomposition of the rest: oxygen also is largely absorbed from the atmosphere, and greatly impairs the solubility of the dried extract.

6. On the principles which flow from these facts, it would be, chemically speaking, advisable to prepare opium by distilling in vacuo, large quantities of the milk just as it has oozed from the capsules; and I have no doubt that opium thus prepared would possess in an unprecedented degree the desired qualities of solubility and strength, and purity of flavour, as well as narcotic power; and can imagine, that under a system of open trade in opium, this process would be commercially profitable. It would, however, be inapplicable under a monopoly constituted as the present system is; and I have mentioned it only with the view of pointing it out as the acme of that perfection in the preparation of vegetable juices to which we can, with our present means, only approximate.

7. That the approximation may proceed as far as possible, it will be necessary, first, that the poppy juice shall at the time of collection, contain a minimum of water; so that its reduction to the proposed degree of spissitude may be effected in the shortest time, and be therefore attended with the least exposure to the air at a high temperature, and with the smallest consequent loss of solubility and of specific qualities that may be practicable.

8. The goodness of the soil, and the management of the irrigation, are circumstances which powerfully affect the strength of the juice at the time of its collection: but a third agent, still less amenable than these to control, now comes into play, the precipitation of dew on the
surface of the capsule. When a current of wind, or a cloudy sky, prevents the formation of dew, it is found that the scarifications made in the capsule about the middle of the preceding day are sealed up by the slight oozing of juice, which had immediately followed the incisions; and the quantity of opium obtained is small. When, again, the dew is abundant, it washes open the wounds in the capsule, and thus facilitates the flow of the milk, which in heavy dews is apt to drop off the capsule entirely, and be wasted. But when the dew is in moderate quantity, it allows the milk to thicken by evaporation, and to collect in irregular tiers, (averaging one grain of solid opium from each quadruple incision,) which on examination will be found to have a greater consistency, and a “rose-red” (Werner) colour towards the external surface, while the interior is semi-fluid, and of a “reddish-white” colour. This inequality of consistence constitutes the grain of raw opium, of which I shall have to speak hereafter.

9. In the collection of these drops of half-dried juice, it is very apt to get mixed with the dew, which, in the earlier hours of collection, continue to besprinkle the capsules, and which here does a double mischief—first, by retarding the inspissation of the general mass of the juice; and, secondly, by separating its two most remarkable constituent parts—that which is soluble, and that which is insoluble in water. So little aware, or so reckless, even under the most favourable construction of their conduct, are the koérís of the injury thus caused by the dew, that many of them are in the habit of occasionally washing their scrapers with water, and of adding the washings to the collection of the morning: in Malwa, oil is used for this purpose, to the irremediable injury of the flavour of the opium. On examining the juice thus mixed with water, it will be found that it has separated, as above-mentioned, into two portions, a fluid and a more consistent; the latter containing the most of the resin, gluten, caoutchouc and other less soluble constituents of opium, with part of the super-meconiate of morphia; and the former containing the gum, some resin, and much of the super-meconiate of morphia, and much of the colouring principle, which, though pale at first, is rapidly affected by light, and acquires a very deep “reddish or blackish brown” colour. Many koérís are in the habit of draining off this fluid portion into a separate vessel, and of bringing it under the name of paséwá, for sale, at half the price of opium, to the Benares agency, where it is used as léwa, (paste for the petal envelopes of the cakes.) Others, after allowing the soluble principles to become thus changed into an acescent, blackened, sluggish fluid, mix it up with the more consistent part of their opium, and bring the whole for sale in this mixed state;
the consequence of which is that they are subjected to a penalty, called *battá upon paséwá*, and regulated by the estimate of the opium examiner, of the quantity of *paséwá* contained. This penalty is the only efficient check upon this most pernicious practice of the *koérís*: for on the generality of the gomáshtas, it is difficult to impress the necessity of their looking after the *koérís* during the collecting season. Were gomáshtas in general fit for their offices, the name of *paséwá* might be banished from the Bengal agencies; all that is required for that purpose being that they should instruct all their *mahtás* and *koérís*, to exclude dew as much as possible from the opium at collection—never to add water to their opium, then or at any other period; but at the end of their day’s collection, to rub it together in a mortar or similar vessel, breaking down the *grain* of it above-mentioned, so as reduce the whole to a homogeneous semi-fluid mass, which should be dried as quickly as possible in the shade, in a current of air free from dust, by spreading it on any clean flat surface, and turning it over ten or twenty times. With this management, one afternoon in the dry collecting season would suffice for bringing to the spissitude of 70 per cent. the collection of each day, which could then be secured, along with the rest of the *koérís*’ opium, in a vessel of any form, safe from deterioration by internal change. It is a common belief, that all new opium *must* ferment*: but that is a fallacy occasioned by the low degree of spissitude at which opium is generally received at the Bengal agencies, and by the consequent fermentation and swelling up which almost constantly occur, when such opium is allowed to stand for some hours in large vessels.

10. So very large was formerly the admixture of *paséwá* in the opium brought to the Benares agency, that it was thought necessary, for the sake of its appearance, to draw off as much as possible of the black fluid, by storing it, for weeks, in earthen vessels, perforated with a hole. Of late years, there has been a great amendment in this respect, and the draining system has therefore become unnecessary; an event which ought to be followed by the abolition of the inconvenient receptacles in which it was carried on, and by the general substitution of movable wooden cases and drawers in their stead.

11. *Paséwá*, in a pure and concentrated state, is a viscid, dark reddish-brown fluid, transparent in thin plates. Its homogeneous physical constitution prevents its assuming to the eye that appearance of consistency which is presented by ordinary opium. In the former, all

* Dr. Abel believed that fermentation was necessary for the development of the narcotic principles, and considered the fermentation as of a panary species, in which the gluten played a principal part.
the ingredients are in a state of true chemical combination, with the water contained; while, in the latter, many of the ingredients are only in a state of mechanical mixture, a condition which almost necessarily gives an appearance of solidity beyond all proportion to the actual quantity of solid matter contained. Hence, paséwá, and opium containing paséwá, are less consistent, and would, to the inexperienced eye, appear to contain much more water than pure opium of the same actual spissitude; a source of much perplexity to any one who tries for the first time to estimate, by the consistence, the real spissitude or dry contents of different samples of opium containing more or less of paséwá. A tentative process is the only one by which a person can qualify himself to estimate the spissitude with tolerable accuracy. He should, before allowing the parkhiyas to state their estimates of the spissitude, form one in his own mind, and make a memorandum of it, noting his reasons for assigning the degree of spissitude on which he has fixed. The result of the steam-drying test, to which small samples of all opium are subjected in the Benares agency, will then enable him to judge on which side, whether under or over-estimate, he has inclined to err, and to avoid the error in his subsequent operations.

12. The constituents of paséwá are in a state of chemical combination; and the slow addition of water will not subvert that condition. But the sudden affusion of a large quantity of water on concentrated paséwá instantly resolves it into two portions, a dark coloured fluid containing the gum, colouring matter, and super-meconiate and acetate of morphia, and a lighter coloured powder, consisting of the resin and some gluten, and a minute portion of caoutchouc. In making léáwá, therefore, from paséwá, or from inferior opium, the necessary quantity of water should be slowly added, and thoroughly mixed previously to the addition of more water. Pure opium is liable to the same resolution of its component parts, from the sudden affusion of water: if the latter be slowly added and thoroughly mixed, the gelatinous opium will absorb it, forming a species of hydrate, and will retain its tremulous consistence; but if the water be suddenly added in considerable quantity, an immediate separation of the more and less soluble constituents occurs, and the opium loses its gelatinous and adhesive character. When opium is dried up to a certain point, below the spissitude of 80 per cent., it loses the power of absorbing water without decomposition, and cannot be brought to the gelatinous state. It might be expected, that by adding 30 parts of water to 70 of dry opium powder, we should produce a combination possessing the consistence and other physical characters of fresh standard* opium; but

* So called, because this is the degree of spissitude required at the Bengal
the compound has little consistence, and will be found to contain insoluble portions, which have lost their power of forming hydrates with water: yet its spissitude remains exactly that of standard opium, the precise quantity of dry opium employed in making it being recoverable from it, but in a darkened and deteriorated condition. The above observations have a practical bearing upon the manufacture of léwú, as has already been noticed, and upon the degree of spissitude which opium, either in the hands of the koérís or in the agency godowns, should be permitted to acquire: it should be limited to 66 or 67 per cent. for the former, and 70 or 72 for the latter; because, with every additional degree of spissitude above this, the solubility is impaired in an increasing ratio.

13. Among some thoughts on the subject committed to writing six years ago, I find the following remark and query: "The whole of the original milky juice will pass through a finer filter than that used by the Chinese in making the extract for smoking: is it possible to dry the opium, retaining its property of such minute division and diffusibility; or is it necessary for the complete separation of the water from the resin, gluten, caoutchouc, &c. that some absorption of oxygen should take place, and some consequent diminution of their solubility, or rather miscibility with water?" My reason for noticing this query is the subsequent solution of the proposed problem by M. Previte of Calcutta, in the highly similar case of animal milk, which he appears to have succeeded in drying to a powder with no perceptible injury to the diffusibility of its curdy and oleaginous principles. This is the very result that should be aimed at in the preparation of opium for the China market.

14. When the juice of the poppy has been properly dried, that is, rapidly, in a cool shade, and protected from dust, it possesses, at the spissitude of 70 per cent., (that is, containing 30 per cent. of water,) the following properties. It has, in the mass, a "reddish brown" colour (Werner), resembling that of copper (the metallic lustre obstructed); and, when spread thin on a white plate, shews considerable translucency, with a "gallstone yellow" colour, and a slightly granular texture. When cut into flakes with a knife, it exhibits sharp edges, without drawing out into threads; and is tremulous, like jelly, or rather strawberry jam, to which it has been aptly compared. It has considerable adhesiveness, a handful of it not dropping from the hand inverted for some seconds. Its smell is the pure peculiar smell
of opium, heavy and not unpleasant. In this condition it is said to be "standard" or "awwal" opium.

15. When the juice, again, instead of being thus exposed to the air, has after collection been kept in deep vessels, which prevent evaporation, it presents the following appearances. A specimen of it which has the spissitude of only 60 per cent. has the apparent consistency or substantiality of standard opium of 70 per cent. But on minuter examination, it will be found, that this apparent firmness of texture is a deception, resulting from the mechanical constitution of the mass; it being made up with but little alteration of the original irregular drops collected from the capsule, soft within, and more inspissated without; this outer portion, as long as it remains entire, giving the general character of consistency to the mass, just as the shells of a quantity of eggs would do. For when the opium is rubbed smartly in a mortar, this fictitious consistence disappears, exactly as that of the eggs, if pounded, would do; and in point of apparent consistence, as well as of real spissitude, it is reduced to the proportion which it properly bears to standard opium. When opium thus retains the original configuration of the irregular drops, it is said to be "kacha" or "raw"; when these are broken down into the minute grain mentioned in the description of standard opium, it is said to be "pakka" or "matured," whatever may be the actual spissitude of the opium, whether 50 or 70 per cent. An opinion has been entertained, but on what grounds I know not, that the breaking down of this large grain is an injury to the opium: to myself it seems plain that as the large grain always disappears before the opium attains the spissitude of 70 per cent. and as this vesicular constitution of the raw opium retards the evaporation of its superfluous moisture, the more inspissated shell of each irregular drop checking the evaporation from its more fluid interior, the object should be to reduce the whole with the least possible delay to a nearly homogeneous mass, in which state the inspissation of opium advances with much greater rapidity.

16. Connected with this subject is a question which has been raised, whether the inspissation of opium stored in large quantities in the agency godowns is effected more quickly, by removing, from time to time, into another receptacle, the pellicle of thick opium which forms on the surface of the mass; or by turning over the mass frequently, and thus constantly mingling with it the pellicles successively formed. As agreeably to the general law of chemical affinity, whereby the last portions of any substance held in combination, and in course of gradual expulsion, are retained with increasing obstinacy, the inspissation of thin, is, ceteris paribus, always more rapid in its pro-
gress than that of thick opium; it is clear that the removal of the pellicle, by which opium of minimum spissitude is constantly exposed to the air, must accelerate the inspissation more than the turning over of the whole mass would do: because the latter process exposes to the air opium which is gradually acquiring a greater degree of concentration, and from which the evaporation will gradually be slower and slower. As evaporation takes place from the external surface only, it may be proper here to advert to the propriety of making all reservoirs for opium below the standard spissitude as numerous and shallow as may be permitted by the means of stowage; every practicable method being at the same time adopted to facilitate ventilation across, and to exclude dust from, the extensive surfaces exposed; and as little light being admitted as may be suitable to the convenience of the people at work.

17. It might be expected, from the ingenuity of the natives of this country, and from their imperfect notions of fair trade, that they would resort to a great variety of means for increasing, by adulteration, the weight of such an article as opium, in which fraud might be made so difficult of detection. But in fact, it is seldom that they attempt any thing of the kind, beyond keeping their opium at a low spissitude; an act by which, under the present searching system of examination, they cannot profit; and which, from its occasioning a deterioration of their opium through fermentation, entails the levying of a batta upon its quality, and therefore, in those cases, an inevitable loss. It is impossible that opium left to itself in the open air, during the parching season of the hot winds, could remain at the low spissitudes of 50 and 60 per cent. at which it is frequently brought to Gházípúr towards the end of that season: and we must therefore conclude, that artificial means are resorted to, in order to maintain it in that condition; either the frequent addition of water, or the burying it in a damp piece of ground, which is said to be sometimes done for the sake of security. When these malpractices have been carried too far, the gluten undergoes, in a greater or less degree, the process of putrefaction; the mass of opium first becoming covered with mould, and acquiring an opaque "yellowish grey" colour and a pasty consistence, in which every vestige of the translucency and grain of the opium is lost; and the smell becoming venous, sour, and at last abominably foetid; in which condition the deteriorated opium is fit for none of the purposes of the manufacture, and is always destroyed, and its original value forfeited, by the kóleš. It is to be hoped that their experience of the unvarying consequences of such folly, and the introduction of a superior class of gomáshtás, will in time convince them of the advantage, as well as
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The facility, of bringing in all their opium at very nearly the standard spissitude.

In some cases it would appear, from the fluid state in which they bring it for sale, as if they expected every drop of water which they add to it, to be assimilated and converted into opium. Occasionally, it would seem that they had admitted some suspicions of its having been watered too much; and their only remedy is to drive off the superfluous water by boiling: an operation which speedily reduces the mixture to a blackened and charred condition, easily recognized.

18. A more ingenious fraud, but which is seldom practised, is, that of washing out the soluble and most valuable part of the opium, and bringing for sale the residual mass. In this process, the opium loses its translucency, and the redness of its colour: it loses its adhesiveness also, not adhering to the hand like opium which has not been robbed of its soluble principles; and by these marks, without going further, the fraud is detected. Sand is now and then added, to increase the weight; and is at once detected by its grittiness when rubbed between a plate and a spatula.

Soft clayey mud is also, but very rarely, used for the same purpose: it always impairs the colour and translucency; and can, as well as sand, be detected, and its quantity accurately ascertained, by washing the opium with a large quantity of water, and collecting the sediment, which is the clayey mud.

Sugar and gur, or coarse molasses, are sometimes employed to adulterate opium: they invariably ferment, and give it a sickly, sweetish, venous, or acescent odour, easily known.

Cow-dung, the pulp of the dhatura, or thorn-apple, and the gummy resinous juice of the bel, or Bengal quince, are seldom met with as fraudulent ingredients: the first may be detected by drying it to a powder, or by washing it with water, either of which processes brings under the eye the undigested shreds of vegetable matter constituting the animal’s food; but the two last are extremely difficult of detection, if not added in quantity sufficient to affect the colour and smell of the opium, which generally happens in the few instances of their occurrence. The seeds of the dhatura are apt to get mixed with the opium, and afford a ready means of detection. A strange, but not uncommon, mode of adulteration is the addition of pounded poppy seeds: if reduced to a fine powder, the oleaginous seeds might enter into an imperfect chemical union with the kindred resinoid principle of the opium; but the fraud is never so skilfully effected as to produce this result; and the hard particles of the seeds are perceptible to the touch and sight. Málwa opium, though less now than it was
eight years ago, is in general largely contaminated with oil, which is easily separated by dissolving the opium in water; and I have seen, in a few instances, the same fraud attempted within the Benares agency. As the oil is always in a rancid condition, its presence is betrayed by its odour, as well as by the glistening appearance which it communicates to the opium.

19. By long exposure to the heat of the sun, the texture of opium, whatever be its spissitude, undergoes a remarkable change, through the conversion of part of its gluten into a species of bird-lime. Its shortness or property of exhibiting sharp edges, when cut into flakes with a knife, disappears; and it draws out into long threads.

These two varieties of texture may almost always be recognized in cakes of Behár and Benares opium respectively; the former being exposed to the sun, in the process of drying the cakes, and the latter not. This diversity of treatment occasions a difference between the hygrometric properties of the cakes of the two agencies; the Behár cakes acquiring a more speedy but less permanent hardness than the Benares: whereby, though firmer in the shell towards the end of the hot winds, they are more liable than the Benares to soften and lose their shape during the rains. The immediate cause of this difference appears on making a clean section of the shells with a sharp knife. It will thus be found, that in the Benares shells, the léwá remains visibly interstratified with the petals, dark-coloured, and tenacious; while in the Behár, it is in a great measure absorbed by the petals, which are apparently in intimate contact with each other, and is not to be distinguished from them; the combination being more easily effected by hygrometric changes of the atmosphere than the independent strata of leaf and léwá in the Benares cakes.

20. While, as at present, a considerable amount of inferior opium is produced, not safely applicable to any other purpose than the manufacture of léwá, its sacrifice is no great loss. But if all the opium brought to the agencies were of good quality, the substitution of some less expensive vegetable paste would be an important desideratum. Any strong cheap mucilage or farinaceous paste, or perhaps some indigenous imitation of bird-lime, would answer for the inner portion of the shell; and an exterior coating of a resinous, waxy, or oily nature, impervious to water, would defend this from the moisture of the air.

21. In cutting open a cake for examination, the above points should be attended to. It should also be observed whether the external and internal surfaces of the shell are smooth: the former not knotty or fissured, and none of the interior leaves of the latter detached among the opium: there ought, also, to be no vacuities between
the strata of the leaves, such as are sometimes found, lined with mould, in faulty cakes, and the shell altogether ought to be thin, compact, and of equal thickness throughout. The shape ought to be as nearly spherical as possible: that being the geometrical form which under the smallest surface contains the greatest quantity of matter, and which consequently affords the least scope for the extrication of air and ultimate injury to the shape of the cake when that air escapes. Greater attention to having the earthen cups, in which the cakes are dried, perfectly hemispherical, instead of parabolical as they now are, would contribute to the desired sphericity.

22. In opening a cake, the next thing to be attended to is the manner in which the two hemispheres of the opium separate: the Behár will be found to retain its shortness, while the Benares draws out into threads. The smell should then be attentively observed and noted down, being strongest immediately after the opening, and giving at that instant the fairest indications of the state of the opium with respect to preservation; the pure narcotic, venous, or acescent odour being then most strongly perceptible: in this respect the Benares will generally prove superior to the Behár. It is an important character; for the Chinese are great epicures in the flavour of opium, and object to it when it smells at all sour.

23. The surface of the opium should then be narrowly inspected, and the tint and shade of colour, both by reflected and transmitted light, noted down, in terms of Werner’s nomenclature; also the apparent quantity of paséwá if any be present, which is almost constantly the case with Behár opium, where it appears like dark glistening fluid, lining the little cells in the surface of the opium. As the depth of the colour of opium in the caked state depends on the quantity of paséwá in it, or the degree in which it has been deteriorated by exposure to the sun, the lighter the shade, the better is the opium.

24. The chemical analysis of opium, after all the trouble that has been bestowed on it, is still in an unsatisfactory state. A perfect analysis, such as we possess of Peruvian bark, and of some other medicinal plants yielding vegetable alkalies, ought to eliminate the whole of the active principles, leaving nothing at its close but an inert mass possessed of no therapeutic power: and the essential principles thus obtained should equal (or, as in the case of quina freed from its bulky fibrous accompaniment, surpass) in activity, a quantity of the original substance equal to that from which it was extracted. But how greatly inferior are the powers, over the animal economy, of a grain of morphia, in whatever state of purity or saline combination, to the quantity of opium that is required to furnish that single grain! Yet, for all that
we can, chemically, see, we obtain by our analysis the whole of the
morphia that is contained in opium. I suspect that the narcotic power
is partly lodged in some unknown substance (not narcotine) insoluble
in water: for I have, after careful and repeated washing, until it ceased
to colour the water, found the insoluble residuum to act as an opiate
with considerable energy. Although morphia, in a state of purity, can, like sulphur, be fused without change; yet, when in com-
bination with the other constituents of opium, it is partly destroyed by
a much lower degree of heat, greatly under that of boiling water; for
the pharmaceutical and Chinese extracts are found to contain very
little morphia: still, the former, as is well known, exert great medici-
nal power, out of all proportion to the quantity of morphia which
analysis evolves from them. From all these considerations it would
result, that the proportion of morphia obtained, by the analysis at
present known, cannot be regarded as a true exponent of the total
narcotic power of the opium which yields it. An additional source of
fallacy in comparing the produce of different countries exists in the
varying proportions which they contain of colouring matter or extrac-
tion; a principle for which morphia and narcotine have a strong affi-
nity, forming insoluble compounds* with it; and which, as well as
narcotine, is much more abundant in Indian than in Turkey opium.
Hence a considerable loss in the purification of morphia from the
former, and an apparent, and probably real, inferiority in its quantity;
although we know that good India opium is equal to Turkey in narco-
tic power.

25. Robiquet's process is the one employed by the opium exam-
iner in Calcutta. The chief precautions necessary to ensure success
and uniformity in its results are, not to use too much water at first;
to see that the magnesia is brought to a red heat; not to expose any
of the subjects of analysis to the sun, or to artificial heat, except in the
washing and final solution in alcohol of the morphia; not to use too
strong a spirit in washing the morphia and excess magnesia; and
to employ the strongest alcohol for its final solution before crystalliza-
tion. Sertürner's process is useful where it is not necessary to
obtain the morphia in a separate state: and in practised hands affords
speedy and tolerably accurate information. It is probable that Robi-
quet's process will in time be superseded by that of the late Dr.
William Gregory of Edinburgh, which does not acquire the expen-
sive use of alcohol, and yields more morphia, by 30 or 40 per cent.;
affording, in fact, the cheapest medicinal preparation known of Turkey

* This may partly account for the medicinal activity of the mass of opium
above noticed.
opium. It consists in the exhaustion of the opium with water under the temperature of 90°; concentration of the solution at a low temperature; precipitation by slight excess of ammonia; elutriation of the precipitate with cold water; exsiccation of it at a temperature below 212°, and reduction to powder; solution in cold water by muriatic acid, slowly added in slight excess; filtration and concentration to the consistence of syrup; after which, the preparation on cooling, becomes a mass of crystals of muriate of morphia, moistened with a dark-coloured solution of uncrystallizable muriate of narcotine and resinoid colouring matter. This solution is abstracted from the crystals by strong pressure between folds of bibulous paper; and the solution, crystallization, and expression repeated once or twice; after which, the salt is obtained in radiated bunches of snow-white silky crystals, containing 37 parts of muriatic acid and 322 of morphia. But for the unfortunate super-abundance of narcotine, and comparative paucity of obtainable morphia, in Indian opium, the manufacture of the muriate on a large scale might advantageously be established, at one of the Bengal agencies, for the supply of the Indian medical department with this admirable preparation, the marc (?) of which would be available for the manufacture of léwd.

26. Connected with the subject of analysis is another which claims some attention from the opium examiner, the accuracy and sensibility of the weights and balances used in his department. Neither of them should ever be allowed to be soiled with opium; and the former should occasionally be compared, to see that all weights of similar denominations mutually correspond within one-tenth of a grain, and that the larger and smaller weights are equally accurate multiples and sub-multiples of each other. The knife-edges of the balances should occasionally be sharpened, so that they may turn with as little friction as possible; and the three points of suspension, whenever deranged, should be brought into a perfectly straight line, by bending the beam with the hand: if the centre edges be too low, the balance will, when loaded with its proper weights, be in a state of unstable equilibrium, and will cause great mistakes; and if they be too low, the balance will lose its sensibility, and cannot be depended upon within perhaps two grains. Care should also be taken that the distance from centre-edges to arm-edges are exactly equal; from accidental violence, this element of accuracy is very apt to be deranged, and causes great confusion when overlooked.

27. Were all the opium brought for sale unexceptionable in quality, free from paséwd, and liable to battâ on account of deficient spissitude only, there would be, supposing the batta levied with tolerable accuracy, little difference at the end of the manufacturing season, between
the registered receipts and expenditure of opium: and, supposing it
levied with strict accuracy, there would be a small loss, occasioned by
accidental spilling of semi-fluid opium, adhesion to the persons and
clothes of the work-people, and other unavoidable sources of wastage.
But as, in the present state of things, batta to a considerable amount
is levied on quality, the effect of its deduction, if not kept separate
from the battá on spissitude, would be to shew, at the end of the year,
a deceptive deficiency of receipt compared with expenditure. Battá
upon quality, or paséwá, therefore, should not be admitted into the
godown accounts; and should be confined to the account between the
receiving-officer and the koéri.

28. There are no satisfactory experimental means, except perhaps
by the specific gravity, of ascertaining the precise quantity of paséwá in
opium. It will hardly drain at all from opium of higher spissitude
than sixty per cent. and not readily from opium of even that spissi-
tude, unless assisted by a slight fermentation, which greatly facilitates
its flow: the paséwá trickling down the sides of the air-vesicles thus
formed. The only convenient rule for the adjustment of battá upon
paséwá, or upon quality generally, is, that absolute paséwá, if not too
thin, and the worst opium purchased for the Company, being paid for
at half the price of standard opium; for different grades of inferiority
in quality between those two conditions, as fair a gradation of penal-
ties shall be fixed, as can be formed from an estimate of the sensible
qualities.

29. It has been thought, that specific gravity might prove an ac-
curate index of the spissitude of opium; which is, however, not the
case; its soluble principles, and that portion of its insoluble constitu-
ents which, slightly modified, unite with the soluble in forming paséwá
acquiring in their transition to this altered state, a considerable in-
crease of density. Opium, therefore, containing paséwá, is much
heavier than an equal bulk, at the same spissitude, of pure opium. I
have found this condensation to bear same proportion to the quantity
of paséwá apparently contained: and it might, probably be found to
indicate with considerable accuracy the proper amount of battá to be
levied for paséwá, were such nicety desirable or conveniently attain-
able.

30. The Regulation of Government, which requires Civil Surgeons
to report upon the relative values of parcels of confiscated opium, ac-
cording to the quantity of foreign matter which they may contain,
is obscure on two important points: 1st, whether, and beyond what
degree of thinness, water is to be considered as foreign matter; and,
secondly, whether and beyond what degree of deterioration,
fermented and paséwá, converted opium, when contained in the contraband article, are to be considered as "foreign matter." I have been in the habit of regarding them as foreign, when the water exceeded 30 per cent., and when inferiority in quality was palpable; because a different practice would defeat the end, for which the regulation was framed, of securing a fair reward to the informer. Under a less strict interpretation of the rule, he would be tempted to double the weight of the seized opium, and consequently his own reward, by adding to it, a sufficient quantity of water, or of bad opium, such as may at all times be clandestinely purchased for a trifle in the poppy districts.


[Exhibited at the Meeting of the 6th April.]

Colonel Colvin’s first dispatch consisted of six large chests of fossil bones, in their rough state, attached to the matrix rock, as they were originally brought in from the hills by the native collectors employed by him to dig. They still remain unclassified in the museum, but the detailed examination that has been given to the second dispatch by Lieutenants Durand and Baker, whom experience has already made expert in recognizing fragments, even much mutilated, will materially assist in arranging the former specimens, while it leaves little to be done with the present beyond publishing their catalogue at once for the satisfaction of geologists, and preparing the specimens for the inspection of visitors. There are among them many noble fragments of known animals, which challenge comparison with those of any collection in Europe: these it will be a first object to make known by accurate drawings or by plaster casts. There are also numerous skulls, jaws, teeth, and bones decidedly new to fossil osteology, but the admirable fidelity and scientific knowledge with which the major part of these is now under illustration by Dr. Hugh Falconer and Captain Cautley, in the Asiatic Researches, from their own, even more extensive, cabinet, supplants the necessity of attempting a full investigation here. All points in which differences from their generic or specific descriptions are recognized, it will be the duty of our curator to bring to notice.

The synopsis published in the Journal for December last, page 706, comprised the varieties of organic remains, up to that period extracted from the upper deposits of the tertiary strata of the Sivalik or Sub-Himálaya range of hills. Most of the same are to be found in Colonel Colvin's collection. Some recent additions of a highly interesting
nature have however been made above, of which I have been apprised in my private correspondence with Seháranpur.

Lieutenant Durand has just dug out a nearly perfect head of a *Paleotherium*, from the vicinity of the spot whence Captain Cautley had previously extracted the *Anoplotherium* of Cuvier. The Dadúpur museum possesses a fragment “of the lower jaw of a huge new animal: the teeth not sufficiently perfect to determine its nature: it is probably of some grand new pachydermatous animal, equalling the elephant in size.” Both the rhinoceros and the camel have characters of indubitable variation from known species. Of both these, notices are now in preparation. The acquisition of fossil birds was noticed at the meeting of March: Dr. Falconer supposes them to be bones of large *Grallae*. This is, as he says, a fair test of the justice he and his fellow labourers are doing to the enquiry: it is not every museum in Europe that has fossil birds to shew! A note this moment received announces the acquisition of “a superb specimen of gigantic size of an unknown species of crocodile: it forms an intermediate section in the genus between the true crocodile or *magor*, and the *leptorynchus* or *gharíl*.

The muzzle is cylindrical, as in the latter, but greatly shorter; and the teeth are thick and shorter, as in the *magor*: they protrude in relief above the jaw three inches, and are 1 inch and 2 lines in diameter!” There is also in Col. Colvin’s collection a Saurian head, apparently new.

I have ventured to alter the numbering of the catalogue, to save repetition, by bringing bones of the same animals together, the original having been written out by Lieutenant Baker just in the order they came to hand. It will be observed, that great pains have been taken to unite together with cement specimens which were broken in extraction, and in clearing them from matrix. The necessity of the latter operation will be acknowledged on perusal of the following extract from Colonel Colvin’s note to me of the 4th October last.

“The quantity I found collected here on my return, and what had to be brought in proved to be so great, that in the matrix they would have loaded a boat; during the rains, therefore, I employed a number of people to clear them, and though a vast number have thus been rejected as superfluous, or too mutilated to be useful, still a great deal has been packed that might perhaps have well been left behind, had I not feared to attempt a selection.” The same letter adds:

“I have been unfortunate in not meeting with specimens of teeth of the Sivatherium, or complete heads of the hog. I had one lower end of the radius of what appeared to be the camel, but as a few specimens also deemed “camel” had come into the Dadupur museum*, I made

* Since certified by the discovery of an entire head.
over this bone to it with the view of identification, and should the further search prove successful, you will receive specimens of the animal from Lieutenant Baker.

"The clearing away of the matrix, besides rendering the specimens less cumbersome for transmission, enabled, I should hardly say us, for it was my young friend, here to give names to most of what are now sent. The locality of each I found it impossible to particularize, as the parties, whom I sent out to collect, ranged about in the lower hills, picking up whatever they found, and heaping all together, until they had amassed several cart loads; but the eastern limits of their search were the branches of the Sombe, which are about due south of the Chūr mountain; and to the west, their search extended to about half way between Nāhan and Pinjōr. The only distinction worth noticing is, that the hard or brown fossils (those mineralized with hydrated oxide of iron) did not come out of the same stratum as the blue and friable (calcareous) ones; the latter being from the west of Nāhan. You will perceive the difference of the matrix on several of the specimens only partially cleared. I have never had leisure to visit the sites myself, and would therefore add nothing on this subject until I shall have enjoyed the opportunity of a personal inspection."

The Society will doubtless be eager to do every honor to the munificent donor of these splendid fossils, if it has any real wish to acquire the reputation of possessing a valuable museum. The foundation of our fossil collection was but laid four years ago, and already through the contributions of Colonel Burney, Dr. Spilsbury, Captain Smith, Mr. Dean, &c. now enriched by Col. Colvin's vast store of specimens, it has become necessary to devote an entire apartment to this instructive department of natural history. Our smallest return of gratitude to those who have been at such considerable expence in promoting the Society's interests, will be to do honor to what has been so generously bestowed, by making up fit cabinets to exhibit them to the best advantage, and by spreading the knowledge of them as expeditiously and widely as possible.

J. P. Sec.

Catalogue of Colonel Colvin's Fossil Bones.

Mastodon Elephantoides.

1 Upper jaw, very perfect.
2 ________, fragment.
5-6 Lower jaw, part of the right half.
7 ________, ditto left half.
8 Symphysis of ditto, (or of elephant.)
11 to 26 Fragments of molars, of both jaws.
31 Axis of a large mastodon (?) very perfect.
32 Cubitus, upper extremity, with olecranon.
Mastodon Latidens, identified with Elephantoides, Fal.

36  Lower jaw, right half.

Elephas Primigenius.

41  Upper jaw, right half.
42 to 47  Lower jaws, left half, and fragments.
48—49 ———, right half.
50 ———, left half of a younger animal.
51—56  Molars, fragments of.
57  59 ———, of smaller animals.
60  Upper jaw of a small animal, much mutilated.
61 to 80  Tusks, fragments of various sizes.
81  Femur, upper and (? mastodon).
82—87 ———, lower end.
88—91  Humerus, upper end.
92—95 ———, lower end.
96  Cubitus, upper extremity.
97  Tibia, perfect specimen.
98—101 ———, upper extremities.
102—104  Calcaneum.
105  Axis, of very large size.

Hippopotamus.

111  Cranum.
112  Upper half of the head, very perfect in bone.
114—117  Upper jaw, perfect, and fragments.
119—123  Lower jaw, in various preservation.
124  Fragment of ditto, with two central incisors.
125—126  Condyles of ditto.
127—129  Fragments of molar teeth.
130  135  Canine teeth, fragments of upper.
136 ————, of lower jaw.
140  Pelvis, fragment of the.
141—143  Femur, lower extremity.
144  Cubitus, upper extremity, with olecranon.

Rhinoceros.

150  Upper jaw, fragment.
151—153  Lower jaw, fragments much mutilated.
154  Teeth, three fragments of molars.
155  Axis, doubtful.
156—8  Scapula, three fragments, doubtful.
159—163  Humerus, upper extremity.
164 ————, lower extremity.
165  Cubitus, upper end.
166—169  Femur.
170  Radius.
171  Tibia, with tarsal and metatarsal bones attached.
172—175 ———, fragments.
176—180  Metatarsal entire.
177—179  Metacarpus.
180  Calcaneum, perfect.
181  Astragalus, perfect.

Sus.

182  Right jaw of some animal of this genus.

Bones of Pachydermatous animals not classified.

185  Lower jaw of a small animal.
186  Molar teeth, much mutilated.
187—210  Vertebrae, cervical; 191, process of dorsal, 192.
212  A very large specimen of do.
213—219  Humerus, fragments of lower extremity.
1836.]

Presented to the Asiatic Society's Museum.

220 Femur, upper extremity of.
221—223 Condyle of do.
224—229 Tibia.
230—232 Radius, lower extremity.
233—235 Carpus and tarsus.
236 Metacarpus, small.
237—238 Metatarsus.
239—246 Phalanges.
247—248 Astragalus.
249—250 Omoplate; socket of do. 251—253.
251 Pelvis; socket of do. 252.

Horse.

260 Upper jaw, attached to the humerus of a rhinoceros, &c.
261—264 Molar teeth.
265 Atlas.
266 Femur, lower extremity.
267 Radius, ditto.
268 Cannon bone.
269 Astragalus.
270—271 Phalanges.

Bos.

280 Head of some species of ox.
282 Left upper jaw, fragment of.
283—289 Lower jaw, fragments.
290—293 Molar teeth.
294—295 Femur, upper extremity.
296—297 Horn, fragments.

Antelope.

300 Head and horns, portion of the.
301 Occiput.
302—303 Upper jaw.
304 Lower jaw, or of a small deer?
305—306 Posterior part of head, (or of a deer?)

Deer.

310 Upper jaw, molars enveloped in matrix.
311 Ditto of smaller animal.
312 Lower jaw, with metatarsal attached—alone 313, 314.
316 Left lower jaw of young animal with milk teeth.
317 Posterior molar of large deer: smaller 318.
318 Germ tooth (?)
319—321 Antlers, fragments of.

Bones of various Ruminants, unidentified.

325—326 Cranium with occiput.
327 Lower jaw, back part, large animal.
328—344 Molars of a large animal, 345.
345—358 Cervical vertebrae, small: three connected, 359.
360 — of a gigantic ruminant. (? Sivatherium.)
361—364 Dorsal vertebrae.
365 Lumbar vertebrae.
366—367 Sacral vertebrae.
368—372 Very large vertebrae.
373 Axis.
374—375 Atlas, large, one broken.
376—379 Scapula, glenoid cavity of, 380.
380—383 Humerus, upper extremity.
384—406 — — lower extremity.
407—409 Femur, fragments.
410—429 Tibia.
Notice of a Visit to the Valley of Kashmir. [March, 1836.

By the Baron Hugel.

[Read on the 6th April.]

On my way to Bombay to embark for Europe, I take the liberty of addressing you a few lines, requesting your doing with them what you think best: they relate to my journey to Kashmir. I was in hopes of being able to send you a more elaborate memoir, but my time is very much limited, that I am afraid of postponement, and hasten rather to offer you a few notes as they were collected. I understand that Mr. Jacquemont’s travels are now published. I think therefore that it may be of some interest to the Indian reading public, to have before it some observations, not influenced by the above mentioned work, made by a traveller a few years later, to compare them together. As
before a regular publication of my residence in 1835 can be made in Europe and reach India, that of Mr. Jacquemont will have lost much of its interest as a new topic, I do not hesitate to come forward with my notes in their original form, how unfavourable to them it may be.

Kashmir in a political and financial point of view, has been much over-rated: not in a picturesque one. The valley in its length, from N. W. by W. to S. E. by E. is little more than 80 miles long; the breadth crossing the former line, varying from 30 miles to 6. I speak of the actual plains: from the eternal snow of the Pir Panjáhl to the Tibet Panjáhl are 50 to 60 miles: both ranges run nearly parallel in the first direction, with a great number of peaks. The height of the passes from Bimbar to Kashmir, and that from Kashmir to Iscardo is the same, 13,000 feet; the highest point of the Pir Panjáhl, 15,000 feet by the boiling point. The city of Kashmir 6,300 feet*; Kashmir town, Daláwer Khán Bagh on the 19th November, gave meridional altitude 72° 4′; artificial horizon, which shews its northern latitude to be 34° 33′.

Population.—Four years ago about 800,000; now not exceeding 200,000. The valley is divided in 36 perganahs, containing ten towns and 2,200 villages. Kashmir town contains still 40,000 inhabitants; Chupinian, 3000; Islámábád and Pámpur, 2000. It was not the bad administration of the Sikhs, but a famine brought on by frost at the time the rice was in flower, and cholera in consequence of it, that reduced the population to one fourth of the former number by death and emigration: many villages are entirely deserted. Chirar town contains now 2000 houses and only 150 inhabitants!

Revenue.—Last year very nearly nothing, Ranjit Singh wishing that the country should recover: this year (1836) he asks 23 lakhs from the Governor Mohan Singh, which the country cannot give. The emigration has brought to the Panjáb and Hindustán many shawl manufacturers, and Kashmir will most likely never yield again what it did a few years ago. Núrpur, Lodiána, and many other places can bring to the market shawls cheaper than Kashmir, where every article of food is dearer than in the Panjáb and Hindustán.

Twelve passes, Pansahl in the Kashmir language (from which Pir Panjhal of the Musalmans) now exist; three to Tibet (Iscardo and Ladak); eight to the Panjáb; one to the west. In former times there were only seven: the defence of which was entrusted to Malliks with hereditary appointments: four passes are open the whole year: one to Ladák, the western pass, (Baramulla,) and two to the south.

* Three thermometers brought it very near to the same height.
Wuler lake is 30 miles from E. to W.

Brahmans, the only Hindús in Kashmir, 25,000 in 2000 families; they are Vishnuvaites and Sivaites, divided into three divisions, who all intermarry: they are darker than the other inhabitants, owing to a colony sent for from the Dekhan about 800 years ago, after the aboriginal Brahman race was nearly extinguished by the persecution of the Muhammedans.

There is not in the valley the slightest appearance of its having been drained: the pass through which the Jhelum found its way is one of the most beautiful of the world: its bed 1000—1500 feet deep: I do not believe more in the traditions of the Kashmírian Brahmans than in the fables of Manethon.

All the remaining temples are Baudha, of a different shape from any I have ever seen: only one small one reminds me of the caves of Ellora: I have observed no Dagoba. Korán Pandan, near Islámbád, Anatnagh of old, is not only the largest ruin of Kashmir, but one of the splendid ruins of the world:—noble proportions:—material black marble. I was nearly led into error, at first thinking its form Grecian. The building had nothing on a closer examination which could justify such a hypothesis. Very few temples remain in Kashmir in tolerable preservation, having mostly been destroyed by a fanatic Musalman*, whose zeal did not succeed in overturning them all.

The only trace of fossil remains in the valley is in a limestone, which contains small shells.

Nature has done much for Kashmir, art more; the whole valley is like a nobleman's park: the villages, being surrounded with fruit trees, and having in their centre immense plane and poplar trees, form large masses, having between them one sheet of cultivation, through which the noble river winds itself in elegant sweeps.

The botany of Kashmir is not rich, and is very nearly allied to that of the Himalaya, between Massuri and Simlah: in the valley itself not a plant is to be seen of indigenous origin: the northern declivity of the mountains is rich in vegetation, the southern steep and barren. The Chunar is the Platanus Orientalis, which so far from being a native of Kashmir does there produce no germinating seeds, and is multiplied by cuttings, which, since the Moghul Emperor, have not been kept up. It is a very extraordinary phenomena to witness the Nilumbium speciosum growing where the orange tree is destroyed by frost. Misri yaleb is not a native of Kashmir.

I made a remark on the Pir Panjhál, which I afterwards had occasion to observe several times, and which is new to me: that the freez-

* Sikandar, Bhutshikan, A. D. 1396.
ing point on the thermometer advances at great elevations in a similar proportion as the boiling point retrocedes: thus the water boiling for instance with 191, the sun with 44 degrees Fahr., did not make any impression upon a piece of ice lying on a black soil, the latter not being moistened*. This must be the case, although I do not recollect to have seen it mentioned: on a certain height above the surface of the globe, the freezing point and the boiling point must meet†, heat and cold being phenomena belonging exclusively to our globe. My observations led me to believe, that this may be at 84,100 feet above the surface of the sea, or in other words that there finishes our atmosphere.

The burning gases at Jwalamuki are of a very extraordinary nature, nothing of sulphur or naphtha in them. They have a most delicious smell, something like a French perfume with ambergris. The flames, about 10 in number, come out of a dark grey sandstone on perpendicular places: temples are built over them: I attributed the effect to priestcraft, until in one of the temples called Churka Debi, I was allowed to try experiments, and remained alone: I blew out the flame, which did not re-ignite from itself: there is nothing particular on the places where the flame came out: no change in the colour or substance of the stone, or in its hardness. Water in small quantity is formed in little reservoirs under the flames, being the produce of them: this water takes fire too from time to time, when enough inflammable matter is collected on the surface. I took a bottle of it for you, which Captain Wade will be so kind as to forward to you for examination‡; it has however now undergone a terrible alteration by putrefaction, and I am afraid that you will not be able to analyse it. The taste of it when fresh can distinguish nothing of its composition: it is not unpleasant to drink, and of a milky-greenish colour. No traces of volcanic matter near it.

I have picked up many coins, which appear to me new; of some I am certain: those of the Kashmirian kings, of the Baudhāu time, found near the town Bij Bahara (no doubt a corruption of Vidyā vihāra, temple of Wisdom, if my Sanscrit does not forsake me): I intended sending them to you, but they found their way in one of my tin boxes: I cannot guess in which, and for this reason do not open them: whenever I come to them I shall send you them, or their exact likeness.

* The explanation of this circumstance should rather be sought in the dryness of the air at such an elevation; and the consequent rapid evaporation which carried off the ice as it melted—ice itself will, it is well known, wholly evaporate in a vacuum.—Ed.

† By Dalton’s tables, the aqueous tension of freezing water is 0.20 inch; therefore water will boil and freeze together at a height of 130560 feet, or about 25 miles.—Ed.

‡ This had not yet reached us: nor the coins, which we desire much to see.—Ed.
VI.—Note on an Inscription at Bamyán. By Mr. C. Masson.

[Read at the Meeting of the 6th April.]

Of the antiquities of Central Asia, the Idols at Bamyán have long been known and celebrated in Europe. To ascertain their character is still a desideratum. An inscription found in so fortunate a situation, as at the summit of the niche in which stands the larger, and by inference, the more ancient of the idols directly over its head, will, if capable of being interpreted, dispel much of the mystery attaching to it and its associates. It contains but six characters as here exhibited*, appears to be entire, and although the copy of it was taken four years since, I think its fidelity may be depended upon.

When in possession of Mr. Prinsep's plates of the Pehlevi Alphabets, this inscription was compared with them, and its characters appeared to me to approach nearest to those of the Pehlevi of Sassanian coins from Marsden. Observing the apparent recurrence of the two first letters, and concluding that the alternated characters must be consonants and vowels, of the latter of which A was the more likely to be used as the more common, I sought its equivalent in the Pehlevi alphabet noted, and found it might be expressed by ā. Marking also the number of the characters of the inscription, in union with the duplication seemingly of A or U, the word NANAIA occurred to my imagination, and attempting to write it in the Pehlevi of the alphabet, I produced

\[\text{نانانا}\]

The first five letters were so similar to those of the inscription, that I judged I might without imputation of temerity bring the circumstance to notice; and as for the final letter, if we are pretty sure of all the preceding ones, we may reasonably be satisfied with that also. The ā of the alphabet, or p has indeed a?, or doubt, attached to it, while the final letter of the inscription resembles the A or a of other alphabets.

The idols of Bamyán, perhaps less ancient than many of the caves or temples there, have not an antiquity beyond the reach of verification, and while we pause whether or not to ascribe them to the princes we call Indo-Scythic, we dare affirm that they were constructed during the period of the Sassanian sway in Persia, or 220 A. D., and the era of Muhammedanism.

Kabul, 1836.

C. Masson.

* See Plate VI. fig. 1; we confess the similitude of the marks, which Mr. Masson takes for letters, to the Pehlevi alphabet is but just sufficient to hazard a conjecture upon. Nanaia, a female, would not be applicable to a male figure; —Nanao or Nanano (lunas) would be more consonant with the Pehlevi, and even with the form of the supposed letters.—Ed.
VII.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 6th April, 1836.

G. J. Gordon, Esq. Senior Member present, in the chair.

Lieut.-Col. Caulfield, was proposed as a Member of the Society by Mr. James Prinsep, seconded by Mr. Piddington.

Mr. J. S. Stopford requested that his name might be withdrawn from the Society. Mr. Stopford had deposited 80 Rupees with the Secretary, to cover the cost of four volumes unfortunately lost by the wreck of his pinecone, until they shall be replaced from England.

Read letters from Lieut. A. Cunningham, Engrs., and Raja Vijay Govinda Singha, acknowledging their election as Members.

Also, from Professor T. Rosen, acknowledging his election as an Honorary Member.

A private letter from M. Eug. Burnouf, Secretary to the Asiatic Society of Paris, noted the arrival of the 100 vols. of the Tibetan Kahgyur, and of the other dispatches sent by General Allard.

Read letters from the Secretaries to the British Museum, and the Royal Asiatic Society, returning thanks for the Tibetan Dictionary and other works.

Extract of a letter from Professor Wilson, intimated the distribution of the Tibetan works sent home for the various continental learned societies. It also reported that a portion of the Moorcroft papers had been finally placed with Murray and Co., for commencement of publication.

Professor Wilson estimates that the whole will occupy, when re-written, and shorn of repetitions and redundancies, two octavo volumes. The terms agreed upon are, that 50 copies are to be at the Society's disposition. Any final loss on the publication to be made good by the Society: and the relations of the author to participate in any success.

Read a letter from M. Csoma de Körös, saying that although the facsimile from Iskardo, taken by Mr. Vigne, was evidently Tibetan, it was in too imperfect a condition to be deciphered.

Library.

The following books were presented to the Society:

A copy of the Appendix of the third volume of the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society—by the Society.

The Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, No. 4—by the Society.

A children's map of the world in Bengali—by Raja Kālikrishna.

A daily register of the tide in the harbour of Singapur, from 1st Sept. 1834, to 31st Aug. 1835—by the Government.

Meteorological Register for the months of January and February, 1836—by the Surveyor General.

The Indian Journal of Medical Science—by the Editor.

The following received from the book-sellers:

The Political and Statistical History of Guzerat, translated from the Persian by James Bird, Esq., and published by the Oriental Translation Fund.

Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia—Literary Men, vol. 2nd.
The following letter from the Minister of Public Instruction in France, addressed to the President, was read:


Monsieur le Président, La Société Asiatique de Calcutta, en mettant à la disposition de feu M. Victor Jacquemont, tous les matériaux scientifiques qu'elle possédait, lui a donné les moyens de rassembler des documents d'un haut intérêt sur les Indes Orientales.

En témoignage des services rendus à notre compatriote, je vous prie, Monsieur le Président, de vouloir bien faire agréer à la Société de Calcutta un exemplaire de l'ouvrage qui se publie en son nom, par les soins de sa famille et sous les auspices du Gouvernement Français.

Je tiens à votre disposition, Monsieur le Président, les livraisons qui ont déjà paru : Vous pourrez les faire retirer du Dépôt des Livres de Souscription au Ministère de l'Instruction publique par tel moyen que vous jugerez convenable.

Ageréz, Monsieur le Président, l'assurance de ma haute considération.

Le Ministre de l'Instruction publique,

GUIZOT."

Resolved, that the President be requested to return thanks for this mark of consideration in the French Government, and that the Secretary take immediate steps to obtain possession of the work in question.

The Secretary announced the transfer and deposit in the Society's rooms of the Sanscrit, Persian, Arabic, and Hindu Manuscripts from the College of Fort William.

The number of the Sanscrit works is 1130 volumes of the Arabic and Persian 2676 volumes. A catalogue raisonné of the whole had long since been prepared by the College officers, of which the meeting resolved it should be recommended to the Committee of Papers to undertake the immediate publication, adding to it such other original works as the Society might possess on its own shelves.

The Secretary apprized the Meeting of the completion of the 2nd volume of the Mahabharata, copies of which were ready for distribution to the subscribers.

Museum of Antiquities.

Read a Note on an Inscription at Bamyan, by M. C. Masson.

[Printed in the present number.]

The two Buddhist Images, with Deva-nâgâri inscriptions, mentioned in a letter from Colonel H. Burney, Resident at Ava, read at the last Meeting, were received, and a paper was read on Tagoung, the place of their discovery, an ancient capital of the Burmese empire.

[Printed in the present number.]

A drawing of the full size of the sculptured impression of Gautama's foot in Ava, was presented by Ensign Phayre, with a description of the contents of the several compartments.

The image brought to the notice of the Society by Lieutenant Kittoe, in January 1835, sought out by Mr. Dean and transmitted for the Museum, had arrived with Col. Colvin's dispatch.

This image does not seem to possess any characteristic difference from the ordinary sculpture of the Hindus, as had been imagined. The dress and attitude are of common occurrence; the feet rest on the lotus plant. The head has been struck off, doubtless in the period of the earlier Muhammedan incursions.
Specimens of spears and other warlike instruments from New Zealand were presented by C. K. Robison, Esq.

**Physical.**

The Secretary announced the arrival of the second dispatch of Colonel Colvin's donation of Sub-Himalayan fossils, which were placed in the Museum, and lighted up for inspection of the Members present.

The catalogue of this splendid collection, drawn up by Lieuts. Durand and Baker, is printed in the present number. The meeting resolved that the special thanks of the Society should be presented to Colonel Colvin, and that suitable cabinets should be constructed for containing and preserving his donation.

With the foregoing were received the remains of the fossil Elk and fossil Buffalo, presented by Conductor Dawe, and alluded to in his letter read at the Meeting of the 6th May 1835.

The cervical vertebra and portion of antler were depicted in the 44th plate of vol. iv. The Bovine head, a very fine specimen, and materially different from Dr. Spilsbury's from Narisinghpur, will be published shortly.

The following acquisitions to the museum of natural history were made:

A live specimen of *Histrix Cristata*, common Porcupine, presented by Mr. James Prinsep, to whom it was given by Mr. Stephenson, who found it in the Bakra mound in Tirhut.

A specimen of *Cercocobus Sabaeus*, presented by C. C. Egerton, Esq.

Specimens of the skulls and horns of *Cerus Muntjak*, *Antilope Cercicapra*, *Antilope Chikura*, *Antilope T'har*, and *Capra Jemlahika*, horns of the *Antilope Hodgsonii*, and *Cervus Aristotelis*, the skull of a species of *Sciuropterus*, and the head and bills of *Buceros Malabaricus* and *Platala Leucorodia*, presented by Lieutenant Vicary.

A specimen of *Cerinacus Auritus*, and one of the Nilgherri Wood-cock, presented by W. H. Smoult, Esq.

Specimens of *Pitta Brachyrurus*, *Picus Tiga (?)* and *Pterocles Quadricinctus*, presented by Lieutenant Vicary.

[The *Picus Tiga*, figured in Hardwicke and Gray, and described by Horsefield, Linn. Trans. vol. xiii. and Latham, Gen. Hist. vol. iii., has only three toes; but both the figure and descriptions agree so exactly in all other respects, with the present specimen, which has four, that I have little hesitation in referring them to the same bird. J. T. P. Cur.]

A specimen of *Strix Flammea*; presented by P. Homfray, Esq.

Specimens of the nest of *Hirundo Esculenta*, the Esculent Swallow, in several stages of preparation, by Ensign A. P. Phayre.

Seeds of the Cane, from the Straights, presented by Dr. Vos.

Mr. Hodgson transmitted an account of a new genus of Carnivora, to which he proposes to assign the name of *Ursitaxus*. The skull of the animal was intrusted by him to the Secretary for the inspection of Members.

[This paper will appear in the Physical Researches.]

On the motion of the Secretary, it was resolved, that the Right Honorable Lord Auckland be solicited to accept the office of Patron of the Society; and that the President be requested to communicate with His Lordship on the subject.
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**Note:** By "new standard Barometer" is to be understood the instrument lately received from London, made by Newman, as a duplicate of the Royal Society's Barometer; the tube has a bore of 0.357 inch, and the adjustment of the level of the circle is perfect. As will be seen, however, by comparing its indications with those of my former standard or compensation Barometer (as described in the 2nd vol. of the Journal), the new Barometer, contrary to expectation, stands .035 lower at 10 A.M. and .039 lower at 4 P.M.—This is after applying the correction for temperature, (8—32X .003 at Bar. 30 inches.)

A hurricane on the 23rd at night; most severe 30 miles N. of Calcutta, where very many boats were wrecked.
Section of St. Peter's Church, Fort William.

References:

- a Foundation of masonry to sustain the stress of the shores
- b Foundation beam
- c Upright, fitting the moulding of the Pillars
- d Straining beam
- e Struts
- f Straining Stilt
- g Movable centre supporting the aisle Vaults under demolition
- h Section of a suspension platform from which the workmen were able to demolish the Nave vault

- i in security
- j The suspension ropes fastened to the towers
- k Beams to which the punthah were suspended
- l Holes made in the pillars and buttresses for the reception of the punthah beams
- m Portions of the pillars broken off in consequence of the insertion of the punthah beams

G. Hetchener, Esq.
I.—Account of the Mountain Tribes on the Extreme N. E. Frontier of Bengal. By J. McCosh, Civil Assistant Surgeon, Godlpāra.

[Read at the meeting of the 4th Nov. 1835]

The following pages have been compiled from original manuscripts lately put into my hands by Captain Jenkins, Agent to the Governor General on the N. E. Frontier, with kind permission to make what use of them I thought proper. Some of these letters were written from his own personal observation; others by Major White, Political Agent for Assam; as also by Mr. Bruce, commanding the Gun Boats at Suddia, so that the information contained in this digest may be relied upon. From the lively interest lately taken in the regions hereafter described, on account of tea growing there indigenously, and the probability of their speedily assuming an important aspect in the statistics of India, any facts concerning such districts will, I hope, prove not uninteresting to the public.

Few nations bordering upon the British dominions in India are less generally known than those inhabiting the extreme N. E. Frontier of Bengal; and yet, in a commercial, a statistical, or a political point of view, no country is more important. There our territory of Assam is situated in almost immediate contact with the empires of China and Ava, being separated from each by a narrow belt of mountainous country, possessed by barbarous tribes of independent savages, and capable of being crossed over in the present state of communication in 10 or 12 days. From this mountain range, navigable branches of the great rivers of Nankin, of Cambodia, of Martaban, of Ava, and of Assam derive their
origin, and appear designed by nature as the great highways of commerce between the nations of Ultra Gangetic Asia. In that quarter, our formidable neighbours, the Burmese, have been accustomed to make their inroad into Assam; there, in the event of hostilities, they are certain to attempt it again; and there, in case of its ever becoming necessary to take vengeance on the Chinese, an armed force embarking on the Brahmaputra could be speedily marched across the intervening country to the banks of the greatest river of China, which would conduct them through the very centre of the celestial empire to the ocean.

This beautiful tract of country, though thinly populated by straggling hordes of slowly procreating barbarians, and allowed to lie profitless in primeval jungle, or run to waste with luxuriance of vegetation, enjoys all the qualities requisite for rendering it one of the finest in the world. Its climate is cold, healthy, and congenial to European constitutions; its numerous crystal streams abound in gold dust, and masses of the solid metal: its mountains are pregnant with precious stones and silver; its atmosphere is perfumed with tea growing wild and luxuriantly; and its soil is so well adapted to all kinds of agricultural purposes, that it might be converted into one continued garden of silk, and cotton, and coffee, and sugar, and tea, over an extent of many thousand miles.

This valuable tract of country is inhabited by various races, several of which have acknowledged our authority, some that of the Burmese, and others that of China; but a considerable number have sworn allegiance to no power; and maintain their independence. Of these tribes the most considerable are the Mirís, Abors, Mishmis, Kangtis, Bor-Kangtis, Singphos, Muamárias, and Nágas.

Mirís.

The Mirís occupy that stripe of alluvial land along the northern bank of the Brahmaputra, from the large island Majuli (the extreme boundary of the present Rájah of Assam), to the river Dihong the northern branch of the Brahmaputra; and are bounded on the north by the hill country of the Abors. Till of late years, this district was deserted on account of the ravages of the Abors; but on our affording them protection, the original inhabitants have returned. The land is still very thinly populated, and the only cultivation is along the banks of the great river. Their head village is Motgaon. The manners and habits of the Mirís are wild and barbarous, their persons filthy and squalid; they use a language different from the Assamese, and make use of bows and poisoned arrows as a defence against their enemies. They are expert marksmen; and the poison used is so
fatal, that even a scratch of their arrow is followed with certain death. They eat all sorts of wild animals, not excepting those killed by their own poisonous arrows.

The Míris are an industrious race, and partial to living in the skirts of the forests, clearing new ground, which they cultivate for a year or two, and then move off to another place, when the soil is exhausted. A great deal of opium is grown by the Míris, which they barter for grain with the Assamese.

Abors and Mishmis.

These tribes inhabit an extensive range of mountainous country along the southern exposure of the great Himálaya chain, from the 94th to the 97th degrees of E. longitude, and border with Thibet and China. It is difficult to form a conception of the extent of these tribes, but they are not to be despised; for during the insurrection of the Muamárias, no less than 17,000 Abors joined to drive that tribe out of Assam. It is probable that at no ancient period these two tribes were unconnected, but the Mishmís are now considered by the Abors as dependent upon them, and treated as slaves. Besides the Mishmís here mentioned as subservient to the Abors, there are several other tribes of them; such as Muzú-Mishmis and Taen-Mishmís, inhabiting the extreme branches of the Lohit or eastern channel of the Brahmaputra, who are probably independent. These tribes possess one of the lowest grades of civilization; they occupy numerous villages along the precipitous shores of the two great northern branches of the Brahmaputra, the Dihong or Sampo, and the Dibong. Their houses are so constructed, that the perpendicular side of the rock forms one wall: the floor is made of bambus, with one side supported on the rock, and the other on beams driven into the ground. The space underneath is inhabited by the cattle, and the interstices in the floor afford the double advantage of showering down all the offal to the herd below, and preventing the accumulation of filth and nastiness.

Hospitality.—Though the snows of their mountain home have narrowed their means of subsistence, and limited their intercourse to their immediate neighbours, yet they are a hospitable and even a social race; and a constant round of festivity is kept up from one end of the year to the other. Each chieftain kills the fatted bullock in turn; all his associates are invited to partake of the good cheer: the host is in his turn a guest at the next feast; and thus a reciprocity of entertainment is insured. Nor are these hospitable rites allowed to be forgotten; the scull of every animal that has graced the board, is hung up as a record in the hall of the entertainer; he who has the best stocked
Golgotha, is looked upon as the man of the greatest wealth and liberality; and when he dies, the whole smoke-dried collection of many years is piled upon his grave as a monument of his riches, and a memorial of his worth.

Migration.—These people, accustomed to a temperature at and about the freezing point, seem to dread an exposure to the heat of the low countries during the summer, and make their descent to their markets at Suddia only in the cold weather, and take their departure to their snows as soon as the Simala tree puts forth its blossoms.

Trade.—They bring along with them a few bags of musk, and musk-deer skins; some ivory; a few copper pots, which they obtain from the same country; and a considerable quantity of a vegetable poison called Bis-Bisá, used in poisoning arrows. These they exchange for glass beads, of which they are very fond, and cattle, for the purpose of eating. The musk is for the most part adulterated; a portion of the genuine musk being abstracted to make into artificial bags, and its place filled up with dried blood.

Poison.—The poison is of a very superior quality, and is in great request by all the neighbouring nations for destroying wild animals. It is contained in a small fibrous root, which they tie up into little bundles. It is prepared by pounding the root to powder, and mixing it up with the juice of the Otenga tree, to give it tenacity, and make it adhere to the arrow head. They keep the plant a great secret, and take the effectual precaution of boiling it before leaving their homes, so as to destroy all possibility of its being propagated.

Road to Thibet.—The route to Thibet, adopted by pilgrims, leads through the Abor country, along the course of the Dihong or Sampa, and is accomplished in sixteen days from Suddia. The route, as mentioned by Mr. Bruce, is as follows:

From Suddia to Kaj-jin, five days' journey; thence to Lak-qui, one day; Gha-lum, one day; Ma-ma-nu, one day; Dullá, one day; Omono, one day; Hulli, one day; Sum-lay, one day; Hín-nay, one day; Kum-day, one day; Rí-sháh, one day; Bhá-lu, one day. Bhálú is the frontier town of Thibet. About four days' journey beyond it stands the city of Ro-shá-máh, containing fine buildings, and a large civilized population, and a government purely Chinese.

The Grand Lama himself, and all head officers throughout Thibet, are appointed by the Emperor of China, and receive allowances from the Chinese government. The chief of Suddia seems to have considerable influence with the Thibetans, and the intermediate hill tribes. Almost all pilgrims apply to him for a passport, and he is in the habit
of sending an escort with them as far as Ma-ma-nu, whence they are
passed along from one tribe to another till they arrive in the country
of the Grand Lama. There is another route into Thibet via Brahma-
kund, through the country of the Mishmis; but it is at all seasons of the
year covered with snow. There is but little trade now carried on
with Thibet, and that little is chiefly effected by pilgrims. The few
things imported are smoking pipes of Chinese manufacture, woollens,
and rock salt. In exchange for these they give musk, ivory, and
Bisá poison. Assamese captives at one time formed a considerable
trade; but since these latter came under the protection of the British,
that lucrative branch has been exterminated.

During the flourishing period of the Assam dynasty, we are informed*,
that the kings of Assam were in the habit of sending presents to
the Grand Lama, and that a caravan consisting of about 20 people
annually resorted from Lassa to the Assam frontier, and transacted
merchandise to a very considerable amount with the Assamese.
The Thibetans took up their quarters at a place called Chouna, two months
journey from Lassa: and the Assamese, at Geganshur, a few miles
distant from it. The trade of the former consisted of silver in bullion
to nearly a lakh of rupees, and a large quantity of rock salt. This they
exchanged with the Assamese for rice, silk, lac, and other produce
of Bengal; but this trade has for many years been discontinued.

Kangtis.

The Kangtis, the most civilized of all these mountain tribes, inhabit
that triangular tract of country bounded by the Lohit on the one side,
by the Dibong on the other, and by the mountainous country belong-
ing to the Mishmis on the third. They are descended from the Bor-
Kangtis, a powerful race situated on the sources of the Irawadi.
About 50 or 60 years ago, they emigrated from their native country,
and availing themselves of the civil war then raging throughout Assam,
they took forcible possession of the country they now enjoy, ejected
the reigning chieftain, the Suddia Cowa Gohaing; and the Kangtí
chief, usurping his name and jurisdiction, reduced his subjects to
dependence or slavery. The Kangtis, by a vigorous mode of govern-
ment, and holding out an asylum to refugees from other states, soon
rose to eminence. They are now a superior race to all their neigh-
bours; they are tall, fair, and handsome, considerably advanced in
civilization, and are endowed with no small share of military courage.
Their religion is Buddhism; but Hinduism is gaining progress. They
are amongst the few tribes who have a written character, and can
read and write the Burmese language, and understand it when spoken.

* Hamilton's Gazetteer.
Their own language, though written in a character a good deal resembling the Burmese, is quite different, and closely resembles the original Ahom. Every boy is taught to read and write it, by the priests. Suddia is the capital of the Kangti country, and the chief-tain is known by the name of the Suddia Cowa Gohaing, and claims descent from the royal family of Assam.

Suddia is situated on the right bank of the Kunil or Kundil nallah, and about six miles above its junction with the Lohit. It is a place of some importance, and has a population of about 4000 men, exclusive of women and children. Its trade is rapidly increasing; all the necessaries of life are procurable: its exports are gold and silver; amber, musk, and ivory; Kampti daus, Chinese and Burmese trinkets; Bisa poison, and dye-stuffs, called Mishmi-tita and manjit. The Mishmi-tita, manjit, and lime, triturated with water, and allowed to digest in an earthen pot for a month, makes a beautiful permanent red dye. The daus are of a high order, and are so much prized as to bring 12 Rs. a piece. They are manufactured by a rude wild race, called Kunungs, (slaves to the Kangtis,) who are situated on the extreme branches of the Irawadi, who can neither read nor write, and are little removed above the brutes.

Suddia station.—The country around Suddia is composed of the richest alluvial soil, well adapted for cultivation; but is generally flat and liable to inundation. A large portion of it is waste, and overgrown with jungle: it is closely surrounded by the snowy mountains, which are only about thirty miles distant; and the water of the river is so cold, that of itself it serves to cool wine for table.

Force.—Suddia is the most advanced post we possess on the N. E. Frontier. Three companies of the Assam Light Infantry are stationed there, under the command of a European officer, invested with political authority. Two gun-boats are also stationed there, also under the command of a European: each boat has one 12-pr. mounted on slides, and is well manned and equipped for service: one of the boats is manned by Kangtis, who give much satisfaction. There is also a small stockade erected, with a few guns mounted. Suddia has hitherto preserved a healthy character. It is likely soon to become the head-quarters of the Assam Infantry. The Suddia Cowa Gohaing, though he pays Government no tribute, acknowledges the Company's supremacy, and is bound to furnish a contingent of 200 men. That contingent is supplied by arms and ammunition at the expense of Government; they are drilled by the Subadar of the Assam Light Infantry, four months in the year, and the arms, when in want of repair, are forwarded to head-quarters at Bishnath.
The Suddia Cowa Gohaing is believed to be a firm friend of Chandra Kant's, the ex-rajah of Assam; when formerly driven from the kingdom, the Suddia Cowa had influence enough at the court of Ava to obtain the assistance of the Burmese to restore him to his throne; and now that Chandra Kant is again deposed, he is thought to be constantly intriguing to have him again placed on the throne.

**Bor-Kangtis.**

The Bor-Kangtis are a numerous and powerful race, situated amongst the mountains whence the Irawadi takes it origin. They are under the government of Ava, and supply a contingency to the Burmese army. Experienced Burmese officers are constantly traversing their country, for the purpose of drilling them, and inspecting their arms and ammunition. The capital of the Bor-Kangtis is Manchi, on a remote branch of the Irawadi. This place was visited by Lieuts. Wilcox and Burlton in 1827, by an overland route, cut across the mountains from Suddia. The journey occupied about 12 days: they were kindly received by the Bor-Kangti chief, who gave them every information about the sources of the Irawadi, and convinced them that from the smallness of the streams, it was impossible for any of them to afford a channel for the waters of the Sampu. The main stream of the Irawadi is there fordable, and not more than 80 yards broad.

There is a silver mine in the Bor-Kangti country; but it has never produced more than 8000 rupees a year. It might be turned to much more advantage; but the possessors are afraid of increasing its revenue, lest by doing so, they should excite the avarice of their neighbours. There are also mines of lead and iron in this country.

**Münglung Kangtis.**

We have lately come into intimate contact with another tribe of Kangtis called Münglung: these from dissension amongst themselves, and from the oppression of the Burmese, have lately dispatched about 200 of their tribe to stipulate for settlements in the British dominions, and report on the prospect of the country around Suddia. Should their report prove favourable, about 5000 more have expressed their desire to emigrate.

**Singphos.**

By far the most powerful and the most formidable of these hill tribes are the Singphos; they are also the most numerous, and are scattered over the greatest extent of country. They are bounded on the north by the Lohit river; on the east by the Langtan mountains, which separate them from the Bor-Kangtis; on the south by the Patkoi range, which divides them from the Burmese Singphos, from whom they are descended; and on the west, by a line drawn south from Suddia, till it meets the last mentioned mountains.
The Singphos are divided into 12 tribes, each having its own chief or Gaum; but every chieftain maintains his own separate independence, and seldom unites with any other, unless it be to punish some aspiring chief obnoxious to them all, or in making plundering excursions upon neighbouring states. The Singphos have for several generations been the terror of the wretched and degenerate Assamese, and were in the constant habit of making irruptions into their country, sometimes as far as their very capital itself; of plundering their temples, laying waste their country, and carrying off the inhabitants into slavery. Since the British troops have had possession of Assam, these inroads have been prevented; but as might be expected, they are somewhat impatient of that restraint, and have once or twice endeavoured to resort to their old habits.

To give an idea of the extent to which the devastations were carried on, the late Captain Neufville, received from the Singphos alone upwards of 7000 Assamese captive slaves, and perhaps there are 100,000 Assamese and Manipuris still in slavery throughout the dominions of Ava.

About five years ago, a body of them amounting to about 3000 men, armed with spears, daus, and a few musquets and jinjals, under a chief called Wakum Koonjib, made an advance against the station of Suddia, with the confident intention of carrying away in chains every seapoy present, and of driving the British out of the country. This was a plot of three years' concocting; large stores of grain were accumulated in convenient depôts, and shackles for 10,000 prisoners were all in readiness; but the whole force was shamefully repulsed by the then political Agent, Capt. Neufville, at the head of a handful of men of the Assam Infantry, and a few armed Kangti and Muamária militia, and driven in consternation into their lines.

The Lubona only of all the 12 chiefs took part in this irruption, and he has taken an active hand in the late disturbances, headed by the Duffa Gaum.

All the chiefs have claimed our protection, though no tribute is exacted from them; with one or two exceptions, they have acted up to their engagements.

The Busa Gaum or chief is a man of superior understanding, and was entrusted by the late Agent to the Governor General, the lamented Mr. Scott, with a good deal of confidence, and had an allowance from Government of 50 rs. a month, as an organ of communication with the other chiefs, and a spy upon their actions. The late Capt. Neufville was also confident in his integrity, and made proposals to him to desert his own country, and live on lands to be granted him at Burhath and
Jaipur, and allow his native hills to become a wilderness, and form a natural barrier against the incursions of the other tribes.

The population of the Busa Gaum is about 9 or 10,000 men, exclusive of women and children. He furnishes a contingent of about 100 men, and is supplied with arms and ammunition.

The most influential of the unfriendly chiefs is the Duffa Gaum. Only a few months ago he made a hostile incursion against our ally the Busa Gaum, and massacred every man, woman, and child he could get near; the Busa Gaum narrowly escaped with his life, and some of his own family were cut to pieces. After two or three skirmishes, the marauders were dislodged, and driven to their hills, by the force at Saddia; but the Duffa, instead of repenting of his atrocious act, and retiring to his home to await the consequences, commenced playing the despot in another quarter, threatening every one with his vengeance who acknowledged British protection, and even beheaded some who refused to conform to his will. By the latest accounts, the state of affairs in that district were very troublesome, and the whole of the Assam Infantry disposable are already on the move for its protection.

A feud has for a long time existed between the Busa and the Duffa Gaums, and the inroad lately made by the latter admits of some palliation, as it avenged a similar one formerly made by the Busa Gaum.

Rude as is the state of society amongst the Singphos, they are not without the distinction of caste; but are divided into Thengais, Myungs, Lubrungs, and Mirups.

They have no religion properly their own, but have patched up a creed from amongst the superstitions of all their neighbours, and decorated their rude temples with ruder idols of all religions.

The Singphos are not a branch of the Shan tribes: tradition traces their origin to the confines of China or Thibet: the language is entirely different from that of the Sháns, and is unwritten.

Polygamy is patronised, and every man keeps as many wives as he chooses, free women or slaves; and treats the offspring of both without partiality. Infanticide in all its shapes they abhor.

It is the custom of the country to bury the dead. Those of the poorer classes are interred soon after death; but the chiefs and principal individuals are sometimes not buried for years. The reason alleged for this consummation of the funeral rites, is to allow the widely scattered relations of the deceased to have time to attend, who would not fail to take deadly offence at their not being allowed an opportunity of paying reverence to the ashes of the head of their family. Not knowing the art of embalming, the body after death is removed to a distance from any habitation, till decomposition is completed.
After that it is deposited in a coffin, and conveyed to the house of the deceased chief, where it lies in state, surrounded with all the insignia the illustrious individual enjoyed when alive. When all the relatives have assembled, or communicated their not being able to attend, the coffin is committed to the earth, and a mound of clay, surrounded with a curious trellis-work of bambus, is raised to his memory. If the person has died a violent death, a buffalo is sacrificed as a propitiation to their deities, and the head is fixed to a cross, and placed near the grave; but if he has died in the course of nature, no sacrifice is considered necessary.

According to the law of inheritance, the patrimony is divided between the eldest and the youngest son; while any children that may intervene are left to push their own fortunes as they best can. The eldest son succeeds to the title and the estate, while the younger, carrying away all the personal and movable property, goes in quest of a settlement for himself.

*Tea.*—The tea tree grows wild all over the Singpho country, as also upon all the hills in that part of the country, and is in general use by the natives as a wholesome beverage. The tea tree, according to Mr. Bruce, was known to be indigenous to these climates about ten years ago; and during the Burmese war, large quantities of it were sent into Saddia by the Busa Gaum. How long the subject might have lain dormant is doubtful, had not the affair been again brought to the serious notice of Government, at a time the most favourable for doing so, by the scientific investigations of Capt. Jenkins and Lieut. Charleton of the Assam Infantry, to whom we must acknowledge ourselves indebted for a revival of its existence, and for the boon it must necessarily confer upon our country*.

Mr. Bruce has lately been on a tour to the Singphos, and mixed in social intercourse with them. He saw many thousands of the trees growing in their native soils, and brought away some plants and specimens of the leaves and seeds. The trees were of a very considerable size, so as to merit a higher rate of classification than a plant or a shrub: he measured one of the largest, and found it 29 cubits long, and about four spans in circumference at the base.

Mr. Bruce mentions the following as the native process of making tea, though he does not seem to have witnessed it. First, the leaves are collected from the tree, and put into large boilers containing water. As soon as the water boils, the decoction is drawn off, and

* This paper was written before the appointment of the scientific deputation to the tea districts, whose report may be now shortly expected.—Ed.
thrown away, and the leaves, being taken out of the boiler, are put into a pit dug into the ground, and lined with some sort of leaves, to prevent the tea coming in contact with the earth. When the pit is filled with tea leaves, it is then spread well over with a thick layer of the other leaves, and after all, covered over with earth, so as to exclude all air. In this state it is allowed to remain for two or three months, when the pit is opened, and the tea sold on the spot to traders, who pack it closely up in the joints of bambus, earthen pots, &c. and transport it to other parts of the country on mules for sale. He also mentions, that many thousand maunds of tea are manufactured at a place called Polong, and exported to China. Where Polong is situated, I have not been able to determine.

In addition to the tea tree, the Singpho country has lately been discovered to abound in many valuable gums, well adapted for varnishes.

**Burmese Singphos.**—The Singphos of Assam are separated from the Singphos subservient to the Burmese, by the Patkoi chain of mountains; and though these two races are entirely unconnected with one another, and independent, yet a constant friendly intercourse is maintained between them. The Burmese Singphos occupy a very extensive tract of country on both sides of the Irawadi, and from the Patkoi mountains eastward to the borders of China.

**Trade with China.**—As the Chinese carry on a very considerable trade with these Singphos, and through the medium of their country with Assam, I shall endeavour to mark out particularly the line of communication between the two countries. The Chinese province of Yunan being separated from a navigable channel of the Irawadi, only by a mountain chain, inhabited by Sháns, tributary to Burmah, the Chinese merchants, by a short land journey across these mountains, convey their merchandise on mules, to a place called Catmow, on the banks of that river. There the Irawadí is a large stream. The channel is unincumbered with rocks, trees, or sandbanks; the shores are composed of a stiff hard clay, not liable to tumble down, and present every facility for navigation. The exact position of Catmow seems undefined. The merchants, having loaded their goods on boats, easily procurable, commit themselves to the gentle current, dropping down with the tide due south, day and night, and on the third or fourth day arrive at the mouth of the river called Nam-yang.

After ascending this river four or five days in a north-west direction, they come to a town called Mung-kung, or Mugaum, the chief depot of Chinese trade situated at the junction of two smaller rivers, the one called Nam-kung, or the Mugaum river, the other, Nam-yang,
retaining the name of the united stream. The Mugaum river is navigable for 40 or 50 miles above the town, and for small canoes, a good deal farther, and extends in a northern direction. The Chinese wares are transported up this river as far as practicable, and afterwards conveyed overland through Hukung and Busa to Assam. The journey from Mung-kung to Assam occupies from 15 to 20 days.

Route into China.—There are two other routes to China besides the one mentioned, the one by a place called Senwa, and the other by May-nay, both of which run direct into Burmah, but little more is known about them than their name. The intercourse between China and Assam by any of these roads is extremely tedious, and can only be followed by a trading people, who traffic as they move along, without regard to time or distance. A knowledge of the extreme navigable eastern branches of the Brahmaputra has pointed out a much shorter and more convenient pass, and this was travelled by Lieuts. Wilcox and Burlton on their visit to the Bor-Kangtis. Following up the river Noá Dihing, which flows into the left bank of the Lohit, a few miles above Suddia, they were able to proceed by water conveyance to within nine days’ journey of Mung-lang, on the banks of the Irawadí, and without experiencing any serious difficulty or inconvenience farther than the jungly state of the country.

Importance of a Road.—A road passable even for mules or oxen between the navigable branches of the Noá Dihing and the Irawadí could not fail to be of great national benefit, and would open a channel for the direct importation of all the valuable productions of Central Asia. It would also tend to the complete civilization of the savage mountaineers, who inhabit these regions, and enable a force to penetrate into the centre of the country, whether they can at present retreat with comparative impunity. It is doubtful how far those tribes would contribute to the formation of roads, or the furtherance of any attempt on our part, to extend our intercourse into the interior; they have hitherto been jealous of any encroachment, and not many years ago, gave proofs of the spirit by murdering the individuals who conducted Lieut. Bennett to the Patkoí boundary.

But the time, it is to be hoped, has already arrived when these fertile tracts will be taken under our especial protection; when the untutored barbarian must submit to civilization and improvement, and his wilds and his wastes to the ploughshare and the hoe of British agriculture.

The most important articles of trade exported by the Chinese from the Singpho country are gold dust, precious stones of various colours, and ivory.

Gold Dust.—The gold dust is procurable from most of the streams
of the Brahmaputra; but the gathering it is but a poor trade, and is now but little followed. The place most celebrated for its precious stones is Mung-kung or Mogaum.

Precious Stones.—On a range of hills near it, a great number of deep mines are dug, and the working of them affords occupation for many thousand inhabitants. When a stone of moderate weight is found, it is hoisted to the mouth of the shaft by a windlass erected for the purpose. But they frequently meet with large masses, which they have not the power of moving: these they contrive to break to pieces.

Mining.—The workmen begin by kindling a strong fire all over and around the precious stones, till it is well heated; they then mark off with some powerful liquid, the piece they wish to break off, a large stone is suspended from the top of the shaft perpendicularly over the piece to be broken off, and when all is ready, the stone is cut away, and falling with great impetus upon the mass below, breaks off the fragment exactly according to the line drawn with the liquid. It is difficult to account for this mysterious liquid being able to prevent the whole mass from being splintered, and how it should preserve such a line of separation; yet such is the native belief, and it is not improbable that its effect is merely imaginary, or that is practised from some superstition.

These stones are afterwards cut into convenient pieces by means of a bambu bow with a string of twisted wire, the string being applied to the stone and used as a saw, while its action is assisted by some sort of pulverized mineral*. As might be expected, much bloodshed is frequently the consequence of finding these hidden treasures. When any doubt arises about the party who first discovered one, or about the right of possession, bloody battles ensue with short swords in hand between whole villages. Large emeralds are allowed to lie around the pits unclaimed by any one: no one venturing to carry them away, lest every one should fall upon them in vengeance. These precious stones are afterwards carried on mules to China, and are sold at very high prices, some of them bringing 7 or 800 seers weight of silver. The Burmese governor levies a tax of two seers on every 10 that are exported. These mules are driven along in gangs of 20 to 30; the drivers go armed with swords and matchlocks, and guide their beasts of burden by word of mouth. The route they pursue to China is via Catmow or the Irawadi, and the overland journey from Mung-küng to Catmow occupies about nine days.

Amber.—Besides the mines of precious stones, there are several amber mines in the province of Hukúng, which are wrought to con-

* Doubtless corundum: this is the common mode of cutting hard stones.—Ed.
siderable advantage. The amber is cut into cylinders about \(\frac{1}{2}\) inch in diameter, and two inches long, and is worn as an ornament stuck through a hole in the lobe of the ear, both by Assamese and Burmese.

_Ivory._—A large quantity of ivory is exported by the China merchants. It is almost all obtained by the Singphos, from shooting the wild elephants with poisoned arrows fired from a loaded musket. When once they get upon the tract of a herd, they continue the pursuit for days together, taking up favourable positions upon trees, or lying in wait in the long grass, till they can take a fatal aim. Vast numbers of these noble animals are destroyed in this manner, both by theSingphos and Kangtis; they are as susceptible to the fatal effects of poison as the smaller animals, and fall down dead immediately after being slightly wounded. Their teeth are struck out by the hunters, and the carcasses are left to be devoured by the beasts of prey.

_Chinese returns._—In return for these valuable commodities, the Chinese bring into the Singpho country, nankins, silks, lacquered and China ware, lead, copper, and particularly silver.

A great portion of the silver that comes into Assam through the Singphos is stamped with Chinese characters. It can scarcely be called a coin, but a piece of bullion; and appears to have been made by scooping out a small round hole in a piece of clay, then filling it with molten silver, and before it becomes cold, impressing it with the Chinese stamp. Not two of these lumps of silver are of the same value or size: their intrinsic worth is ascertained by their weight, and is found to vary from two to 10 rupees.

_Bullion._—Though the metal is very pure, it is called _kacha rupa_, and one sicca weight of it is fixed as equal to only half a sicca of the properly coined metal. No inconvenience arises in purchasing articles of small value; the hill tribes take out their dau, and chop it into pieces even to the portion of a piece. This _kacha rupa_ is eagerly purchased by the chiefs in Upper Assam, who, after adulterating it largely, cast it into their own coin, and thus realize an enormous profit. These chiefs have most of them mints of their own, and are in the habit of coining rupees for any one who will give them the raw material, retaining only 10 per cent. for their trouble.

_Muamriias or Mattuks._

The country of this tribe is bounded on the N. by the Brahmaputra, on the S. by the Buri Dihing; on the E. by a line drawn S. from the mouth of the Kunili nallah to the Buri Dihing, and on the W. by a line drawn from the mouth of the river Dibunu to the Burí Dihing. About 1793, these people rose in arms against the reigning Rajah Gourinath Singh, and after many bloody engagements with the royal
troops, at last succeeded in driving him from his throne and kingdom, and in appointing a successor of their own choice. During the period of their ascendancy, they committed the most dreadful ravages upon the country, and the original inhabitants: great portions of it were deserted, and even till this day, it has never regained any thing near its former prosperity. But these lawless plunderers were not allowed long to enjoy the fruits of their conquests; they were speedily driven from the capital by 1000 sipáhis, under Captain Welsh, and retreated to the districts which they now inherit. The head of this still powerful clan is known by the name of the Mattuk Rájah, or more commonly, by that of the Bara senapati (great general). During the Burmese war, he maintained his independence; but on our taking Rangpur, he claimed our protection, and has since manifested his sincerity, by a zealous endeavour to render every assistance in his power in the advancement of our plans.

The greater part of the country allotted them is a desert waste, and only the banks of the river Dibúr are inhabited. The population amounts to about 60,000 men, inclusive of women and children. The capital is Rangagora. The state is allowed about 500 musquets and ammunition according to treaty, and supplies a large contingent. They profess the Hindu religion; but act so little in accordance with its tenets, that enlightened Brahmins scarcely acknowledge them.

The Bara senapati, with all his affability and apparent deference to our authority, is by some considered not entitled to perfect and unlimited confidence. Situated between two powerful states, the British and the Burmah, his policy seem to be to maintain good terms with both; and in the event of another Burmese invasion, it is to be feared, he would preserve neutrality, till he saw how the scale was likely to turn, and then join the stronger party.

Nágas.

The next border tribes met with in proceeding westward are the Nágas. To assign limit to their country seems almost impossible, and even to number their numerous tribes, no less so; they are scattered all over the mountainous ridge that divides Assam from Manipur, to which state some of them are tributary, some to Assam, and some even to the Burmese. There is no one individual tribe of any formidable consequence amongst them, and there is but little inclination to coalesce, they being constantly embroiled in petty feuds. Their houses are built on the most inaccessible points of the mountain, and planned for every-day defence. They are represented by the inhabitants of the plains as robbers and murderers, and are so much the dread of all, that little of their economy is known.
Brine Spring.—One of the most remarkable circumstances relating to their country is the number of brine or salt springs in many parts of it.

At Burhath, on the river Disung, there are about 20 of these brine springs, from most of which the Nágas are in the habit of making salt. These wells are dug to a considerable depth, and the brine varies in intensity, probably according to the access of fresh water from the surface; and being situated in a valley, and having no protection from the rain, they are generally filled in the wet season. The consequence is, that the manufacture is carried on only in the cold weather.

Manufacture of Salt.—Some of the best of these wells give 10 sicca weight of dry salt to the seer of water, and others, only three or four. The process of evaporation is carried on by filling the joints of large bambús with brine and suspending them in an earthen trough, filled with water, which answer for the purpose of a boiler, and in this rude way, the brine in the bambús is evaporated, till salt is formed. These mud troughs are every season broken down, and being triturated with water, afford a strong brine from which other salt is formed.

So tedious and unskilful is the manufacture, that the salt made from these wells cannot be made at less price than the same quantity of salt transported from Bengal.

II.—On the Method employed to remove the Vaulted Roof of St. Peter's Church in Fort William, illustrated by a Section, (Plate V.)

Works of engineering skill come peculiarly within the limits pointed out by the motto on our title page, as fitted for the Researches of a Scientific Society or Journal: "The performances of man," of such a class in this country, and under British rule, are, it is true, but rare and trifling compared with the noble efforts of art, which grow up from day to day under the eye of an observer in Europe. There, letting alone tunnels and railways of gigantic enterprize, we hear of half an elliptic arch sprung by the celebrated Brunel from a buttress and carried to a semi-span of seventy feet, without centering, by the mere adhesion of the cement!—of an iron suspension bridge at Fribourg in Switzerland thrown over a ravine of 170 feet deep, in a single bold span of more than 900 feet from rock to rock, far surpassing the Menai bridge, or even the designed bridge from St. Vincent's rocks at Clifton, which latter we regret to hear has been abandoned, in consequence of the riots in Bristol, and the destruction of that wealth which would have been so well bestowed upon this noble work.
We have but little indeed to bring forward in rivalry of such magnificent undertakings; howbeit, there have been schemes of vast magnitude projected, and some under a Viceroy such as Lord W. Bentinck, partial to engineering pursuits, might ere this have been put in execution. The draining of the Salt-water lake, (were it conceded to be a salutary measure) would be feasible enough. The line of wharfs or jetties on the Strand is actually planned and estimated for. The Rajmahl line of survey is a splendid specimen of mapping; and although we have no anticipation of seeing it undertaken, the results of the inquiry will, we hope, be given to the public in a volume, with all its sections, by its projector our Indian Belidor. Of architectural achievements we have less to boast. Twenty years since, money was bequeathed by a rich native for the erection of a College at Hugli, and yet nothing has been done unto this day. Are architects wanting, or are the curators anxious to appropriate the money for other purposes? We have seen more than one tasteful design, but how is an artist ever to satisfy the views of a numerous committee, not more than one or two of whom perchance have any notion of architectural propriety? In feeble imitation of the Parliamentary Church Committee at home, we have a private fund created by rupee contributions for the erection of places of worship in the interior; but it is far too poor to aim at ornament in its humble structures. The Martiniere is the only public institution, erected within the last year or two, that has real pretensions to correct taste in its exterior elevation. It is strangely disfigured by a high wall round the ground, and the arrangements of the interior have been marred by an imperfect conception at starting, of what would be required in it.

An observation forces itself upon us when viewing the noble portico of this building, of the Scotch Church, or of the mint, with their handsome flights of stone steps;—that the purity of Grecian temple architecture cannot or ought not to be preserved under the altered circumstances of the present age. Men no longer resort on foot in daily processions to the sacred vestibules of their gods. They drive in comfortable carriages, and would fain dismount under shelter from the sun and the rain. Is it not a fault of grievous magnitude then, that neither of these three buildings possesses a carriage access? and that at the Mint, for instance, bullion cannot get within 100 feet of the hall of weighment, except on coolies' heads. The Government house is in this respect better provided; but here the basement entrance has been made an eyesore, and a mere secondary object, instead of the primary one, being in constant use. The portico of the Martiniere was intended for carriages, but this object was sacrificed to the gaining of space for a play-ground, and the road
is now brought up at right angles with the foot of the steps, which has an unseemly and awkward effect.

The native architect in the palaces of the east provides not for carriages, but how suitable is the lofty arched gate with its music galleries for the train of towered elephants and horsemen issuing from the interior court. Under the sloping chhaja or cornice of the native dwelling, or baithak-khâneh, the architect inserts iron rings for the striped pavilions it is intended to bear. They look natural to it, as they are necessary to the climate; whereas how may not the Ionic façade of the Martiniere be disfigured hereafter, perhaps, by Venetians run up between the columns of its fine portico, as in the left wing of the Government house, or by matted hoods gracing the southern windows of each wing?

Too much stress cannot be laid on the proper adaptation of style to the climate. The architect’s duty is but half performed, if he provide not for every contingency to which his building may be subject, whether in respect to durability or to convenience; and even when the former is attended to, the latter is too frequently neglected.

A striking instance of the bad effects of inattention to apparently trivial objects of this nature is afforded in the subject of the present notice. Major Hutchinson designed and executed a gothic vaulted church roof in brick, the first attempted in India. He neglected to make provision for the hanging of punkahs, and upon a representation of their being wanted, the executive department, with little calculation of the disturbance of equilibrium or strength of materials, ordered holes to be cut at the head of the clustered columns, to admit beams to swing them. Had the architect at first, as he has now done, let in iron rods to sustain the punkah ropes, his work would have been uninjured, and Government have been saved double, nay triple, expenditure; and his fame have been preserved from unmerited censure. Few people in such cases calmly inquire into particulars; they ask, who raised the fabric, and upon his head lay the onus of the failure.

We are glad, with reference to this last fact, at having obtained permission to make public the report of the real circumstances given in to the Military Board in June, 1832, with its explanatory section.

It is necessary to recapitulate to such of our readers as are unacquainted with the facts, that about six years ago the vaulted roof of St. Peter’s was condemned as unsafe, and was ordered to be demolished. The keystone or vertex of the central and side vaults had opened from end to end, and other dangerous symptoms were observed. Committees were held, and a variety of opinion as to the cause elicited, but the necessity of demolition was general, and Major Hutchinson was
intrusted with a task seemingly as difficult as the original construction, and fraught with more danger to the workmen employed.

The true nature of the case will strike every one who looks attentively at the accompanying section, namely that the cutting of the holes for the punkahs was the origin of the whole mischief. Had the cracks in the roof existed at the time, it can hardly be imagined that orders could have been issued to cut away the only props of the superstructure. The effect of such an improvident order was however fully represented at the time by Lieut. Mallock, Major H. being then in England.

It is probable that the chief engineer relied upon his experience of the firm tenacity of the materials: that he had good reason to do so in many respects is proved by the fact recorded in the report, that the semi vault stood firmly when the keystone was knocked out, and was with difficulty broken away piecemeal.

Hence it appears, that after all, the roof might have stood with perfect safety had the punkah holes been refilled with care, and the side vault been braced together with light iron rods, as in the well known Musée des Arts et Métiers at Paris. The continuity of the main arch from the crown of the upper vault, through the flying buttresses to the ground, does not appear to have been broken; and if so, the opening or crack was of little consequence. Yet in face of all the above facts, the restoration of the vault was interdicted, and in lieu of a solid "vaulted roof embracing the highest branches of constructive science, after the manner and principles pursued by freemasons in the beautiful gothic edifices of Europe," it was resolved to descend to an imitation in wood-work with a flat roof above.

Though of minor importance and beauty, the wooden roof is well spoken of in the Report of the Committee of Survey: "The groined roof of the nave is, we believe, the first work of the kind ever attempted in this country, and involving as it does the practical application of some of the most difficult principles of constructive carpentry, the successful completion of such a work under all the difficulties attendant on the employment of native carpenters, who had to be instructed in every stage of the work, is highly creditable to the skill and science of the executive officer, Major Hutchinson."

Before closing these preliminary remarks, we would fain notice the painted glass windows of the west and east ends of the nave. They are decidedly lions in our town, admirable specimens of rich transparent colouring, not frittered in small fragments, but in the new style, of colours burnt in on large panes of 24 by 16 inches.

The design of St. Peter receiving the keys is from Raphael’s Cartoon; Moses and Aaron are on either side, and the four Evangelists
fill the compartments below. The Faith, Hope, and Charity of the west windows are taken from the designs of Sir Joshua Reynolds in New Church, Oxford.

From the great size of the panes of thin glass the difficulty of repairing any of them, if broken, will easily be understood. Yet by an accident, two panes were broken in putting up. The head and neck of Hope was smashed to atoms by the falling of a bambu! Although it is hard to excuse the occurrence of any accident where precautions should have rendered it impossible, we cannot but praise the ingenuity with which it was repaired, so that the damage is not perceptible. The fragments were united together with a transparent varnish on another pane of colourless glass. The only question is as to the durability of the cement; we should fear it would grow brown by age and exposure.


“A continuous and perfect equilibrium of the several parts of a building, and the concentration of all the forces, whether vertical or lateral, on a few principal supports, which for the sake of lightness, elegance and economy, are calculated to sustain no more than their allotted pressure, being fundamental principles in Gothic architecture; the demolition of such a structure (more especially if the equilibrium has been destroyed by the weakening of those supports) must at any time, even with the aid of powerful means, be considered an undertaking of much difficulty and danger; but in this country, with the assistance of native workmen alone, it becomes a duty demanding the utmost vigilance and attention; consequently in the removal of the vaulted roofs of St. Peter’s Church, it became of primary importance to ascertain, with precision, the extent and character of the existing derangement of equilibrium, as a correct basis for calculation and design, in the operations to be pursued. With this view, a particular and most minute inspection of all the several parts of the edifice was made, of which the following was the result:

Foundations.—With regard to the foundations, it was ascertained, that the sinking, which had taken place from the nature of the alluvial soil, was exceedingly small*; any tendency there might have been to sinking in the main pillars having been counteracted by the heavy reversed arches extending under the basement from pillar to pillar.

* The sinking of the pillars most injured by the punkah beams not exceeding \( \frac{1}{	ext{in.}} \) of an inch, which was as little as could be expected from a general settlement in a brick building, and by no means capable of affecting the equilibrium.
Vaulted roofs of side arches and pillars.—The vaulted roofs of the side aisles were found in a most dilapidated state, as likewise the main pillars at the points d'appui of the springing of the ribs, upon which rested the load of the side vaults. Upon the removal of the punkah beams (r*) shewn in the accompanying section, (which had never been removed by any Committee) it was at once evident that the principles upon which the equilibrium and consequent stability of the side vaults and pillars depended, (and according to which they had originally been constructed,) were entirely destroyed; viz. 1st, the thickness of abutment inwards, originally given to the main pillars, had been reduced in the direct line of thrust from 4 to 2 feet, by the perforation of large holes, for the insertion of beams upon which to suspend punkahs; 2nd, the adhesive continuity of the cemented materials (upon which the stability of pillars composed of brick and mortar so entirely depend) had been completely disturbed in the vicinity of the holes, from the blows of the iron instruments by which they had been made; 3rd, the springing of the main ribs, upon which the side vaults rested, had been wholly cut away on either side as exhibited at (ss), by which the vaults, deprived of their supporting points, sunk down both in haunch and vertex from their original position, thereby greatly increasing the force with which they pressed against the main pillars†; 4th, the main pillars being so greatly weakened by the perforation of the holes, and the disturbance of the cemented material, yielded inwardly;‡ to the extent of 4½ inches from the perpendicular, and became cracked entirely across; the parts marked (tt) splitting off from some of them. Thus all equilibrium was inevitably destroyed.

Vault of the nave, flying buttresses, clerestory walls, &c.—The above facts being established, the examination was carefully extended to the vault of the nave, the flying buttresses, the external and clerestory walls and towers: but with the exception of some cracks in the flying

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<th>Ton. Cwt.</th>
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* Weighing in each aisle, 

† The exact estimation of their increased force is a question of much difficulty, from its being connected with circumstances not within the reach of calculation, viz. the amount of injury accruing to the arch and pillar by the penetration of the rain into the spandrels and through the arch; also the amount of pressure from the sinking of the abutment of the clerestory walls, which rested in part on the arch; but that it must have been very great will be evident to every one acquainted with the rules and principles of construction.

‡ A slight deflexion of the pillars inwards had been observed before the punkah beams were inserted. This deflexion, Sir Christopher Wren states, is to be observed in all the Gothic Cathedrals in Europe, from which it would appear to be a circumstance incidental to this style of Architecture; but that it is not productive of any important derangement of equilibrium, is fully proved by the great durability of the Gothic structures in Europe.
butresses, owing to the sinking of the side vaults, the whole was found in such good condition, as to remove any apprehension as to the firmness and stability of the main vault, &c. which being well supported by the flying buttresses, and those of the outer walls, no external shores were judged necessary; and as in its construction it was wholly independent of the side vaults, it was concluded, that notwithstanding the shocks it might be expected to receive from their demolition, yet that they might, when properly secured, be proceeded with in perfect safety, without any fear of danger arising thereby to the main vault. Accordingly, the only point which demanded immediate attention was the counteraction of the imminent danger to be apprehended, from the further sinking and spreading of the side vaults, by which, the main pillars in their shattered condition were liable to be forced inwardly, and thereby to entail the consequent and sudden downfall of the entire building. As this danger could only be prevented by the construction of such massive shores on the nave side, which should be able to resist every power that could possibly be exerted by the spreading of the side vaults, the following plan of shoring, preparatory to the removal of the side vaults, was adopted, and pursued with success.

Mode of shoring.—A solid bed of masonry (a) was laid for the firm support of the foundation beam (b), upon the extremities of which were fixed in mortises the uprights (ee); these were hollowed out to fit closely to the main pillars, their base or lower ends being enlarged and strengthened by the additional blocks (gg) to which they were firmly joggled, and bolted, in the manner shewn.

The straining beam (d) being then fixed at one end in the upright (on a line with the shattered part of the pillars and strain of the side aisles) by a semicircular tenon working in a similar mortice, the other end cut to a tenon with a slight angle, was by means of three jack screws (as shewn in the distance, forced up a smooth inclined mortise well greased, cut in the opposite upright, and thus brought into a horizontal position. The shores or struts (ee), let in obliquely upon the foundation beam (b), were then fixed in the mortises cut in the uprights, and straining beam (d), and firmly wedged up into their places and secured by the footstil (f); thus, the thrust of one aisle was brought into play against the thrust of the other, and further spreading of the side vaults effectually prevented.

Centres for supporting the roofs of the side aisles.—The above work having with great care and labour been accomplished, four strong centres or framings were next constructed, as shewn in fig. 2; which when put together, were, by means of wedges underneath, brought firmly up to the masonry of the vault; and thus securely supported, the
work people were enabled by means of crow-bars and pick-axes to commence the demolition of the side roofs without any apprehension of danger. These frames being made movable, the expence of centreing up the entire side vaults was avoided. The vaulted roofs of the aisles were thus safely removed, without the slightest injury arising to the centre roof of the nave, thereby confirming the correctness of the opinion formerly advanced that no danger would arise to it. Accordingly measures were now taken for the removal of the main vault, together with the flying buttresses and cleristory walls. The erection of any external shores was still considered wholly unnecessary, but from the great height of the nave (46 feet), it became indispen-sable to secure the work people from all probability of danger, during the progress of demolition, by any portion of the vault falling inwardly, when the vertex or keying should be cut away; but as the construction of a frame-work of sufficient strength underneath the vault could not have been executed without incurring considerable expence, the following plan was devised and put into execution.

Mode of removing the great vault of the nave.—The upper pinnacles and battlements of the north and south cleristory walls were removed, and a planking laid upon the top of the walls, which admitted of a platform (k), fig. 3, placed across the roof being easily slid along its whole length. This platform, in order to give perfect security to the work people, in the event of any part underneath giving way, was suspend-ed by ropes from the four towers, as shewn in the section; and upon this the work people were enabled to commence the demolition of the roof with perfect confidence; but so firm was the masonry found to be, that they soon got off on to the roof itself, although entirely unsupported from below, and the continuity of the arch was destroyed by cutting from the vertex downwards, thus giving the most unequivocal proof of its exceeding firmness and stability. In this manner the entire roof was destroyed; after which the flying buttresses being cut at their two extremities, were allowed to fall inwardly; and finally the cleristory walls were brought down to a level with the shattered parts of the columns. Having thus briefly shewn the state in which the foundations, roofs, and pillars were found, after a most careful examination, and the plan pursued in the removal of the roofs, abundant evidence has been furnished of the ultimate cause which destroyed the safety of the building, and it can only be a matter of surprise, that an edifice, constructed of brick upon the principles of Gothic architecture, should (after the main supports of the side aisles had been cut away, and the pillars reduced to half their original strength), have so long resisted the fatal injury committed; the punkah beams having been put up in 1827.”

G. Hutchinson, Major, Engineers.
### Statistical Abstract of Muthra District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Tahseeldares</th>
<th>Designation of Tahseeldare, or Native Collectorship</th>
<th>Pergunnahs and Talookas appertaining to each Tahseeldare.</th>
<th>Houses</th>
<th>Population</th>
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<td>83382</td>
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</table>

### Abstract

- The average number of houses per village is 60.91 persons to each house. 5.61 = Hindoos to Muhammedans, as 12 to 1 = males to females, as 19 to 14.
- Bullocks to each plough 2:05: Cultivation to each plough, 18 acres, 0 roods, 10 poles.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Talukas and Talookas appertaining to each district</th>
<th>Total Malguzar, e.i., agricultural, or otherwise,</th>
<th>Total Cultivation, Acres.</th>
<th>Total Malguzar, excluding space occupied by Jumna river,</th>
<th>Revenue.</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 Tulehur.</td>
<td>14,368.84</td>
<td>251,843</td>
<td>15,596,722</td>
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<td>2 Maat.</td>
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<td>379,949</td>
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<td>3 Nishapur.</td>
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<td>207,125</td>
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<td>Rs. 155,725.0</td>
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<td>4 Nekoleh.</td>
<td>16,333</td>
<td>371,833</td>
<td>16,333</td>
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<td>5 Nishapur.</td>
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<td>6 Shahr.</td>
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<td>Rs. 155,777.0</td>
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<td>7 Kusheh.</td>
<td>16,333</td>
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<td>Rs. 155,833.0</td>
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<td>8 Kusheh.</td>
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<td>14,777</td>
<td>Rs. 155,777.0</td>
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The above gives an average to each 100 square miles, of district, of 1957 square miles, Superficial area of district excluding space occupied by Jumna river, square miles of

Statistical Abstract of Muttra.

[Read at the Meeting of the 2nd December.]

It may safely be asserted, that the arts generally in Nepal have not hitherto arrived at any degree of advancement, beyond that attained in the plains of India. In regard of those which have attained to considerable perfection below, Nepal is extremely backward in the progress made by her people, nor do I know of any in which the Nipaleses can be said to excel their Hindu brethren of India, except the useful one of agriculture, to which may be added, perhaps, brick and tile making; and, in more recent days, the manufacture of flint-lock fire arms.

In the art of weaving, it is universally admitted, that neither the Egyptians of the olden, nor the nations of Europe in the modern, time have equalled, or do excel, the Hindus of Dacca and Benares; while this art in Nipal, is still at the very lowest possible grade of advancement. It is matter of curiosity, as well as of astonishment, that although the Newars claim, and not improbably hold, a title to considerable antiquity as a united people*, and have made great advances in husbandry, some progress in literature and architecture, they have not got up to this day, beyond the threshold of civilization in that art, which, among the rudest nations, has been found in a state of much efficiency†.

Some one of the Roman philosophers, I have read, gave credit to Semiramis, for the invention of weaving cotton; and Minerva herself, was, I believe, an enthusiast, and proficient in the labour of the loom. Our Nipalesque queens of the present day are too proud of their Rajput, or "Moon-born lineage‡," to indulge in the practice of the useful arts. And the goddesses, although abundant as the grains of sand on the sea shore, are now but images of the olden personifications; consequently, the weaving art has not descended to the modern representatives of the above-named ladies; but still cleaving to the sex, as a pastime, or profession, we find it confined solely to the women, among the Newars. The men toil at other labours, but they weave not, "neither do they spin." Weaving is scarcely a trade in the valley of

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* See Mr. Hodson's Legends of the Origin of this Tribe in the Asiatic Journal.
† The Mexicans, at the time of the conquest of their country by the Spaniards, had manufactures of cotton cloth in considerable perfection—"of cotton they made large webs, and as delicate and fine as those of Holland."
‡ Chandra Vansa.
Nepál, for all the Newár women, of the poorer classes, (and there are scarcely any others now,) weave the cotton cloths required for the consumption of themselves and families.

These fabrics of domestic manufacture are all of cotton, and of the coarsest and most inelegant description. The cotton is grown in abundance throughout the hottest valleys of the Nipálese hills, and in the Taraí skirting their plainward face. It is brought on men's shoulders*, as picked, with the seeds in it, to the different towns of the valley, where it is exchanged to shop-keepers, for money, or other produce, as the case may be; and thus each family, as its means will admit of, purchases, from time to time, so many pounds of the raw material as suffices for the employment at the cleaning machine and spinning wheel of the mother and her daughters.

The cotton is separated from the seeds by the women, either with the fingers, or by the help of a most primitive contrivance, of the following description, and called Keko. Two rollers of wood, the thickness of a walking stick, and close together, are placed in an upright frame, and made to revolve on one another by means of a handle attached (through one side of the frame) to the lower of them. The operator, sitting on the ground, places the frame between her feet, steadying it with her toes, and applies small portions of cotton to the spaces between the rollers with her left hand, while she plies the revolving handle with the right: in this manner the cotton is drawn between the rollers; the seeds, being too large for the interspace, are separated and left behind.

The spinning is equally primitive, but its mode not easily describ-
ed. The machine† is small, and easily portable, even by a child of six years old; it is not raised from the ground by means of legs, as is the domestic one of the Scottish Highlanders, and Northern Irish, (the ones I am best acquainted with;) nor is the wheel set in motion by the pressure of the foot on a board connected by a thong of leather, with a lever or cramp fixed to its axle, as is common in turning grind-stones, or turning lathe-wheels; but, the spinner, as in the cotton-cleaning process, sits on the ground, with one hand turning

* Man is the only animal of burden employed in the valley of Nepál, as well as the interior of her hills—a circumstance of itself strongly pointing out, how short a way the inhabitants have advanced beyond sheer barbarism. The uneven surface of their country is scarcely sufficient to save them from this imputation. The rulers of the land drive English carriages, while the transport of every article in their dominions is made on men and women's backs—a good specimen of eastern pomp, associated with its common accompaniment, hard-worked poverty.

† Called Yeáá by the Newárs.
the wheel by means of a handle, and with the other, drawing out the cotton into thread.

An iron rod is attached by means of a string to the wheel, and revolves in company with it, on which the thread, as spun, is collected, and in this manner, women and girls of all ages employ themselves, when not assisting at sowing or reaping, either in front of their dwellings, in the towns, or at the road-side, as may best suit their convenience*. The spinning wheel may be best described by saying, that it is but the ancient distaff, improved by the addition of a wheel for keeping it in motion; for the sharp-pointed iron rod, to the extremity of which the cotton is applied, and by which it is spun into thread, is precisely the spike of the distaff, and like its prototype, serves the double purpose of a bobbin on which the thread is accumulated as spun. The spinner turns the wheel from left to right while forming the thread, and to allow the portion spun to be accumulated on the iron rod, gives the wheel a small turn in the opposite direction, at the same time, lowering her left hand, so as to permit the winding-up of the thread. This necessary interruption in the spinning process, is a great drawback on the time of the spinner, and renders the distaff wheel very inferior, when compared to the common one of Europe. When tending cattle, or watching their ripe crops, the females generally wile away the time, and assist in replenishing the family wardrobe by spinning or weaving in the open air.

Having thus imperfectly spun the yarn, we proceed naturally to the warping and weaving of it, both of which processes are performed exclusively by women, with the very simplest and rudest machinery, equalled by the coarsest and most ungainly produce. The ordinary breadth of the Nepál cotton cloths is about half a yard, and rarely exceeds two feet. The average length of the webs is from 6 to 12 and 14 yards, and the texture of the finest is not superior to the dosút cloth of Hindustán, used for house canopies (chhats) and floor cloths.

When a Newár woman has spun a sufficient quantity of thread for the warp of a web, she winds it off the iron rod, on which it has been spun, into (or, on) large bobbins of about nine inches long, and fit to hold three or four pounds of thread.

With these large bobbins, and a few reeds, about three feet long, she repairs to the nearest grassy spot without her village, or to the side of the causeway, if unpaved, and there, sticking the reeds in the ground,

* The universality of the spinning wheel may be readily credited, on the announcement of a custom which enjoins every Newár parent to present his newly married daughter with a Yeáú and Keko in addition to her dowry.
(a few feet asunder,) to the length of her purposed web, she has prepared the only warping frame known throughout these regions.

Tying the thread to the reed on her extreme right, she moves rapidly up and down along the line, passing the thread (as it comes off the bobbin, revolving on a shaft passed through its axle, and held in her right hand), on alternate sides of each reed, until the "warp is laid."

The dexterity acquired by the women, in warping, is considerable, and the quickness with which they entwine the thread, with the warping reeds, is remarkable; and apparently, it is executed with little trouble. I have often seen those women moving up and down, and laying the warp regularly on the frame, at a fast walk, and all the while talking and laughing with the persons present, and assisting them in the performance of their task.

Having "laid the warp," the reeds (or rods of wood, as the case may be), are pulled out of the ground, and the warp, frame and all, is rolled up and carried home. All the cloths made in the valley are of uncoloured thread, which renders the warping a much easier affair than when striped webs are to be laid down.

When leisure offers for weaving the web, the women on a sunshining day spread out the warp (the warping sticks still in it) and apply with a brush, made of a suitable kind of grass, the paste necessary for smoothing the thread preparatory to putting the web in the loom.

The mode of weaving does not essentially differ from that practised in the uncivilized portions of our own country with which I am acquainted. The weaver sitting on a bench, with the loom in front of her, plies the shuttle alternately with either hand, pulling forward the swinging apparatus for laying the woof thread, close to its predecessor, and plies the treddles with her feet*. The weaving is carried on under a shed, within a small verandah, or in the house; and as the roofs are generally low, the treddles are made to play in a hollow dug in the earthen floor under the loom. The loom is made of the commonest materials, and very clumsily put together, and is altogether of a piece with the poor state of the weaving art. Lest it should be thought that it is intended to connect the wretched produce of the Nepāl looms, with the rudeness of the machinery, as inevitable cause and

* This portion of the loom is extremely rude and primitive; instead of footboards moving on a fixed point, to be depressed alternately, so as to make one layer of the warp threads cross the other, and thus incorporate the woof with it, we find two small buttons suspended from the lower margin of the netting, which the weaver seizes between her great and first toe, alternately depressing each foot as the woof thread is delivered by the shuttle.
effect, I may mention that the Nepál loom, and the arrangements of
the weaver, are superior in some respects to those of the unrivalled
manufactures of the Dacca muslin. Mill’s account of the Hindu loom
corroborates this; he says, “It consists of little else than a few sticks
or pieces of wood, nearly in the state in which nature produced them,
connected together by the rudest contrivances. There is not so much
as an expedient for rolling up the warp.” The weaver is therefore
obliged to work in the open air, as his house could not contain him
and his web at full length; “and every return of inclement weather
interrupts him.” The Nepál weaver rolls up the warp on its original
frame, and ties it to a peg driven in the ground close to her feet,
while a cross beam in front of her receives the web as it is woven*.

The Thibet woollen cloths are of infinitely superior workmanship to
the cotton ones of Nepál, and indeed, are of very fine make and mate-
rial, although deficient in width. It is therefore evident that in the
earliest of the arts, one which must have been practised by all human
societies, so soon as leaves and skins were deemed unfitting clothing,
the Nipálese have been left far behind, by the Hindus of India on
one hand, and by the Tartars of Bhote on the other.

Dyeing and printing come naturally enough to notice, after spin-
ning and weaving; and the advancement made in these arts has kept
an even pace with that in the former. As dyesters the Newárs are
miserable artists; they cannot at this day dye a decent blue, although
furnished with indigo for the purpose.

A dirty red (from madder) and a light fading green, are the colours
most commonly dyed by them; but they are not fast and durable, nor
elegant when fresh. The only tolerably good dyeing done in Nepál,
is by some Cashmíris, and people from the plains.

The coarse cloths of the country are printed, in imitation of the
chintzes of India and Europe, and are much worn by all classes of
females, who cannot afford to purchase better stuffs; but the imita-
tions are very badly executed, and the colours not durable. The best
Nipálese chintz is printed and dyed at Bhatgaon, in the valley; and
in the hills east of the valley, at a place called Dunkutuah. In the
small valley of Punouti too, about 24 miles east of Kathmandu, this
trade is carried to some extent, and with nearly similar success.

* The different parts of the loom are not connected so as to form one complete
machine. For instance, the swinging beam and netting are generally sus-
pended from the roof of the house.

In the commonest European loom, the bench on which the weaver sits, the
beam on which the cloth is received, as well as that on which the warp is rolled,
Together with the swinging beam and netting, are all joined together.
A piece of best Parbattiah chintz 5½ yards long, sufficient to make an entire dress for a woman, costs at Kathmandu 1-8-0 Nepále rupees*.

The subjoined list of the cotton piece goods manufactured in the valley and neighbouring hills, of which specimens are now presented, may not be useless to the public, while it will tend in some degree to give practical illustration to the above remarks. As a mode of attempting to estimate the real value of these products, and to assist in throwing light on the condition of the people who make and use them, the value of money, in regard to the staff of life, may be conveniently recorded†, especially as in Nepál, as well as India, the craftsman does not, generally speaking, earn any thing in addition to the common wages of agricultural labour, or in other words, little more than suffices to fill his belly, and that of a wife and children, with plain rice, and a few spices, and to buy the raw cotton, for the manufacture of his, and their coarse clothing. Models of the spinning wheel, and cotton cleaning machine, accompany the specimens of cloth.

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List of the principal cotton piece goods Manufactured in Nepál proper, and throughout the Hills; to which is added a notice of the Bhungara, or Canvas made from the inner bark of trees, and the few coarse woollens of the neigh-bouring hills‡.

Names by which known in the Bazar.

1. Changa.—Manufactured in almost every Newár’s house throughout the valley, and generally in the hills. Is coarse, hard and thin in texture. Is for the most part in webs of 10, 12, to 14 yards long, and 18 inches broad, and ranges in the Kathmandu bazar, from one rupee to 1-4-0 and 1-8-0 per piece.

* A Nepále rupee equivalent to 12½ annas of Company’s currency.
† A full grown labouring man requires for a day’s good food, 1½ mannas of rice, and his wife, with (say as an average) three children, 1½ mannas more, or in all three mannas.
‡ The specimens here described are deposited in the Society’s museum.

The present price (November 1835) is 26 mannas, or nearly nine days’ food per current rupee; to this, add salt, spices, and other condiments, worth one rupee more, and it will be seen that the wages of labour such as a man can live on in tolerable comfort, must be about four current rupees per month, and this without any allowance for clothing, house or luxuries.

The lowest class of laborers, and artizans, in some parts of the valley, and throughout a great portion of the hills, cannot come at rice, as their ordinary food; but must be content with the coarser grains, such as murwa, bajra, kodu and Indian corn. Two current rupees per month suffice for their subsistence, and is about the price of their labour.  

The specimens here described are deposited in the Society’s museum.
2. Kadi.—Thick, coarse and strong; manufactured in considerable quantity in the valley of Noakot, as well as in the great valley and throughout the hills: is much worn by the cultivators of all tribes, Parbattiahs, and Newârs. Comes to market generally in pieces of 6½ yards long, 16 or 18 inches broad, and averages at Kathmandu 12 annas to one rupee per piece. Wears long and well; like the above, is sold unbleached.

3. Purabi Chint.—Is an imitation of Indian Chintz, manufactured at Dunkutuah and other places in the eastern hills, generally coloured, black and red, in a small striped pattern; coarse and heavy. Is much worn by the poorer Parbattiahs, and Newârs (women). Comes to Kathmandu in pieces of five yards long, and less than two feet broad, and may be generally bought for 14 annas or one rupee per piece.

4. Mûmi Chint.—Also manufactured at Dunkutuah and to the eastward; is very like the above; worn by the Parbattiahs and Newâr women, made into chûlis (boddice) and sâris. A piece of six yards long and 18 inches broad, costs in Kathmandu about one rupee.

5. Banârasi Chint.—Manufactured at Bhatgaon in the valley, and named from its being an imitation of the Indian Chintzes; is of different colours and patterns, not so coarse and heavy as the other kinds, but thin and flimsy. Is used as lining for jackets, and for women’s dresses. A piece six yards long and half a yard broad, costs in Kathmandu about one rupee or up to 1-8-0.

6. Kalâ Chint.—Manufactured chiefly in the hills west of Kathmandu; is coarse, heavy, very rudely dyed and printed, but the broadest of the Nipâlese fabrics. A piece eight yards long by 2½ feet wide, costs about one rupee eight annas.

7. Durkeah Chint.—Manufactured principally at Pokra and Bûtwal; very coarse and heavy, but has a better width than the Chintzes of the valley: used for jacket linings, and women’s dresses; six yards long and two feet broad; costs in Kathmandu about one rupee eight annas.

8. Bâtedâr Chint.—From its spotted pattern it takes its name; is a favorite one of the Bhatgaon Chintzes. A piece of 5½ yards long and half a yard wide, costs about one rupee eight annas.

9. Hara Chint.—Comes almost exclusively from the small valley of Bunapa, 20 miles east of Kathmandu; coarse and hard like the rest.

10. Pârabi Kadi.—Manufactured in the eastern hills, is broader, and somewhat finer than the Noakote article (No. 2.); a good deal of this article is exported from Nepâl to Bhothe. A piece of 14 yards long and 2½ feet wide, costs at present in Kathmandu three rupees.

11. Kassa.—Nipalese imitation of the Indian mulmül or common gauze, a wretched manufacture. Is made in large quantities at Bhatgaon, and generally by the Newars throughout the valley. Is used for making turbans; a piece of eight yards long and six inches wide is sufficient for a pagri, and costs generally four annas. Worn by the poorer Parbattiahs, and some Newars, for the Asiatic turban is not general among this latter race, a small conical skull cap being the most common head-dress among them.

12. Bhangûra.—A very coarse and strong sackcloth or canvas, manufactured from the inner bark of trees, by the people of the hills, and much used in
the valley of Nepal for making grain-bags and sacks, for the transport of merchandize. The poorer people of the hills, who subsist chiefly by woodcutting and carrying, make this cloth in their houses and wear it. I cannot at present ascertain the description of trees whose bark is converted into this clothing, nor the detailed process employed in making it into thread. The hill people say that several different trees furnish the appropriate bark, and that it is necessary to beat and pound it, as for paper making*, previous to spinning it into thread. The cloth is exceedingly strong and durable, and is said to stand wet for a long time without being rotted, or injured in texture. It is brought to Kathmandu, in webs of about five yards long, and 12 inches broad, which costs on an average eight annas.

13. Rhari.—A coarse kind of woollen blanket manufactured by the Bhoteahs of the Nepál hills, and worn by them almost exclusively: is brought to Kathmandu in pieces of 7½ yards long, and 14 inches wide, and costs about three rupees. Its texture is very thick and heavy, but it is admirably suited for the rainy season, to the inclemency of which the burden-bearing, and wood-cutting Bhoteahs, are much exposed. The Newárs do not wear this, nor indeed (as a general practice) any woollen garments. This is also for the most part of domestic manufacture, as every Bhoteah who possesses a few sheep, has a web or two of it made up annually by his family. To add to the warmth and thickness of the Rhari, it is frequently improved by beating wool into it, which gives it the appearance of felt.

14. Bhote.—Has its name from that of the people making and wearing it. The hill countries north of Nyakote and the valley of Nepál, up to the snows, produce this article. It is a thick and soft woollen stuff, half blanket half felt, much warmer and lighter than the rhari, but inferior to it as a protection against rain. A piece seven or eight yards long, by 18 inches wide, costs in Kathmandu about two rupees eight annas.

P. S. On submitting the above to Mr. Hodgson's perusal, he informed me of the existence among the Newárs, of some coloured cotton manufactures, overlooked by me in this list. I have procured specimens of them and of an unnoticed plain manufacture, both of which are added, they are as follows:

15. Putassi.—So called by the Newárs. It is a strong coarse sort of check, generally blue and white, sometimes red and white; is entirely a domestic manufacture, and very rarely procurable for purchase in the bazar, the women not weaving more of it than suffices for their own wear. Is woven exclusively by the Newár women: a piece 5½ yards long, and 2½ feet wide, costs about 2½ current rupees. There are several varieties of this stuff, as to colour and pattern (some of them being striped instead of checked), but all are coarse and heavy.

16. Puniká.—An imitation of the table cloth manufacture of Dinapur, and the variety technically called "Bird's eye." Three or four sorts are manufactured by the Newárs, but all save one are coarse and heavy. It is worn by the better class of Newárs, male and female, and by the Parbattiah sol-

* See the Nepál paper-making process, as described by Mr. Hodgson in the Journal of the Asiatic Society.
Nisaëtus Nipalensis
*type of the new Genus Nisaëtus.*
Summary Description of New Falconidae.

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and the but the tail. Its and its feathers are powerful flight, very
three are slenderer bands brown.

17. Bhim Poga.—(Newari.) An ancient manufacture and article of clothing
of the Newārs, but not worn by them in the present day. Is wore only by
a class of outcasts, and is with difficulty procurable; its only use at pre-
sent is, to roll the corpse of religious persons in previous to being burned.
The warp, is of coarse cotton thread, the woof of soft spun woolen yarn,
in addition to which some fine wool is amalgamated with the web in weaving
it. Its texture is very soft, and is well calculated for a warm in-door wear;
it is too fleecy to be kept out wet. A piece of four feet long by two feet
wide, costs two current rupees.

V.—Summary Description of some New Species of Falconidae. By
B. H. Hodgson, Esq.

Habitat, the central and northern regions of Nepāl.

This species is throughout of a black colour, but less pure below
than above, and the tail is transversely marked with four or five broad
bands of a paler and brownish hue. The cere and toes are bright
yellow. The bill blue, with a black tip; the talons black, and the iris
brown. It is a bird of somewhat slender form, and very graceful and
powerful flight, possessing all the influential characters of the genus,
as now restricted; but distinguished from its type, or chrysactos, by a
slenderer bill, rather longer toes, and longer and more acute talons. It
is two feet five inches from tip of the bill to the end of the tail, and
five feet and a half between the wings; and is chiefly remarkable for
the extreme inequality of size and acuteness of the talons. The orbits
are downy; the sides of the cere clad in short, soft hairs; and the
feathers of the hind head and neck are prolonged into a vague crest
of narrow composed plumes. The cere is rather large, but not heavy;
the bill longer than the head, but slight rather in form. The wings
are equal to the tail, with the fourth quill longest, and all the great ones
strongly emarginated, remotely from their tips; the tips being inclined
a little inwards: tail even, or subrounded.

The tarsi moderate and plumed; toes nude and reticulate, with
three or four scales next the talons, which, as already noticed, are
very acute, and the inner fore and hind ones of extreme length and
curve. The inner fore talon is the largest, then the hind one, next
the central, and the outer fore, least.

The nares are obliquely cleft in the cere, and of an irregular oval
shape, with the upper margin arched and tumid.
This is a shy bird, which adheres exclusively to the wild and mountainous tracts of the hills. Its body is entirely free from offensive odour and vermin, and its prey chiefly the pheasants of the region it frequents, as well as their eggs. Its weight is about 4$\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

Genus Haliaeetus. Species new. *H. Albipes*, (mihi.)

This species is two feet nine inches long, and six feet eight between the tips of the wings. In colour it nearly resembles *Macei*, having the head, neck, and body, pale ruddy brown, darker on the thighs and rump; the scapulars, wings and tail, saturate brown: a large bar of pure white through the centre of the tail: and the cheeks, chin, and throat, hoary. The bill and head are considerably narrower than in the golden eagle, but the bill is fully as long in proportion to the head, and even more so. The toes are longer and less thick than in that species, and the talons rather more curved. In other respects, these members sufficiently resemble those of the type of Aquila. But the tarsi are nearly nude: the acropodia, as well as acrotarsia, wholly scaled; and the toes are cleft. The bill is longer than the head, straight towards the base, and at it nearly twice as broad as high. The lateral compression is, in general, moderate, and the ridge acutish; the hook, large; the cutting edges, even. The cere, large, nude, clad only on the sides towards the base with soft hairs, diverging from the fore angle of the eye. Nostrils, forward, sub-basal, obliquely transverse, irregularly oval, simple, and inclined to a curve at the forward extremity. The tarsi are low, thick, and gummy; plumed over the knee, and a little below it. The toes, longish, unequal, stout, cleft to their origins; but the outer not versatile. To the front, both tarsi and toes are scaled, as already noted; but the junction of the toes and tarsi, as well as the sides and backs of the latter, are reticulate. The central toe is as long as the tarsi. The talons are long, arched, stout, and moderately acute: the hind one being the largest. All are flat below. The wings are very nearly equal to the tail, and have the fourth quill longest. Most of the great quills are strongly emarginated, high up, on both webs. The tail is of medial length, and square. The hook of the bill and the talons are black; the bill blue; the cere yellow: iris hazel brown, and feet pure white.

This species is generally found on the banks of the larger rivers, near to where they issue into the plains, and it preys on fish.

Genus Nisactus, (mihi.)

The birds of this genus are distinguished by wings and tail formed upon the accipitrine model; but their nares are transverse and speculated as in the eagles. Their festooned bills have a form which is osculant between the hawks and buzzards. They have the long slen-
der plumed tarsi of *Limnaeetus*, and the long, acute, and unequal talons of the noblest hawks and falcons, to which moreover they assimilate in their manners, adhering exclusively to the wilds, and killing their own prey, which consists of pigeons, jungle fowls, and partridges.

Species *Nipalensis*, mihi. *Habitat*, the lower hills and Saul forest.

This species is liable to vary very considerably in colour, and is sometimes found possessed of a drooping egret-like crest of two long, narrow, composed plumes. I have several specimens, procured within the past 10 years; but, as I cannot venture to determine the diversities of appearance with reference to sex and age and season, I shall describe a bird in each of the more striking aspects it presents.

1st. This is the uncrested and paler aspect. The head, the neck, the whole body below, with the basal and interior parts of the plumage above, are white; the wings, back, and tail, brown.

The crown of the head, and the dorsal face of the neck, have a pale fawn-coloured smearing. The cheeks, chin, and throat are immaculate; the head, neck, and body, below marked lengthwise, with narrow lines of saturate brown. The thighs are transversely barred with pale fawn; and the plumes of the tarsi, with the lower tail coverts, are unmarked. Several of the lesser wing coverts are broadly margined with white. The wings and tail have seven cross bars of saturate brown, which are vaguely seen above—clearly on the pale inferior surface. The lining of the wings is white, with here and there a heart-shaped brown mark.

2nd. In this, the darker and crested form, the head and neck are brown, with broad white margins,—a change caused by the expansion of the central streaks of No. 1. The cheeks and chin have a triple longitudinal marking of brown, one line proceeding from the chin down the throat, and one from either side of the gape over the cheeks. The transverse bars of the thighs are darker, being brown rather than rufous, and they are extended over the tarsi and inferior tail coverts. Lastly, from the back part of the head proceed two long, narrow, composed plumes of brown colour, forming a very graceful pendant crest.

In both birds, the bill is blue at the base, black at the tip; the cere, greenish yellow; the iris, golden; the toes yellow, and the nails, black. The largest specimen procured by me is 29½ inches long and 60 wide; the smallest is 25 inches long and 49½ wide. The former weighed 4 lbs., the latter, 2 lbs. 12 oz. The intestines vary in length from 46 to 50 inches. There are two small cæa: the gut is much more capacious above than below. The stomach, though, of course, of the solvent type, has a thickish sub-muscular outer coat, and there are soft ridges along its inner surface.
The following characters of the bill and other members and organs apply equally to the foregone, and to that which will be presently described. The bill is shorter than the head, moderately compressed, scarcely arched from the base, and scarcely straight at it, distinctly festooned, and moderately hooked, with the tip of the lower mandible very slightly truncated.

The cere is moderately sized, and covered on the sides with down and soft hairs, which latter scarcely reach forward to the nares. The nares are almost vertical, ovate, angulated, and smallish. The orbits, clad; the cartilage of the brows, nude and prominent; the eye, rather large; the tarsi, long, slender, and plumed; the toes of medial unequal length and thickness; slenderer and longer than in Aquila or in Buteo, not so long or so fine as in the noble hawks and falcons, although, as in them, possessed of rough soles and large balls; acropodia, reticulate, with three or four scales next the talons. The outer toe is connected with the central by a membrane: the talons, long, acute, and unequal, as much so as in the noblest of the hawks; the hind talon, largest, and all flat beneath.

The wings and tail are as strong and firm as in the finest of the Falconine race. The tail consists of 12 equal and broad feathers. The wings reach only to its centre. The fifth quill is the longest: but the fourth and sixth are nearly equal to it; the first considerably, the second and third, moderately and equally, graduated up to the longest; first to sixth inclusively emarginate, high up, on the inner web, and second to seventh, on the outer.

Species Grandis, (mihi.)

I have been able to procure but one species of this bird, which was taken alive, and lived in confinement upwards of three years. It died in December, in full plumage. It was a male, and answered to the following description. The iris is brown; the cere and toes, yellow; the bill, blue, its tip and the talons, black. Head, neck, body, and wings, saturate brown above, beneath white, stained with rufous; the tail, above, slaty-blue. The cheeks, chin, throat, and breast exhibit on each plume a central broad stripe of dark brown, following the shaft, and margined on either side with rufous, on a white ground. The thighs are, herring-boned with brown; and the tarsi and vent, narrowly streaked lengthwise with the same colour. The under tail coverts transversely barred with mixed rufous and brown: and the ground colour of the thighs and tarsi, for the most part, rufous. The lining of the wings is an irregular mixture of the hues of the upper and lower surfaces: or saturate brown and white, stained with rufous. There are six narrow, irregular cross bars on the tail, with
one broad terminal one, of a blackish hue; but the tip itself is pale. The wings and tail, on their inner surface, are whitish, irregularly crossed with freckles of brown, disposed barwise.

The bird measured 27 inches by 60, and weighed 5 lbs.


**Sciuropterus**, Cuvier.

Flying Squirrel, mihi.
Habitat, central and Northern regions of Nipál.

*Sc.* above black, faintly shaded with hoary or rufous; below, white, with a slight tinge of yellow; tail, concolorous with the body above, distinctly distichous, flattened, and rather shorter than the animal. Nude skin of lips, ears, and feet fleshly white. Snout to rump, 11 inches; tail, $8\frac{1}{4}$, without the terminal hair—9, with it; weight, 9 oz.

**Observation**. The sexes are alike: the young are pure black above, pure white below. The species has but six teats, four ventral and two inguinal. The intestines are 85 inches long, or eight times the length of the animal. They have a wide cæcum of nine inches in length, placed at 18 inches only from the anal extremity.


Flying Squirrel, mihi.
Habitat, as above.

*Sc.* Above, intense chesnut, (the fruit;) below and the shoulders, golden red; tail, paler than the body above, and tipped black: a black zone round the eyes, and another embracing the mustachios; chin, pale, with a black triangular spot. Nude parts of skin, fleshly white. Tail, cylindrico-depressed, and considerably longer than the animal.

Parachute, large, enveloping six inches of the tail. Length of the animal, 16 inches, of the tail, 22; weight $3\frac{1}{4}$ lbs.

**Observation**. Sexes, essentially similar in colour. In old animals the chesnut colour tipt hoary, and, in the young, black tipt. In all, the tail, beyond the limits of the parachute, is paler than the superior surface of the body; and the black point is always present. So are the facial marks, though they be less conspicuous in young specimens. The intestinal canal is fourteen feet two inches long, or $10\frac{1}{2}$ times as long as the body; 8.8 to the cæcum; 5.6 below it. The
cæcum is 20 inches long, very capacious, and sacculated. This species breeds in the rains, and seems to produce but one young at a time. In September, the offspring are tolerably independent of their mother, but their flying membrane is much less developed than in maturity.

Genus, Sciurus, Auctorum.
Species, Lokriah, mihi.
Habitat, as before.
Above, saturate brown, tipped with intense orange; below, and the thighs, deep orange. Tail, concolorous with the body above, distichous, flattened, and broad, with a double margin of black and hoary. Length from snout to rump, eight inches. Of the tail, 6½ inches, without the terminal hair, equal to animal with it; weight 8 oz.
Species, Lokroides, mihi.
Very similar to the last, but has the inferior parts rufous hoary; the thighs, concolorous with the body above, and the tail narrower and void of marginal bands.

Observations. The sexes alike in both the above species. Teats, six in both*. Intestines, 66 inches, or but eight times the length of the body, and of uniform calibre throughout. At 15 inches from the anal extremity, a cæcum of four to five inches long, and double the calibre of the intestinal canal.
Genus, Felis, Auctorum.
Species, Viverriceps, mihi. Sharp-faced Cat, mihi.
Habitat, open lowlands of lower region.
F. V. Wild cat, with subviverrine face, small ears, and short, slender, and tapered tail, reaching one inch below the os calcis. Above, and the neck, deep cat gray, or fulvous gray brown. Below, the head, tail, belly, and insides of the limbs, hoary. From the eyes to the root of the tail, four subcontinuous black lines: two more parallel to, and without, them, from the eyes to the shoulders; two perfect bands round the jaws, from the eyes: and three round the front of the neck and breast. Ears, black outside, with a large gray central spot, and rufous hoary on the inside. Body and limbs, wholly covered with roundish full black spots, having a sublinear disposition from the head towards the tail; the feet only, from the os calcis and top of the carpi, being immaculate. The tail exhibits above and below the ground colours of the body. On the upper surface, six or seven transverse bands, the two or three next the body, composed of dots, arranged linearly, and the terminal one being large, forming a blackish tip to the tail on that surface. Length, from snout to rump, 30 inches;

* In the Regne Animal, eight teats are assigned to the squirrels.
of the tail, 10½ inches, or 11¾ with the hair: mean height, 15: weight 17 lbs.

Observations. This species is affined to the Viverræ by the form of its face, and to the Lynxes, by the shortness of its tail, which extends but little below the os calcis. But it has no further resemblance to either: its ears being noticeably short and untufted; its body, full, and its limbs, strong and of medial length. The females are nearly as large as the males, to which they bear a close external likeness. In the catalogue, this animal is called a variety of the Serval; but the inspection of several specimens has satisfied me of its specific novelty. It is distinctly described in the catalogue, though summarily. The intestinal canal is more than three times the length of the body, and the cæcum is an inch long, with the diameter of the large gut, which is sensibly more capacious than the small.

Genus, Felis. Subgenus, Lynchus.
Habitat, all the three regions of Nipál, and abundant in all.

Lynx. Above, pale earthen brown, with a lively tinge of rusty red: below, clear, but pale ferruginous; the body, immaculate; the cubits on both aspects, and the femora externally, crossed with blackish zigzag lines; tail slender, attenuated, and reaching one inch below the os calcis; concolorous with the body towards the base, but towards the tip, paler and canescent, encircled with four or five blackish rings, and tipt with black; lips, jaw, and a zone round the eye, posteally, pure white. Ears, externally intense, rusty red, with black tip and small pencil of the same hue; their lining, rufescent white; feet, from the os calcis and top of the wrist, downwards, pale rusty, immaculate, and blackened posteally.

Snout to rump, 22 inches; mean height, 16 inches; length of tail, 10, without the hair, 11 with it; weight, 14 lbs.

Remarks. The female in this species is considerably less than the male, but neither sex nor nonage affects the marking of the animals. An imperfect state of the fur does so: for when the red-eared Lynx is moulting (so to speak), the sides of the body exhibit some vague, wavy, stripes, having a subvertical direction.

The tufts of the ears are always present, and the molar teeth have tubercles on the inner side, notwithstanding the general assertion of authors that the Lynxes want them. His lengthened limbs, large pencilled ears, and shortish tail proclaim this animal a Lynx. His resemblance indeed to the Chaus of Ruppel is so very striking, that in the catalogue I identified him with that species. From the examination of numberless specimens, I am now satisfied, however, that our ani-
mal is specifically distinct from the Chaus, as well as from the Lybian Caracal, to which in some points of colouring, he bears a nearer likeness than to Chaus. This species is very ubiquitarian, being equally common in all the three regions of Nepal. In the central and northern regions, he represents the wild cat, which is not a denizen of these mountains; nor (I think) of the plains of India.

The red-eared Lynx breeds twice a year, producing three or four kittens at a birth.

The intestinal canal of the species barely exceeds twice the length of the body, and is of nearly equal calibre throughout. The caecum is but half an inch long, with a breadth somewhat less than that of the large gut. Preys on pheasants, partridges, hares, and rats: breeds in the woods, but wanders freely through the standing crops. One of them, a female, took up its abode, and bred, under the residency mansion, in the past year.

Genus Mus, Auctorum.
Subgenus, Rattus, (Mus.)
Species, R. Niviventer. White-bellied Rat, mihi.

Above, saturate black brown: below, pure white; tail, considerably longer than the body, and paled on the inferior surface. Size and aspect of Mus Rattus.

Observations. For some time I took this animal to be a variety merely of the common types, but I have now ascertained that it is a distinct species*. It is invariably pure white below, and even the tail is paled on the abdominal aspect.

The tail, too, is considerably longer than in Rattus.

Species, Rattus. Nemorivagus, mihi. Throughout, dusky brown: the centre of the belly only being paler and hoary blue; the bristles of the back, unusually long and numerous, but not erect or spiny; tail shorter than the body, size large; snout to rump, 12 inches. Length of the tail, 9 1/2; ears, tail, and members strictly assimilating with the ordinary type.

Remarks. The species avoids houses, dwelling in burrows in the fields, and more especially in the small woods. In the catalogue, it is called Setifer, to which species it bears much resemblance. The females have twelve teats.

Genus, Manis auctorum.
Species, Auritus, mihi. Eared Manis.

Habitat, lower and central regions.

* In the central region of Nepal, there are four species of Rat, Decumanus, Rattus, Niviventer, and Nemorivagus. Each distinguished by an appropriate local name, and by some peculiarity of manners.
Manis, with rounded, naked ears, vertically developed; thick tail, more than one third shorter than the body; and scales forming 23 longitudinal series on the body and neck only. Snout to vent, 22 inches. Vent to tip of tail, 13. Weight, 12 to 14 lbs.

Remarks. In the English Regne Animal the genus Manis is said to be devoid of external ears. Presuming the correctness of this statement, I have indicated a remarkable peculiarity of the present species by the specific name Auritus. The external ear, though small, is perfectly distinct; the helix having a breadth or free exsertion from the head, of more than half an inch, and a longitudinal course of one and an eighth inch, in a direction vertically transverse. In the catalogue, this animal is mentioned by the name of the short-tailed or common Indian species, (M. Pentadactyla of Linn.) with which I then supposed it to be identical. It differs however very materially, not only by the presence of ears, but by the much greater number of its scales. In our animal, the longitudinal series consists of 23 for the neck and body alone; there being also 10 for the head, and 19 for the tail. The Manis Javanica of Desmarest is said to have a series of 17 for the body only. I presume our's yet exceeds this number. The general appearance of our animal is sufficiently assimilated to Crassicaudata; the body being rather full, though elongated, and the tail shorter than the body, and very thick at the base.

This latter member is flattened below; broadly convexed above; and its scales are shorter and wider than those of the body. The feet are pentadactylous; the colour of the scales, earthy brown, and of the nude skin, fleshly white. As I have been so fortunate as recently to witness the gestation and parturition of this species, and have been also enabled to note the animal's manners, with its anatomical structure, I purpose, ere long to give the results of these observations; and shall only add, on the present occasion, that if the incation of authors only has led to the assertion, that the genus is earless, and the epithet Auritus affixed to our species thus cease to be characteristic, I would then suggest the trivial name Plurisquamis, or the many-scaled.

Genus Viverra.

Subgenus, Mangusta, (Herpestes.)
Species Auropunctata, mihi.
Habitat, the Central Region.

Mongoose. Of an uniform saturate olive brown, freckled with golden yellow, an aspect resulting from the five-fold annulation of each hair, with black and aureous; cheeks, more or less rusty; fur of the body, short, soft, and adpressed; \( \frac{1}{2} \) an inch below os calcis furred; size small;
tail, shorter than the body, snout to rump, 11 inches; tail, 9 or 10 3/4 with the hair.

Remarks. In this species, as in the following, the tail is pointed, much attenuated from a thick base, and clad in long lax hair. The naked skin of the lips and soles is fleshy brown: the iris, brownish yellow; pupil, variable, but usually oblong and subtransverse; digits, membraned crescentwise to the third phalanges. No anal pouch, but the folds of the skin on the caudal margin of the anus are subdilated and furnished with some scattered glandulous points below the surface, probably subservient merely to the lubrication of the parts. The animal emitting no peculiar odour.

The intestinal canal is 36 inches long, or more than three times the length of the body, and of equal diameter throughout. The cæcum is one inch long, and wide as the gut. The stomach has thickish coats, and is equally broad almost at either end. The molar teeth are bristled with points almost as in the Insectivora. In the catalogue, this animal is identified with the M. Javanica of Horsfield. But in the judgment of very competent persons, it is a distinct species. It differs materially from the common Mongoose of the plains, not only by its smaller size, softer shorter hair, and darker colour, but by a less vermiform habit of the body and shorter toes, the soles of which, in the hinder extremities, are less extended towards the os calcis.

Species *Nyula*, mihi.

The Nyûl of the plains. Habitat, the open Tarai.

Mongoose. Varied, with mixed rich red brown and hoary yellow, the ears, face, and limbs, redder and less maculate; the neck and body below, pure pale yellow; hair of the body and tail, long and harsh, with 10 to 12 rings of alternate brown and yellow; toes, long, and in the hind extremities, nude to the os calcis; tail, concolorous with the body above, pointed and equal to the body in length. Snout to rump, 15 inches; tail, the same, or 18 with the terminal hair.

Remarks. This is the common Mongoose of the Nepalese lowlands, and of North Behar, and which is identified with Cafra vel Grisea in the catalogue, perhaps justly so: I leave it to others to judge. Both of the above species affect the cultivated fields when the crops are standing, and the grass after the crops are down. They live in burrows of their own making; and the structure of their extremities is fosorial, but not typically so; the nails being suited also to climbing trees, at which the animals are sufficiently expert.

The males are larger than the females; and the young darker hued than their parents. The females breed in spring: have four ventral teats, and usually produce three or four young at a birth. The food
of both species consists of snakes, rats, mice, eggs, small birds, and grilli.

Mr. Gray in some recent valuable remarks on the Viverridae, observes, that the Mungooses have "long, slender, and free toes, and anal pouches of greater or less depth." I have again and again examined fresh specimens of Nyúla and of Auropunctata, with a view to these assertions, but the result of my observations is that they are almost wholly erroneous. Neither in the highland nor lowland animal is there any semblance of an anal pouch; and the toes of both are connected by a membrane as far forwards as the hinder edge of the third phalanx. In Nyúla, indeed the toes are elongated, and the hind feet nearly nude to the heel. In Auropunctata, however, the toes have but a medial length, and the fur reaches fully half an inch below the point of the heel.

The fact is, that the structure of the Mongoose, though digitigrade upon the whole, is by no means typically so: and, in the slow stealthy motion to which they are much accustomed whilst questing for their prey, they use the plantigrade action. Their nails are fossorial in the main; and, like most diggers, these animals incline somewhat to the plantigrade structure and movement. In fact, they lead off from the typical digitigrades towards the plantigrades, through the Paradoxuri, the Gluttons and the Rattels; still, however, retaining the shortish toes and lengthened compact metatarsi of the digitigrades.

**Tribe, Plantigrades.**

**Genus, Gulo.** English Regne Animal.


Habitat, Central region of Nipal.

G. Above, earthy brown: below, with the edge of the upper lip, the insides of the limbs, and terminal half of tail, yellow; a white mesial stroke from the nape to the hips, and a white band across the forehead, spreading on the cheeks and confluent with the pale colour of the animal's lower surface: head and body vermiformed; digits and nails of the anterior extremities stronger; half way from the os calcis to the fingers, hairy; fur of two sorts, and abundant, but not lengthened or harsh, nor annulated: tail, cylindrico-tapered, pointed, half the length of the animal; snout to rump, 16 inches; tail, $7\frac{1}{2}$, or 9 with the terminal hair.

**Remarks.** In the catalogue, this animal is identified with the Gulo Orientalis of Java (apud Horsfield), which is at all events, the insular analogue of our's. The cheek teeth are $\frac{4}{4}$ and the animal consequently belongs to genus Gulo, as defined in the English Regne Animal.
The form of this species is decidedly Musteline from the snout to the tail; and not merely the head, with its several external organs, but the skull also bears a close resemblance to those of Martes and Putorius. The anterior limbs, however, are decidedly fossorial, and the hinder suited for walking in a subplantigrade manner: both wholly unfitted for raptatory or scansional purposes.

Genus Gulo. Species new.

G. Urva, mihi. Habitat, Central and Northern Regions.

Urva of the Nipalese.

G. Urva. Above and the sides jackal colour, or fulvous iron gray; abdominal aspect of the neck, chest, and belly, from the gape to the shoulders, white; size and aspect of the preceding; fur of two sorts, and very abundant; hair very long, and laxly set on; quadrangular with black and fulvous; anterior and posterior extremities of equal strength, and the nails simply ambulatory, being suited neither to rapition, scansion, nor digging; for the rest, the general form of the feet as in the preceding,

P. S. The whole of the above animals were discovered by me several years back (1823-1829), and might have been described much sooner, had I not deemed it improper to hazard the multiplication of imaginary species by characterising from one or two specimens. There is not one of these species of which I have not procured several specimens at all seasons, and either alive or just killed. The indications of the catalogue are such as to entitle me to date from its publication (originally in 1829). But, in truth, my object has been, and is, much less to share in the scramble of nomenclators, than to ascertain the habits and structure of species.

Nothing is so vague at present as the true limits of species, and as my first aim was rather to find resemblances than differences, so perhaps it might wisely have been my last.

If, however, any person who chances to lay hold upon a single shrivelled skin, may forthwith announce a new animal, the real student of nature must be content to leave what is called discovery to the mere nomenclator; and the science must continue to groan under an increasing weight of fictitious species.

B. H. H.
VII.—**Note on the occasional existence of fresh water on the surface of the ocean. By Mr. C. Brownlow.**

It is stated in a recent paper by Arago, on the subject of Artesian Wells, upon the authority of one of our most accurate observers—Buchanan—that, when on his way to India, he found fresh water more than one hundred miles from land, to the eastward of the Bay of Bengal. Arago has adduced this fact to prove, that springs rise to the surface of the globe from unknown depths. He is doubtless correct in this assertion, as long as he confines his observations to land phenomena—many causes, however, led me to doubt that fresh water could rise to the surface at sea, among which may be enumerated the effects of tides, the disturbance and friction of one fluid passing up through the other, and the strong affinity which aids their combination while thus in motion.

The fact that fresh water deposited in the shape of rain, remains unmixed with the salt water beneath, for many hours, during calm weather; that it is found at sea, around the mouths of large rivers, during serene days, at an almost incredible distance, led me to seek for an explanation of Buchanan's fact, in some less embarrassing theory than the one which Arago has adopted. I accordingly applied to Mr. Sinclair, one of the most experienced and intelligent of the members of the Pilot service, who acquainted me with the following fact.

In the month of October, 1803, in connection with Branch Pilot Bason, he took charge of the Gungawa, an Arab ship, from Muscat, laden with horses. The passage of the vessel had been long and tedious, and they were deliberating on throwing their horses overboard, when one of the men, who had been bathing on a hatch, came and reported that the water along side was fresh; a bucket was thrown over, which went something below the surface, and the water brought up was salt!—on further examination, it was found that the water on the surface was perfectly fresh. The vessel was supplied from this source, and the cargo saved. Another member of the same body informs me, that during the Burmese war, he obtained fresh water thus when taking troops to Rangoon*.

It appears more reasonable to account for this fact, by referring to the increased impulse of the waters discharged from the Ganges during the rains, to the quantity of fresh water actually deposited on the surface of the sea, at this season of the year, and to the laws of the specific gravity which determine the relative positions of fluid bodies, than to adopt a theory which at once sets these aside, and does violence to an established principle in physics: for these reasons I think Arago's inference open to objection.

* These instances occurred over that remarkable part of the bay, the "swatch of no ground," the depth of which renders Arago's theory still more untenable!
VIII.—Note on the Cervus Duvaucelii of Cuvier, or C. Elaphoides and Bahriya of Hodgson.

In the number of the Journal for last November, p. 648, Pl. VIII. Mr. Hodgson has given the specific characters, and a figure of the head and horns, of a deer which he describes as a new species under the name of *Cervus Elaphoides*. The author of this notice came to know this species in February 1834, from a fine specimen shot by Mr. Money in a jhil near Muzafernagar, in the Kadir of the Ganges. Finding no mention* made of it in Hamilton Smith’s very complete Synopsis of the tribe in *Griffith’s* Translation of the Animal Kingdom, he was, like Mr. Hodgson, led to consider it as an undescribed species, to which he attached, in his collection, the specific name of *C. Enclodocerus*, and “Bara Sinha,” of the natives. But he subsequently found that it was known to Cuvier as a distinct species. In the fourth volume of the *Ossemens Fossiles*, third edition, p. 505, the horns of the animal are described under the name of *C. Duvaucelii*, in honour of his step-son, who sent them to Cuvier from India; and in Plate XXXIX of the same volume, he gives outlines of three varieties of horns (figs. 6, 7, and 8,) which put it beyond all doubt that the *C. Duvaucelii* of the *Oss. Fossi.*, and the *Cervus Elaphoides* of Hodgson, are the same species. Cuvier’s words are these:

“Cet infatigable naturaliste M. Duvaucel, me met encore à-même de faire connoître à mes lecteurs deux espèces de cerf des Indes entièrement nouvelles pour les naturalistes.

“La première, &c. (he then goes on to describe the C. Wallichii.) Nous n’avons que les bois de l’autre espèce, mais ils suffisent parfaitement pour la caractériser.

“A la première vue on les prendroit pour ceux d’un vieux cerf commun, et bien des voyageurs ont dû s’y tromper, mais c’est toute une autre courbure, et une autre distribution d’andouillers.

“Le Merrain se dirige d’abord un peu un arrière et de côté, et de sa partie supérieure se recourbe en avant, en sorte que sa concavité est en avant comme au cerf de Virginie; mais cette courbure n’y est pas si forte.

“Il ne donne qu’un seul andouiller de sa base, dirigé en avant.

“Les autres naissent de sa partie supérieure et postérieure, et se dirigent en haut, et un peu en arrière et en dedans.

“ Ils sont en nombre de deux, ou de trois, et l’inférieur qui est ordinairement le plus grand, se bifurque ou se trifurque suivant l’âge; en sorte qu’au total on peut compter dans les bois que nous avons sous les yeux, et que nous représentont pl. xxxix. figs. 6, 7, et 8, de cinq à sept cors à chaque perche; quelquefois il y’a un petit tubercule dans l’aisselle de l’andouille de la base.”

* Except in the note p. 116, vol. IV. where Hamilton Smith quotes Cuvier’s name, with a conjecture that it applied to some species of the group Rusa.
Inscription at Bamiyan. (See p. 188)

Copper figure dug up near Bushire

*Cuscu*

Buddhist image from Tingenug (p. 157)

Bharadvaja Cee (oss. fss. IV. P.XXXIX)
"Il est fort a desirer que l'on obtienne promptement une description du pelage de ce beau cerf; mais en attendant nous croyons devoir lui donner le nom du naturaliste qui l'a fait connoître, et nous l'appellerons Cervus Duvaucelii."

Copies of Cuvier's figures are annexed, (see Pl. VI. figs. 6, 7, 8) which differ only from Mr. Hodgson's to the extent within which varieties dependent on age and individuals range.

The designation of Cervus Elaphoides, must therefore give place to that of C. Duvaucelii.

The chief anatomical peculiarities of the head, as compared with the Jarao of the Himaláyahs, taken as the type of the Rusas, are these. The head is narrower for its length, and more elegant in its proportions, than in the Jarao. The pedicles of the horns are shorter, and more approximated on the brow. The muzzle is longer and more slender. The inter-maxillaries are broad, as in the Rusas, and their ascending apophysis joins on to the nasals by a wide base. The nasals are slender, and run up into the frontal in a line with the anterior margin of the orbits; in the Jarao, the point of union is considerably lower, their lower extremity projects a little way beyond the inter-maxillaries, and a re-entering angle is left between them at their tips. The nasolachrymary figure is a wide trapezium, whereas in the Himaláyah Jarao, it is a long triangular slit. The depression for the suborbital sinus occupies less space than in the Jarao, but it is deep and well defined. The lachrymal bone, at the upper angle of the depression in the C. Duvaucelii, is perforated by a very large oval hole; whereas in the Jarao it is imperforate. The chaffron has a slight rise on the nasals, sinks considerably in a transverse hollow between the orbits, and then starts with great prominence in the ridge which runs along the suture of the frontals, so that the plane of this ridge cuts that of the parietals nearly at a right angle. In the Jarao, the sink between the orbits is shallower, the ridge less salient on the frontals, and the angle more obtuse.

With regard to the indigenous names of the C. Duvaucelii, Mr. Hodgson gives the Nipálese name of Bahraiya, and says it is known in the western taráí as the Mahá. To C. Elaphus of the Nipálese sál forest, he gives the name of Bára sinha.

There is great confusion in the Indian designations of the deer tribe. Bára Sinha is a notable example. Hamilton Smith applies it (his Baren-sing'ha) to the C. Hippelaphus, one of the Rusas; Mr. Hodgson to one of the Elaphine group; and in the Tarais to the west of the Gauges, so far as our experience goes, it is given to the Cervus Duvaucelii or Elaphoides, of Hodgson. That it is inapplicable to the C. Elaphus, it is perhaps sufficient to mention, that the name of Bára Sinha is very common in the Tarai westward of the Ganges, whereas the Cervus Elaphus is quite unknown in this tract, so far as we happen to know. Sportsmen westward from the Ganges, call the C. Duvaucelii, the Bára Sinha, from the snags and antlers being frequently twelve in number, in the adult animal, and this seems a very good reason for the name, Mahá, which Mr. Hodgson
Note on the Cervus Duvaucelii of Cuvier. [April,

applies to the species, we have always understood to belong to the Rusa of the Himalayas; this name being given in Sub-Himalayan tracts; and Jarao (or Jerow) in the interior of the Hills, to one or more species, but these strictly confined to the Rusa group. Mr. Hodgson's authority, as the first among Indian Zoologists, will give great weight to such names as he attaches to the deer tribe; and it is most desirable, that those most generally in use should be selected. If those who have the opportunity, in different districts, were to communicate the names by which they know the different species of the deer tribe, much of the vagueness which at present attaches to the native designations might be got over.

The following names are in common use in the plains and hills westward of the Ganges, their synonyms are also given.

_Merg_, applied, as a general designation for all the deer tribe; _Cervidae_ and _Capræae_.

_Jhank_, applied to all the Cervidae, but more especially to the large species.

_C. Duvaucelii_, Cuv., and _Elaphoides_ of Hodg., called _Bava Singha_, _Buhraiya_ of the Nipalese, Hodg.

_C. Hippelaphus?_ and _Aristotélis_, or _Rusas_, called _Muhd_ in the Sub-Himalayan tracts, and _Jarao_ (Jerow) in the interior of the mountains. Syns. _Sawmer_ of Bengal and _Jhank_ of Nepal.

_C. Ratwa_, Hodg., called "Kukar"—_Ratwa_ of Nepal.

_A. Ghoral_, Hardw., _Ghoral_ everywhere.

_A. Thar_, Hodg., called "Sarao" (Sarowa) in the hills between the Ganges and Tonse; between the Tonse and Sutlej called "Eimoo," the Thár of Nepal.

_A. Tetraóornis_, called "Choaka" or "Chousinga." _Chikara_ on the authority of Hardw.; but this name applied to the

_A. Acuticornis?_ or _Subulate?_ an elegant small sized antelope, with horn on the females, numerous about Delhi, and there called "Chikara."

_Capra_ Jhural, Hodg. (Quadrimamnns? see p. 234) called _Tehr_ and _Thár_; _Jhural_ of Nepal.

_Ibex?_ called Sakeen in Kanawar. This species, which is strictly an _Ibex_, is got along with the _Bhuroor_. It does not appear to be known to Mr. Hodgson; Major Kennedy had two stuffed specimens at _Subatu_.

_Onis_ Nahoor, Hodg., called _Bhuroor_ near the source of the Ganges; _Nahoor_ of Nepal.

The _Antilope Cervicapra_ (Hiran; ) _Cervus axis_, (Cheetul; ) _C. Porcinus_, (Parah; ) _Antilope Pica_ or _Damalis Resina_, (Nilgau,) are so generally known by these names, that it is hardly necessary to mention them.

_Note._—The animal to which the above principally refers was known to Mr. Hodgson from 1820, when there was a live one in the Durbar Menagerie at Katmandhu, though not accurately observed by him, he had, and used, the occasion of another specimen being there in 1825, to note the characters of the beast. Monsieur Duvaucel was his friend and correspondent, and was assisted by him to the utmost; two of his collectors lived in his house at Katmandhu for a year (1827-8,) and were furnished out of his own stores with sundry specimens.

M. Duvaucel may therefore have procured the beast from him, or through him; it is certain that Mr. H. knew this stag before the latter came to India.—_Ed._

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The above observations were made with a Barometer in every respect the same as the one used on the 21st and 22nd of December last, except that the bulb of the attached Thermometer is inserted in the Barometer cistern to better ascertain the Temperature of the mercury. The reduction of the Barometer to 32° is made by the formula \( t - 32 \times 0.003 \) and a constant 0.030 added for capillarity.

H. B.
Note.—On referring to my manuscript meteorological table for the month of March, I find that an error of .05 has been made in the printed entry of the two barometers at 10 a.m. on the 21st, which should stand 29,899 and 29,947. After correcting these, it will be found that to reduce Mr. Barrow’s observations to terms of the barometer I have hitherto registered .015 must be added to the corrected column at 32°; and to compare them to the new standard by Newman .029 must be deducted.

These discrepancies are nothing more than index errors; but as it is a matter of some importance to know which gives the correct altitude, and why an instrument commissioned with such precautions from the best maker at home should stand three or four hundredths of an inch lower than tubes made, filled, boiled, and measured in Calcutta; I have with Mr. Barrow’s aid remeasured the scales of the several instruments respectively from 0 to the 30 inch mark, by a standard brass scale of Troughton’s at the temperature of 95°.

Mr. Barrow’s scale was laid off by himself exactly. 30,000 inches.

My compensation barometer to a scratch on the glass originally marked by myself with the same care, was found on remeasurement to be quite correct. 30,000

Newman’s Strd. 1st trial 29,658 + 1,176—0.814 = 30,020
  2nd do. 28,746 + 1,176 + 0.100 = 30,022
  3rd do. 28,848 + 1,176 ...... = 30,018

The principal difficulty in measuring the column of Newman’s instrument was to find the distance from the lower end of the ivory cone (or the level of the mercury in the cistern) to the upper part of the cistern: this I made by several trials 1,173 to 1,176; Mr. Barrow made it 1,182 and 1,183; Mr. Pearson 1,172: I have taken it at 1,176 as the mean, and feel confident the error of the whole measurement does not amount to 0.005 inch. The readings therefore of this instrument in every instance will be .020 too low.

I am reluctant to suppose Mr. Newman should have sent me a barometer at such a vast cost so carelessly verified; but such seems to be the case from the above measurement, which is confirmed by the register; for allowing .009 for the expansion of the brass scale, and adding it to the index error above, we find almost the exact amount by which the new instrument stands lower than my former standard, which latter has been compared by three opportunities with the Royal Society’s barometer and found to agree very closely. Mr. Newman neglected to make this comparison, although I particularly requested it.

J. P.
X.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.
Wednesday Evening, the 4th May, 1836.

The Hon'ble Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the Chair.

In reference to the resolution of the last meeting, the President stated, that he had addressed the following letter to the Governor General, whose acceptance of the office of Patron he had now the pleasure to announce.

Asiatic Society's Apartments, May 2nd, 1836.

My Lord,

I have the honor to inform you, that at a Meeting of the Asiatic Society, held on the 6th April last, it was resolved "that the Right Honorable Lord Auckland should be respectfully solicited to accept the office of Patron;" and it was further determined, "that the President of the Society should be requested to communicate their wish to his Lordship, and to ascertain his pleasure on the subject."

As President of the Society, I have the honor to communicate their wishes, and respectfully to request you will inform me whether it is your Lordship's pleasure to accept this Office.

I am, My Lord,
Your Lordship's most obedient servant,

E. Ryan.

The Right Hon'ble Lord Auckland.

Government House, May 3rd, 1836.

SIR,

I have to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, and to assure you, that I gratefully accept the honorable title of Patron of the Asiatic Society, and shall be glad if, at any time, I should find it in my power to promote the objects of so excellent and so interesting an Institution.

I am,
Most faithfully, &c. your's,

Auckland.

Hon'ble Sir Edward Ryan,

&c. &c. &c.

Lieut.-Col. Caulfield, proposed at the last Meeting, was ballotted for, and unanimously elected a Member.

Mr. R. W. G. Frith was proposed as a member of the Society by Mr. James Prinsep, seconded by Mr. W. Martin.

Mr. William Bruce, proposed by Mr. Pearson, seconded by Babu Ram Comul Sen.

Mr. James Prinsep proposed Dr. Lumqua, as an Honorary Member on the occasion of his return to China, seconded by Dr. Corby.

Read a letter from J. C. Morris, Esq., Secretary Madras Literary Society, acknowledging the receipt of the Index, and the Oriental Works lately transmitted.

The Secretary submitted to the Meeting the Proceedings of the Committee of Papers and Museum Committee, relative to the system of paid Curatorship, of which the experimental year sanctioned on the 6th May, 1835, had just expired.

[These proceedings are given at length below.]

The President reminded the Meeting of the alternatives suggested by the Report of the Committee: Members were to determine whether a paid Curator should still be maintained, under the certainty of the income of the ensuing year not being sufficient to cover even the ordinary expenses, including the volume now in the press;—whether donations could be reckoned upon;—or whether the vested capital should be touched. Babu Ram Comul Sen had proposed, that the latter should be devoted to the publication of the Researches, an application which might accord with the original intention of the donors. There was still an alternative—would any zealous Member undertake to look after the Museum gratuitously? All other offices in the Society were gratuitous; the Secretary, the Treasurer, although their labours were very heavy, even the Librarian, Dr. Buklini, received no pay. If none offered to lend their aid, it
was evident they must have a paid Curator, if the Museum, which was so essential to the prosperity of the Society, were to be maintained at all.

Babu Ram Comul Sen explained, that the invested sum of 17,000 Rupees was part of a legacy of 20,000 by the late Mr. Bruse; this sum the Society had resolved to reserve, and to devote the interest of it to the printing of the Transactions; he therefore now wished to see the sum made up to the full amount once more; the interest 1000 per annum, would pay for the publication of a volume in four years, about the average hitherto issued.

The Secretary had, with the President, misunderstood his colleagues' meaning in Committee; he seconded his motion now most warmly; as long as the principal remained, it put the Society beyond the danger of dissolution: even if deserted by all its Members, there was a fund to keep up the rooms, the library, and the name of the Institution at least.

The publication of the present volume was the chief cause of the deficit in our budget: it would be an expensive volume from the number of plates; but the prosperity of the Society was even more concerned in the immediate and full publication of the fossil discoveries in Northern India, than in the maintenance of the Museum. It should be remembered, that M. Bouchez, the Assistant and Working Curator, would be competent to set up all new specimens, and preserve the present collection; and could Dr. Pearson be persuaded to lend his gratuitous supervision for the next year, after that the printing might be suspended, and be might again be put on pay. There was still another plan by which 1200 rupees might be save1, that of making Members pay for the Journal now issued gratis to them, or rather paid for out of the general fund.

Captain Pemberton and Dr. Corbyn considered the support of the Museum as a main cause of the Society's flourishing condition, and thought it would bring an accession of Members that would cover the expence; they therefore moved as an amendment:—

**Resolved, that with reference to the probable advantages in a pecuniary way to the Society, from the continuance of the Museum, and in the absence of any other alternative, it is expedient that the Curator's establishment should be maintained another year on the present scale; and that the funds necessary for its support, in case of a deficiency of income, should be supplied from the money now invested in paper.**

The amendment was carried by a majority of seven to five, the President not voting.

**Library.**

Read a letter from His Excellency General Saint Simon, Pair de France, Governor of the French establishment in India, forwarding on behalf of Mon-leur Garcin De Tassy, a copy of his edition of the text of Kāmvāpa in Hindustani, of which he had before presented the translation; with other copies for distribution.

Journal Asiatique, Nos. 83, 86, 87, 88, were presented by the Asiatic Society of Paris.

Madras Journal of Literature and Science, Nos. 10 and 11, were presented by the Mad. Lit. Soc. and Auxiliary of the Royal Asiatic Society.

Meteorological Register for March 1836—by the Surveyor General.

The Indian Journal of Medical Science, No. 5—by Dr. F. Corbyn.

Read a letter from Dr. Lunqua, presenting to the Society 352 volumes of valuable and useful Chinese books, of which the following is a catalogue.

No.

1. 5 vols. Tai hok chung yong, 1st vol. works of the grandson, Tsū-sū, and of a disciple of Confucius. 


Shiong mung-hár-mung, 4th and 5th vols. ditto grandson's scholar's work Mang.

2. 5 vols. Tai hok chung yong eki, &c. Explanation of the above, 5 vols.

3. 3 vols. Hao-king, Confucius' works on moral duties.
4. 3 vols. Shi king, Ancient records collected by Confucius.
5. 7 vols. Shi king.}
6. 6 vols. Lai ki.
7. Chan-tsoo, Confucius' works, moral tales.
8. 2 vols. Kiu yu, Ditto and his disciples' conversations on the creation.
10. } 320 years since.
11. 8 vols. Y-shap yat tsu, Chronology of Kings' Ministers from the beginning to the Ming dynasty inclusive.
12. 10 vols. Quatang-san yi, Statistics and Customs of the Canton provinces, a new work of some reputation.
13. 32 vols. Kad Tai Sing, Laws of the Tai Sing dynasty.
15. 4 vols. Sai-un-lak, Collection of difficult cases, with decisions.
16. 5 vols. Long to kung ung, of the same nature.
17. 4 vols. Tsang sai un lok, additions to No. 15.
19. 1 vol. Yan-fu-chi namin, the compass of childhood, (on their diseases.)
20. 5 vols. Kam-kam-mo fo, on Anatomy and Surgery, with prescriptions.
21. 1 vol. Yan fu fiht fei, (Director of childhood.) medical.
22. 6 vols. Yan fu tsap shiu, Collections of all the authors on diseases of childhood.
23. 6 vols. Y-fung pui cho, a glossary of medicaments and ailments.
24. 8 vols. Wan pung fei chhan, prescriptions for the cure of every case surgical and medical, of all ages.
25. 4 vols. Na chan phaon, on the moral preservation of the life, and on sanctification.
26. 6 vols. Chhang tsu sing cha yet shu, Chang tsu sing on horoscopy, or selection of fortunate days for building, marrying, &c.
27. 6 vols. Pu-k-yik, on fortune telling.
28. 9 vols. Son-fa, the accountant's guide.
29. 2 vols. To-tak-king, book of the To (philosophers) religion.
31. 6 vols. Kong-su-loi fu, complete epitome of Natural History.
32. 5 vols. Shing yi hao, mythology of heaven, earth, animals, mankind, (a kind of Lempriere,) for enriching language, with anecdotes.
33. 2 vols. Ying-na, abridged general history.
34. 8 vols. Yong chi tsuim chia, Yong chi's collection of poetical extracts.
35. 4 vols. Ch'o-tsii, specimens of elegant prose writing, by Cho-tsu.
37. 4 vols. Tsim long tsii, ditto of best poetry on the affections.
42. 5 vols. Shu-pam. Forms of petitions, letters, &c.
43. 20 vols. Lao-tsing san tsii, (a new work,) customs, ceremonies, letters, &c.
45. 5 vols. Sii-shii king meul shi. Novelties of the four seasons.
46. 2 vols. Si-yuk. Gems of good writing.

The following Burmese and Talain manuscripts were presented by Capt. W. Foley:

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Asiatic Society.
PASCAL AUCHER'S Armenian translation of MILTON'S Paradise Lost, was presented by Mr. JOHANNES AVDALL.

Mr. Hodgson, Resident in Nepal, forwarded to the Secretary several specimens of the drawings prepared for his proposed Illustrations of the Geology of Nepal.

Subscribers had held back from patronizing his work because no mention is made of price in Mr. H.'s Prospectus. Without consulting publishers at home, this cannot be done with any certainty; but as a guarantee that the charge shall be below actual cost, Mr. Hodgson states that he is willing to devote 3000 rupees towards the publication, of what has already cost him so much to accumulate. Any subscriber may withdraw hereafter should he disapprove of the terms; in fact, as he quaintly but truly observes, he does not seek to put himself under obligation to others, but rather others under obligation to him, by his devotion of time, labour, and money to this grand object.

Resolved, that the Asiatic Society subscribe for two copies of Mr. Hodgson's work, and that the Prospectus be circulated among its Members.

The Second volume (or rather the preface) of the Saiirl Mutakherin, was presented by Maulavi ABDULMOJID the editor and publisher.

Museum and Antiquities.

An elephant's tooth, carved all over with images of Gautama, an object of considerable curiosity and antiquity, procured in a cave near Moulema, was presented by Captain W. Foley.

Mr. Wallich presented in the name of Captain Bogle, a wooden standard taken from the Bhotia army.

(See Plate VI. fig. 4.) It is a bit of plank mounted on a staff, painted red, with an image of Buddha, belligerent (?) on one side, and a Tibetan inscription on the back, copy of which has been sent to Mr. Csoma Körös for translation. "The Demangari Rāja always had it carried before him with great solemnity, and under the special keeping of a large guard of honor, who however in the affair of Subang-kotta ran away without it, and it fell into our hands."

A Burmese musical instrument was presented by Ensign Phayre.

A small antique Persian image, dug up by a peasant near Bushire. By Capt. J. Heunell. This is depicted as fig. 3, of Plate VI.

Mr. Avdall presented three Arsakian and one Sassauian coin.

Literary.

Read a note from Johannes Avdall, Esq. on the reverse legend of some of the Indo-Scythic coins found by Mr. C. Masson at Begrám in the Kohistan of Kábul.

A census of the Armenian population of the city of Calcutta was also presented by Mr. J. Avdall.

Read a letter from Ensign Newbold, forwarding for presentation to the Society an account of the 3rd of the four Menankábowe states on the Malay Peninsula.

Read a letter from Major James Low, dated Province Wellesley, 10th February, forwarding two manuscripts on Siamese literature, games, and music, and on the nature of the Siamese government, with specimens of Burmese and Malayan music.

* In any other country it would be termed national object, but here such a term might be misapplied! In France, the Government, alias the nation, publishes M. Jacquemont's works,—purchases M. Ventura's collections,—devotes an annual grant to the Asiatic Society of Paris of 12,000 francs, as part and parcel of the national instruction system.—We need not pursue the parallel.
These manuscripts form a part of a mass of papers which the author had compiled many years ago, with the view to giving a connected account of Siam. The publications of Mr. Crawfurd and others on that country, which satisfied public curiosity then, caused him to lay them aside; the present however contain facts either new or more circumstantially detailed than hitherto.

A brief description of Masud, or Farid Shakarganj, was received from Munshi Mohan Lal, at Dera Ghazi Khan.

Physical.

Captain W. Foley submitted a paper, illustrated by specimens, and a map of the geology of the country in the neighbourhood of Maulmein, (correctly Maulamyeng.)

It was from a cave in the limestone range on the left bank of the Gyeng river, the Damatha cavern, that the elephant's tusk, carved with images of Buddha, and the Pali manuscripts above mentioned, were obtained.

A paper by B. H. Hodson, Esq. on three new species of Paradoxurus, found in the Nipal valley, was submitted.

A collection of 148 mounted birds, six birds' nests with eggs, six mammalia, one reptile, and the head and legs of various birds, were presented by R. Inglis, Esq.

These formed part of the Macao museum lately abandoned. It had been proposed to transfer the whole collection to Calcutta, and as far as concentration is beneficial, it is to be regretted that this munificent intention had been abandoned.

A collection of mounted birds, procured by the Curator, in the neighbourhood of Calcutta.

Specimens of shells, presented by Wm. Bruce, Esq.

A stuffed Alligator, preserved and presented by Dr. Evans. A small specimen was also exhibited to the Meeting by the same gentleman, who remarks:

"This is a specimen of the broad-nosed species, common to most parts of India, and the kind generally found frequenting old tanks, jheels, and nallahs, and that seldom attains to any very large size. It measures eight feet two inches, and is evidently not a very young animal.

"In comparing it with the small specimen in the glass case, which was taken alive from the Hooghly, it would appear to be a distinct species; as I find a considerable difference in the proportionate length of the tails of the two animals, and also in the number of the spinous processes, the large, having only 35 from the insertion of the thigh to the tip of the tail, while the smaller has 42. The number of carinated tubercles on the neck varies also, but this latter deviation may arise from difference of age or other circumstances; they both correspond as to number and position of their teeth, the upper jaws having 36, the lower 30, and so disposed as to alternate with each other when closed: the larger animal has again two perforations at the extremity of the nose for the admission of the two long sharp teeth of the lower jaw, which are not perceptible in the smaller one.

"Both have the power of diffusing a strong musky odour when irritated, and which I find is derived from two glands opening externally, and situated on the inner side of the ramus of each jaw."

A skull of a Chinese, presented by Mr. W. Carr.

An Albatross, and a collection of shells and insects, presented by Mr. J. T. Pearson.

Proceedings of the Committee of the Papers and the Museum Committee, assembled at the Asiatic Society's Rooms on Friday, 29th April, 1836.

The Curator read the following Report upon the Progress of the Museum during the last year:

In reporting on the present state of the Museum, we must revert to what it was last year, when the Society appointed me its Curator; in order to enable you to form an opinion as to the usefulness or otherwise of that appointment.
Many here present may recollect at that time the general bad state of the Museum; the dark and dirty condition of the cabinets; the want of arrangement of the specimens; and the dampness of the apartments containing them; altogether giving a deplorable proof of neglect: and few who do recollect this, will, I hope, be inclined to doubt that a great improvement has been effected.

The first step was to divide the Museum into two distinct parts; one consisting of the works of art; the other of the productions of nature. The numerous valuable specimens of the former, being lost in the rooms below, were removed into the entrance hall, stair-case, and gallery, where they now are, and where they are seen, as we all know, to the greatest advantage: and their removal allowed of the apartments they occupied being entirely devoted to the Natural History portion of the Museum.

On examination, the specimens of Natural History were found, for the most part, in a very neglected state. In osteology, they were numerous, and some of them very valuable; but many were more or less mutilated, and the teeth of the skulls lost; while no catalogue, nor even memorandum, of the greater portion could be found. The first care was to remedy this: the broken specimens were repaired, so far as they could be repaired; and a catalogue was made, which includes every thing concerning them, that can be gleaned from the Researches, and other quarters; whether, as to the specimens themselves, or the names of the donors. In making this catalogue, some difficulty was experienced from the want of any notices of the specimens; and from there being no objects of comparison, by which to discover the species of an animal of which we had, perhaps, but a horn, or a single bone.

While this was going on, attention was also directed to the formation of a cabinet of reference to compare the fossil remains, in which the museum is so rich, with the living congeneres, of the animals to which they belonged. This is, in its very nature, a tedious and laborious work; but already there have been articulated and set up, skeletons of a monkey, weasel, cat, rat, musk-deer, horse, parrot, and tortoise. The rhinoceros, which was before but badly put together, has been made the most of that its condition would allow; and an elephant's skeleton; and those of another horse and tortoise are being prepared. As this branch of the museum is of the greatest importance, I am anxious to render it as complete as possible; and with this view, have written to various individuals, likely to further our object, who have promised the bones of the camel, wild buffalo, large deer of various kinds, the large bullock of Upper India, the tapir, and the alligator; and we may expect soon to receive them.

The most valuable specimens in the osteological section of the museum are, the skulls of the Malacca tapir; the Dugong; the Van Diemen's Land tiger, (whose dentition has been heretofore mistaken in all works of Natural History, until it was corrected in a paper, published last year in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, written from this very specimen;) and the jaw-bone of the gigantic ape shot by Capt. Cornerfoot in Sumatra; a specimen unique, and valuable as the most lasting, and most striking remains of an animal so strange, that did not this exist, the whole story might be looked upon as a fable.

The specimens of mammalia are but few in number, and their condition on my taking charge was any thing but satisfactory. Some were in such a state of decay as to admit of nothing being done to improve them. Such was the case of the Thylacinus Cynocephalus, (Van Diemen's Land tiger,) to which I before alluded, its skull and paws having been all that could be retained,—a circumstance, however, in the individual instance which turned out fortunate, as thereby its dentition was discovered. This department of the Museum is increasing, and in a few years I hope it will be worthy of the Society.

In ornithology, although the specimens were rather numerous, their condition was so bad that four-fifths were thrown away. But great accessions have been made during the year; and we are promised specimens from all quarters. I have myself procured in the neighbourhood of Calcutta more than 100 birds; and these, together with several valuable donations, have put the ornithological department on a tolerably respectable footing; and I am therefore proceeding with the catalogue. This catalogue I propose to make something more than a mere numerical one, having been favoured with the valuable notes of Mr. C. W. Smith, with liberty to make extracts from them; which, together with my own
observations during several years, will enable me to correct many errors, both of description and habit, that have been committed by the best naturalists regarding the birds of India. I may here state, that by following this plan, the Catalogue of the Museum of the Asiatic Society may be made a work of authority, such as to do credit to the Institution by which it is published.

The reptiles in the Museum are numerous and valuable; but they cannot at present be properly displayed, owing to the want of jars, in which to place them. Among them are many of the rarer Indian serpents. To my friend Lieut. Chiene, the Society is indebted for many specimens during the past year.

In fishes the collection is not very extensive, though it contains some of the rare kinds. These also cannot be shewn, until our supply of jars and bottles shall arrive from Europe. In this branch, Lieut. Montriore, of the Indian Navy, and Mr. Shaw, of the Surveying Vessel Flora, have been the principal donors.

There was no cabinet of insects belonging to the Society. The whole of the specimens in this department consisted but of a few preserved in spirits; and those purchased along with the Sylhet collection of shells. During the rains I employed my servants to collect; and they procured what may be considered a fair sample of the Bengal Coleopterous and Hemipterous insects of the season. They consist of very many genera and species, and in individual specimens amount to several hundreds in number. The collection is purposely rich in duplicates, to allow of some being placed in the cabinet of the Society; and sent to various societies and scientific men. I am also selecting for the Society’s cabinet a series of duplicates from my own; which, as it is the result of the labour of nine years in Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, contains many specimens but rarely to be procured. At present our whole collection is scarcely large enough for systematic arrangement; the specimens therefore are placed according to their locality and donors; a plan which has also the advantage of marking their geographical distribution.

The American land and fresh-water shells, presented by Dr. Lea, and those from Sylhet; together with a few specimens presented by Lieut. Hutton, and a small number of marine shells, composed the Society’s collection of shells. We have also had a few presented during the year; and I have been enabled to add considerably to this branch of the Museum, by collecting the land, fresh-water, and marsh shells of the neighbourhood of Calcutta, and by transferring duplicates from my own cabinet.

I may sum up this part of the report by stating, that, during the past year there have been added to the Society’s Museum, in osteology, 19 crania, nine complete skeletons, and between three and four hundred detached bones of various animals; 12 specimens of mammalia; 133 mounted birds; from 30 to 50 reptiles, and 15 fishes; in all upwards of 500 specimens of the vertebrated animals; and of the invertebrata, we have had 150 shells, several crustacea, and several hundred insects: that many of these are rare and valuable; many as yet undescribed, and one bird, the Urinorychus Griseus, is all but unique.

To facilitate the collection of specimens for the Museum, a paper of brief directions for collecting and preserving them was written: this has been extensively circulated. A paper on the same subject was also composed, in which ample details were given; and this was published in the Journal of the Society. We are now reaping the benefit of these instructions, and we shall do so still more as the seasons for collecting come round.

With reference to catalogues, I have before stated that, that of the osteological section of the Museum is now in the printer’s hands; as is also that of the mammalia. The catalogue of the birds is in progress; and in consequence of the aid I shall derive from Mr. Smith’s notes, it will, I trust, be valuable when completed. That of the reptiles and fishes cannot be undertaken until we have the means of displaying those objects. That of the shells must be delayed until the promised description of the land and fresh water shells, by Mr. Benson, shall be published. In the mean time, no want of a catalogue will be felt in this branch of the Museum; the name of each specimen being written, together with its locality, on the ebony tablet, upon which the shell is placed.

One very important object to the Society is, I conceive, to become the means of extending a knowledge of the natural productions of India, to scientific men in other countries. I have prepared duplicate specimens of land and fresh-
water shells to send to England, France, America, the Cape of Good Hope, and the Isle of France. I have also prepared duplicate specimens of insects from my collection, to send to various scientific societies and individuals in England. And I have sent some specimens of birds, purchased in Calcutta, to a gentleman, Monsieur Virot, who is celebrated for his labours in Taxidermy at the Cape. These were transmitted through Sir Charles D'Oyly, who had kindly undertaken to forward them; and I took the liberty of sending them in the name of the Society; though, of course, as I was unauthorised to do so, I did not burthen the Society with the expence of the purchase. It has been proposed to Monsieur Virot, to send African birds to our Museum in exchange, and Sir Charles has no doubt of his acceding to the proposition. Should he agree, the Society will perhaps give me permission to forward to him the duplicates now upon the table.

With reference to the financial part. Of the 50 rupees monthly for contingencies, I have given 40 to M. Bouchez for his assistance; and subsequently increased his salary to 50 Compy.'s rupees, by reducing my own from 150 Sica to 150 Compy.'s rupees; by this the Society also is a gainer to the amount of a few rupees. Of the sum for contingencies, all has been expended, and about 180 in excess. This sum I am prepared to refund, should it be thought proper for me to do so.

It was stipulated, that I should give up my occupation as Editor of the India Journal of Medical Science; and that I should rent a house near the Society's, if procurable, or entertain the means of daily attendance. I gave up the Editorship of the Journal on the publication of the number following my appointment. But with regard to the house, I found insurmountable difficulties in the way; none being procurable but the one immediately opposite, and that at a rent far exceeding my means to pay. I had recourse, therefore, to the alternative, and my attendance has been regular, always once, and generally twice, a day.

With reference to the present year, (should my appointment be renewed,) I do not anticipate the expences will equal those of the past; the cabinets, being now nearly complete, I propose to finish the Ornithological and Conchological catalogues, and to arrange the fishes, reptiles, and insects. With Mr. Prinsep's aid too, the fossil remains will be examined and the new ones described. While generally, the new specimens in various departments of the science will be prepared and arranged in the Museum, as they come in. We have reason to believe these will be very numerous.

Such have been the labours of the past year, and what I propose for the present. I could have wished to have done more, particularly in completing the catalogues; but the difficulties in arranging a collection of Natural History from the beginning, are greater than any one not conversant with them can imagine. In all departments there was here much to be done; and of some there was not a vestige when I took charge. The Museum will now, I trust, go on thriving, and be worthy the name of the Society to which it belongs. Its establishment, as a focus into which may be collected the natural treasures of the East, is an object I have long had at heart; before I was a Member of the Society, several years ago, I wrote to the President, and proposed what has now been accomplished, and what it will be my pride to be permitted to sustain. I entreat you to carry it on upon its present footing, for at least another year; when I am sure you will be as anxious for it to continue, as I am myself. The attention of mankind is now directed to the natural sciences, as is sufficiently proved by the publication of so many books concerning them; and none is more attractive than zoology. To the attention the Society has lately given to these sciences, the great increase of Members is to be attributed; an increase during the last year unparalleled in its annals; but which I believe will be fully equalled or surpassed in the present. Its reputation will also, I doubt not, be as much enhanced by the researches of its members in Natural History, as it has been, and is, by their labours in the learning of the East.

Gentlemen, upon this point I may quote the words of our illustrious founder, who said, that, the inquiries of the Society "will be extended to whatever is performed by man, or produced by nature." The former part of this prediction
our predecessors have accomplished with ability and success; it is our's to perform the rest. And safely may we prognosticate, that, under those who now direct its proceedings, the Asiatic Society of Bengal, will, not only fully uphold the reputation it has so well merited, by inquiries into whatever is performed by man; but, also maintain it, and increase it, by researches into the productions of nature.

J. T. Pearson, Curator, Museum, As. Soc.

Calcutta, 1st May, 1836.

Resolved, that the Report be adopted and presented at the next Meeting, and the excess of expenditure for contingencies above the sum noted on the 6th May, 1835, (about 200 rupees) be recommended to be sanctioned.

Resolved further, that the Committee are highly pleased with the arrangements adopted by Dr. Pearson in the Museum, and with the progress it has made under his supervision; and they have no hesitation in recommending to the Society a continuation of the same system which has proved so beneficial and effective during the experimental year.

The Treasurer, Babu Ram Comul Sen, having laid before the Committee a statement of the funds of the Society, and an estimate of the calls on them during the ensuing year.

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<td>Balance of Cash</td>
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<td>Government Paper</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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Number of Subscribing Members, 92x64=per an.

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<td>Interest on Paper</td>
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<td><strong>Income</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Establishment and Charges</td>
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<td>Cabinets for fossils, &amp;c. (ordered)</td>
<td>310</td>
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<td>Journal Subscription</td>
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<td>Repairs of the House</td>
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<td>Printing 20th Volume</td>
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<td>One month Curator's salary due.</td>
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<td>Excess on Contingent Bills of do.</td>
<td>200</td>
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<td><strong>Total Charge</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,985</strong></td>
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Add Money advanced by the Secretary for Cabinets, &c., 186.15.10

Deficiency on the ensuing year, 571.0.1

Resolved, that upon the above view of the means of the Society, it does not seem possible to provide for the payment of 200 rupees per mensem, for the support of a Curator's establishment during the ensuing year, without encroaching upon the vested funds of the Society. The Committee therefore leave it for the consideration of the Members at large, whether some other means may not be adopted for raising the amount necessary for this very desirable object. Various plans have been suggested in Committee, such as:—1. reservation of the vested fund for the publication of the Transactions; 2. voluntary donations, from such members, as may be interested in the support of the Museum, and from the public; 3. charging for admission of visitors. These plans the Committee deem it advisable to leave open to discussion in the Society at large,
trusting that some expedient may be devised for upholding the Museum, which they do not think it will be possible to maintain in a state of efficiency without having a paid Curator.

Edward Ryan, 
Chairman.

Asiatic Society's Rooms, 
April 29, 1836.

XI.—Miscellaneous.


Carefully as I thought my account of the wild goat of Nepál, recently published by you, was executed, I find that there is one material error in it, viz. the statement that the species has only two teats or mammæ. A recent dissection of a fine male led to the notice of the fact that there are four teats, which fact was confirmed by the examination of two live females. There can, therefore, be no question that this species of goat has four teats; and the circumstance is so remarkable, that I propose to substitute the name Quadrirrammias or four-teated, for the popular name of Jhâral, under which I described it. Deer are distinguished by four teats, goats and sheep, heretofore, by two; the intermediate genus antelope, by four or two, in the several species. Capra Quadrirrammias vel Jhâral, by its four teats, offers a singular and unique approximation (in this genus) to Cervus; and another proof that the infinite variety of nature cannot be designated by our artificial signs and peremptory divisions. Antelope, Capra, and Ovis, how shall we contradictistinguish them? Solid-cored horns, in the first, is no unerring mark: and now we have a species of the second, and a beardless species too, abandoning his congeners to ally himself with Cervus, quoad the number of mammæ.


The discovery of this most gigantic fossil species is due to Judge Bree of Arkansas, by whom, in 1834, the first fossil vertebra was found in the marly banks of the Washita river, in the Arkansas territory. In the latter end of the year, more vertebrae, fragments of the lower jaw, &c. were discovered in Alabama, about 30 miles north-west of Chairborne; another portion of jaw, with several teeth; an os humer, several immense vertebrae; numerous fractured ribs; a molar tooth; the extremity of a tibia; portion of the shoulder, pelvis, &c. &c. were new found: and recently (May 1835), another skeleton has been discovered, and a large collection of the fossil remains is promised. Near the same spot a specimen of the caudal vertebra of the Mosaurus or Maestricht monitor was also found.

It is assumed, that the bones, though great disparity exists in their proportions and size, constitute portions of one species, and the structure of the lower jaw, which is hollow, place it amongst the Saurians as a lost genus. The comparative smallness of the bones of the extremities seem to indicate the tail as the principal organ of motion, and the superior extremities must have been fins or paddles.

The train of vertebrae extending upwards of 100 feet in length in one locality, and estimated to be 150 feet in the Arkansas specimen, shew, that this gigantic animal must have probably attained upwards of this length,
meriting thus most fully the name Basilosaurus; which our honorary
member, Dr. Harlan, Professor of Comparative anatomy to the Philadelp-
phia Museum, has bestowed upon it. In the Transactions of the Geologi-
cal Society of Pennsylvania, which I have placed upon the table for the
inspection of members, previous to sending it up to Dr. Falconer, is a
detailed paper by Dr. Harlan, and two beautiful plates, illustrating this
splendid discovery.

H. P.

3.—The Balloon.

We should not be exercising due vigilance as editor of a scientific
journal, were we to omit recording the first ascent of a balloon from the
plains of Bengal on the 21st of the past month (March.) M. Robertson,
the aeronaut, a Frenchman, who had made sixteen previous ascents in
various parts of Europe, came expressly to India for the purpose of aston-
nishing the natives with the novel tomasha of a human being wafted out of
sight into ethereal space in his fairy car; and such competition is said to
have prevailed at Paris*, for the glory of being the first, that M. Robert-
son was fain to hurry thither before the balloon itself was ready. The
bad success of his attempt may be partly attributed to the imperfect
manner in which this indispensable article was supplied here.

The local and pecuniary arrangements seem to have been very ill judged;
the selection of a spot of difficult access, at the further end of Garden
Reach, tended only to prevent those who had subscribed from attending;
chooking the only land road, and the river, with non-paying visitors, who
expended, what would have amply remunerated the aeronaut, in convey-
ances thither! The distillation of the gas was effective, and the balloon
rose well, but ere it had attained a mile of height, it was seen to return so
rapidly earthward, that great apprehensions were entertained for the
traveller's neck. It appeared to us that when M. Robertson entered the
car, and attached the valve-strings to the netting, the valve was pulled
open, thus enabling the gas to escape freely from the first; for the silk was
found quite sound at its return. The aeronaut himself talked of a sudden
collapse of the balloon from condensation of the gas; but this was a
deception: when it began to fall rapidly, the resistance of the air below
pressed up the slack of the balloon like an umbrella, and aided in driv-
ing out the gas from the open valve above; in fact, the car was supported
in its descent as by a parachute, and could not consequently quicken its
pace to any dangerous extent.

The experience of such an accident should very much aid to increase the
confidence of the aeronaut; for it is plain that with a little contrivance the
balloon may in all cases be made to act as a parachute on the loss of its
gaseous contents. We trust the next ascent will be made under more auspi-
cious circumstances, and we hope that it may be possible to turn it to some
small use in a scientific point of view, by ascertaining at least the decre-
ment of heat and moisture at increasing altitudes, as well as the height of the
reverse current of the upper atmosphere.

[This notice could not find a place last month.—Mr. Robertson has since
departed for the more cheering prospects of an ascent at Lucknow.]

* This competition reminds us of the rivalry in America to supply us with
ice, which has at last led to a confirmed and durable scheme for regaling us with
that luxury at a very cheap rate. Having noticed at length the first ice cargo,
we have thought it unnecessary to recur to the subject; but the completion of a
permanent ice-house will enable us hereafter to judge, of the best mode of preserving
the frozen element. The tan bed intended for this object, from becoming wet, had an
opposite effect, and was indeed nearly the cause of a conflagration! while the car-
bonic acid gas extracted from its fermentation, killed a man who incautiously
descended to examine the chamber.
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Meteorological Register.

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Johóle. Of Johóle, the third of the four Menangkábowe states, still less is known than of Rumbówe and Sungie Ujong.

An Englishman of the name of Gray, (whose information is to be taken, however, with caution,) is said to have been the only European who has penetrated into the interior of this state. He passed through part of it in 1827, on his return to Malacca from Pahang, whither he had performed a journey overland, across the peninsula, to barter opium for the gold dust of the latter place.

His route lay through Naning, part of Rumbówe, Srímenánti, Jompôle, Ulu Seruting, Ulu Braugh, and Ulu Pahang. The journey was performed in 14 days.

From Tabu, in Naning, to Jompôle, he was four days passing over mount Lanjut, to the villages of Gadang and Tanjong; over mounts Míko, Pabi, and Pánting Páhat, through the villages of Passir, Júno, and Píla, in Srímenánti; and from Píla to Jompôle, “one day’s walk.”

Mr. Gray describes the country he passed through, to have been in a state of high cultivation, particularly at Míko, and in the vales of Pánting Páhat, Júno, and Passir.

He observes that the paddy at Míko is preferable to that of Malacca, and that it is supposed by the people that the ground there is better for cultivation, one gantang of seed never producing less than a hundred-fold.

The produce of mount Míko is sapan wood, dammer, and canes of the species termed Pinang-lawyers in abundance. Jompôle, he con-
jectures, to be about 90 miles distant from Malacca. *Pahang* is estimated at 300 miles distance from *Jompóle*. From *Jompóle* to *Pahang* the journey is by boat down the river *Seruting* to the large lake of Braugh, called *Tassek Braugh*; which is said by Mr. Gray to be nearly fifty miles in circumference, and is formed by the flow of water from the neighbouring mountains.

If this account be correct, the lake *Braugh* exceeds in dimensions the recently discovered inland lakes in Sumatra.

The natives, however, have described this lake to me to be of much less extent; narrow but long. Its communication with the *Pahang* river, which empties into the China sea, is by a river called the *Braugh*.

Regarding the navigation of these rivers, Mr. Gray observes: "In some parts of the *Seruting* and *Braugh*, a brig might go up, and in other parts, nothing but a small boat; on account of the water being above the fallen trees, so that the boat must be lifted before it can proceed, on account of the overflowing banks of the river."

The *Pahang* river, from the place where it receives the waters of the *Braugh*, down to the town of *Pahang*, is wide and deep. These streams are deepest in the months of November, December, and January. From the month of March to that of August, Mr. Gray was informed, that it is impossible to proceed from the *Seruting* river to *Pahang*, on account of the paucity of water. The general depth of these rivers, in January, he ascertained to be between 40 and 60 feet; but on his return in February, he found their depth diminished by one-half.

There are a few villages on the banks of these rivers, but for the most part they are covered with lofty forests, tenanted by the rhinoceros, tapir, tiger, elephant, and scarcely more civilized *Jacoon*.

Mr. Gray met with great kindness and hospitality from the inhabitants of the different estates through which he passed. He fell, however, a sacrifice to his exertions, dying of jungle fever, contracted during the journey, twenty-five days after his return to Malacca.

**Boundaries.**——*Johóle* is bounded on the north by *Ulá Pahang* and part of *Rumbówe* : to the south by part of *Naning* and *Múar* or *Segámé*: to the east by *Segámé*, and to the west by *Srîmeniinti* and part of *Rumbówe*. The boundaries with Malacca are from *Búkit Puttús* to *Battang* Malacca, and from *Battang* Malacca by *Bánkóng* *Chóndóng* to Mount *Ophir*.

* Bánkóng Chóndóng is a large tree, growing in the forest that separates Assahan from Mount *Ophir*. The tree was still in existence when I visited Mount *Ophir* in 1833.
With Segámët and Máar, its boundaries are Murbôwe sa râtús (the hundred Marbôwe trees) and Bînkông Chôndông; with Rumbôwe, Bûkit Pabî; and with Srîménânti, Bûkit Pîla.

Population, &c.—The population of Johôle is estimated at 2,080 inhabitants. The principal villages are Nuri, Londong, Tnëy, Tâman, and Bennong.

Johôle is governed by a Panghûld and Ampat Sûkâ. The former, like his brother chief of Sungie Ujông, is elected by the Sûkûs, and by the Bûtin dû ablás, or twelve heads of the Jacoons.

The name of the present Panghûld is Abu Bekr, or Banchita, and his title Johan Lélah Percûsëk; he resides at Nuri, is an intelligent looking person; plain, simple, and collected in manner, and much respected by his people.

The tribes are those of Bodoûnda, Sa Melôngan, Tiga, Battû, and Mûnkâl.

Srîménânti and Jompôle, were formerly considered dependencies of Johôle, but now assert their independence, as also does Gominchi. The Panghûld, Lessyë, of the latter place died lately, and his brother Mahâmed Kârì succeeded him. Pondok Passir, a small state under the influence of Srîménânti, was also a dependency of Johôle, and is ruled by a petty Panghûld of its own.

Besides the usual rights of revenue, the Panghûld of Johôle levies ten per cent. on the produce of the tin mines, together with a tax on the gold of Gominchi, which will be shortly alluded to.

Trade.—The trade of Johôle consists chiefly in gold dust; 20 catties of which are said to be produced annually. Tin, about 300 piculs. Fruits, ratans, jaggery, and fowls are brought in considerable quantities down to Malacca.

Jompôle.—Jompôle was anciently a dependancy of Johôle, but is now nominally governed by Râja Allang, a son of the third Menangkâbôwe prince, Râja Ham. The Panghûld and Ampat Sûkû exercise almost independent sway.

The name of the present Panghûld is Hassain; the tribes are those of Bôdoûnda, Sa Melôngan, Anôk Malacca, and Tiga Battû.

Jompôle is in the high road of the Pahang traders travelling across the peninsula to Malacca; it is situated on a small river of the same name, which flows into the Máar river, [one of the largest streams on the western coast of the peninsula,] by which it has communication with the Straits of Malacca. By the rivers Serating and Braugh, an easy intercourse from November or October to February is kept up with Pahang and the eastern coast. The Râja here levies a duty on the opium, tobacco, cloths, iron utensils, salt, &c. passing through
Jompôle to Pahang, as well as on the gold dust and silk cloths of Pahang returning to Malacca.

Jompôle produces a considerable quantity of tin, sapan wood, rice, dammer, ratans, and a little gold, which is sent down the Múar river to Malacca (eight days pull), and also to Pahang.

The population of Jompôle is estimated at 2,000; it is divided into three Múkins; viz. those of Limbájon, Turántong, and Qualla Lenney.

Gold.—The following account of the gold mines at Chimendros, with the exception of the part relative to the assaying of the metal, which is from personal observation, is almost entirely drawn from native information.

Búkit Chimendros is a hill situated in Gominchi, a territory subject to the Panghútá of Johôle, and bordering on the eastern frontier of Naning. It is covered and surrounded by an uninhabited forest of great extent, intersected by numerous rivulets, which derive their source from the hill.

Veins of quartzose rock run over it at various depths (generally from 12 to 20 feet) below the surface, forming the matrix in which* the gold is found in small broken streaks.

The rock is enclosed in a bed of a sort of white clay, indurated more or less, termed Nápal.

The method pursued by Chinese and Malays for separating the metal from its matrix resembles that adopted by the Hungarian miners, with this exception, that the process of amalgamation is not practised by the former for this purpose. The Kling-assayers of gold, however, avail themselves of it in their vocation, as will presently appear.

The Malay miners, as soon as the precise spot and minute have been determined by their diviners, Púwangs, or other charlatans supposed to be skilled in discovering the hidden treasures of the earth, commence clearing the ground of trees, brushwood, &c. and then proceed to remove the roots and vegetable soil by means of Biliongs and Chonkoles, (the Malay adze and spade,) until the bed of Nápal is laid bare. These implements are now put aside, and a heavy sort of iron crow-bar, (Perjong) is had recourse to.

The first layer of Nápal is soft and whitish; the second has a reddish tint. The last is a black incrustation resembling brick in hardness, and hence called by the natives Tambiker Quáli; this is commonly two fingers' breadth, in thickness, and being removed, discovers the

* A specimen of this rock, in which a small portion of gold is imbedded, or rather disseminated, has been forwarded to the Society.
white vein of rock, the matrix of the gold, and termed the \textit{Beting}. It is generally between three and four feet in diameter: underneath lies a bed of whitish earth, below which gold is never found.

The next process is that of breaking up the \textit{Beting}, for which purpose the \textit{Perjong} is employed. From the extreme hardiness of the rock this is a very laborious and tedious task. The coarse pieces are then pounded in a sort of large mortar cut from the quartz rock. The pulverized stone is then passed through sieves (\textit{Kisye}) of rattan, and carried in small baskets to a running stream, where the smaller stony particles are washed away, while the gold dust, with the grosser pieces, sink to the bottom of the conical vessel in which it is subjected to the action of the stream.

The refuse is picked out, and the gold dust again carefully washed and collected in a cocoanut shell or leaf of the \textit{Pallas} tree, and conveyed to the \textit{Bongsal}, where it is dried by means of a red hot piece of charcoal being repeatedly passed over its surface. After the adherent finer particles of the sand have been removed, it is weighed into quantities, generally of one \textit{tael} each, which are carefully folded up in small pieces of cloth.

These packets constitute the \textit{Bunkals} of commerce.

In Sumatra, according to Marsden, the parcels or \textit{Bulse}s, in which the gold is packed up, are formed of the integument that covers the heart of the buffaloe.

The \textit{Bunkals} are, as in Sumatra, frequently used as currency instead of coin.

The weights* for gold formerly used as \textit{Chimendros} and \textit{Taon} (a place about half a day’s journey thence) are as follows:

\begin{align*}
2 & \text{ small ságas (Ságá kechít) = 1 large ságá (ságá besár).} \\
8 & \text{ Ságá besár, } \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots = 1 \text{ Maiam.} \\
16 & \text{ Maiams, } \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots = 1 \text{ Tael or Bunkal.} \\
20 & \text{ Taels, } \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots = 1 \text{ Cattie.}
\end{align*}

The Ságá is a sort of small scarlet pea with a black spot, the \textit{Abrus Maculatus}.

Besides \textit{Chimendros} and \textit{Taon}, I have not heard of any place on the peninsula where gold is obtained from the solid rock. On Sumatra it is frequently found in this state.

The gold dust at \textit{Pahang} and \textit{Jellye} is procured in the same manner as that in the mines at the foot of Mount \textit{Ophir}, already described in a paper published in this Journal; (\textit{vol. ii. page 497}.)

The mines at \textit{Reccan} are estimated to produce annually about 20 catties of gold dust.

* At Malacca 10 Ságá besár or 4 \textit{Képongs} are equal to one \textit{maiam}. 
The Panghulu of Gomichi first levied a tenth on the produce of these mines, but in consequence of large quantities of gold dust being secretly carried off, before the tenth had been levied, he substituted a sort of poll tax, amounting to a maiam of gold per annum, from each person working at the mines.

The Panghulu of Johole is in the habit of sending five or six buffaloes a year to the mines, receiving for every head of cattle two taels of gold.

These heavy drawbacks have caused the mines to become unprofitable to the speculators, and almost deserted. The former of these imposts, I believe, could readily be endured; but the latter ad libitum sort of exaction destroys all hope of reasonable profit.

The following is an estimate of the various degrees of purity of gold dust, produce of the peninsula. It will be necessary to premise, that mütü, is a term denoting the degrees of fineness for gold, of which there are 10, as fixed by the native assayers. Gold of 10 mütü is equal therefore to gold of 24 carats: gold not reaching eight mütü is called mas múda, or young gold; and gold from eight to 10 mütü, mas túa, or old gold.

Gold of Reccan, Mount Ophir, Chimendros and Tuon, Pahang, Jellye, Tringánu, Calantan, .......................... 9 ½ mütü 9 ¼ " 9 ¾ " 9 ¾ " 9 ¾ "

From Calantan gold of 10 mütü is sometimes obtained.

The assayers of gold are generally Chuliah or Klings, who acquire by constant practice the power of determining to the fraction of a mütü the purity of any specimen of gold dust brought from the eastward*. As they would be perhaps liable to imposition were this the only trial they subjected the metal to, they have recourse to the Battu uji or touchstone. This is a roughish black stone, apparently basalt, brought from continental India, and generally set in a small frame of bronze or brass.

The assaying needles are generally from 20 to 24 in number, ranged on a string, and alloyed in known proportions of copper and silver, marked on the surface, from three to 9 ½ mütü. The needle and gold to be assayed are rubbed on the touchstone in parallel streaks, in the usual manner; a lump of the adhesive wax called Lilitin katulut is then applied to the surface of the touch-stone, which brings off the two thin lamina of gold.

* The natives are, I believe, totally ignorant of the assay by cupellation and acids.
The difference between the two being more visible on the wax (which is coloured black for this purpose with a fine charcoal made from the plantain leaf) than on the stone. This is the reason the native assayers give for the removal of the streaks of gold from the stone to the wax, though to me no difference was perceptible: possibly the following may afford another clue to the practice of the natives in this particular.

In this wax the impressions of the gold, which would be lost on the stone, go on accumulating; a ball of it, which my native informant had used for the last 30 years, he supposed to contain above two taels of gold.

The metal is separated from the wax by means of heat applied gradually, in such proportions as barely to cause the wax to pass off in the form of smoke: the residuum is then subjected to the process of amalgamation. Half of the gold thus obtained is dedicated in alms to the poor, or on religious offerings, at the shrine of some favorite Saint or Wali; generally to that of Miran Sahib at Nagore.

The calculation of a Malay, long employed in the mines at Chimendros, makes the average quantity of gold produced from 40 lbs. of the pulverized stone, 24 grains of pure metal. Lumps of virgin gold, weighing from five to six taels, have been found in the alluvial soil here and at Faon. In Jellye, a mass weighing upwards of a cattie has been discovered: this will appear trifling if placed in comparison with that which Reaumur mentions as having been shewn to the Royal Academy at Paris, weighing 448 oz. Helms affirms that when one of the highest mountains of Paraguay fell down, about 50 years ago, there were discovered in it pieces of gold weighing from two to fifty pounds each.

Seal of Johole, dated A. H. 1216.

[The date on the seal is reversed, a mistake that we have not unfrequently observed on Indian coins with Persian inscriptions. As this is the last Essay on the Malacca States with which Lieut. Newbold will be able to favor us, it may be as well to point out where the preceding are to be found:
Visit to Mount Ophir, ............... vol. II. p. 497.
Account of Naning, ................. " III. " 601; IV. 297.
Ditto the four Menangkabowe States, " IV. " 241.
Ditto Sungie Ujong, ............... " IV. " 537.—Ed.]
II.—Interpretation of the Tibetan Inscription on a Bhotian Banner, 
taken in Assam, and presented to the Asiatic Society by Captain 
Bogle. By M. Alexander Csoma Kőrösi. [See Pl. VI. fig. 3.]

[In a letter to the Secretary of the Asiatic Society; see also Proceedings of the 
Asiatic Society, 4th May, 1836.]

According to the request conveyed in your letter of the 30th April, 
I have translated the piece of magical superstition which you have 
faithfully transcribed from the Bhotian board. With exception of the 
salutation at the beginning and the conclusion, and a few terms in the 
middle, the whole is in the Tibetan language. The purport of it, as 
will be evident from the tenor of the translation, is, to obtain the 
favour and protection of several inferior divinities, to increase the 
prosperity, &c. of the person and family for whom the ceremony 
was performed, and this magical piece was erected or set up.

It may be that the flag-staff, with the wooden board containing 
this inscription, was carried before the Tibetan chief in his march, and 
so used as an ensign in war; but it is more probable that it belonged 
originally to the house top or terrace of the prince in Bhotan: for 
the houses of great personages in that country are generally decorated 
with such ensigns of victory at the four corners of the terraced roof. 
They are called in Tibetan འཇིག་མཛོད་རྒྱལ་མཚན (ensign of victory), 
and always contain inscriptions of similar purport with this.

In regard to the orthography of the piece, it frequently occurs in 
Tibetan writings and books, that the vowel signs are removed from 
their proper places, on account of the dependent letters of the line 
above; several cases of this occur in your transcript. The intersylla-
bic points at the end of a line are generally also omitted, except with 
the conjunction མ་ which will also be remarked here. I have made 
a copy in Roman characters, and have also endeavoured to make a lite-
ral translation: the words in Italics I cannot properly interpret.

Om svasti, pronounced by the Tibetans om soti, is rendered by them 
in their language མ་ སྒྲི་སྐྱེས་དཔྱི་སྐྱེས་ བོད་ལྕེ-ཛུ སྐྱེས་ སྐྱེས་ སོགས་ དཔྱི་་ཤེས་ སྐྱེས་ སོགས་ སྐྱེས་ སོགས་ སྐྱེས

Inscription on the back of the wooden Board (fig. 3. Pl. VI.)

II. དབུ་མཱ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ
ན་ཐ་ ཞ་ བཟུལ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ
ཁུ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ

་ཐ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ

ཞུ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ་ སྨིན་པོ

བོད་ལྕེ-ཛུ སྐྱེས་ བོད་ལྕེ-ཛུ སྐྱེས་ བོད་ལྕེ-ཛུ སྐྱེས་ བོད་ལྕེ-ཛུ སྐྱེས

To the Secretary of the Asiatic Society, 4th May, 1836.
Tibetan Inscription on a Bhotian Banner.

Translation.

O ye divinities! all hail!—(Ye) all the eight classes of the divine imps (S. Rakshasas); also ye gods, regents of the planets, constellations (in the path of the moon), and of the lunar days, having your
Note on the Indo-Scythic Coins of Beghrum. [May,

influence upon the year, the lunation (or lunar month), and the different seasons or periods; ye possessors of the earth or land (land-proprietors), all the eight kinds of the Nāgas (Hydras), &c. Ye powerful chiefs and attendants, Vishnu Rāhula, and the menial (instrumental cause) Vis'ñi; ye goddesses (or nymphs) pi-ling-khraa ts'-ha, &c.; ye fierce inferior imps, who dwell in (or towards) the cardinal, intermediate, zenith and nadir points (or in the ten corners of the world); and especially ye divine imps, &c. who are rulers of those regions, wherein the sun this day is moving; ye all look on this emblem (seal, image, or signed writ, &c.) of Hu, the regent or governor, (or set up, or erected by Hu.) Ye divine eight principal imps (Rákshasas), rulers of the world (or keepers of light), I beseech you, that you will make that this patron, the bestower of charitable gifts, for obtaining the fruit of his works and actions, who is very faithful to the doctrine of the Muni (Shakya), may together with his household or family, increase more and more, and abound in life, fortune, (prosperity,) honour, and in all his substance or wealth, like the increasing face of the moon. Om akani nēkani abhila mandala, mantrāyē, Svāhā; Sarva mangalam.

Tettelia, 9th May, 1836.

A. C. Körösi.

III.—Note on some of the Indo-Scythic Coins found by Mr. C. Masson at Beghrum, in the Kohistán of Kābul. By Johannes Avdall, Esq. M. A. S.

[Read at the meeting of the 6th May.]

The results of the valuable researches of Mr. C. Masson, Dr. Martin Honioberger, Lieutenant Burnes, the late Dr. Gerard, and Kerāmat Ali, in the vast field of the numismatology of ancient Bactria and other parts of India, must have excited a deep interest among the antiquaries of Europe. It must also be highly gratifying to the lovers of this important science on this part of the globe, to observe the unabated zeal and assiduity with which these researches are continued by eminent numismatologists, with a degree of success exceeding their most sanguine expectations.

Of the Indo-Scythic coins, discovered by Mr. C. Masson at Beghrum, in the Kohistán of Kābul, and described in the 28th number of the Journal of the Asiatic Society, the one bearing the Greek legend Nanaia, has, it appears, attracted much attention. He is persuaded to think it to be identical with Bibi Nanni, or “the Lady Nanni,” a name given by the Muhammedans to the numerous shrines or Ziardts, as he calls them, found in those regions of Asia. The
Hindus also seem to attach to them a peculiar sanctity, claiming in the Bībī Nannā, a personation of their favourite goddess, Pārbatī. These are all, however, mere conjectures, the real meaning of the Greek legend remaining yet to be explained.

In a subsequent number* of the Journal of our Society, a far different explanation of the Greek legend is given by its indefatigable Editor, which is, perhaps, a nearer approximation to its true meaning. There the goddess Nanaia is represented to bear a close analogy, in name and character, to the Anaitis of the Greek, and Anahid of the Persian, mythology. This hypothesis is based upon the authority of Strabo, quoted by Colonel Wilford. A goddess called by the former Anaia, is considered by the latter to be equivalent to the Sanscrit Anáyasá devī. But, how far the deity, recognised under the one or the other appellation, can be supposed to be identical with Nanaia, remains yet to be ascertained.

Anahid was the tutelary goddess of Armenia, during its continuance in the darkness of idolatry. She is also known in our mythological works by the names of Artemis and Aphrodite, being supposed to have sprung from the froth of the sea, and descended from Zeus, Aramazd or Jupiter. Anahid or Anaïd is considered by us to be identical with the planet Venus, and the letters composing it being inverted, it reads Diana, which is equivalent to Artemis, by which name the goddess of hunting is invariably designated throughout all the Armenian books treating of the ancient mythology of our country.

The word Nanaia, or Nanea distinctly occurs in the second book of the Maccabees: “For, when the leader was come into Persia, and the army with him that seemed invincible, they were slain in the temple of Nanea, by the deceit of Nanea’s priests†.” It was in the compass of the temple of this goddess, that Antiochus the Great was put to death. She is also called Αναίδα, or Νανεά, the genitive of which, according to the Greek termination, is written Νάνεα. It has its derivation from the Persian language, literally meaning maternal or motherly. To the honor of Nanaia, or Nanea, many temples were raised in Armenia, the most magnificent of which, according to the authority of Gregor Lusavorich, existed in a village called Wli Thiln, situated in Upper Armenia. This idolatrous temple was razed to the ground by Surb Gregor Lusavorich, and a splendid church erected in its stead. Ὀλιγηθέντες ἡ τεύχος τοῦ Ἐσθραμίου Νανεάς τα Ναναίας του Αγαθαναγελοῦσας ἔπιστρωσαν την πόλιν του Ναναίας.

* Journal of the Asiatic Society for September, 1834.
+ II Book of the Maccabees, chap. i., v. 13.
Note on the Indo-Scythic Coins of Beghrâm. [May,

...note added... literal for L. i. qiupb'iuftu luiflrlih-fi'h and... afterwards... his... at... of... Herbelot's... coincidence... example,... my... oldest... flourished... under... having... distinct... progeny... persons... were... Nanaia,... the... temple,... Thence... utter... Anahitic... deities. This... probability... borne... out... the... fact... of... having... existed... Armenia... two... distinct... temples... in... which... these... two... goddesses... worshipped... by... our... pagan... ancestors... under... distinct... appellations.

* This... an... extract... historical... work... Agathangelus... who... oldest... Armenian... historian,... being... Secretary... to... the... king... Tiridates,... flourished... Armenia... beginning... fourth... century. Anahitic... literal... translation... Հաղիկավար... and... Nanaia... is... exactly... rendered... Նանայա... both... used... text... adjectively. The... derivative... particle... ան, attached... Հաղիկավար... Nanaia... is... equivalent... English... particle... tic;... example,... Asia, Asiatic, Ganges, Gangetic, &c.

Note.—Mr. Avdall... aware... Dr. Swiney... pointed... out... coincidence... Nanaia... Nanae... Maccabees. This... I... added... paper... among... addenda... 1834. The... name... afterwards... found... Herbelot's... Bibliothèque... Orientale,... folio... edition, so that... identity... had... ventured... with... Anahid... Anais... Persia, and... Anahid... devi... Col. Wilford, was... then... considered... perfectly... established. Mr. Avdall's... note... elicited... Mr. Masson's... conjectures... to... inscription... Bambyan, referring... same... deity. In... Plate VI. of... April... number,... his... sketch... supposed... characters... given; but... I... hardly... yet... feel... assured... their... being... letters.—Ed.

[Submitted at the meeting of the 6th May.]

The town of Maulamyeng is situated on the left bank of the Martaban river, the channel by which the Than-lweng, Gyang, and Attayen discharge themselves into the sea. Properly speaking, Maulamyeng may be said to mark the junction of these three rivers, as the N. E. extremity of the town approaches to within a very short distance of the confluence of the Attayen with the Gyang and Than-lweng; it would also be more in accordance with usage, if in the room of "Martaban river," (the name by which it has been hitherto known to the British,) the designation of "Than-lweng river" was given to the channel above-mentioned; the Than-lweng, being the largest of the three rivers, is entitled to the pre-eminence of holding an uninterrupted course to the Gulf of Martaban.

Immediately opposite to Maulamyeng, and separated from it by the Martaban river, (in this place about 1½ mile wide,) are the northern end of Phullaghewn Island and the town of Mowtumma, backed by a bold and interesting chain of mountains; to the north are the Than-lweng river and Joe-ka-beng range of limestone; while on the eastern and southern sides, the town and cantonment of Maulamyeng are bounded by the Attayen river, and a long line of sandstone hills, a continuation of the Mowtumma chain, which, leaving a passage for the river, re-appears at the Kyeit-san-lan Phya*, and is seen taking its course to the south to the right of Gnang-dey and Gneedone.

The general aspect of the country is mountainous, the mountains taking a N. N. W. and S. S. E. direction†. The most conspicuous of these, from its superior elevation, is the Zingyet Thowng, situated to the N. W. of Mowtumma; it attains an elevation of 3000 feet above the level of the plain, and is seen at a considerable distance by vessels approaching the coast; as might have been expected, the Gulf of Martaban, with the country in the neighbourhood of the Sitang river, were visible from a pagoda placed upon a pinnacle of the mountain, and to which I had ascended on a clear day. Great labour has been expended on this quarter of the Zingyet Thowng, with the view of making it more attractive, and rendering the ascent less irksome, than it would naturally have been from the precipitous nature of the rock: steps have been cut into the mountain, and the several projections

* Maulamyeng pagoda.
† The direction is exceedingly variable; it is sometimes N. W. and S. E., making a corresponding difference in the inclination of the strata.
removed or sloped away. A brick wall (about 3 feet high) extends on either side of the road from the foot of the mountain to one-third of its acclivity; this is succeeded by a dry wall, composed of pieces of rock placed loosely together, and continued to the top. The pagoda is small and void of all interior ornament; three handsome bells are attached to the court-yard, one of which bears an inscription, having reference to the period of its fabrication, and the various metallic substances of which it is composed.

Adopting the nomenclature of MacCulloch, the rocks under review are of the primitive and secondary class; all more or less distinctly stratified, and of a highly crystalline or compact nature. The Zingyet Thowng is principally composed of gneiss, and covered with a forest more or less thick, according to the depth of the soil on which it reposes; in places where the rock approaches the surface divested of vegetable mould, little or nothing is seen save a few stunted bushes and patches of parched grass, that had been produced during the rainy season; these become more perceptible as one advances towards the summit, which, with the exception of one particular spot, the site of the pagoda, and terminating in a peak, is either round backed or cristated. The interior of the gneiss presents signs of disintegration from constant exposure to the atmosphere; indeed, the rock is in some instances so decayed that it crumbles to pieces in the hand; but for the stratification, it might be taken for a species of fine grained granite: if I mistake not, granite has seldom been found stratified; gneiss will therefore be the more appropriate name. It must, however, be observed, that the stratification of the rock is in some places indistinct and irregular, the inclination of the strata being sometimes to the northward, and not unfrequently to the southward, of west. Under this gneiss probably repose the quartz-rock granite and mica slate found extending from the sea (in a N. N. W. and S. S. E. direction) towards the Kyékmi pagoda. I regret much that it was not in my power to ascertain, by a personal and minute examination, whether such is actually the case; my visit to Kyékmi was unfortunately confined to a short walk upon the beach, where these rocks are found lying in the following order; they are all regularly stratified, the several strata of no great thickness, but dipping into the ground at an angle of 75° or 80°; commencing from the jetty, and advancing by the pagoda to the west, they were observed as follows:

1. Red iron clay (the result of decomposed sandstone?), enclosing nodules of quartz; this clay is cellular, of a ferruginous appearance, and has the property of becoming hard on exposure to the atmosphere.

Q. Is this the laterite of the western peninsula?
2. White quartz-rock, alternating with
3. Argillaceous schist; blue or yellow, and slightly talcose.
4. Quartz-rock, white, or pale yellow, and containing a few scales of mica.
5. Talcose-schist with thin layers of quartz, alternating.
6. A white granite with mica abundantly disseminated in large yellow scales.
7. Pink, or red, quartz-rock.
8. A grey siliceous substance (resembling chert), with veins of quartz, and succeeded by
9. Gneiss, similar to that of Zingyet, but more decomposed, from the action of the salt water,—this is probably a continuation of the Zingyet gneiss.
10. Red iron clay; the same as No. 1*

The above constitute the whole of the primitive rocks observed in the neighbourhood of Maulamyeng, and with which I am at present so little familiar: the secondary rocks, or those now about to be noticed, are of a different character, formed under other circumstances, and at a different epoch.

The first of these, is the sandstone of Mountumma and Maulamyeng; with little variation in the line of bearing, the inclination of the sandstone strata is diametrically opposite to that of the gneiss, quartz-rock, and mica-slate, &c. It has been already shewn, that the strata of the last mentioned rocks dip to the westward at a very great angle, whereas the dip of the sandstone strata is generally to the N. E., and the angle of inclination not exceeding 40° or 50°. This sandstone is more frequently white, presenting spotted delineations of a pink or red colour, and is, in some instances, so highly impregnated with silica, that it becomes difficult to distinguish it from quartz-rock. The less compact portion of the rock is generally intersected by veins of quartz. In many instances, the base of the sandstone is an argillaceous cement, impregnated with oxide of iron, which gives a red colour to the rock, and renders it more liable to decomposition; large masses of this substance are found either alternating with, or resting unconformably upon, the rocks of both classes; in the latter case, transported from its parent rock (the sandstone above noticed), and assuming the appearance of a hard ferruginous breccia†.

The sandstone hills have an undulating appearance, being free from the contortions and asperities peculiar to the limestone rocks in

* See Dr. Benza's observations on the filon of hematitic iron in the sienitic granite of the Neilgiris, vol. IV. p. 424.—Ed.
† This rock is the same as that noticed at Kyékmi, (No. 1.)
their neighbourhood. Attaining a considerable elevation, and running parallel to each other with a distance of some miles between each chain, these mountain ranges form extensive valleys, covered with water during the S. W. monsoon, and devoted for the greater part to the cultivation of paddy; what remains unttilled abounding with long grass, the coarser kind serving for house-thatch, and the less rank affording pasture for cattle during the dry season. Except in the immediate neighbourhood of the limestone, where a fine black loam prevails, and on the banks of the rivers and islands formed by the constant accumulation of mud and silt, transported from a clay-slate and limestone country, the greater part of the soil found in the plains contiguous to Maulamyeng is an arenaceous clay, mixed with a small portion of saline and vegetable matter.*

The only ore that has been hitherto found in connection with the sandstone is a "Sulphuret of Antimony," in a vein of quartz; it is found in the neighbourhood of Guangdey, and appears abundant. Leaving Maulamyeng, and proceeding to the north, a few limestone hummocks are seen on the right banks of the Than-lweng river, forming part of the long but broken chain extending to the south-east via Joe-ka-beng, Damatha, Nyown-beng-zeite, and Kyema-row. With an aspect so different from that of the sandstone, these limestone rocks present peculiarities of structure deserving mention; although immediately succeeding the sandstone, the S. W. chains of limestone, or those first seen in contact with it, (advancing to the N. E.,) present little or no signs of stratification. The limestone appears in detached masses, rising, as it were, perpendicularly out of the earth; and as each mass preserves a similar direction with the one preceding it, the range has, at a distance, the semblance of an extensive chain, continually broken and interrupted by some great convulsion in nature. That the sea has covered the whole of this country, and probably at no very distant period of time, is perceptible at the first view. Four distinct epochs would also seem to be marked out. The two first will include the formation of the primitive and secondary strata; the third, the up-heaving of these strata; and the fourth, the presence of the sea upon the whole. The shattered and divided limestone, with its mural precipices and caverns; the saline depositions so constantly met with on the plains, and other appearances of a no less conclusive character, attest the former existence and desolating

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* This saline matter is in some places so abundant, that the soil is collected by salt manufacturers for lixiviation; the liquid is strained off, and subjected to the usual process of evaporation.
power of the ocean*. As has been already observed, the sandstone rock is regularly stratified: the dip being (generally) to the N. E., and its angle of inclination from 40° to 50°; on the contrary, the limestone that immediately succeeds it is (to all appearance) unstratified, or the inclination of its strata discernable only from the fissures in the rock, so great, as to merit for it the appellation of *vertical*. It may, however, be remarked, that this peculiarity of structure is perceptible only in the *Joe-ka-beng* and *Mowmah* chains of limestone; advancing to the N. E., and passing another range of the sandstone before noticed, the stratification becomes more apparent, at the same time, that the line of bearing, dip, and inclination of the strata are exactly similar to the sandstone at *Maulamgeng*.

The general structure of the limestone is *mural*, possessing considerable height but little breadth; the angles of the projecting points are sharp, and as the little vegetation produced is restricted to a few stunted trees and shrubs, the rock has a remarkably rugged appearance.

The height of *Joe-ka-beng*, the most elevated point of the S. W. chain, is probably as much as 2000 feet above the level of the plain; it has a small pagoda on its summit, which on a clear day is visible at a distance of 20 miles; but with this elevation, its greatest average breadth will not be more than 300 feet. The limestone is of a grey or lavender-blue colour, sometimes presenting spotted delineations of white, yellow, ochre yellow, and red; of a fine compact texture, rarely granulated; fracture fine and splintery; faintly translucent on the edges; and frequently intersected by veins of calc-spar, corresponding in every essential point with the English "mountain limestone," or "secondary limestone" of Jameson. Another characteristic of this limestone is that it is *cavernous*. The caves are of considerable magnitude, and from their containing (occasionally) inscriptions having reference to the fabrication and sculpture of the several images and temples therein placed, are interesting both to the antiquarian and the geologist. The principal caverns are those at *Yeltsêy, Tyokhla, Joe-ka-beng, Damatha, Nyown-beng-zeite*, and *Phabia*. Surrounded with jungle, these limestone caverns are not unfrequently tenanted by birds and beasts of prey. A great quantity of bat's dung is collected

* The *average* elevation of the plains above the level of the sea, at *high-water*, will not exceed six feet at the present time, while it is evident, on examination, that the banks contiguous to the sea, and subject to the influence of the tide, have been continually raised by successive depositions, and are still receiving deposits of silt or saline matter on every high rise of tide, or inundation produced by the freshes during the S. W. monsoon.

2 N
from the Tyok-hla cavern, and used by the natives in the manufacture of saltpetre.

Damatha Cavern, (western entrance,) situated on the left bank of the Gyeng river, and about 12 miles distant from Maulamyeng.

The mouth of this cavern is almost entirely closed by a brick wall: a small passage on the left affording entrance. It is spacious within, being about 220 feet long, 100 feet broad, and 25 feet high. The singularity attached to the cavern arises from its extending right through the hill, so that entering on the western side, one may pass out through the eastern mouth of the cave. The stalactites are numerous; several are of an immense size, and daily becoming larger from the continual supply of water, impregnated with calcareous matter, percolating through the hill, and giving a new crust to those already formed. Stalagmites likewise exist, but are generally much concealed from view by bat’s dung, with which the floor of the cavern is covered. As is the case with all the larger description of caverns, that at Damatha is crowded with images of Buddha in wood and stone; he is represented in his usual sitting posture; in some instances, arrayed with the “glories,” but more frequently without them. The workmanship is very inferior, and little attention seems to have been paid to the polishing of the stone, which is a fine crystalline marble, and naturally well adapted for sculpture. Exposed as these rude monuments of art are to the ravages of a damp atmosphere, as well as to the contamination of birds and beasts of prey, such extra labour would have been but fruitlessly bestowed; the natural white colour of the marble is either entirely defaced, or it has acquired the crystalline, reticulated appearance peculiar to the stalactite. Fronting the eastern entrance, and placed over the larger Phyá, is the following inscription written in the Thalial tongue, and specifying (as I am given to understand) the time that had elapsed since the cavern was first consecrated for the reception of the images*. The country was at that period in the hands of the Pég-go† government, and as marks of great age are evident throughout the whole of the works contained in the cavern, it is probable that some centuries have gone by since they were executed.

Passing out of the Damatha cavern on the eastern side, and following the limestone range to the south, a smaller cave may be observed within a few yards of the summit of the hill, which is in this place about 500 feet above the level of the plain; the ascent to it is extremely difficult, owing to the precipitous nature of the rock. A

* See note at the end of the paper and the inscription lithographed in Pl. X.—Ed.
† Pegu.
large brick and mortar image of Gautama guards the entrance of the cavern, which measures 18 by 22 feet, while its average height will be as much as 20 feet. This small cave had been but lately selected by the Phúngi, for the better concealment of a quantity of manuscripts written in the Thalian or Burmah character, and secreted in the upper part of the Damatha cavern at a time that the country was invaded by the Tshún*.

The manuscripts were placed in wooden boxes, elevated upon rafters; many had become perfectly rotten, and others were fast hastening to decay from constant exposure to damp.

It may be remarked, that curiously carved elephant's teeth were at one time to be found in these caverns, along with their less costly companions in wood and stone: these are now exceedingly scarce; the greater number have either crumbled into dust, or divested of the gilding and characteristic features of the Buddhist saint, have been exposed for sale in the bazar: some few have met with a better fate, and are probably now adorning the cabinets of the curious†. On a survey of the general devastation that prevails throughout these limestone caverns, it may reasonably be doubted, whether the hand of man has not proved equally destructive with time, and the elements, in obliterating much that had claim to notice by reason of superior antiquity, or novelty of design. The mutilated statues and broken shrines strewed around the caves too well attest the intrusion of other than Burmah devotees, and point out the havock provoked by avarice, a fanatic zeal, or the more reprehensible disregard of what is due to the feelings of a conquered people.

Notwithstanding its exceedingly compact nature, perhaps no rock possesses the property of decomposition and solubility in water to such a degree as the limestone here treated of. Hence the rich plains in its vicinity, and the no less fertile islands continually formed and nourished by the carbonaceous particles transported from a limestone country by the Than-lweng, Gyeng, and Attayen. This tendency to wear is particularly manifest at the Phuboweng Thoweng, a limestone hill on the right bank of the Attayen, and not far removed from the site of the late town and fort from whence that river derives its name. A cavern may be observed in this rock that has evidently been formed by a mountain torrent, which, coming from the interior, rushes through

* Siamese.

† I was fortunate enough to obtain three of these teeth: they appear to be of an immense age; the ivory of the smallest tooth is completely decayed. I have also some of the manuscripts above alluded to, and reserve the whole for presentation to the Asiatic Society. (See Proc. As. Soc. 6th May.)
it to join its waters with the Attayen; with an average elevation of 15 feet above the surface of the water, and a diameter of nine feet, the cavern continues to cover the stream to the distance of 80 yards or more beyond its place of junction with the river. In the dry season, the stream is comparatively tranquil; but in the S. W. monsoon, when it is greatly swelled, and becomes tremendously rapid, it rises to the summit, and by its overwhelming force and the constant attrition of its waters on the limestone rock adds considerably to the dimensions of the cave.

Beyond the Phabowng Thowng, and on the right bank of the Attayen river, are the hot-wells. They are three in number, and about two miles distant from the old town of Attayen, of which nothing now remains save a few bricks to point out the site of the wall that surrounded it. A dense jungle of reeds and long grass covers the ground, extending to the hot-springs and the limestone rocks in their neighbourhood. The largest of the wells is of a circular form, and apparently deep; its diameter is probably as much as 60 feet. An efflorescence of the salt it contained was perceptible on the brick wall by which it is enclosed; the taste of the salt exceedingly bitter, not unlike that of "sulphate of magnesia". The spring was in a state of active ebullition, and much steam arose from its surface; on the immersion of a therm. bulb, the mercury rose to 137° Fahrenheit. The springs evidently contained much rain water collected during the S. W. monsoon, and which, overflowing the banks, is disengaged by means of small rivulets that discharge themselves into the Attayen. Within a short distance of the hot-springs, I noticed water that had a dark colour, and a disagreeable foetid odour, like that of "sulphuretted hydrogen"; this water was cold, although contiguous to the hot-springs. Both cocoanut and palmyra trees were numerous on the spot, and did not appear to suffer from their vicinity to the hot-wells; a fine young pipal tree grew luxuriantly on the bank of the largest spring; on the contrary, the trees situated near the water supposed to contain "sulphuretted hydrogen" were of a diminutive size, and had a sickly appearance.

Advancing beyond Mowmah, another or second range of sandstone is seen to cross the Than-tweng river, and take a similar direction with the limestone on which it reposes; the rock is of the same compact or siliceous nature as that of Mowtuanna and Maulamyeng, but covered, for the greater part, by an upper stratum of red iron clay, accom-

* A bottle of the water, taken from the hot spring, has been presented to the Asiatic Society.
† When visited by me in Dec. 1835, at an early hour in the forenoon.
panied with steatite, a mineral not unfrequently found associated with this clay in other parts of the coast. This range is less wooded than the sandstone to the southward, and has the ferruginous appearance peculiar to the soil.

Approaching to the village of "Hmeebong," one cannot but be struck with the singular appearance of the limestone rock on the right bank of the Than-tweng: the limestone appears, as usual, in large isolated masses; but the form assumed by some of these is remarkably grotesque, at the same time, that the stratification of the limestone is more perceptible at this place than it has hitherto been. The following may be taken as a tolerably correct representation of these rocks, as seen from the neighbourhood of Hmeebong. (See fig. 2.)

Still ascending the Than-tweng, and passing the island of Colon by either channel, the river becomes more rapid, owing to the rise of its bed and the limestone reefs that cross it for several miles to the north; the eastern channel is that generally navigated: its left bank is high and precipitous, abounding with the cellular red iron clay so plentiful at Maulamyeng and Kyekmi: from its position, the clay appears to have been transported to its present site at a comparatively recent period, and subsequently to a change in the course of the Than-tweng; for it not only reposes horizontally upon the limestone rocks, but is found reclining upon a thick stratum of round pebbles and coarse gravel, in every respect similar to that found in the bed of the river at the conclusion of the rainy season*. This conglomerate is perhaps best viewed at an escarpment of the bank a little beyond Chamyah, and the great probability of its containing organic remains merits for it the particular attention of the geologist.

The limestone rock had been hitherto observed in broken but elevated chains on either bank of the Than-tweng, and with the exception of the few reefs before alluded to, seldom seen to stretch across and disturb the river in its progress to the south: leaving Colon Island and proceeding towards the Yengbieng Kyowung the case is far different; the country becomes more mountainous, at the same time that the rocks appear distorted and thrown about in the utmost disorder: it seems as if a chasm had been suddenly formed in the mountains, and a passage thus opened to the Than-tweng. Piled upon each other in the utmost confusion, the limestone rocks not only form a wall on either side of the river, narrowing its bed, and thereby adding to the

* This change of course might have been produced by the sudden deposit of the clay; and which accumulation and deposit can only be accounted for in the same manner as reasons are assigned for the singular appearance of the limestone rocks.
rapidity of the current, but spreading themselves across, obstruct its passage, and render the navigation extremely dangerous at any other time than the N. E. monsoon. The current of the river is very strong near Miang and Mye-an, but the principal rapids are met with in the neighbourhood of Towng-bio-myo: I accompanied Sir J. Dickson, K. C. B., to this place in March, 1835, and we found it impossible for our boats to proceed further; indeed our return was not effected without considerable risk, owing to the force of the current, and the numerous eddies produced by the inequalities on the bed of the Than-lweng, which is in this place extremely deep. Accidents continually occur: a boat once drawn within the vortex of the whirlpool is inevitably lost; both boat and crew are sucked down, and never known to make their appearance on the surface.

At the mouth of the Yengbieng Kyowng, a spot rendered peculiarly attractive by the beauty of the surrounding scenery, the limestone is seen gradually passing into clay-slate; the limestone has a slaty fracture, becomes earthy, and is of a darker colour; the transition is at length so perfected (to the view) that but for the effervescence produced by the nitric acid, it becomes, in some instances, extremely difficult to detect the presence of the limestone in the argillaceous schist, with which it is intimately blended. At a short distance beyond the Yeng-bien Kyowng, a few blocks of a grey siliceous rock may be observed at the foot of a hill on the left bank of the Than-lweng*; the hill is high, of a conical shape, and covered with a thick forest and underwood. Iron ore is found in considerable quantities both on the hill, as well as in its vicinity; and small grains of iron pyrites are abundantly disseminated in the rock. This is succeeded again by the slaty limestone, and finally by the blue clay-slate that crosses the river at the Towng-bio rapid. Large masses of slate repose on either bank, surrounded by a micaceous sand and pebbles (consisting for the most part of talcose slate), brought down from the upper country during the S. W. monsoon. A dyke of porphyritic felspar intervenes between the slate strata; the felspar rock is of a deep yellow, and studded throughout with small circular pieces of the same mineral, of a lighter colour. I regret much that I had not leisure to pay a proper degree of attention to the structure of this rock; our party arrived on the ground late in the afternoon, and we left the place early on the following morning; but short as was my stay at the Towng-bio rapid, I have often since dwelled in pleasing recollection, on the wild and

* The rock is extremely hard, and slightly impregnated with carbonaceous matter.
majestic scenery so bountifully bestowed by nature on this part of the Kayeng-aho.

A desire to become better acquainted with the geology of this part of the world induced me to pay a visit to the Ayein Kayeng. The following notes, having reference to the geology of that country, are extracted from my journal, with the view of rendering the description of the rocks before mentioned more complete.

"Leaving my boat at Mye-an, and advancing in a N. E. direction towards the village of Yeng-bien, a mass of regularly stratified limestone makes its appearance on the left of the road; it forms part of a broken chain extending N. N. W. and S. S. E. The stratification of the limestone is remarkably distinct; the dip of the strata E. N. E.

"Proceeding from thence up a dry nullah, covered with fragments of slate and sandstone, the ascent lay over the blue clay-slate that is first seen reposing on the limestone at the Towng-bio rapid. The slate is covered with a forest of fine young male bambus, runs parallel with the limestone, and may be as much as 900-feet above the level of the plain."

"Bidding adieu to Yeng-bien, and advancing in the same direction towards Melayo, Tignoné, (Tshangelee,) and Bo-thowng, the rocks are of the same nature as those encountered in route from Maulamyeng to Towng-bio-myo; viz. limestone, alternating with sandstone and clay-slate; the sandstone becomes extremely compact and siliceous in the neighbourhood of Bo-thowng; the limestone presents itself in the usual broken masses of various extent. But the clay-slate of Bo-thowng differs in colour from that of Towng-bio, being either pink or reddish brown, with a fine silky texture. The route from Tignoné to Bo-thowng is difficult and dangerous from the precipitous nature of the rock which is, at the latter place, as much as 2000 feet above the level of the plain. The ascent is also much impeded by the leaves and clay-slate pebbles profusely scattered about, and leaving little footing for the traveller on a path so inclined. Descending on the eastern side of the hill, the path (if it may be so called) lay over masses of the same pink-coloured slate, watered by a stream that precipitated itself over the rock, and rendered the descent a matter of no small difficulty; after proceeding a hundred yards or more, in that direction, the route lay to the left; a second ascent was here commenced, and passing a few heaps of stratified limestone alternating with the slate, I arrived at that part of the mountain called Bo-thowng; silver ore is said to exist in a limestone rock at this place, and judging from the numerous excavations that had been made by those in pursuit of the precious metal, no little labour has been used in the endeavour to discover it.
I had neither time nor opportunity for ascertaining whether silver ore does so exist; pieces of copper green, iron pyrites, and lead ore*, deemed useless and cast aside by those in pursuit of silver, were strewed around the place, and for the first time, in this part of the world, I observed Anthracite dispersed in thin seams through the limestone rock. The figure of the limestone is not a little singular; emerging from the clay-slate at the upper part of the mountain, and confined to a line of 20 or 30 yards, the strata rise at a considerable angle, attaining an elevation of 90 or 100 feet, so that the exterior form of the limestone is that of a huge block, resting upon the hill, unconnected with any rock of the same class. This structure is common to the limestone throughout the whole of the bo-thoweng chain; but notwithstanding its peculiarity of form, the stratification is perfectly distinct; the dip of the strata being to the N. E. or E. N. E. precisely similar to that of the sandstone or clay-slate, with which it alternates."

The above notes were hastily arranged on my return from Maulamyeng; my residence at that place was necessarily short, and I am aware that much still remains deserving the attention of those who will possess the leisure and opportunities that I was not fortunate enough to enjoy. The field is stored with much that is valuable to the Antiquarian, the Botanist, and the lover of Natural History. I trust that others will, ere long, lay before the public the treasures it contains.

**Note.**—The inscription brought by Capt. Foley, from the Damatha cave, is certainly the most enigmatical that has yet puzzled the antiquarian. I have lithographed it in Plate X., and with the assistance of Ratna Paula, now furnish a copy in the Roman character:

Line 1.—sakkarāk lī kun, 30—65 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 4015061, nhaī, sakkarāk kun lī.
2.—50—45 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 603304 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 790 nhaī, sakkarāk
3.—lī kun, 370 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 408—409 nhaī, sakkarāk, lī kun, 604—30 nhaī nhaī.
4.—sakkarāk lī kun, 3006.5—0 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 303—50 nhaī, sakkarāk lī
5.—kun 508309 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 306060 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun 60—303—5
6.—nhaī sakkarāk lī kun, 407—50 nhaī, sakkarāk kun lī kun, 6030304, nhaī, sakkarāk lī
7.—kun 401501 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 305602 nhaī, sakkarāk lī kun, 503—704 nhaī.

All that can be predicated of this curious text is, that it contains either some profound and unintelligible calculation, or that it is a

* On analysis, it appeared to be an "arseniate of lead."
chronological register of mythological times:—if the latter, the names of the reigning monarchs are omitted as inmaterial, and the simple fact announced, "in the year so and so, so many reigns;"—but even this is conjectural, and unless errors have been committed in copying the figures, they do not run in any seeming order. The word sak-kurák is the Talain rendering of the Sanscrit sakaríj, year; in Barmese written sakkaríj: the terms lrí kun and nhaú are unknown to my informant.

J. P. Sec.


In the Journal of April 1835, I gave the result of a comparison of the amount of rain-fall at Calcutta, with different positions of the moon, as far as regards her declination. The averages shew that a greater quantity of rain fell on the days when the declination was large, say from 20° to 28°, than when it was small. Now, as there are some years in the lunar cycle in which the declination never reaches to 20°, it followed, as a probable, though not a necessary, inference, that in those years there would be a deficiency of rain. Shortly afterwards I met with this note, (Humboldt's New Spain, translated by Black, vol. ii. page 86.) "Toaldo pretends to be able to deduce from a great number of observations, that the very rainy years, and consequently the great inundations, return every 19 years according to the terms of the cycle of Saros—Rozier, Journal de Physique 1783." The recurrence seems here spoken of as an exploded error. I have therefore used whatever means lay within my reach to obtain information as to what really has been the variation of the seasons in this country for a long time back, and I will now state the results. But I must first premise respecting the note just quoted, that great inundations are not a necessary consequence of very rainy years. Should the rain fall regularly or equably, it will be less likely to occasion an inundation, than a much less quantity falling in a very short time. This will be more particularly the case in rocky and mountainous countries, where the channels are more easily choaked. In wide-extended plains, like those of the Nile and the Ganges, the rise of the river will form a more probable criterion of the amount of the rainy-season, though not a certain one. To revert, however, to the point proposed. The year 1829, was that of the minimum declination of the moon, and from the early part of 1827, to the end of 1831, the declination is never stated in the Almanacks at above 20°. For this, or rather for a period somewhat more extended, viz. from 1826 to 1833, inclusive, we have the following facts recorded.
1826, 1827, 1828, 1829.

Great drought in N. S. Wales; Lieut. Brereton's Travels.

1832. Public prayer by the Emperor of China for rain on account of extraordinary drought. Minimum of rain by Calcutta Register.

1833. Great drought through all the Upper Provinces, extending from Bundelkhand to Kashmir.

Let us next turn to Mr. Kyd's Register of the Height of the Hugli, (see Journal, April, 1835;) and as that has been objected to as evidence, I must be allowed to say a word in its defence. It is true that the level of the Hugli at Calcutta is affected by the tides in the Bay; but according to Mr. Kyd's account, such an occurrence is very rare, an inundation from the sea not happening more than once in a century. Remembering then that the ninth year before 1829 or 1820, was that of the moon's maximum declination, we find that the three or four years immediately before or after that were higher, on the average, than those farther off. Again, if we take 1811, the ninth year before 1820, and 18 years before 1829, we find that in the years nearest to it the river was lower than in those farther off. If we take the joint evidence of the height of the river, and the Calcutta register, we may assume that 1813 was the minimum year of rain; the 10th year after that or 1823, was the maximum year of rain: and in the ninth year again after that, or in 1832, came a minimum again; a period of 19 years, or a complete lunar cycle, having intervened between one minimum and its succeeding one.

With a view of ascertaining whether such a variation held in other localities, I obtained from the collector's office here, a memorandum of the character of the seasons as to rain for 21 years back. It was dictated from memory by an old native officer of the establishment, who would of course have the records of the office to refer to; and these in a climate where the crops depend so much upon the quantity of rain, would of themselves be a tolerable guide.

It begins thus: 1812, great drought; 1813, moderate; 1814 to 1823, (both inclusive, a period of 10 years,) four years very abundant, four years, abundant, two years moderate. From 1824 to 1833, (both inclusive, a period of 10 years,) one year very abundant, two years abundant, three years moderate, three years, drought; one year, 1833, great drought. The seasons of great drought are here placed 21 years apart, instead of 19, as in the former case. Evidence of this kind, like that from the height of the river, though not free from objection, can hardly be deemed unworthy of credit, when it is corroborated from other sources. There is one advantage, however, which
information of the two kinds above-mentioned, possesses over the results of a solitary rain-guage, however carefully kept, viz. that they are an index, imperfect as they may be, to what has happened over a large tract of country; whereas the rain-guage can only inform us to one particular spot, and rain-guages in general are so much affected by peculiarities of situation, that the results afforded by any one singly, must be considered as liable to doubt. To obviate this objection, I have placed together in a table all the different series procurable, of a date posterior to 1820, (see Table No. 1.) Most of them are to be found in the different Nos. of the Journal; and the localities are between Dacca, (E. Long. 90°,) and Delhi, (E. Long. 78°,) between Nagpur, (Lat. 21°, North,) and Delhi, 28° 40' (N.) To these are added the observations at Madras, which I have obtained through the kindness of the Astronomer there; at Macao, in China, (Journal, July, 1832,) and at Edinburgh, (see BREWSTER’s Philosophical Journal, passim.) In Table No. 2, are given the only three series that I have for the years between 1800 and 1821. The two first (Madras and Macao) are merely the preceding parts of the series given in Table 1. The last from Carlsruhe, in Sweden, is given in the Edinburgh Philosophical Journal for 1821, there quoted from the Bibliotheque Universelle for November, 1820. The original appears to be given in French inches and lines, and I have not reduced them to English measure, as the doing so would not affect the question at issue, viz. whether some years of the lunar cycle are more rainy than others. Now to make a more correct comparison of the different years, we must first reduce the numbers given in Table 1. to a common mean. Thus, we have Dacca for eight years, (1827, 1828, 1829, 1830, 1831, 1832, 1833, 1834,) and the mean of the different sums given is 72.80 inches; at Calcutta, for the same eight years, the mean is 60.37 inches. The difference between these, 12.43 inches, we may reasonably suppose to be owing to the localities. Subtract, therefore, from each item of the Dacca series, the mean difference 12.43; the remainders will be reduced to the mean of Calcutta*. Proceed in a similar way with the other series, only of course where the climate is drier than that of Calcutta, the mean difference must be added, and not subtracted. The series in Table No. 2, may be included in the comparison by treating them in a similar way, and then considering them only according to their position in the lunar cycle. Thus, if we take 1821 for the first year of the cycle, 1803 (or the eighteenth year before that) may also be reckoned as the first year; 1802 and 1820, will of course be the last years. Place the whole in columns numbered according to their distance from 1802 and 1820, and an average may be taken

* The more correct mode would be to multiply the Dacca series by \( \frac{60.37}{72.80} \) — Ed.
of the whole, as in Table, No. 3. From this it appears that the average of nine years nearest the maximum is 66'34 inches, and of nine years nearest the minimum, 61'21 inches, making a difference of 5'13, or nearly 1/12th of the whole between the two periods. If it be objected, that such a difference is too trivial to be decisive, we may answer that the difference shewn in the table is less than the real one. In all the series, except those of Dacca and Macao, a quantity has been added to bring them to the mean of Calcutta, and of course where two quantities differ, and a third quantity is added to each, they are brought nearer to a ratio of equality*.

Secondly, if we consider each series separately, (see Tables 1. and 2,) we shall find that each confirms the opinion of the years of maximum declination being the most rainy, except the Macao one, in which the reverse holds good. Thus the average of 1812, 1813, 1814, and 1815, (four years near the minimum,) is 80'50 inches. That of 1816, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, (seven years about the maximum,) is 61'46. Again, that of 1825, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, (seven years about the minimum,) is 71'00 inches. So that this gauge, as well as the others, favours the idea of a recurrence contemporaneous with the recurrence in the lunar cycle. We may here remark, that the idea of certain localities reciprocating, or experiencing at the same time contrary variations of climate, appears, at first sight, more probable than that the quantity of precipitation over the whole globe should be abundant for a series of years, and then deficient, the great cause of evaporation, viz. the heating power of the sun, remaining all the while the same.

It will be noticed, that among the series are two from northern Europe (Edinburgh and Carlsruhe). The inference might have been drawn without them, but they were added, as being the only others of any length I had at hand, to complete the cycle. Notwithstanding the testimony of the Swedish gauge, it is very doubtful whether such a variation as is there shewn is general over Europe. I say so: First. Because of the way in which the idea is treated in the note from Humboldt above quoted. Secondly. From the silence of modern writers in meteorology respecting it. Thirdly. What English registers I have been able to examine (and they are for short periods, not above three or four years) do not shew a preponderance of rain towards the maximum declination of the moon, but rather the reverse; so that, from that, as well as from other sources of information, we might conjecture the variations there would rather agree with those of the Macao guage, than of the Indian ones.

In naming the places visited, either just before, or after the year 1829, by drought, the following was omitted: "During the three

* This would have been obviated by following the course mentioned in the note, page 283.—Ed.
years prior to 1834, there had been a complete drought, which had brought a famine upon these islands, and, in consequence, some thousands of the inhabitants had died."—Sketches of Cape de Verd Islands.—United Service Journal, July, 1835. As these islands lie in a latitude between that of Calcutta and Madras, the fact is interesting, but I have no accounts to refer to for the state of things during that period, in the intervening countries of Egypt, Abyssinia, Arabia, and Persia.

Lastly. It will be objected, that a regularly ascending and descending series has not been made out.

This is true; but as the number of series from which to take the averages has increased, so has the tendency to it become more apparent. There is one circumstance, however, which may serve to prevent a regular ascent and descent from ever becoming perceptible, viz. the place of the perigee. Having been lately engaged in an examination of barometric heights with regard to this, I have noticed that the average amount of variation from the mean, either in excess or defect, is greater about the time of perigee, as it also is about that of maximum declination. Now there are some years in which the day of perigee coincides about the solstices with that of maximum declination, and these years are usually the extreme ones, both of moisture and drought. I subjoin a sample.

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The three numbers in the Calcutta guage are, one, the highest, and two the lowest up to 1833; the six numbers in the Madras guage are the four minima and two maxima noted up to the same period. Of the three numbers from the Macao guage, one only is an extreme, but the other two are very large either way. Some other circumstances, also, would lead to the belief, that peculiar localities receive the changes both of drought and moisture earlier than others. Thus the last drought was at its height in Bengal in 1832, and also at Madras; but it did not reach either Delhi or the Nilgherries to the westward until 1833. This of course introduces a new source of confusion.

There is one other way of attempting to trace the variation of the seasons, and that is by a comparison of the prices of corn in different years at different places; but this must be deferred for the present.
### Table No. 1.

Shewing the Annual Sums of Rain in inches that have fallen in different places in different years since 1820.

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<td>59:73</td>
<td>63:24</td>
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Note.—In the years marked with an asterisk the Calcutta Registers are partially defective, and have been supplied from the averages.

### Table No. 2.

Shewing the Annual sums of Rain that have fallen at different places in 20 years previous to 1821.

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<td>21:84</td>
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Table No. 3.

Shewing the comparative quantities of Rain that fell in different places in different years of the Lunar Cycle, the years 1803 and 1821, (or those next after that of Maximum Declination,) being taken as the first of the Cycle, and the whole being reduced to the mean of Calcutta.

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Average of years, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 15, 16, 17, 18, 66.34
Average of years, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 61.21
Difference, 5.15

* The last No. of the two included within the brackets is for the year 1814 (see Journal As Soc. vol. II, 239. Climate of Nagpore).
VI.—Recent Discovery of Fossil Bones in Perim Island, in the Cambay Gulph.

[Read at the meeting of the 1st June.]

The following notice of the interesting discovery of this new deposit of fossil bones has been obligingly communicated to me in a letter from the Baron Hugel, dated at Bombay the 17th April. Although its publication anticipates the arrival of the specimens themselves, it would be an injustice to science and to Dr. Lush to delay for a moment so important an announcement. The acknowledgments of the Society are due both to the discoverer and to the Baron Hugel, for the preference given to our museum for their preservation. I hope the circumstance may lead to fresh exertions in the valley of the Narbada, where doubtless much still remains to be explored.—J. P. Sec.

"You will receive shortly a few fossil bones from Perim Island, in the Cambay Gulph. Dr. Lush has the merit to have found them, but without exploring them at all. I had no time to go over from Surat, where Dr. Lush showed me them. I requested him to send them to you through Mr. Wathen. One is an imperfect bone of a mastodon or elephant—another the head of a boar unknown, and one belonging, I think, to a 'Rongeur;' but what induces me particularly to wish them at Calcutta is, that there is a horn in its matrix, which, connected as these fossils must necessarily be with those of the Narbada, might belong to that species of Bos mentioned in your Journal: it is decidedly not of a Buffalo. I was so anxious to reach Bombay, that I could not possibly go to Perim myself. I did however manage to send a boat over; and I received yesterday 41 pieces of fossil bones: the greater part belonging to the mastodon latidens, of which the teeth, in a perfect state, did not leave any doubt; some of the bones are of an immense size, one fractured piece of the tusk measuring from the centre to the outside of the circle 5 1/4 which gives 10 1/2 inches diameter, or 34 inches in circumference: some of them are in the same hard matrix you will see imbedding the horn; some evidently rolled by the sea. There are some curious teeth among the fragments I possess, and two triangular shaped pieces similar to the horn of a rhinoceros: the teeth are however too large to belong to that animal. I may perhaps send the most curious specimens round to you; but I am at this moment too much pleased with my discovery to part with them. It appears that the island abounds with fossils, and it is a clear proof either that the Narbada must have found only lately its way to the Cambay gulph, or that some other revolution must have
separated the little island from Kattiwár. Having no opportunity to leave this for either Persia or the Cape, I may still perhaps be able to go to Perim and Gogo, to trace the fossils on the main land of the peninsula.”

HUGEL.

Since the above was set in type, and just before striking off the sheet, I have been favored with the subjoined additional information from a new correspondent, Lieut. FULLJAMES, which I hasten to make known through the Journal, while I venture to assure him the thanks of the Society for his projected exertions to enrich its museum. Who will not become an enthusiast amid such discoveries? It is but four years since the existence of strata containing fossil bones was denied in India, or at least supposed to be confined to Assam and Ava. We are proud to think that the Journal has been in some measure the humble means of stimulating the search which has been thus crowned with success in so many quarters.—Ed.

“On my arrival in this part of the country in the month of April, I heard a report that some bones, turned into stones, as the natives called them, had been discovered on the Island of Perim in the Gulph of Cambay, and in latitude 21° 39'.

I lost no time in going there to see if the report of fossil remains was correct, and although I do not pretend to be a geologist, or to know much about fossil osteology, still I consider my labours most amply repaid, by my first visit to the island; for I obtained a most perfect specimen of the teeth of the mastodon; one also that I think belongs to the palæotherium; and the femur, vertebrae, and many other bones belonging to mammiferous animals now extinct.

Being well aware from the perusal of your scientific Journal, how highly, and I might say justly, remains of this sort are prized, I shall take the liberty of forwarding to the Society for their acceptance a box containing specimens of these fossil remains.

The formation in which they were discovered is a tertiary conglomerate, composed of nodules of sandstone, indurated clay, and a small proportion of silex, cemented together by a yellow clay; most of the fossil remains have been exposed to view, by the sea having washed off the upper part of the matrix, but still they are firmly attached to the rock, and the only way they were to be obtained, without breaking, was by stone-cutters carefully working all round them; large quantities of petrified wood were lying about in every direction.

The following is a list of the strata as they appeared to me, commencing from the surface, viz.

1st. Loose sand and earth.

2nd. Conglomerate, composed of sandstone, clay and silex.
3rd. Yellow and whitish clay, with nodules of sandstone.
4th. Conglomerate as above.
5th. Siliceous sandstone with a few fossils. (Calcareous.—Ed.)
6th. Conglomerate.
7th. Indurated clay more or less compact.
8th. Conglomerate, in which the best, and I may say nearly the whole of the fossil remains have been discovered.

The deepest strata of conglomerate are about 3 feet, but they generally do not run more than 18 inches to 2 feet, and for the most part lie horizontal. On the western side of the island, however, the strata are much disturbed, being fractured, and dipping at an acute angle to the east; on the southern end of the island, sandstone appears below the fossil stratum of conglomerate, dipping to the north at an angle of 25 degrees.

There is a tradition among the inhabitants of Gogah, that the island of Perim was formerly joined to the main land, by means of a stone bridge, which has, in the course of time, been destroyed; remains of some buildings are still to be seen, running into the sea in the shape of piers, &c. It must have been a very stupendous undertaking, for there is a channel now between the land and the island of the depth of 75 fathoms, and nearly 500 yards in width.

On the island there are the remains of a considerable fort, and buildings of Hindu architecture, for I observed in an old temple that had tumbled down, the broken figure of Buddha rudely sculptured in a sitting posture; also the remains of a large tank wall, and bauli. Among the other curiosities of the island are two elephants cut out in the rock; they are covered now by the sea except at very low water; one is finished, and I should say, measured about 10 feet long by 8 or 9 feet high. Capital fresh water is procurable on the island, 20 feet below the surface; it is found below the stratum of sandstone.

I will here enumerate the varieties of specimens of fossil remains, which I think have been found. Teeth of mammoth; ditto mastodon, palaepotherium, hippopotamus, or rhinoceros, and a number of other smaller animals. The head of some large saurian animal; part of a tortoise; ditto of elephant’s tusk. Femora, vertebrae, and other large bones; one shell in siliceous sandstone, and the half of a deer’s foot. With this vast variety before me, it requires a person much better qualified than myself in the art to say to what particular animal the different specimens belong, and I therefore forward them with the hopes of hearing the opinion of the scientific in Calcutta.

It has occurred to me, on reading over the Journal for Aug. 1834, that the conglomerate in which the fossil remains in the valley of the
Nerbudda have been discovered, is very nearly similar to that in which the Perim fossil are found; and if my conjectures are correct, we shall be able to trace the formation along the whole line of the Nerbudda valley and the greater part of the Kattíwár coast. Should such be the case, and I have but little doubt in my own mind that it will be so, what a vast field has thus been thrown open, for discovery and research; I still hope to see my conjectures fulfilled with regard to finding coal in the Tajpipla or Kattíwár range of hills before the lapse of many years.

Not wishing to take the credit to myself of having been the first person to discover these remains, I should mention that I believe Dr. Lush was the first; he having, I understand, found a tusk of some animal on the island. During a second visit to the island, I was accompanied by three other gentlemen, who have most kindly given permission to forward any part of the specimens so obtained, that I think may be acceptable.

Doubtless on further research and on breaking up the stratum, more perfect specimens of bones will be discovered: for I must mention that all those sent were covered at high water, the highest point of the island not being above 60 feet higher than high water mark; the length of the island is about 1½ miles to 2 miles, and in breadth ½ to ¾ mile; large sand hills are formed on the south-west side, and it is inhabited by about 12 houses of coolies, who cultivate bajrí there during the monsoon. A light-house has been established there for some years, and kept up by the Government, of which a serang and five lascars have charge; the expenses are defrayed by levying a duty on all boats passing.

Should I be able to make any further discoveries either in fossil remains, or as to the formation of the Kattíwár hill, I shall trouble you with a further communication; that is to say, should you consider the present worthy of occupying any part of the pages of your interesting Journal.

Geo. Fulljames."

VII.—Table of Sub-Himalayan Fossil Genera, in the Dádápur Collection.
By Lieuts. W. E. Baker and H. M. Durand, Engineers.

The following table is intended to illustrate the proportion in which the respective genera have been found to occur, and is deduced from the specimens in our collection.

The results might have been presented in a more simple form by confining the table to the two last columns; but as information with regard to the number of perfect and imperfect specimens on which
the entries admitted into these columns are based may be deemed interesting, the following headings under which the specimens were counted off are also given.

_Cranium_, which title includes all specimens showing a considerable portion of the head.

_Upper Jaws_. Allotted to such palates as possess either one or both lines of molars complete.

_Lower Jaws_. Under this heading are numbered those lower jaws which are perfect, and also such as, though wanting the symphisis, present the line of molars complete. The shape of the lower jaws of the ruminantia renders them very liable to fracture immediately in front of the molars; accordingly, a great number of half jaws are found, which, being deprived of their symphisis, afford no means of accurately joining together such of them as may have belonged to the same individual. Some pairs may therefore have been overlooked; an error nearly inevitable, and which would account for the apparent excess of lower jaws in proportion to the upper.

_Fragments of Upper and of Lower Jaws_. Within these columns, as the heading imports, fragments of maxillaries, containing one, two, or more molars, and also those detached molars, the maxillaries of which are not in the collection, have been ranged.

As the table enters into no detail of species, the latest discoveries which it comprises may be cursorily noticed. These are a very perfect cranium and lower jaw of a species of Vulpes; an equally perfect cranium and lower jaw of a species of the genus Gulo; also an addition to the Pachyderma, consisting of the anterior half of a head, of which the posterior half was unfortunately broken off; and owing to the carelessness of the excavators, none of the fragments have hitherto been recovered. The lower jaw is locked within the upper; so that the exterior surface, and the outline of the upper molars can alone be examined; the characteristics of the teeth being thus imperfectly developed, and the occiput wanting altogether, the specimen has been inserted in the table under the general title "Cuvierian Pachyderma:" by which, however, there is no intention of conveying the idea that it has been identified with any of the Pachydermata of the Paris basin; for although it affords some analogies both to the Palæotherium and to the Anoplotherium, its essential peculiarities are sufficiently remarkable to cause it to be separated from either genus.

In the present early state of the search, the accompanying list can only be considered as an approximation to the relative numerical proportions in which the different fossil genera existed. Viewed as such, it tends to prove that species of the genera Elephas, Mastodon, Hippopotamus, Cervus, Antilope, and Bos, were abundant; that the genera...
Rhinoceros, Equus, Sus, Canis, and Hyena, were of less frequent occurrence, and that the Camelidae and the Sivatherium were rare. The habits of these genera may be adduced as reasons for modifying this general summary of the state of a former zoological period.

Note.—Having been favored with the perusal of the forthcoming papers on the Hippopotamus, in the Asiatic Society's Transactions, it becomes requisite to remark, that the specimen placed under the genus Anthracotherium is the same which in a note at page 59, is considered by Dr. Falconer as belonging to a new genus, Charoatherium. In our opinion, it is a new species of Anthracoth- erium, under which we have accordingly numbered it. Mr. Dawe has brought to our notice a specimen in his possession, which consists of the right half of a lower jaw belonging to the *Hippopotamus Dissimilis* of Dr. Falconer and Captain Cautley. It is valuable as showing two molars which have suffered but little detrition, and which, instead of the tapering conical collines, with summits close to each other, as in the large Hippopotami, has its colline apices widely separated, the tapering taking place from the point of contact of their bases forwards: the outer side of each colline is nearly perpendicular, and from the manner in which the sloping and the upright surfaces meet, the colline top loses the mammillar aspect, assuming a flattened almost treuchant form. The wear indicated is the same as that described in the paper above alluded to.

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*Dādāpur, April 27th, 1836.*
Note on the teeth of the

VIII.—Note on the Teeth of the Mastodon à dents etroites of the Siwalik Hills. By Captain P. T. Cautley. Pl. XI.

[Read at the meeting of the 1st June.]

Without further preface I refer the reader to the 1st volume of the Osemens fossiles, page 268. Figures 1 and 2, plate 4, under the head of "Divers Mastodons."

These drawings were presented to Cuvier by M. Faujas, and the fossil was found near Asti in Upper Italy.

Cuvier merely alludes to this fossil as one of the varieties into which the true Mastodon à dents etroites passes by a greater subdivision and an irregularity of position of the mamillæ; the proportions of length to breadth of the tooth retaining their full and perfect character.

By comparing the accompanying drawings with the figures above alluded to, there can be no demur, I imagine, in identifying the Siwalik variety of Mastodon now under review with the Asti fossil. It remains therefore simply to note the peculiarities in form of the tooth: although it may be a point of consideration hereafter, whether, as the character of the tooth is so marked, and its peculiarities so rigidly adhered to throughout the whole of the remains found in the Siwaliks, it may not be placed under a sub-genus, that of "angustidens," with the specific denomination of M. Sivalensis.

There is no cortical substance or crista petrosa; the tooth consisting of enamel and ivory only, the former being very thick and massive, as is normal in the mastodons.

The coronal surface consists of a double line of conical and obtusely pointed mamillæ: those on the external side being in most cases perfect, whilst those on the inner side are divided by a fissure or fissures into two or three irregularly formed obtuse points. These mamillæ are not, as in the true Mastodon angustidens, placed transversely or at right angles with the line of surface, but meet each other from right to left alternately, so that the furrow on one side is interrupted by the mamilla on the other; and the mamillæ on the whole line of tooth lock into each other in the same way that two serrated edges opposed to each other might be supposed to do, were they placed in contact.

The outer surface of the enamel is smooth, and the space or furrow between each mamilla both on the external and internal surface is marked by a small tubercle, the presence of which however does not appear to be constant.

The surface of the tooth of the lower jaw wears obliquely and outwardly on the grinding surface, as in the ruminants, in which respect it differs entirely from the elephants.

The wear of the coronals is marked at the commencement by irregularly lobed figures, which, as the detrition advances, become confus-
ed, and gradually unite, until the mamillae are worn away entirely, when the tooth is left with merely a surface of ivory surrounded by enamel.

The drawings are intended to represent the tooth at these different stages; from the state of germ, to the old and worn down tooth, shewing the intermediate state of detrition at different ages.

Pl. xi. Fig. 1. Fragment of tooth in germ, with the enamel on one of the mamillae fractured.

Fig. 2. A very perfect molar of a young but adult animal, the front surface being moderately worn, and the rear portion in the state of germ. This is the right molar of the lower jaw. The length of this tooth is 9·2 inches or 234 metres, and the breadth measured on the base or lower bulge of the mamillae 2·95 inches or 0·74 metres; it consists of six pair of points or mamillae, with apparently (as the fossil is slightly fractured at this point) a bilobed talon in the rear. The coronal surface is here shewn.

Fig. 3. An internal view of the same tooth.

Fig. 4. An external view of the same, exhibiting the obliquity of wear on the coronal surface.

Fig. 5 and 6. Fragment of a tooth of a greater age than the preceding.

Fig. 7 and 8. Fragment of tooth with jaw attached; this is a portion of the left molar of the lower jaw of an animal of the same age as that represented in figs. 5 and 6, distinctly shewing the cup-like cavities formed by the detrition and gradual junction of the mamillae: the obliquity of wear towards the outer surface is here very distinctly marked.

Fig. 9 and 10. Fragment of a tooth of the same age as the preceding.

The three last specimens have belonged to animals of nearly the same age; the mamillae are much worn, and we see the gradual obliteration of their independent hollows, reducing the coronal surface to the appearance exhibited in figs. 11 and 12.

Fig. 11. Shews the detrition at an intermediate state between figs. 9 and 10, and fig. 12. The posterior portion of this specimen still retains the encircling lines of enamel on the worn down points, whilst the portion in front has arrived at its last stage of wear.

Fig. 12. May be considered as a representation of the tooth in its final state of detrition, when all marks of the mamillated form of crown is obliterated, and nothing remains but an outer border of enamel encircling a deep internal hollow of ivory.

I wish to draw attention particularly to the alternating position of the mamille, which I consider to be the chief specific character, and which is distinctly marked throughout the whole series; and, referring
again to the Asti fossil as figured in Cuvier, I think that a clear identification is established.

As my object in writing this note is simply to point out the distinctive characters of the teeth of the mastodon à dents etroites, which have been found in the Siwálik hills, it is unnecessary to make any further remarks until we can enter upon a general description of the fossil mastodons and elephants of these hills; noting however, that from the half of a lower jaw of this species, with its ramus attached, which is now in my possession, we may look forward to some peculiarities of form, differing very materially not only from the fossil and existing elephant, but also from the other species of mastodons.

Up to this period I am only aware of the discovery of two species of mastodons in the Siwálik hills; namely, the variety of *M. angustidens* which is the subject of this note, and the *M. Elephantoides* of Clift. The former is very rare, and the latter in very great abundance.

IX.—Meteorological Register kept at Bangalore. By Dr. J. Mouat, Medical Surgeon, 13th Dragoons.

If the accompanying meteorological table, kept at Bangalore, for the year 1835, be of any interest, you are at liberty to make any use of it you please. It has been drawn up for the medical reports, which I am in the habit of transmitting to the heads of my department, and the transcription of which is all the trouble it now gives. The original table, as kept every two hours for the entire of 1834 and 1835, are also at your service; but they are two voluminous and bulky, I should think, for any useful purpose. The column of monthly average was obtained by adding the state of the thermometer, kept every two hours for the entire 24 hours; dividing this by 12, gave the average for each day. These added together for the month, and divided by the number of days in the month, give the monthly average noted in the table.

The wards of the hospital are visited by one of the medical pupils or apprentices every two hours from 10 P. M. to 4 A. M., whose duty it is to give medicine, &c. to the sick, and, at the same time, to mark the thermometer. The corporal of the guard, when relieving the sentries, is responsible, and sees this duty performed; and, in the day time, the hospital serjeant, apothecaries, pupils on duty, &c. mark it, the rest of the 24 hours; so that every source of error is endeavoured to be avoided. The thermometer marked S., or side, is fixed on the end of a shelf, some inches from the wall, and by its position, screened from the influence of the glare or reflected heat; the other, marked C. or centre, is suspended from the centre of the room, about seven feet from the floor, and the general agreement of the two instruments is a pretty good guarantee for their accuracy. The apartment is the surgery of the
Masto Mastodon Angustidens

P. T. C. del. 1835.
of the Siwalik hills.
hospital, 12 feet square, with a door facing the east and a window to the north. The former always, and the latter generally, kept open. There are also two small ventilators on the west side, always admitting a circulation of air.

The other table is from Sir. J. F. W. Herschel's suggestion of meteorological observations, &c. kept on four fixed days in each year and the thermometer, &c. marked every hour.

**Abstract of Two-hourly Meteorological Register, kept at Bangalore, 1835.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>S. or Side.</th>
<th>C. or Centre</th>
<th>Rain</th>
<th>Wind</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan.,</td>
<td>70.74</td>
<td>71.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Eas-terly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb.,</td>
<td>73.53</td>
<td>73.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Eas-terly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marc.,</td>
<td>79.56</td>
<td>79.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April,</td>
<td>78.66</td>
<td>78.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May,</td>
<td>79.22</td>
<td>79.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June,</td>
<td>75.55</td>
<td>76.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July,</td>
<td>74.45</td>
<td>74.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.,</td>
<td>73.45</td>
<td>74.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.,</td>
<td>74.00</td>
<td>73.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.,</td>
<td>70.36</td>
<td>71.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.,</td>
<td>71.50</td>
<td>71.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.,</td>
<td>69.93</td>
<td>70.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Ann. Avg. | 74.39 | 73.55 |

N. B. The Thermometers marked every two hours—the Barometer at 10 A. M. and 3 P. M.

* This daily register of the Barometer, at 10 A. M. and 4 P. M., would be particularly acceptable, provided the instrument was a good one, which we almost ear could not be the case. (See below.)—Ed.
### Meteorological Observations, &c.

**X.—Meteorological Observations, taken every hour, at Bangalore, in the Hospital of H. M. 13th Dragoons, from 6 A. M. of the 21st to 6 P. M. of the 22nd March, 1836, inclusive, in conformity with Sir W. Herschel's instructions. By the same.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hours of Observation</th>
<th>Range of Barometer</th>
<th>Range of 2 Therm's</th>
<th>Weather.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March, 1836.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 A.M. 21st.</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Weather clear, cool, and pleasant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 ditto.</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>Calm; the sun getting hot when exposed outside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 ditto.</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Much the same; sun getting very hot ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 ditto.</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto; gentle breeze.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Very hot; some light clouds; ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Sun hot, air cool, some light clouds, wind rising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Noon.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Sun at times obscured, light clouds, and the air cool and refreshing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. M.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Ditto, ditto, ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Ditto, ditto, ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ditto.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Sun very oppressive, very little wind, and very hot and close; some light clouds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 ditto.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Very close; the sun very hot, scarcely any wind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Getting cool, wind rising, and very pleasant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 ditto.</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>Calm and pleasant; sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 ditto.</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>Ditto and very close; light clouds; some lighting; S. E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Ditto gentle breeze ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 ditto.</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Gentle breeze; some heavy clouds; W. Wy. ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 ditto.</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>Calm and very sultry; some heavy clouds hovering about; some lighting; S. E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 ditto.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>Slight breeze from S. E.; sky clearer, some lighting, N. W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Midnight.</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>Ditto, clear sky; frequent; ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 A. M. 22d.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Cool and pleasant; ditto; gentle breeze from S. E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 ditto.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Wind rising and strong from S. E.; at times variable; sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ditto.</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Still strong breeze from S. E.; at times W. Wy. do. do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 ditto.</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Gentle cool breeze ditto; cloudless sky.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 ditto.</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 ditto.</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Very gentle breeze; not so cool as at 5, but pleasant; ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 ditto.</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>Clear and pretty cool; very calm, but the sun getting hot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 ditto.</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Ditto ditto, ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 ditto.</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>Much the same, but the sun getting very hot, scarcely any breeze.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 ditto.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>Getting very hot, very calm and clear, slight breeze.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 ditto.</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Gentle breeze from N.; sky clear, sun hot, but not oppressive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Noon.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>Calm and sultry; light clouds; sun getting very hot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. M.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>Sky clear and cloudless; slight breeze from N.; sun very hot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Ditto ditto, hot and sultry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ditto.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Ditto ditto, ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 ditto.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Very sultry; little or no wind; sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 ditto.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 ditto.</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hourly Mean Average.** 26.98 81.59 82.73

N. B. The observations were made in an apartment 12 feet square. One thermometer hung in the centre, 7 feet from the floor; the other, at the end of a shelf, some inches from the wall, and quite protected from reflected heat. The room has a door facing the east, and a small window to the north, both left open.*

* The march of the Barometer seems so sluggish that we fear the observer neglected to tap the tube previous to reading off—an indispensable precaution with ordinary instruments.—Ed.

[The original, whence we have with permission extracted these tables for publication, has been forwarded to the Secy. of the South African Phil. Inst.]

Barometrical Observations taken at Dúdúpur, Sept. 1835.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>73°</td>
<td>72°</td>
<td>23°</td>
<td>56°</td>
<td>22°</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>74°9</td>
<td>74°9</td>
<td>25°8.9</td>
<td>73°9.6</td>
<td>23°9.4</td>
<td>Calm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75°4</td>
<td>75°7</td>
<td>75°4.6</td>
<td>75°7.5</td>
<td>23°7.6</td>
<td>Mist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>77°2</td>
<td>78°1</td>
<td>77°4.7</td>
<td>77°7.5</td>
<td>23°7.6</td>
<td>Ditto,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>80°9</td>
<td>81°3</td>
<td>81°8.9</td>
<td>74°4.3</td>
<td>98°3</td>
<td>Ditto,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|       | 23        | 81°8                  | 81°9                  | 84°6                | 74°8.4                 | 89°1                          | Ditto,   |
|       | 24        | 81°6                  | 84°9                  | 85°3                | 72°8.2                 | 89°3                          | Ditto,   |
|       | 21        | 82°5                  | 85°8                  | 86°5                | 70°8.7                 | 89°3                          | Ditto,   |
|       | 22        | 81°6                  | 87°5                  | 87°7                | 66°5.6                 | 90°1                          | Ditto,   |
|       | 3         | 80°4                  | 87°2                  | 87°7                | 63°6.2                 | 87°2                          | Ditto    |
|       | 4         | 79°4                  | 86°8                  | 87°2                | 60°9.6                 | 84°5                          | Ditto    |
|       | 5         | 79°7                  | 85°1                  | 86°2                | 61°0.5                 | 83°4                          | Ditto    |
|       | 6         | 77°6                  | 82°3                  | 83°3                | 71°1.2                 | 81°0                          | Ditto    |
|       | 7         | 77°7                  | 80°8                  | 80°8                | 62°6.0                 | 82°3                          | Ditto    |
|       | 8         | 75°2                  | 78°2                  | 79°2                | 60°4.7                 | 82°9                          | Ditto    |
|       | 9         | 75°5                  | 77°7                  | 78°5                | 60°3.7                 | 82°9                          | Ditto    |
|       | 10        | 75°5                  | 75°5                  | 76°8                | 61°2.7                 | 86°0                          | Ditto    |
|       | 11        | 73°3                  | 75°5                  | 75°7                | 60°0.7                 | 87°0                          | Ditto    |
|       | 12        | 73°2                  | 74°2                  | 73°5                | 61°8.7                 | 82°2                          | Ditto    |
|       | 13        | 73°2                  | 73°3                  | 73°2                | 60°9.4                 | 83°2                          | Ditto    |
|       | 14        | 70°7                  | 71°7                  | 72°5                | 61°3.7                 | 84°6                          | Ditto    |
|       | 15        | 70°5                  | 71°2                  | 71°8                | 60°7.2                 | 82°7                          | Ditto    |
|       | 16        | 70°5                  | 70°5                  | 71°2                | 60°7.1                 | 82°9                          | Ditto    |
|       | 17        | 70°3                  | 70°3                 | 71°2                | 62°1.2                 | 84°0                          | Ditto    |
|       | 18        | 69°3                  | 69°7                  | 70°4                | 62°0.6                 | 84°8                          | Ditto    |
|       | 19        | 71°4                  | 71°6                  | 72°                | 63°7.2                 | 86°9                          | Ditto    |
|       | 20        | 75°2                  | 75°5                  | 76°5                | 60°3.5                 | 84°9                          | Ditto    |
|       | 21        | 75°8                  | 60°8                  | 59°8                | 67°8.2                 | 90°7                          | Ditto    |
|       | 22        | 79°6                  | 82°2                  | 82°3                | 69°0.1                 | 91°6                          | Ditto    |

|       | 23        | 80°2                  | 53°5                  | 53°9                | 63°3.4                 | 91°8                          | Ditto    |
|       | 24        | 80°4                  | 88°2                  | 85°5                | 67°4.5                 | 90°3                          | Ditto    |
|       | 25        | 81°8                  | 57°7                  | 57°1                | 64°7.6                 | 87°2                          | Ditto    |
|       | 26        | 80°9                  | 87°3                  | 87°8                | 60°3.7                 | 85°9                          | Ditto    |
|       | 3         | 81°2                  | 88°1                  | 88°8                | 58°8.7                 | 82°3                          | Ditto    |
|       | 4         | 80°9                  | 87°8                  | 87°4                | 57°3.7                 | 79°5                          | Ditto    |
|       | 5         | 79°8                  | 86°7                  | 87°7                | 57°2.6                 | 79°0                          | Ditto    |
|       | 6         | 79°7                  | 82°6                  | 84°2                | 56°8.3                 | 78°6                          | Ditto    |

Observation commenced at 6°0'30" A. M. of 21st September, common reckoning.
Barometrical Observations taken at Dādūpur, March, 1836.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>D.</td>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Inch.</td>
<td>D.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 22 20</td>
<td>65° 37'</td>
<td>70° 6'</td>
<td>28° 98'</td>
<td>70° 128'</td>
<td>Wind E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>67° 7'</td>
<td>73° 2'</td>
<td>98° 72'</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>Wind E. sky clear, over head light clouds to South, Sirmur mountains clouded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>69° 7'</td>
<td>75° 5'</td>
<td>97° 75'</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>Wind E. light clouds over mountains excepting the sub-Himalayas, which are visible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 17 0'</td>
<td>77° 5'</td>
<td>78° 1'</td>
<td>95° 77'</td>
<td>050</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>77° 8'</td>
<td>78° 5'</td>
<td>92° 75'</td>
<td>053</td>
<td>Wind S. E. light but steady clouds in direction of mountains cover more of the sky.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>75° 5'</td>
<td>75° 3'</td>
<td>91° 74'</td>
<td>023</td>
<td>Wind E. Gusty, clear over head, light clouds all round the horizon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>74° 5'</td>
<td>75° 2'</td>
<td>91° 74'</td>
<td>038</td>
<td>Wind N. by E. unsteady, clear over head, cloudy from N. W. to N. E. outline of mountains visible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>72° 2'</td>
<td>72° 1'</td>
<td>90° 71'</td>
<td>026</td>
<td>Wind N. by E. unsteady, clear to S. W. Elsewhere clouded, stormy appearance to north.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>71° 1'</td>
<td>71° 5'</td>
<td>90° 70'</td>
<td>020</td>
<td>Wind N. light. Clear to S. W. Elsewhere light clouds, outline of hills visible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>69° 6'</td>
<td>67° 2'</td>
<td>89° 66'</td>
<td>014</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>63° 6'</td>
<td>64° 1'</td>
<td>89° 64'</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>60° 5'</td>
<td>62° 1'</td>
<td>90° 61'</td>
<td>027</td>
<td>Wind S. E. night clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>59° 5'</td>
<td>61° 1'</td>
<td>99° 61'</td>
<td>030</td>
<td>Ditto very light, night clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>58° 5'</td>
<td>59° 5'</td>
<td>84° 59'</td>
<td>018</td>
<td>Clear. Clear star light.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>58° 2'</td>
<td>58° 5'</td>
<td>84° 59'</td>
<td>011</td>
<td>Ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>55° 7'</td>
<td>57° 5'</td>
<td>81° 56'</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>Wind N. very light, clear star light.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>55° 5'</td>
<td>55° 5'</td>
<td>86° 55'</td>
<td>29° 896</td>
<td>Ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>56° 5'</td>
<td>55° 5'</td>
<td>85° 55'</td>
<td>984</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>52° 5'</td>
<td>52° 5'</td>
<td>84° 52'</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>Ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>51° 3'</td>
<td>52° 3'</td>
<td>85° 52'</td>
<td>984</td>
<td>Wind N. brisk, clear star light. Dawn commencing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>51° 7'</td>
<td>51° 7'</td>
<td>86° 51'</td>
<td>29° 003</td>
<td>Wind N. light, sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>50° 5'</td>
<td>51° 1'</td>
<td>88° 50'</td>
<td>021</td>
<td>N. by E. Ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>55° 5'</td>
<td>55° 5'</td>
<td>91° 54'</td>
<td>059</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>53° 5'</td>
<td>62° 7'</td>
<td>94° 61'</td>
<td>097</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>62° 5'</td>
<td>57° 7'</td>
<td>96° 66'</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>62° 7'</td>
<td>71° 1'</td>
<td>97° 70'</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>Calm, sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>73° 5'</td>
<td>74° 3'</td>
<td>95° 73'</td>
<td>091</td>
<td>Wind S. E. light, sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>68° 7'</td>
<td>76° 5'</td>
<td>94° 75'</td>
<td>077</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>68° 6'</td>
<td>76° 8'</td>
<td>92° 76'</td>
<td>036</td>
<td>Calm, sky clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>78° 8'</td>
<td>78° 8'</td>
<td>90° 77'</td>
<td>023</td>
<td>Wind S. W. light, sky clear, except light clouds over the mountains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>78° 8'</td>
<td>78° 5'</td>
<td>86° 78'</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>Wind W. light ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>77° 7'</td>
<td>78° 3'</td>
<td>86° 72'</td>
<td>29° 994</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>76° 7'</td>
<td>79° 7'</td>
<td>86° 76'</td>
<td>991</td>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto ditto.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time ascertained by one observation of equal altitudes. Observation commenced at 10th. 21m. 31s. of 21st March, common reckoning, and was continued at exact intervals of one hour. (For convenience the minutes and seconds have been omitted in the table.—Ed.)
Horary Observations taken at Dádúpur.

Memoranda relative to the above Table of Barometrical observations for September 1835. By Lieut. Durand.

Instruments employed.—Colonel Colvin's Barometer was made by Cary. The cistern is of ivory, the Instrument is adjusted for observation by bringing the surface of the mercury to a level with the slit in the socket of the stopcock of the cistern, by means of a brass screw at the bottom of the cistern. This instrument was, when compared with the standard Barometer in Calcutta, by J. Prinsep, Esq., found to be correct.

Lieut. Durand's Barometer is one of Troughton and Simm's mountain Barometers. When compared with the standard Barometer, it stood 0.043 too low.

In order to determine the amount of change which the two instruments might have suffered, relatively to each other, in consequence of the journey from Calcutta, a comparison was instituted between the heights shown by the two Barometers, during the month of June 1835; the following is the result.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Height of Bar.</th>
<th>Att. Ther.</th>
<th>Detd. Ther.</th>
<th>Moist Bulb.</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Mean of the foregoing.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28.744</td>
<td>80.4</td>
<td>89.51</td>
<td>83.15</td>
<td>10 A.M.</td>
<td>CARY'S Barometer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.6488</td>
<td>83.44</td>
<td>94.25</td>
<td>83.14</td>
<td>4 P.M.</td>
<td>TROUGHTON and SIMM'S Barometer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.6586</td>
<td>97.53</td>
<td>96.51</td>
<td>83.22</td>
<td>10 A.M.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.6535</td>
<td>89.4</td>
<td>37.56</td>
<td>82.79</td>
<td>4 P.M.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whence may be deduced, that Cary's barometer suffered considerable derangement from the inevitable jolting, &c. attendant on so long a journey. Troughton's had evidently been less disordered, probably but little so; without a second comparison with the standard barometer, however, the comparative accuracy of Troughton's rests upon supposition.

Previous to the day on which the hourly observations were to commence, Cary's Barometer was accidentally put out of order, and it became requisite to re-fill the tube with mercury; this was accordingly effected, but the means for safely heating the filled tube not being at hand, and the tube appearing to the eye free from air, it was inserted into the instrument; the observations show the great difference which this untimely accident caused in the heights of the two mercurial columns.

Thermometers.—The attached thermometers of both barometers read off to degrees.

The thermometer employed as a moist bulb, is one made by Troughton and Simm's. When compared in Calcutta it stood 1.3 too high; the scale is graduated to degrees.

The detached thermometer also by Troughton and Simm's, reads off only to two degree divisions; when examined in Calcutta it was found to be 0.4 too high.

From the foregoing remarks on the thermometers, it is evident that the division of the scales of these instruments did not admit any perfect accuracy in reading off the decimal parts of a degree: the decimal parts in the table are therefore only careful approximations, and under particular circumstances, such as reading off at night, &c. small inaccuracies must have been unavoidable.

Time.—The time of apparent noon and the rate of chronometer were ascertained by a series of observations of equal altitudes of the sun, on the 17th, 18th, 19th and 20th September.

Location of Instruments.—The instruments were placed in a verandah facing the north, perfectly shaded, and sheltered from the wind, without, at the same time, hindering a free circulation of air. Cary's Barometer stood about 4ft. 6, from the wall; Troughton's about 1ft. 6, from the wall, the space partitioned off and allotted to the instruments not admitting their further removal from the northern front of the building.

Place of Observation.—Dádúpur is situated on the right bank of the Jamna, a little below the junction of the Sombe: the position of the Canal
Department depot is somewhat north of the village, and is in latitude 30° 12 N. and about longitude 77° 23' 45" E, as deduced from an observation of the transit of mercury on the 5th May, 1832. The range of low mountains separated from the more lofty and older formations by the Kyadur Doon is about 20 miles from Dadupur. The word mountains which enters amongst the remarks on the particulars of the weather, must be understood to allude to the distant ranges of the Himalayas, and not to the low and neighboring mountains.

It is necessary to add, that the hourly observations were taken by Colonel Colvin, Engrs., Lieut. Baker, Engrs., and Lieut. Durand, Engrs. Dadupur, Nov. 24th, 1835.

The same remarks are applicable to the March observations, Cary's Barometer not having been yet boiled; the site of the instruments was changed, being now under a thatch erected for them in a free circulation of air.

XII.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday evening, the 1st June, 1836.

W. H. Macnaghten, Esq. Vice-President, in the chair.

Messrs. W. Bruce and R. W. G. Frith, proposed at the last meeting, were ballotted for, and elected members of the Society.

Dr. Lumqua, proposed at the last meeting, was, upon the recommendation of the Committee of Papers, elected an honorary member.

The Rev. R. Everest, requested his name to be withdrawn from the list of members.

Captain W. Foley regretted, that private circumstances obliged him also to retire from the Society.

Read letters from Colonel J. Colvin, Engineers, Colonel Caulfield, and Colonel Stacy, acknowledging their election as members of the Society.

Read letters from Nicholas Carlisle, Esq. Secretary to the Antiquarian Society of London, and J. Forshall, Esq. Secretary to the British Museum, acknowledging the receipt of copies of the Index, &c.

Read a letter from Captain H. Harkness, Secretary to the Oriental Translation Committee of the Royal Asiatic Society, stating, that arrears of the Society's subscription were due, to the amount of £31 10s. from 1833 to 1835, inclusive.

Ordered, that the arrears be paid up, with an apology for the delay.

The Secretary stated, that upon an application from himself on the part of the Society, the Government had been pleased to grant exemption from postage on all certified "proof sheets," addressed by him to authors or editors for correction, as well as on their return, similarly attested to his address. The Government was also willing to grant exemption from duty on objects of Natural History or Curiosity, imported for or exported from the museum; application to be made in each particular case.

Library.

Read a letter from Captain R. B. Pemberton, forwarding a copy of his report on the eastern frontier of British India, with an appendix and maps, for presentation to the Society.

Also, from Dr. McClelland, a copy of his work entitled "Inquiries in Kemaon," Statistical and Geological.

Read a letter from James R. Ewart, Esq. forwarding on behalf of Captain J. Jervis, a copy of his publication on Indian Meteorology.

Die Philosophie der Hindu Vaedanta Sara von Sadananda des Ram Krishna Tirtha von Dr. Othmar Frank—presented by the author.

Ueber das Bild des Welthauemisters, Visvakarma, von Othmar Frank—presented by the author.
The Indian Journal of Medical Science, No. 61, June 1836—by Dr. Corbyn the Editor.

The following books were received from the booksellers:

Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia, Swainson's quadrupeds.


Museum.

Four gold and silver fish, from Nipal, were presented by Harr' Da's, Mahant of Patna.

A drawing, supposed to be of the Allahabad lath; as it stood when perfect, was received with a note from Dr. Mouat, H. M. 13th Dragoons at Bangalore.

This drawing accords more exactly with the lath in Tirhut, for which it was doubtless intended, (See Vol. IV, page 122.)

Literary.

A paper on the valley of Cashmir, by the Baron Hugel, was read.

The author's detention at Bombay has enabled him to communicate at greater length the observations made during his recent visit to the valley. The Society is much beholden to this illustrious traveller for thus disinterestedly placing at its disposal the results of his personal labours, notwithstanding he has doubtless the intention of publishing himself on his return to his own country.

The latitude of Kashmir town (Srinagar) is 34° 22' 58'' and (if Vizirabad is correctly laid down in Elphinstone's map), its longitude is 75° 12' 30'' by crossbearings taken by the Baron from the latter place to the Pirpanjáb pass, the bearing of which was also taken at Cashmir town.

In most maps the situation of this place is 34° 40' lat. and 75° 58' long:— in Hamilton 33° 23' lat. 74° 47' long: and in H. T. Prinsep's Ranjet Singh, derived from Capt. Murray's information, 34° 9' and 75° 32' respectively.  

A paper by Mr. Avdall, entitled "A Memoir of a Hindu colony in ancient Armenia," was submitted.

An attempt to fix the epochs of the four principal Buddhas, by Captain Forbes of Ceylon, was presented.

Mr. Csoma's translation of the Bhotian Banner Inscription, presented at the meeting of March, was read.

[Printed in the present number.]

Facsimile of inscription on the Bhttree lath near Gházípur, was presented by Lieut. A. Cunningham, together with a drawing of the pillar.

A memoir on the geography of Peucelaotis, and elucidations of Alexander's march, together with drawings of all the coins and relics discovered by himself, and a map of the country from his own surveys, intended for presentation to M. Jacquet of the Paris Asiatic Society, was obligingly entrusted by the author M. Court, of Mahárajá Ranjet Singh's service, to the Secretary, for free communication to the Society of such information as they may think worthy of extraction.

Physical.

Extract of a letter from the Baron Hugel to the Society, was read, announcing the important discovery of a bed of fossil bones in Perim island, in the gulph of Cambay.

[Printed in the present number.]

* In the note on Kashmir published in the March No. p. 185, we asserted the latitude to be 34° 35' with meridional (double) altitude, 72° 4'. We supposed the latter corrected to the Sun's centre; as that was not the case, 15' must be deducted, while 3' must be added for difference of declination from Greenwich—making the latitude as above, 34° 23'.—Ed.
Specimens of lignite and fossil wood from Nipal, were presented on the part of Subadar Joda Singh.
Specimens of quartz fossil wood and shells from Van Dieman's Land, presented by C. K. Robinson, Esq.
A note on the teeth of the Mastodon angustidens of the Siwalik hills, was received by Captain Cautley.
Also, by Dr. Falconer and Capt. Cautley, a memoir on the Felis Cristata, a new fossil tiger from the Siwalik hills.
A skeleton of a tortoise (Carey's Kuchuya), presented by Mr. J. T. Pearson.
Specimens of the Indian Barbet, (Bucco Indicus,) Woodpecker, (Picus Maczii,) and smaller green pigeon, (Vinago Vernans,) presented by Lieut. C. Montricou, Ind. Navy.
A specimen of the wandering Albatros, (Diomedea exulans,) presented by J. Child, Esq.
A specimen of the Bald Ibis, (Ibis calva,) presented by Dr. A. Campbell.
Skulls of the tiger, (Felis Tigris,) Leopard, (F. Leopardus,) long-lipped bear, (Ursus lubiatus,) and Gurriyal, (Gariae Gangeticus,) presented by Dr. McCosh.
A specimen of the ornamented snake, (Coluber Ornata,) presented by Mr. Kyd.
A specimen of Gecko vittatus (var.) by Dr. A. Jackson.

XIII.—Address read before the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, on the 27th January, 1836. By the Rev. John Wilson, President.

[This address, obligingly communicated to us by the author, gives so valuable a review of all that has been done by the Bombay Society, that we make no apology, but rather feel a pride in transferring it to our pages entire: the rather because Bombay does not yet boast a Journal of its own, like Madras does. Since the establishment of the latter journal, we have discontinued inserting the Proceedings of the Society at that Presidency, conceiving the excuse for their preservation and circulation to be more appropriately provided for.—Ed.]

This Society has now been in existence for upwards of thirty years; and it may not be improper for us, in our present circumstances, briefly to advert to its past proceedings, and to some of the various subjects of inquiry, and especially those connected with our situation in western India, which still invite our attention.

In the discourse delivered at the formation of the institution, by its first President Sir James Mackintosh, that great man declared himself "ambitious of no higher office than that of conveying to India the desires and wants of the learned at home." A more worthy "representative of the curiosity of Europe," could not have presented himself in this country. It must be admitted, however, that, powerful as was his influence, and remarkable as has been the zeal and success of the members in prosecuting some of the objects proper for investigation by an Asiatic Society, their contributions on the topics to which he more particularly directed attention, have not been so numerous and extensive as might have been reasonably expected.

On Natural History, on which he dwells at greatest length, there are in our Transactions only a few distinct contributions, while the subject is only partially adverted to in the papers descriptive of particular districts of the country. This is undoubtedly a matter of regret, for the
study, directly conversant as it is with the works of God, and with the intimations which they give of His wisdom, power, and goodness, is, in all circumstances, possessed of the highest interest, and conduces both to intellectual gratification and to moral improvement; and in such a country as India, so vast in its extent, and so grand and multifarious in its productions, it is possessed of peculiar charms. It is a study, in many of its branches, so intimately connected with national resources, and the useful arts, and the means of humane amelioration, that it is powerfully recommended to every economist and philanthropist. It is a study in which most who have received a liberal education may engage, and to advance which, all who give it an ordinary share of attention, may considerably contribute. The sojourners in Bombay have, in the mountains, forests, and islands, in the neighbourhood, innumerable objects, connected especially with Geology, Botany, and Zoology, which both from their comparative novelty, and intrinsic interest invite attention. The Society cannot do better than encourage their investigation, and imitate in reference to them, the laudable procedure of the sister institution in Bengal, with regard to those of a similar nature more particularly connected with that province, and among whose highest honours must ever be, its having numbered among its members such men as ROXBURGH and WALlich, and fostered their earliest attempts to unfold the beauties and mysteries of creation. The report of observation and discovery connected with them, if given in this place, would form an agreeable entertainment even to those who may be most ardent and persevering in their researches into the other important objects of the Society's investigation. That a studious attention to both of them, by individuals, is not impracticable, is well evinced in the cases of Jones, and COLE BROOKE, and Carey, and others, who have been distinguished in India both for their science and literature; and who have been not less remarkable for their knowledge and expositions of the thought and feeling of man, as connected with the objects of his devout regard, or superstitious reverence, and the language by which he holds communion with his fellows, than for their lively cognizance, and philosophical interpretation, of the varied phenomena of nature.

The Statistics of any country are intimately connected with its Political Economy, and are consequently highly worthy of attention. Their importance was not so generally admitted, as at present, on the formation of our Society; but it is strikingly set forth by Sir James Mackintosh. The tables which he himself presented, connected with the population of Bombay, and the remarks with which he accompanied them, are valuable. Similar ones, of a later date, are desiderata, and when compared with those given by him, would furnish curious information. The Notices of Jambusar and Loni, given in our Transactions, by Drs. Marshall and Coates; and of certain districts of the southern Maratha Country, and of the Jhurejas, of Kach, in the Journal of the home Society, by Dr. Bird, and Lieutenant Burnes, are good specimens of what is required of other localities and tribes. Without the assistance of our liberal Government, little can be done with satisfaction in this department. Such assistance, by instituting special inquiries, and by delivering up documents already in its possession, or which could be procured by application to its judges, and magistrates, and revenue officers, it could easily, and with great advantage to itself, render.

Only one paper on the subject of Political Economy, as connected with

* A proposition has, I understand, been made, by an able and zealous officer of this Presidency (Capt. T. B. Jervis) to the different Governments of India, relative to the periodical publication of the returns of population, revenue, and cultivated and waste lands.
India, has been laid before our Society. It is by Mr. Bruce, and has been transmitted to England, where it will not fail to be appreciated.

Of all the topics of inquiry meriting attention, that of the History and Present Condition of the People, in the different provinces, in regard to language, religion, literature, science and art, means of support, and manners and customs, is paramount. It is very extensive; and has met, from the members of the Society, with considerable attention.

The Parsis, the great body of whom dwell amongst us, present themselves as special objects of inquiry. The history of their original country, has been ably unfolded by Sir John Malcolm; and on its ancient chronology previous to the conquest by Alexander, and its state from the battle of Arbela in A. C. 331, to the rise of Ardemir Babeghan, much light has been cast by our late learned President, Colonel Vans Kennedy. Mr. Erskine's papers respecting them, are remarkably interesting, as containing an able review, and analysis, of the Works of Anquetil du Perron, who followed Dr. Hyde as the expositor of their tenets; the results of his own observation; and valuable disquisitions on their sacred books and ancient languages. The researches of Professor Rask, in his paper given to this Society, whatever may be the opinions formed of the particular conclusions at which he has arrived, and it must be admitted he has reasoned ingeniously in their support, are also interesting. For the original tracts, with remarks, in the course of being published in France by M. Mohl, we owe our gratitude. The History of the Early Kings of Persia by Mirkhond, translated by Mr. Shea; and the History of Vartan and the Armenians, by Mr. Neumann; and of the Shah Namah, by Mr. Atkinson, for which we are indebted to the Oriental Translation Fund, contain much historical information on the religion of Zoroaster. Still more may be expected from the translation of that singularly curious work, the Dabistan, which is about to appear. The curiosity of the public respecting the Parsis, however, is far from being satisfied, as is evident from the inquiries which frequently reach this place both from London and Paris. We need a more exact translation of the books which they esteem sacred, than that which is furnished by Anquetil du Perron. Such a translation has been promised by Professor Burnouf, whose attainments in oriental literature, and ardour in oriental study, afford good ground for hope that our wishes respecting it will be realized. Should he fail, the attempt may be made in Bombay, where there are still a very few Zand scholars among the Zoroastrians to be found, and whose assistance, as well as that to be furnished by the translations into Gujarathi, may be procured*. We require information particularly on their popular superstitions, and domestic manners and customs, and general habits, as exhibited to the native community, and which, there is reason to believe, differ not a little from those generally observed by their European acquaintances, and for which they have received, in the opinion of the most intelligent of their own number, a more than quantum sufficit of credit.

It was with the view of adding my mite to the information possessed on these topics, and not because I conceived it possessed of any intrinsic merit, that I lately presented the Society with a translation of their General Siroze. There are extant narratives of their settlement and history in India, versions of which should be presented to the Oriental Translation Fund. At a late meeting of the Committee of Correspondence of the Royal Asiatic Society, some of the more liberal natives in Bombay, were invited to form themselves into an association, with the view of aiding in collecting information on some of the topics to which I have now adverted. Little, I fear, can be expected from them, without the co-operation of

* Six Fargards of the Vandidad can also be procured in Sanskrita.
European scholars, or without the proposal to them of special queries calculated to direct them in their communications. I am decidedly of opinion that it would be of advantage to both parties, were some of them associated with ourselves; and I would fondly hope that should any of them, possessed of competent attainments and zeal, and a respectable character and influence, ask membership of our body, it should be readily accorded.

There is no institution which has furnished more able and interesting illustrations connected with the Musalmáns than our Society. The question, so interesting in the history of the errors of the human mind, Was MUHAMMAD an impostor or an enthusiast, has been discussed by our late President Colonel VANS KENNEDY; and though many may dissent, as I myself do, from the conclusion at which he arrives, the ingenuity with which he conducts his argument, and the varied learning which he displays must be readily acknowledged. The same distinguished orientalist has furnished us with the most correct estimate of the literature of the Musalmáns in Persia, which is extant; and has given us a minute and precise abstract of the Muhammadan Municipal Law, with a constant reference to acknowledged authorities, and with an arrangement particularly luminous, being suggested by that of BLACKSTONE in his Commentaries on the Laws of England. His paper furnishes an important aid to the understanding of the state of Government, and society in general, in Muhammadan countries. The points at issue between the Shiás and Sunnis, and which have been, and still are, the cause of the greatest distractions and animosities among the Moslems, are well illustrated by the translations and remarks of Sir JOHN MALCOLM; and the sentiments of the Sufís and Mehódivs, by those of the late Lieutenant GRAHAM and Colonel MILES. The account of the AKHÁK-ı-NASIRI, by Lieutenant RISSEEL, and the translation of one of the discourses of SÁDI by Mr. ROSS, throw much light on the Musalmán Economics and Ethics, both theoretical and practical. What we chiefly want in reference to the Muhammadan religion, is a fuller account, drawn from a comparison of all the existing authorities, of the state of Arabia at the time of its origin, and from which we could form a more enlightened judgment than we do, of those great revolutions brought about by its author; of the history of its religious influence, distinguished as much as possible from that of the military exploits and civil arrangements of its followers, which have hitherto almost altogether engrossed attention; of the general arguments by which its doctors have urged its pretensions in opposition to Christianity*; of the Bohorás†.

* Some interesting information on this subject, is to be found in the Controversial Tracts, by the REV. HENRY MARTYN, and his opponents in Persia, and the preface prefixed to them by PROFESSOR LEE, and in the last of the letters addressed to me, by H'AJI' MAHAMMAD H'ASHIM, and published in Bombay. As the discussion of the points at issue, however, is an ancient one, it seems desirable that a collection should be made of the hints respecting it which are to be found in the Musalmán works of theology.

† To any person, whose leisure may permit inquiry into this body of Musalmáns, the following memorandum written by me on a visit to Surat in the beginning of last year, may not be unacceptable. "The Bohorás of Surat are divided into three sects, respectively denominated Ath, Sulimán, and Dáud. In the first of these, there are only five or six families; in the second, about fifty; and in the third, about five thousand, with a population of about twelve thousand. They have accounts of their tribe, one of which I have seen in Arabic, which carry back their history about six or seven hundred years. They generally support themselves by the vending and manufacture of cloths, hardware, household furniture, &c. They profess to be quite distinct from the agricultural Bohorás, who are to be found in the Baroch districts, and of whom a considerable number of families have likewise settled in Surat.

The Bohorás are under the religious, and, to a great extent, the civil government of a Mulla, whose head quarters were originally in Arabia. The Mullá in
and other curious sectaries; and of the peculiar practices, superinduced probably by intercourse with the Hindus, of those who profess it in India, and particularly in the provinces with which we are most intimately connected. That the latter subject is not unworthy of interest, will appear to any reader of the work lately published by Dr. Herklots, and to the notices given of certain festivals by M. García de Tassy. From these documents, as well as from Colonel Kennedy's paper on the religion introduced into India by the Emperor Akbar, it appears that the followers of Muhammad, cannot only, when circumstances tempt them, lay aside their intolerance, but accommodate themselves to existing prejudices, and indulge in the boldest speculations. In the almost universal neglect of historical records by the subjugated Hindus, we must principally look to the Musalmans for any historical information connected with this country which refers to the times which intervene between the commencement of their conquest, and that of the European powers. The History by Ferishta, translated by Colonel Briggs, though neither, as was to be expected, very philosophical nor rigid, is valuable. Captain Rowlandson and Dr. Bird, have done well to translate two works which treat of the history of Malabar and Gujerat. They contain much interesting information. Another history of the latter province, by a very intelligent Brāhma-n, but principally from Muhammadan authorities, and which may prove worthy of translation, was lately presented to our Society by our zealous Secretary. There are materials to be found, in different places, sufficient to throw light upon the principal occurrences in almost every province of India.

Of various tribes of the Hindus, as the Katis, the Bhils, the Banjaris, the Pandu Kolis, the Dakhan Kunbis, and the Karadi Brāhmans, and the inhabitants of Sindh, very curious notices are to be found in our Transactions. Of many other tribes, accounts have appeared in separate publications*. Many more, however, with marked natural peculiarities, and in a strange social state, still remain to be described. Those who

* Among the fullest, and most interesting of these, is the History of the Rāmosha, lately published by Captain Mackintosh.
are found resident in the jungles, and in mountainous districts, and who are probably the remains of the Aborigines of the country, are particularly worthy of investigation. Attention to them is called for, by all who desire to advance their civilization, and to elevate them from their present degradation. Description must precede any considerable efforts made for their improvement. Perhaps some similarities may be discovered in their language, religion, and customs, which may lead to important conjectures as to the ancient history of India. Of many of them it has been already ascertained, that they have had no connexion with Brahmanism, except in so far as they may have felt its unhallowed influence in excluding them from the common privileges of humanity, and banishing them to the wilds, or dooming them to ignorance, and unwilling and unrewarded servitude.

Though on the Hindu religion and literature in general, our publications contain rather scanty observations, some of our members have added greatly to the information communicated by the distinguished literati of the other side of India, and of Europe. Our Society was the first body to submit to the public a proposal for a union for the promotion of translations from the Sanskrita. Its claim to this honour, it is right again to re-assert. It will be established by a reference to a letter addressed to the Asiatic Society of Bengal, in 1806, by Sir James Mackintosh, and published as an appendix to the first volume of our Transactions†. Such translations were practically encouraged by the Society itself, in the case of the Lilāvati, a treatise on Arithmetic and Geometry by Bhaskara Acharya, and the Prabodh Chandrodaya, a curious allegorical play illustrative of the opinions of the Vedantikas, and both published by the late Dr. John Taylor. The first general account, of any considerable size, of the Hindu Pantheon, is by one of our members, Major Edward Moor. In Colonel Kennedy's Ancient and Hindu Mythology, we have a work, than which none more important, if we refer either to original quotations from the Shāstras, or learned disquisitions, has yet appeared. I make this remark with the more freedom, that circumstances called me, on the publication of the work, to animadvert on the estimate which it forms of the moral character of Brahmanism in a manner which gave the learned author offence. In the Essay on the Vedanta by the same gentleman, we have the best account of that very curious system of speculation, considered in a philosophical point of view, which has yet appeared,—an account which proves it to be a system of spiritual pantheism, and as such entirely different, except in occasional expression, from that of the Mystics of Europe, to which it had been maintained to be similar by Sir William Jones, and other writers‡. It was in this place that the first defence, by a Native, of both the exoteric and esoteric systems of Hinduism, in reply to those who seek to propagate the principles of our Holy Faith, appeared; and it was here that a rejoinder, embracing briefly the consideration of

* See particularly Mr. Baber's Answers to the Queries of a Committee of the House of Lords on the state of Slavery in the South West of India.
† Page 310.
‡ In the works of the Mystics, and of the pious writers, to whom Sir William Jones alludes in the course of his reasonings, there are figures of speech, and other expressions, very similar to those used by the Vedántists. Others, still more strikingly similar, could easily be produced. I give one from the Poems of Richard Baxter.

"But O! how wisely hast thou made the twist!
To love thee and myself do well consist.
Love is the closure of connaturals;
The soul's return to its originals:
As every brook is toward the ocean bent:
And all things to their proper element:
And as the inclination of the sight,
How small soever is unto the light:
both these subjects, was published. About two years ago, a portion of the *Rigveda*, the most considerable which has yet been printed, was published in Sanskrit, Marathi, and English, by one of our members. A translation of the whole of this work, to which I believe Prof. H. H. Wilson has turned his attention, and of the *Bhagavata Purana*, which, though it cannot claim an antiquity much exceeding that of six hundred years, is certainly the greatest practical authority at present, at least in the West of India, are greatly to be desired. On the different sects of the Hindus, and on their provincial superstitions, much light has yet to be cast. On the North of this Presidency, we have the *Vaishnavas*; in our immediate neighbourhood, the *Smaritas*; and in the South, the *Shaivas* or *Lingavants*, in the practice of all their peculiarities. In the Dakshan, we have a general worship of deified heroes, as yet unnoticed, except in the most incidental manner. Many curious classes of mendicants, of whom little or nothing is known*, are to be found within the sphere of our peculiar observation. The religion of the Jainas, on which most valuable manuscripts, procured by Mr. Wathen, are deposited in our library, is still, in many respects, to be unfolded. Our Transactions have only one paper, by Captain McMurdoo, which refers to it. In the possession of the Jainas, there are many works calculated to throw much light on the religious history of India in general, with the use of which some of them would not be unwilling to favour a European student. I fondly trust and believe, that there are among our members, those who will continue to contribute, as circumstances may call them, to the exposition of the systems of faith, which have so long exercised their sway in this country, and the various literary works, which, though, unlike those of Greece and Rome, they are of little or no use in the cultivation of taste, are valuable as they illustrate the tendency of these systems in their connexion with social and public life, and as they explain a language the most copious in its vocabularies, and powerful in its grammatical forms, in which any records exist. Destitute of a knowledge of these systems, and the works in which they are embodied, the native character, and the state of native society, will never be sufficiently understood, a right key obtained to open the native mind, and all desirable facilities enjoyed for the introduction among the people of a body of rational and equitable law, and the propagation of the Gospel and the promotion of general education. There are some respectable patrons of the latter supremely important work, who overlook its importance; but their number is on the decrease.

As the touch'd needle pointeth toward the pole;  
Thus unto thee inclines the holy soul:  
It trembleth and is restless till it come  
Unto thy bosom where it is at home."

No person who is familiar with the *Upanishads* can fail to mark the coincidence of the language of Baxter in the preceding passage, with that of the Transcendentalists of India. This coincidence of language, however, does not warrant the inference that there is the least agreement of statement. In proof of this position, we have merely to quote the lines which follow those now given.

"Yet no such union dare the soul desire  
As parts have with the whole, and sparks to fire;  
But as dependent, low, subordinate,  
Such as thy will of nothing did create,  
As tendeth to the sun the smallest eye  
Of silly vermin, or the poorest fly.  
My own salvation when I make my end,  
Full mutual love is all that I intend,  
And in this closure though I happy be,  
Its by intending, and admiring thee.""

* Of one of these, the Māṇḍūkya, whom I had particularly in view in making this remark, I have just received an interesting account from Captain A. Mackintosh, the author of the History of the Ramoshis.
They ought to consider that the situation of those to be instructed, is to be attended to, as well as the instructions to be delivered. While divine truth must be propagated with unwavering fidelity, and all hopes of ultimate success rest on its own potency, its suitableness to the general character of man, and the assistance of divine grace, judgment ought to be employed in the mode of its application to those who vary much in their creeds, and differ much in their moral practice. We have the highest authority for an accommodation such as that for which I plead. Though the great truths proclaimed by the apostle Paul were the same in all circumstances, they were introduced in very different ways to the Jewish Rabbis and people, and to the members of the Athenian Areopagus. I must hold, that there is no little unsuitableness in India, in addressing a Pantheist as a Polytheist, and vice versa: in speaking to a Jaina as to a Brahman; in condemning that at random which the natives may suppose to be unknown, and in using theological terms, and general phrases, without any very definite sense of their application by the natives themselves. The more a knowledge of Hinduism and of Hindu literature is possessed by any teacher, the more patiently and uninterruptedly will he be listened to by the people, and the more forcibly will he be enabled, and principally by contrast and concession, to set forth the authority, and the excellence, of the doctrines of Christianity.

In connexion with the subject to which I have now adverted, I may allude to the peculiar duty which devolves on us of collecting Sanskrit manuscripts. They are to be found in a purer state in the Dakshan than in any other part of India, and the poverty of the Brāhmans leads them readily to part with them. Those which were lately purchased by us are very valuable.

The contributions of the members of our Society to the elucidation of Hindu Antiquities, have done much to extend and support its credit. The proximity of the ancient excavations, which may be classed among the wonders of the world, could not fail to excite curiosity and inquiry. The descriptions and illustrations of those of Ghartipur (Elephanta), Sashti (Salsette), Karali (Carlee), Verula (Ellora), Bag and Ajanta*, though a few errors and oversights may be detected in them, are highly interesting. Mr. Erskine has satisfactorily shown the distinguishing characteristics of those of which they are respectively to be attributed to the Baud’has and Jainas, and the Brāhmans. It is to be hoped that the inscriptions which are to be found on some of them, and which are in the Sanskrit language, and in ancient characters very similar to those which have lately been published in the ably conducted Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, will be soon understood. The Rev. Mr. Stevenson has already been successful, to a great extent, in decyphering, and translating those of the temples of Karali, and thus leading to inferences by no means unimportant. Some of those of Kanadi, on Salsette, I should think, from a partial trial, present no greater difficulties than those which have been already overcome. The stone bearing the inscription of the temples at Elephanta, we learn from D'eeo de Couvo the Portuguese Annalist, was sent to John the Third of Portugal about the year 1334, and is probably now either in the Royal Museum of Lisbon, or in the University of Coimbra. The Royal Asiatic Society may, without difficulty, procure a transcript. There are excavated temples in the country, such as those of Nasik, and Junar, and others which have been erected, such as those of Abu, Palitana and Girmar, which have not yet been particularly described. What we principally require in reference to them all, is information as to the time at which, and the views with which, they were constructed; an estimate of them as works of art, or as indicative of the resources of those to whom they are to be ascribed; and an inquiry into the religious rites and services, for which they have been appropriated, and the moral impressions.

* Written by Messrs. Salt, Erskine, Col. Sykes, &c.
which they seem fitted to make on those resorting to them. They are worthy of attention only as they may illustrate the civil and religious history, or practices, of the country. The grants of land, engraven on copper-plates, many of which are still to be found in different parts of the country, are next to them in importance in the advancement of antiquarian research. One of these was translated by Dr. Taylor. Mr. Wathen has been successful in deciphering the most ancient of those in our museum; and the results, as stated by him in his communication in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for August last, are both curious and useful. Ancient coins are occasionally found in different parts of the Presidency, and the Native States to the northward, which may aid in the correction, or enlargement, of such Genealogical Tables as have been lately published by Mr. Prinsep of Calcutta*.

There is a small body of Armenians in Bombay, from which something interesting might be learnt. A dissertation by one of them on the antiquity of their native language, with notes by Mr. Dickinson, has lately been transmitted by us to the Royal Asiatic Society, and cannot fail to be acceptable. There cannot be a doubt that the Armenians can fill up important blanks in our Church History, which, to the undue neglect of the orientals, is principally formed on the authority of the Roman and Byzantine Fathers.

The Beni-Israel of Bombay, and the adjoining territories, amount to about eight thousand. It is to be regretted that no considerable account of them has yet appeared, particularly as they have been long settled in the country, refuse the appellation of Jew, and are probably a portion of the Ten Tribes, never amalgamated, as the body of them probably was, with those of Judah and Benjamin.

The researches of our members on antiquities, and other subjects of observation and rational inquiry, have not been confined to India; but I cannot longer detain you by alluding either to their results, or by attempting to form, what is unnecessary, and what in me would be presumptuous, an estimate of the enterprize and intelligent observation and research of our Malcolms, Elphinstones, Pottingers, Riches and Burnees. The contiguity of our Presidency to Persia, Arabia, and Egypt; and the prospect of increased intercourse with these countries, by steam navigation, afford ground to hope that our geographical and historical knowledge of them will ere long be greatly enlarged. There is scarcely a country 'of Asia, which, even, in our present circumstances, does not furnish visitors to Bombay, who prove themselves ready to communicate to intelligent inquirers, information on places never as yet surveyed by any modern European traveller. Mr. Wathen has been able, from conversing with Muhammadan pilgrims, to prepare a brief, but interesting, memoir of Chinese Tartary†.

I owe to the meeting an apology for the many imperfections of the sketch which I have rapidly taken. I have rather endeavoured to mark our progress, than to point out, what would perhaps have contributed more to our encouragement, the advantages and means of further advancement. Our Society, I may be permitted to hope, will soon again be inspired with its pristine zeal, at the same time that it is directed by its accumulated experience; maintain the character which it has earned for itself; and prove not unworthy of its incorporation with the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, an incorporation which must be admitted, notwithstanding some disadvantages, to be beneficial, as it secures that literary sympathy and communication which is greatly to be valued, and the circulation of our papers, with no expense to ourselves, and now in a convenient form, throughout the world.

* Such coins are occasionally worn as personal ornaments by natives, who have no idea of their value.
† See Asiatic Society's Journal for December, 1835.
XIV.—Miscellaneous.


[Reprinted from the Bengal Sporting Magazine, Jan. 1836.]

Ord. Carnassiers, Cuv. Sub-gen. Vulpes, Auctorum

Rufous grey fox, with black throat, and tail white-tipped.

Description.—Size, length from tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail, 2 ft. 6 in.; length of tail, 1 ft. 7 in.; height at the shoulders, 1 ft. 1½ in.

Colour:—general colour, rufous on the upper and fore parts of the body; becoming grisly behind, at the sides, and at the sides of the tail; behind the ears, rich velvetty black, edged at the outer middle third with short velvetty fur of a light fawn colour, and at the inner upper third, with light rufous; tip of the nose, as is usual in the genus, black and naked: upper lip white, with a few black bristles, and a narrow band of white extending along just above the margin, which is brown, to the corner of the mouth, where it widens and unites with a somewhat similar but fainter band from the angle of the lower jaw, from which junction the white proceeds along the side of the throat as far as the shoulder, forming a boundary between the black of the throat and the pale fawn colour of the side of the neck. A greyish black irregular spot, upon which the whiskers are set, is situated at the side of the muzzle from near the nose to the eye, and extending behind in the form of a line to the root of the ear, where it takes an abrupt course downwards, and is lost under the chin; middle of the nose and crown of the head, greyish rufous; inside the ears, side of the neck, and half the side behind the shoulder, (mid-way between the shoulder and hip) and the flank, light fawn colour, with a dark rufous band extending from between the ears to the middle of the back, where it becomes less distinct, and is continued along the upper side of the tail as far as the white tip. This longitudinal band is crossed by another over the shoulders, forming a well defined cross; shoulders, outer sides of the hind legs, and sides of the tail, dark grisly grey, partaking at the edges of rufous; outer, and back part of the paws, tan, with toes of mingled rufous and black; throat, chest, fore part of the belly and inner side of the thighs, dusky black, having a few white hairs, interspersed under the throat, a white triangular spot on the chest, an approach to a rufous tint on the belly, and being bounded by a white line in front of the thighs and hind legs. The remaining under surface, hinder part of the fore-legs, and under side of the root of the tail, is of a light fawn, approaching in some parts to an Isabella colour. Tail, dark rufous, waved with black above, grisly grey at the sides, fawn colour, gradually becoming waved, with black, underneath, and furnished for about the length of three inches with a white tip.

The general ground colour of the fur is a dingy back, or dirty white, according to the shade of the part. It is long, thick, soft, and very warm, mixed with a few strong hairs; it varies in length from an inch to one inch and half upon the neck, sides, and back. Upon the muzzle, shoulder, and outer side of the thighs, under the chin, and on the limbs, it lies close, and is short; while behind the ears, it is very short, and has the gloss and softness of velvet. The tail is exceedingly bushy, some of the fur being full two inches in length, and at the tip, more than three.

The hill fox appears to approach the marking of the C. Decussatus (cross fox) in the dark colour of a portion of the under parts, and in the cross over the back and shoulders; but the cross is not black in this species, as it is described in that. It is of a bright rufous colour in this,
and is rendered particularly distinct by the light fawn colour at the sides of the neck and behind the shoulders. The perpendicular stroke of the cross is 2\(\frac{1}{4}\) inches wide upon the back of the neck, and two inches immediately behind the shoulders, while further back, it is wider, but indistinct. The cross band is two inches and a half wide, and very distinct, until lost on the shoulders in the mixture of rufous and grisly grey of that part.

The hill fox is a very handsome animal. Its colours are, for the most part, bright, and often well defined at their edges, offering a strong contrast with those adjoining, or, as upon the neck and anterior part of the thighs, separated from one another by a narrow distinct line of white.

It seems to be intermediate between the *Vulpes vulgaris* (common fox) and the cross fox, which, indeed, may, after all, be probably varieties of the same species.

As nothing is known of the habits and manners of this animal, it would be conferring a boon upon zoological science, if any person, well acquainted with the subject, would describe them. It is said to be a native of the lower range of the Himalayan mountains.


[Read at the meeting of the Agricultural Society, March 1836.]

I preface what I have to say to the Society on the soils placed on the table with a few remarks, which I trust may be thought worth placing on record. My object in doing so is again to impress upon members of what vital importance it is to the advancement of the agricultural interests of the country, and to the safety and success of every agricultural speculation, to procure samples of all soils from other countries in which valuable products grow.

The same climate and soil are, we know, in a greater or lesser degree the essential requisites for obtaining the production of one country in another; and for our present purpose we may perhaps say that plants find their food in the soil, and are enabled to digest it by the climate. They do digest, we know, and this in the strictest sense of the word.

The popular ideas of climates are vague enough, but it may be roundly asserted, that scarcely one who uses the word knows what is really meant by soil; or rather what is really meant by "the same soil." This arises from our vague notion of the thing itself. The very words used to distinguish soils express, more frequently than any thing else, their appearance, and some of their physical qualities; scarcely any their essential—that is their chemical properties. We talk of light and heavy, of sandy and clayey, moist and dry soils, which are all physical properties, and two clayey or two sandy soils may be actually as different as light and darkness from each other! The words ferruginous and calcareous are, it is true, chemical terms, but such vague ones that they designate whole classes of soils, of which each sort is widely different from its neighbours. The tea soils and the Arraean tobacco soils on the table are both ferruginous soils, but differing as widely as soils can do; for the iron in the one is a carbonate of iron, and in the other the red oxide of iron.

**Cotton**—Nothing then but a sample of the soil and a correct analysis of it can assure the speculator, that while he is trying to rear any given foreign product, he is not (misled by loose names) absolutely blundering in darkness, and attempting an impossibility. I begin with Cotton as a most prominent example, though my proofs on the subject are not quite so full as I could wish; and I shall surprise the Society not a little when I say, that all the expensive efforts which have been made hitherto to obtain good cotton have probably failed from this one cause, that we have been at work on the wrong soil! How far, with the American cottons, differences of climate may also have operated is not here the place to examine,
but vegetable productions do, to a great extent, acclimate themselves; while it is probable that nothing can compensate to them the want of a principal constituent of the soil. Now I have not been able to obtain specimens of the American cotton soils, but I have good authority for stating that the soil of the Sea Islands is wholly a calcareous sand—in other words a light chalky or shelly soil; so that it may probably contain from 50 to 60 per cent. of calcareous matter (lime generally in the state of chalk), and we have been attempting to grow this cotton on a soil which barely contains a trace of it! The soil of the Botanic Garden, for instance, not containing more than $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.: Indeed we may say generally, that till we reach the kankur districts, none of the soils of lower Bengal, out of the reach of the inundations, contain any great portion of lime. I showed some years ago*, that the inundations deposit lime, and that much of the fertilising effect they produce is due to it.

The American cotton is, then, on account of differences of climate, a case not strictly in point, but the Bourbon cotton—grown both at Bourbon and the Mauritius—which sells for a shilling, when the Sea Island sells for 13d. and the Manilla cotton, which sells for 11d. when the Bourbon is worth a shilling, are both cottons of hot climates like our own; and both these are grown in highly calcareous soils. The soil on the table before you is from the Mauritius; it is sent me by M. Geneve, of La Riviere Noire, one of the finest estates on the island, as an excellent cotton soil, and contains 32 per cent. of carbonate of lime, (or in plain English, one-third chalk;) there is, moreover, phosphate and perhaps not less than 40 per cent. of calcareous matter! Its iron too is in a peculiar state, that of protoxide or the black oxide of iron; and in this respect, it probably resembles the black cotton soils of Southern India. No wonder that the Bourbon cotton, though it grows well in many of our gardens near town, where it meets with plenty of calcareous matter amongst the lime-rubbish with which most of them are filled, is said to degenerate when cultivated in the open fields, which do not contain 2 per cent. of lime. I know, from the experience of several years, that it does not degenerate if it is duly supplied with calcareous matter; but that it will produce most abundantly, and for years, cotton worth from 10d. to 11d. per lb. in a proper soil. If the soil does not suit it, it will produce little else than leaves and wood, and the staple will deteriorate. Samples of American cotton soils are wanting now to make our theory on this head perfect; but I would advise no man to attempt foreign cottons in a soil containing less than 15 per cent. of lime, and its iron mostly in the state of protoxide or black oxide.

TOBACCO.—Tobacco soils are the next, and here we are more fortunate, for there are on the table soils from Arracan (Sandoway); a soil from Singour in Burdwan, near Chandernagore, the tobacco of which, though of the same species as that of the surrounding country, sells at the price of the Arracan sort! and the soil of the best Bengal tobacco, which is grown at and about Hinglee, in the Kishinagar district, near factories formerly held by me. Col. Hazeta and Dr. Casanova are our authorities for saying, that the tobacco soils of the Havanna are red soils, and those of Manilla, I know, are also red soil. Now the red and reddish brown soils contain most of their iron in the state of peroxide, or the reddish brown oxide of iron; while the light-grey soils contain it only in the state of protoxide, or the black oxide of iron. I believe the quality of the tobacco to depend mainly on the state and quantity of the iron in the soil; while it is indifferent about the lime, which we have seen is so essential to cotton. None of these tobacco soils contain any lime. Their analysis shows them to contain:

from which it will be seen that the best tobacco soil we have hitherto found in India contains 16 per cent., or nearly one-sixth, of iron, which is mostly in the state of peroxide, and that the inferior sort of tobacco grows in a soil containing only 6 per cent., one-sixteenth of iron of which is moreover mostly in the state of protoxide or black oxide.

I thought it worth examining what the quantity of iron in the different sorts of tobacco would be; and I found that, while the ashes of one ounce, or 480 grains, of Havanna and Sandoway cheroots gave exactly 1.91 grains or 0.40 per cent. of peroxide of iron, the ashes of the same quantity of the Hinglee or best Bengal tobacco only gave 1.50 grains or 0.32 per cent., and it appears to exist in the first two in the state of peroxide, and in the last, as a protoxide, of iron; rendering it highly probable that the flavour of the tobacco to the smoker depends on the state and quantity of the iron it contains! for we have now, observe, traced the iron from the soil into the cheroot. Green copperas water, which is a solution of sulphate of iron, is often used by the American and English tobacco-niers and planters to colour and flavour their tobacco; and this would be decomposed by the potash of the tobacco, and sulphate of potash and carbonate of iron be formed. Carbonate of iron is of an ochre yellow colour. I took care to ascertain that this process had not been performed with the cheroots used for my experiment; and I do not believe our Bengal cheroot-makers know of this method.

Sugar.—Sugar seems to depend both on the state of the iron and on lime in the soil. The sugar soil before you is also from the Black River, (Mr. Geneve's,) an estate upon which from 3000 to 7000, and even on one spot the astonishing quantity of 12,000 lbs. of sugar have been obtained from an acre, of from 12 to 150 bazar maunds per bigah! Captain Sleeman is my authority for these statements.

Now the peculiarity of this soil is, you will observe, that it is a red soil, i.e. that its iron is mostly in the state of peroxide; and it contains moreover about 9 per cent. of carbonate of lime, with probably some sulphate and phosphate of lime, say perhaps altogether 10 or 12 per cent. of calcareous matter. We have in many instances endeavoured to cultivate this cane on soils destitute both of peroxide of iron and lime, and we complain that the cane has been found watery. It is clear that the cultivator who would succeed in sugar should pay attention to these peculiarities; for without doing so he may have returns, but often no profits. His profits, in a word, may depend upon his canes, his cotton, or his tobacco, being fed with the food which they require. I used the words feed and digest because it cannot be too often repeated that plants are living beings, and that the vigour of their life depends, as with ourselves, on abundant and suitable food.

Tea Soils.—The tea soils, though I notice them last, are not the least interesting. The first is a soil from Assam, for which I am indebted to Captain Jenkins; and the second is from the Bohea Hills in China, sent

* Mostly protoxide.
round by Mr. Gordon, the Secretary to the Tea Committee, and obliging-
yly given to me by Mr. Grant, of the Honourable Company's Export Ware-
house. How very alike they seem, you will at once have noticed, and
their analysis gives as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tea soils of Assam. Tea soil of China.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surface soil. At 25 feet deep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water ----------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vegetable matter----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbonate of Iron---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumina -----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silex --------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Traces of phosphate and sulphate of lime and loss,}</td>
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There are two peculiarities in these soils; the first, that they contain no
carbonate of lime, and only traces of phosphate and sulphate; and the
next, that their iron is almost wholly in the state of carbonate of iron—a
widely different compound from the simple oxides. They would be called
poor yellow loams; and cotton, tobacco, or sugar-cane would probably
starve upon them; but we find that they suit the tea plant perfectly.
It is a striking coincidence, that we should find our tea soils and those of
China so exactly alike.

I fear to grow prolix, though I have much more to say on the subject
of soils; I shall therefore break off, trusting that for the present I have
amply shown the necessity of a careful examination of the soil; and that
the commercial public, who can do so much for us in this way, will not
neglect their own interests in procuring specimens of soils for us; for to
go to work in ignorance of this great element of success, is absolutely to
blunder on in the dark where chemistry would lend us an unfailing light.

[We have also received specimens of the tea soils for analysis, but for want of
space must postpone the notice of our results, which agree for the most part with Mr.
Piddington's. We have also an analysis of the Assam tea soil by Dr. McClel-
land.—Ed.]

3.—Action of Copper on Ink.

A curious case lately came under my notice of the effect of saline mois-
ture and copper united on writing ink. The Bengal Bank referred to my
examination three bank notes sent in by a native, who protested he knew
not how the numbers and signatures had disappeared; that he had left
them in a small copper box on his departure into the country, having
precisely noted the amounts and numbers—and that on his return they
were thus altered. The Secretary of the Bank disbelieved the marvellous
statement, because the endorsements remained untouched.

I conceived it would be very easy, at first sight, to restore the writing
by the usual method of slightly acidifying the paper, and then testing
with prussiate of potash, which if the smallest traces of the iron remained,
would develop the letters in blue. The only effect however of the applica-
tion of this re-agent was to develop a copious red-brown upon the
entire surface of the paper, proving how strongly it had been impregnated
with a solution of copper:—in one of the three papers there was a general
faint blue where the signature might be expected, but not the faintest
trace of a number or letter could be recovered. It immediately occurred
to me, that a solution of copper would in fact dissolve away the iron while
it deposited the copper, and thus leave none of the former metal to be
acted upon by the prussiate. To prove this point beyond a doubt, I select-
ed paper containing black/writing that had stood for many years uninjured and placing it between two clean copper plates, allowed a current of aciddulat-ed water to pass through. In a minute or two the whole writing disappear-ed, and could not be restored by the prussiate; although where the colour of the ink was merely discharged by acid, the usual effect was manifest. The native ink being carbonaceous remained uninjured throughout; and where even a slight proportion of this ingredient was mixed with the English ink, the removal was so far prevented. This circumstance presents a ready mode of obviating such accidents for the future, for the present is not, it appears, the first occasion of the kind. A poor native pilgrim took some notes to Jagannath in a small copper roll kept on his person for safety. After the customary period of bathing in the sea, he returned, and found his notes effaced, nor would the bank at that time make them good to the unfortunate holder.

The preventive alluded to is simply to mix Bengali or Indian ink, half and half, with the English metallic ink. I have long been in the habit of doing so for the labels of mineral cabinets, where it is known that pyrites and other substances frequently obliterare the traces of common writing ink.

J. P. Sec.

4.—Suspension Bridge at Fribourg in Switzerland.

[Having alluded in the last number to this surprising work on the authority of private descriptions just received from relatives in Switzerland, we imagine our Engineer friends in this country (so many of whom we are proud to reckon among our readers) will be curious to hear more of it. We therefore hasten to extract the following account from JAMESON's Edin. Phil. Journal*.—Ed.]

The town of Fribourg is built on the left bank of the Sarine. Both sides of this small stream are very steep; and rise to the height of about 220+ feet above its bed; and travellers coming from Berne to Fribourg were formerly obliged to descend the hill, in order to reach a small wooden bridge which crosses the river, and immediately after by a steep ascent of about 2/10 feet to reach the top of the opposite bank before coming to the centre of the town. The passage through Fribourg thus occupied nearly an hour; but the case is changed since the erection of the new suspension bridge.

These difficulties and delays were long considered the unavoidable conse-quence of the local situation of the town, until some bold spirits conceived the idea of uniting, by means of a suspension bridge, the steep banks of the Sarine. It was necessary that the bridge should pass over a great part of the town itself, and the scheme was considered completely utopian; yet certain of success, the authorities and some active citizens determined to submit the measure to the consideration of engineers of different districts. Various designs were accordingly offered, and the government of the canton gave the preference to that of M. Challey, of Lyons, whose plan has since been executed under his immediate superintendence.

The gateways at either end of the bridge are of Doric architecture, and are about 65 feet in height. The tops of their arches are about 42 feet above the roadway, and the arches have a span of 20 feet. The masonry of the gate is 46

* We take this opportunity of correcting a few errors in our observations on the Roof of St. Peter's Church in the Fort.

1. The central vault had not opened in the vertex from end to end, but only a little towards the east end. We remembered having seen it apparently cracked, but this was merely from the knocking away of the Gothic moulding to examine its state—Its firm condition should have been an additional argument against condemning it.

2. The present groined roof of the nave has not a flat roof above it, this is con-fined to the side aisles.

3. We understand that the additional expense to Government has been only about one-third. We alluded however only to the roof, in supposing that the cost had been "doubled or tripled."—Ed.

† All the measurements have been reduced from French to English agreeable to the ratios given in the Annaire du Bureau des Longitudes.
feet in width, and its thickness is about 20 feet; although the largest blocks of
the hard limestone of Jura were employed in this work, iron cramps were used
to complete the union of the stones, and above 24 tons of iron were used for
this purpose.

The width of the valley of the Sarine at the point where the bridge is built,
or, in other words, the distance between the inner face-work of the two gate-
ways on either bank of the river, and consequently the span of the suspended
roadway, is 871 feet. It may be easily conceived that a good deal of doubt was
entertained as to the propriety of trusting to a span of so great an extent, and the
idea of suspending the bridge at the middle at first occurred to M. Challey as
the best mode of forming the communication. On weighing the difficulty, how-
ever, of obtaining a solid foundation for a pier 220 feet in height in the bottom
of an alluvial valley, he soon relinquished this idea; and the bridge has there-
fore been constructed with a single span of 871 feet.

The roadway is suspended in the manner now universally known, by four
cables of iron wire* passing over the upper part of the gateways. Each cable
consists of 1200 wires, each about 1/16 inch in diameter, and 1140 feet in length.
To avoid the difficulty of moving these heavy cables, each wire was brought
separately to its place, and they were united on the spot by the workmen, who
were suspended during the work. We are happy to add, that no accident of
any kind occurred during this operation. It is calculated that the four united
cables are capable of sustaining a weight equal to 2946 tons.

The four cables are fixed in chain-pits or shafts cut out of the solid rock on
either side of the river. In each of these pits four cables pass through a ver-
tical cylindric chimney or pillar, which bears three heavy domes resting upon it,
and at the same time abutting against grooves cut with much care in the rock
to receive the springing stones. At the bottom of the pillars the cables are
made fast to blocks of very hard stone, which are cubes of 63 feet. The cables,
therefore, cannot slide without lifting the whole of these enormous buildings,
strengthened as they are by their connexion with the solid rock.

M. Challey began this work in the spring of 1832. He brought out of
France, we think, only a foreman who had assisted him on former occasions, and
engaging in this arduous enterprise with the inexperienced workmen of the country†
who had never seen a suspension bridge, he completed the work in spite of all these
difficulties; and on the 15th October 1834, fifteen pieces of artillery drawn by
forty-two horses, and surrounded by 300 persons, crossed the bridge through
they united in one body as well on the middle as at the ends of the roadway.
Nor was the least appearance of derangement of the structure discovered on the
closest examination. Some days after the whole inhabitants of Fribourg and its
suburbs passed over in procession, so that there were no fewer than 1800 per-
sons on the bridge at the same time; and all classes of travellers, mercantile
and curious, have since united with the natives of the Swiss cantons in testify-
ing their entire satisfaction with the bridge. Although the severe proof to which
constructor of this work subjected it, by loading the roadway with about 20 lbs.
on each square foot, did not take place till the month of October 1835, yet it
may safely be said that the colossal bridge of Fribourg was completely finished
in two years and a half. The whole expense was only about £24,000.

The only bridge which can be compared for its dimensions with that of M.
Challey is the Menai or Bangor bridge, which joins the Isle of Anglesea to the
main land of England. The largest vessels sail below it with full canvass
set. It was constructed by the celebrated Engineer Telford; but the Menai
bridge is only 550 feet in length, while the bridge of Fribourg is 871 feet. The
roadway of Mr. Telford’s bridge is about 106 feet above the level of high
water, and M. Challey’s 167 feet above the level of the river Sarine.

* It is not perhaps generally known that in all the suspension bridges in France
ropes formed of wires are employed, instead of the solid links used in England.
† This remark reminds us of the Sägur bridge built by Col. Presgrave under diffi-
culties so much superior.—See vol. II. p. 538.—Ed.
### Meteorological Register, kept at the Assay Office, Calcutta, for the Month of May, 1836.

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### Mean Temperature

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<th>Mean</th>
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<tr>
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### Moisture

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<tr>
<td>Snow</td>
<td>80.5</td>
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### Other Data

- **Max. Temperature:** 97.5°F
- **Min. Temperature:** 81.1°F
- **Mean Temperature:** 93.5°F
- **Rainfall:** 0.00 in.
- **Snowfall:** 0.00 in.
I.—Notes on the Buddhas from Ceylonese authorities, with an attempt to fix the dates of the appearance of the last four; being those of the Mahá Bhadra Kalpa, (or Present Age.) By Captain J. Forbes, H. M. 78th Highlanders.

1. Of the Buddhas who appeared prior to the Mahá Bhadra Kalpa, the names of the earliest Buddhas mentioned in Buddhist writings, are

Brahma Buddha.
Gautama Buddha*.
Tanhankara.
Medhankara.
Saranankara.

The following are the names of twenty-four Buddhas, who successively foretold the advent and exaltation of the present Gautama Buddha.

1 Deepankara, 12 Sujato,
2 Kondhanyo, 13 Piadassi,
3 Mangalo, 14 Athadassi-Atthadassi,
4 Sumano, 15 Dhammadassi,
5 Reweto, 16 Siddatto,
6 Sobhito, 17 Tisso,
7 Anomadassi, 18 Cusso,
8 Padumo, 19 Wipassi,
9 Narado, 20 Sikhi,
10 Padumutto, 21 Wissablu.
11 Sumedo,

Commencement of the Mahá Bhadra Kalpa.
22 Kakusanda,
23 Konagamma,
24 Kāsyaipa.

* Not the Gautama Buddha now worshipped.
Every Buddha, on having attained the object of his ambition, not only appropriated to himself, and received from his followers the innumerable titles of former Buddhas, (many of which were appertaining to the gods,) but by visiting the same places, enjoining the same observances, retaining the same moral laws, and imitating all their actions; he identified himself with the meritorious deeds as well as with the moral doctrines of his predecessors. From these circumstances it is not easy to particularise the acts of any individual Buddha; and the difficulty has been increased by writers on this subject, who in general have preferred aimless dissertations to historical incidents.

**Of Kakusanda,**

*The first Buddha in the present dispensation, B. C. 3101*.<sup>*</sup>

At the commencement of this the (Mahā Bhadra Kalpa) most auspicious age of the world according to Buddhists, KAKUSANDA BUDDHA appeared in Magadha†, when KsHEMA‡ was king, and the name of the capital was Kshemawattinuwara§. He visited Ceylon, which then was known by the name of Oja Dwepia, and first manifested himself from Adam's peak, at that time called Dewiyakuta, and on the summit of which he found memorials of the religion of former Buddhas were still existing. The Mahamuvuna gardens (comprising the plain on which the most sacred edifices at Anuraadhapura are situated) was called Mahātīrtiwiwa; and to the eastward of these was the city Abhya, the residence of a king of the same name; here also was situated the Piyal Kula mountain, (afterwards called Mehintallai) and a cave which the Buddha chose for his temporary abode.

A pestilence which had swept off multitudes, having ceased at the time of Kakusanda’s arrival, the people, believing that it was by his miraculous interpositions, eagerly listened to the exhortations, and adopted the religion of their benefactor. The garden Mahātīrtiwiwa having been offered to the Buddha, he sent to Kshemawatti to procure a branch of the Maharibodi tree; that it might remain as a memorial of himself, and an emblem of his religion. The tree was

* The period not of his birth or death, but of his becoming a Buddha.
† Magadha, Bhar.
‡ Kshema.
§ Kshemawattinuwara or Kshemawatinuwara, probably Saewatnuwara, or Gaya; the great antiquity of which city may be inferred from the manner in which it is mentioned in the Rāmāyana. In the transmigrations of Gautama Buddha, before he attained the perfection necessary for a Buddha, he is said to have been incarnate at this time as this very king KShema, vide Siddhamasuma, Thupa Wanzae, &c.
sent by the king Kshema under charge of the priestess Ruchitananda and the priest Mahadeva, and accompanied by numerous priests, priestesses, and attendants; they arrived safely, and the tree was planted by the king Abhya according to the privilege; and with the ceremonies which had been usual on such fortunate occasions by former monarchs of the island. The place selected for the tree was near the plain Sirisamála, where the Buddha had once rested himself, and which in after times became the site of the Lowa Maha Páyá.*

Having preached from where the Thupa Rama† afterwards stood, and made innumerable converts; Kakusanda bestowed his drinking cup as a memorial to his followers; appointed Ruchitananda chief over 500 priestesses, and Mahadeva over 1000 priests, to maintain religion; then having seen the consecrated places of Ceylon, and revisited Deviya Kuta, he departed to the continent of India.

From these particulars it would not appear that the commencement of the Mahá Bhadra Kalpa was marked by any general revolution in the face of nature; but the commencement of an era at that time may be rationally accounted for, by the successful ministry of Kakusanda Buddha; this would also account for the same era being styled Kali yuga (age of vice) by the bráhmans; and Mahá Bhadra Kalpa (the most auspicious age) by the Buddhists.

In support of my opinion for fixing so remote a period as the commencement of the Kali yuga B.C. 3101, as the era of this Buddha; I have the unanimous assertion of Buddhist writers, that he appeared at the commencement of the present age, or Mahá Bhadra Kalpa. Sir William Jones‡ writing on this subject says, “The best authority after all is the Bhágawat itself, in the first chapter of which it is expressly declared, that Buddha the son of Jina would appear at Cícata§ for the purpose of confounding the demons, just at the beginning of the Kali yuga.” Again I quote from the same authority||: “Bhrigu says, From this Menu named Swá yamhvuva, ‘or sprung from the self-existing,’ came six descendants, other Menus, or perfectly understanding the scriptures, each giving birth to a race of his own all exalted in dignity, eminent in power—

* At Anuraadhapura. In the remains of this building are still to be seen (1600) rough stone pillars.
† At Anuraadhapura. A Dagobah and Wiharé, now in ruins; the slender, but elegant columns of which, have not inaptly been compared to the Areka tree.
‡ Sir William Jones, Asiatic Researches, VII. 122.
§ Bahar.
|| Sir William Jones, Laws of Menu, Article on the Creation, Section 61.
"Swárochisha,—Auttami,—Tamasa,—Raiwata likewise, and Chácshusha beaming with glory, and Vaiváswatá child of the Sun."

Chácshusha is evidently the same name as Kakusanda, the final letters being a usual honorary affix in Cingalese. He is called by Bentley, Cháksooso*, by Wilford Cháshusha†, by Wilson Chákshusa‡, by Colebrooke Cucuch'handá§; he is also called Karkutchand||, Prachanda Dewá¶, and Krakuchanda**; and appeared as a Menu or Muní, (which in Cingalese is a term applied to a Saint or a Buddha,) previous to Vaiváswata, who by many of the most eminent chronologists has been considered identical with Noah, B. C. 2984.††

The Cingalese works state that Kakusanda was of the race of Samata Rája. The first Menu, also the first king, and elected by the people, after they had lost immortality and become subject to earthly passions‡‡.

At the time of Kakusanda Buddha, Adam's peak was called Dewiyakuta, (peak of God;) when Konagamma Buddha visited it B. C. 2100, the name was Samantkutá, (peak of Saman.) This appellation I should infer from Cingalese history it obtained from Saman§§, brother of Ráma; whose era is fixed by the date of the partial submerging of Ceylon, B. C. 2387, which is three years previous to the date of the flood||, and thus refers Kakusanda Buddha to a period preceding that event.

The following quotation is from Tod's Annals of Rajasthán;

"Though a passage in the Agni Purán indicates that the line of Súrya, of which Icshwaca was the head, was the first colony which entered India from Central Asia, yet we are compelled to place the Patriarch Buddha as his contemporaries, he being stated to have come from a distant region, and married to Ella the sister of Icshwaca." Referring to the era of Ráma as already given, viz. B. C. 2387, and

* Remarks on the eras and dates of the ancient Hindus, Asiatic Res. V.
† Wilford's Chronology of the Hindus, Asiatic Res. V.
‡ Sanscrit Dictionary.
§ Colebrooke's observations on the Jains, Asiatic Res. IX.
|| Asiatic Journal, 1832, p. 380.
¶ Asiatic Journal, 1834, p. 220.
** Asiatic Journal, No. 48, p. 87.
†† Dr. Lloyd's Bible chronology.
‡‡ Jananda Pota, (Cingalese work.)
§§ Saman, Lackshmana, brother of Ráma.
||| According to Dr. Lloyd's Bible chronology, Noah was born B. C. 2984, and the flood commenced when Noah had lived six hundred years, two months and seventeen days, Gen. vii. 11; or B. C. 2384.
allowing 20 years as the length of each reign of the thirty-six sovereigns from Ra'ama up to Icshwaca, would give the date B. C. 3107 as the time of Icshwaca, and confirm the above passage regarding Buddha being contemporaneous with this monarch; and a similarity of sound, as well as coincidence of date, tempts me to suggest the possible identity of Icshwaca with Kshema or Kshemaka, who is described as being the royal patron of Kakusanda Buddha.

To explain why I have fixed the era of Ra'ama, B. C. 2387. The Rajawalia states that from the time of Rawena until the era of Gautama Buddha (at which time a connected Cingalese history commences†) 1844 years had elapsed. In several Cingalese works‡ the partial submerging of Ceylon is mentioned as having occurred immediately after the death of Rawena; and the consequent decrease in the circumference of the island is stated to have been 133 yoduns or 2128 miles§. It was in this visitation that the splendid capital Sri Lanka-pura (which was situated to the north-west of the present island) is said to have been overwhelmed, and

"Towers and temples through the closing wave
A glimmering ray of ancient splendour gave."

Of Konagamma,
The second Buddha of the present dispensation, B. C. 2099.

At a time when long continued draught had caused scarcity and sickness in Ceylon, Konagamma Buddha appeared||; and seasonable rains having fallen, the consequent prosperity of the country was attributed to his power and presence. At this time the island was called Wara-dwipa, and the peak on which he, according to the custom of his predecessors, commenced his ministry in Ceylon, was

* Thupa Wansae, Buddha Wansae, Mahawansae, Saddhama Sumana, Raja-walia, Rajakatanaikara.
† Translated and arranged by Mr. Turnour, from B. C. 543 to A. C. 1815.
‡ Rajawalia, Kadaimpta, Lankâ Wistrie. The Kadaimpta also records a similar calamity as having reduced Lankâ to its present size, B. C. 267.
§ In Gutzlaff's History of China, the following near coincidence of dates with regard to the deluge occurs. "We are now arrived at a period which Confucius himself has delineated."

"Yaou began to reign B. C. 2337." "There is an extraordinary catastrophe mentioned in the reign of Yaou, which is one of the greatest events in the history of mankind, the deluge. Mang-tze (Mencius) in speaking of the same event, remarks, that at the time of Yaou the deluge had not yet entirely subsided. During the reign of Yaou,yu commenced the draining of the waters, and the confining of the rivers to their beds."

|| Kanaka-muni, Asiatic Journal, 1834, p. 220.
called Samanta-kuta or Samanella; from thence he visited the capital Wadhamanika, situated on the south side of the Maha-Mewuna gardens*, which then bore the name of Maha-Antowana, and being acknowledged as a Buddha the king Samurdha dedicated to him these gardens by the name of Anopawana. At the request of the prophet, the king Sobhana sent from the continent of India a branch of the Udambara tree, accompanied by many priests and priestesses; the whole were received with due honor, and the Udambara tree planted by the king Samurdha became the emblem of the new Buddha. Konagamma Buddha (after having visited the various places consecrated by the presence of former Buddhas in Lankâ) gave charge over the priestesses to the chief priestess Kanakadanta, and over the priests having placed Sudhama, he bestowed his girdle as a memorial to his followers, and departed for the city of king Sobhana.

Regarding the date which I have assigned to this Buddha, viz. B. C. 2099.

I have connected the reign of Pradyota king of Magadha, with the time of Konagamma Buddha, by the various accounts of the incarnations and transmigrations of Gautama Buddha; these all state that at the time of Konagamma, Gautama was incarnate as that fortunate king of Magadha, Parwatia or Parguyata†; whom I consider the same as Pradyota of Jones and Bentley, Pradhyota of Wilford, and Pridot’hana of Tod. These authorities all agree that in the reign of that king a Buddha appeared, although they have all assigned different dates to the event. I follow that of Sir Wm. Jones, who gives his authority; a quotation from the Bhagawatamrita. “He (Buddha) became visible the thousand and second year of the Kali yuga being past.”

“Puranjaya son of the twentieth king (of Magadha) was put to death by his minister, Sumaca, who placed his own son Pradyota, on

* At Anuraadhapura.

† Lest the father of Pradyota being a murderer, and himself an usurper, should be made objections against this being the king Parwatia, in which Buddhist writers have declared that Gautama Buddha was incarnate, I quote the life of the most revered of Buddhist sovereigns, Dharmasoka, as it is written by Buddhist priests, and which may be thus abridged:

He commenced his career as Asoka, a prince and a brâhman; attained power by becoming a fratricide and usurper; B. C. 323, retained it as a zealous Buddhist, and died king of India, at Patalipura, (Patna.) His memory has been extolled by all Buddhist writers, and his name and deeds are sanctified by the appellation Dharm (the righteous) prefixed to Asoka.

We also find, that Gautama was believed to have been incarnate as Sakya, a chief of the Yaksha, and as Atula a king of the Nagas.
the throne of his master; and this revolution constitutes an epoch of the highest importance; first, because it happened, according to the Bhagawatamrita, two years exactly before Buddha's appearance in the same kingdom; next, because it is believed by the Hindus to have taken place 2100 B.C.; and lastly, because a regular chronology, according to the number of years in each dynasty, has been established from the accession of Pradyota to the subversion of the genuine Hindu government." In the Cingalese accounts we find Konagamma received that protection and assistance from the king Sobhana*, which his predecessor had received from the king Kshema. In the list of kings of the line of Buddha, of the Ooru or Oorvasu branch, in Colonel Tod's tables, and about the year B.C. 2050, we find the name of the king Sovahana; and in supposing Sobhana and Sovahana identical, there is neither discrepancy of dates nor designation, for Konagamma Buddha only appeared B.C. 2099, and as there is no letter v in Cingalese, Sovahana would be written Sobhana, that being the nearest transmutation.

Of Kasyapa,

The third Buddha in the present dispensation, B.C. 1014.

On Kasyapa visiting Ceylon, he found it called Madā-dwipa; and the capital Wisala, situated on the west of the Mahā-Mewuna gardens, was the residence of the king Jayanta. The people were divided into two hostile parties, the one headed by the next heir to the throne, Samiddho; the other by the king's ministers: the armies had approached each other, and were only prevented from engaging by a dreadful conflict of the elements, accompanied by darkness, and succeeded by showers of fiery sparks. Kasyapa at this time descended from the peak, which was then called Subhakuta, and having succeeded in reconciling the contending parties, was acknowledged as a Buddha, and the Mah-Mewuna gardens were offered to him by the name of Sagara gardens. From Brahmadatta of the Okakā† race, king of Baranas‡, he procured a branch of the Nigródha tree, which was accompanied by numerous priests and priestesses; and was planted in the consecrated ground of Sagara, by the king Jayanta, with the ceremonies which had been performed on such occasions by former kings. Kasyapa after converting the people, and visiting the places hallowed by the presence of former Buddhas, bestowed as a relic to his followers, the bathing cloth which he had used; then giving charge over the 500 principal priestesses to the chief of them Sudhamma; and over 1000 priests placing Sarwamanda to maintain religion, he departed from the island to return to Baranas. Regard-

* Sobhana, † Okaka, same as Ikshwaka. ‡ Benares.
ing the date which I have assigned to the commencement of Kasyapa's ministry:

In a fragment of a poem which has the appearance of having been rendered into Cingalese from Sanscrit, called the Leechawee history, Brahmadatta, king of Baranas, is mentioned, and that Buddha was then residing in that city. The date is given in round numbers 2000 years after the commencement of the Kali yuga, which corresponds with

B. C. 1101
Padmakarpa, a Lama of Bhotan, fixes the date.

1058
The Chinese place the birth of Buddha*.

1036
M. Bailly*

1031
Matonan Sin, a Chinese Historian†,

1027
De Guignes, from Mongolian records*.

1027
Japanese Encyclopedia fixes his birth.

1027
Ditto ditto his death.

960
Inscription at Buddha Gya*.

1014
Mongol Chronology of Pallas.

991
Cassiano by the calculations of the Tibetans appeared;.

959
Ditto ditto died.

950
Giorgi, death of Buddha.

La mort de Bouddha, ou plutôt de Shakya-muni le premier de Bouddhas, est placée par un monument d'une authenticité incontestable, L'Encyclopédie Japonaise, en 950 avant notre ère;.

From these concurring dates, I am inclined to believe, that the death of Kasyapa Buddha occurred about B. C. 950, and the earlier dates given above, are either that of his birth or of his having become a Buddha.

Of Gautama,
The fourth Buddha in the present dispensation—Became Buddha, B. C. 588; died, B. C. 543.

B. C. 543 is the era of Gautama Buddha, and generally used in the religious and historical works of Ceylon.

It is this Gautama whose moral doctrines are recognised as the rule of conduct; whose name is still invoked as the present Buddha by the Cingalese; and the existing records of whose life and ministry are so minute and credible, that they may fairly claim to be admitted into genuine history. The following are a few of the most remarkable events of his life, particularly as connected with Ceylon.

* From Sir William Jones's Chronology of the Hindus.
† Prinsep's Chronological Tables.
‡ Wilford's Chronological list of the kings of Maghada.
§ Messrs. Bournôuf et Lassen.
Prince Siddharta, the son of king Suddhodana, by one of his queens Māya, was born at Kapilawasta or Kumbūlpatpura, a town of Central India*; at 16 years of age he was married to the princess Yasodara (called also Subhaddakachchāna), and when 29 years of age his wife brought him a son (who was called Rahula, and afterwards became a priest). On the same day that his son was born, Siddharta forsook his family and country, and commenced a life of penance and meditation, which he continued for six years in the forest of Oorawelle; during this period existing solely by charity, and feeding on wild fruits. He fasted for 49 days, and after a severe struggle having finally overcome Marya and his attendant host of demons†, became a Buddha by the name of Gautama.

Gautama Buddha proceeded to commence his ministry, and first expounded his doctrines at the grove called Isipatanā in the neighbourhood of the city of Baranās. In the ninth month after he became Buddha, Gautama arrived at the town of Mahāwelligam‡ the capital of the Yakshas in Ceylon, and which then covered a space twelve miles in length and eight in breadth on the banks of the Mahawelliganga. The majority of the Yakshas appear to have been converted, and to have driven those who adhered to their ancient superstitions into an island called Yakgiri. Tradition places this island to the south-east of Ceylon, and the legends which are preserved (on that coast) of sunken cities, may refer to some territory, of which the Bass rocks are all that now remain.

A portion of the hair of the Buddha was enclosed in a golden casket, over which a Dāgoba was built at Myungana§ in Mahawelligam, and this relic is said to have prevented the return of the Yakshas|| (devils) whom Buddha had expelled: i.e. the worship he had succeeded.

* Madhya-désia.
† It might be translated overcame death and deadly sin; for (māra) and (mara) signifies death, destroying, lust; also a name of Kama, god of love. Clough's Cingalese Dictionary.
‡ Where Myungana now stands in Beentinne.
§ Myungana is still a sacred place of pilgrimage near the village of Beentinne; the Dāgoba originally built by the chief of the converted Yakshas, was afterwards enriched by the addition of the Griwa (neck bone) relic, and enlarged to the height of twelve cubits; it was increased by the king Chula Bhya to thirty cubits, and Dātāgaimūnú, between 164 B. C. and 140, raised it to the height of ninety cubits.
|| The superstitions of the Yakshas had again become general in the time of Pandukabhya (100 years after Buddha), and continued to prevail until B. C. 307.
The second visit of GAUTAMA BUDDHA to Ceylon was B. C. 581; on which occasion he reconciled two rival princes of the Nágás, CHULODRA and MAHODRA, who had been carrying on a destructive war. These princes were near relations, and their capitals of Kellania* and Wadenawágalla† were situated in that part of the western coast of Ceylon which was then called Nágá-diwinia. On the termination of their feud, the throne for which they had contended, was made an offering to the Buddha, and enshrined by the Nágás in the Dagobah of Kellania‡ to be worshipped as a memorial of their teacher.

GAUTAMA BUDDHA a third time came to Ceylon B. C. 577, and having revisited Kellania, from thence proceeded to Samanella (Adam's peak), Diganakhy in Ruhunu, the eight places at Anuradhapura, and all others which had been sanctified by former Buddhas; then took his final departure from the island, and proceeded to his principal residence in the temple of Jaitawanarama in Saewatnuwara§ of Mahdha. GAUTAMA BUDDHA continued to be indefatigable in publishing his doctrines, and to be eminently successful in increasing his followers, and at last died placidly at a short distance from the town of Kusináránuwara in Malwa, in the 81st year of his age, and B. C. 543.

Of MAITRI,

The expected Buddha, whose advent is foretold by Buddhists.

Buddhists believe that to complete the predestined number of the Buddhas, allotted for the Mahá Bhadra Kalpa, and to renovate the faith of a degenerating race, MAITRI BUDDHA will be born of WIHARE DEWI, who in her last transmigration was the daughter of KELLANIA TISSA RA'JA, and who about B. C. 220 became queen of MÁGAM||, and wife of KAWANTISSA RA'JA.

The emblematic tree which will be selected by MAITRI' BUDDHA, and become sacred from the time of his appearance until the end of this Kalpa, it is predicted will be the Nágaha or iron-wood tree.

* Kellania, four miles from Colomba.
† Wadenawágalla in the Swinkorles.
‡ This Dagoba still exists.
§ Buddha Gya is probably Saewatnuwara, and contains amidst its shapeless ruins the remains of GAUTAMA's residence; as well as the wreck of those splendid temples which were built to commemorate his worth, or cover his relics.
|| The ruins of the city of Mágam, extend over a considerable space, and include several large Dagobas ruined and overgrown with jungle; they lie on the left bank of the Menick Ganga, and between Katragama and Hambantotti; from the latter place to Mágam is fourteen miles.
II.—Memoir of a Hindu Colony in Ancient Armenia. By Johannes Avdall, Esq., M. A. S.

A singular account of a certain colony of Hindus, that emigrated from India into Armenia, is recorded in the historical work of Zenobius, a Syrian Bishop and primate of the convent called Innaknian*, who flourished in Armenia in the beginning of the third century. The narrative was evidently written in Syriac, and intended for the Syrian nation, though the writer seems to have subsequently re-written the same in the Armenian language, but with Syrian characters; the letters of our alphabet having been invented a century posterior to that period. By a very long residence in Armenia, Zenobius was successfully enabled to acquire a perfect knowledge of the Armenian language, in which his history has been handed down to us. This interesting work was published in Venice, in the year 1832, being carefully collated with five manuscript copies, written in different periods.

I shall, in the present memoir, first give a description of this Hindu colony from the narrative of Zenobius, and then an account of the religious wars waged between them and the first propagators of Christianity in Armenia.

"This people had a most extraordinary appearance. They were black, long-haired, ugly and unpleasant to the sight. They claimed their origin from the Hindus. The story of the idols, worshipped by them in this place, is simply this: Demetr† and Krisanay‡ were brothers, and both Indian princes. They were found guilty of a plot formed against their king, Dinaskey, who sent troops after them, with instructions either to put them to death or to banish them from the country. The felons, having narrowly escaped the pursuit, took a shelter in the dominions of the king Valarsaces, who bestowed on them the principality of the country of Taron. Here a city was founded by the emigrants, who called it Vishap or Dragon. Having

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* հինակնեան նինակնեան հինակմեր հինակմեր, literally meaning, nine springs or fountains, which existed in the place.

† դեմետր Դեմետր իս Գրեք, a Greek name, probably borrowed by the Hindus from the Bactrians or the descendants of the troops of Alexander the Great.

‡ քրիսանեի Քրիսանեի արաբ, իս, which both, in Armenian and Persian, signifies a ringlet or a curling forelock. Thus we have in Richardson Քրիսանեի Քրիսանեի արաբ Արաբ, locks fragrant as amber.

§ դինասկեյ Դինասկեյ է Նամի Ինդիա կիրակե Արաբ, is the name of the Indian king mentioned in the Armenian text, for which I have in vain searched in all old historical records and chronological tables of the dynasties of ancient India.
come to Ashtishat*, they raised idols there in the name of those they worshipped in India. Fifteen years after their settlement in the country, both of the brothers were put to death by the king, for what fault I do not know. He conferred the principality on their three sons, named Kuar, Meghti and Horain. The first built a village, and called it after his own name Kuar's. The second founded a village on the plain, and called it after his own name Meghti. The third also built a village in the province of Palunies, and gave it the appellation of Horains.

After a certain space of time, Kuar, Meghti and Horain, of one accord, resolved on changing their abode. They sojourned on the mountain called Kárki, which to a delightful temperature added a fine and picturesque appearance. It abounded in game, herbs, wood, and all that is adapted for the comfort and convenience of man. Here they raised edifices, where they set up two idols, respectively dedicated to Keisaneý and Demetr, in honor of whom attendants were appointed out of their own race. Keisaneý had long flowing hairs, in imitation of which his priests allowed the hairs of their heads to grow, which custom was afterwards prohibited by authority. This class of people, on being converted to Christianity, were not deeply rooted in their faith. They durst not, however, openly profess the religion of their pagan ancestors. They continued, therefore, dissemblingly to allow their children to wear plaited hairs on the crown of their heads, in remembrance of their idolatrous abominations."

The description of this idolatrous colony is entirely accordant with the colour, appearance, manners and religion of the present Hindus. The cause of their emigration from India is distinctly stated by Zenobius, but through what route or in what period they found their way into Armenia, it is very difficult to determine. It is, however, clearly evident that they had formed a permanent settlement in our country prior to the commencement of the Christian era. Valarsaces, under whose government they found protection, was grandson of Arsaces, the Parthian, and brother of Arsaces the Great, by whom he was appointed king over Armenia, Anno Mundi 3852, or a century and a half before Christ. I shall now proceed to give a translation of Zenobius's narrative of the religious wars of this Hindu people with the first Christian converts of Armenia.

* Alcshalis Ashtishat was a city in Armenia Major. It was so called from Alcs sacrifice, and Alcs many: for innumerable sacrifices were offered there to the gods and goddesses of Armenia. It might, perhaps, be well compared to Jagannáth or Káli Ghát of this country.
"Having taken our departure from Thordan, we intended to proceed to Carin and Harc. St. Gregory was informed by some of the princes of the existence of two idolatrous temples in the province of Taron, the inhabitants of which offered sacrifices to the devil. Hereupon, our course was changed to the place where these temples stood, with a view to effect their demolition. Having arrived in the country of Palunies, in the extensive village called Keisaney, near the town of Kuars, we met there some of the heathen priests. Having ascertained from the prince of Hashtens that on the following day the great images of Keisaney and Demetr were to be levelled to the ground, they repaired to the temples in the dead of the night, and removed from thence all the treasure into subterraneous places. Intimation of the impending danger was forthwith sent to the heathen priests in Ashtishat, who were earnestly urged to collect warriors, and quietly join them on the morrow in order to take an active part in the battle, which was to be fought by the great Keisaney with the apostate princes. In like manner the inhabitants of Kuars were also instigated to lie in ambush in the hedges of gardens, and ruffians were sent to waylay the Christians in the forests. The head priest, called Arzan*, and his son Demetr, took the command of the troops stationed at Kuarstan, and halted there, awaiting the arrival of reinforcements from other quarters. On the following day they made a descent to the skirts of the mountain, in order to indulge in marauding and pillage.

"St. Gregory, accompanied by the prince of Arzrunies†, the prince of Anzevazies, and the prince of the house of Angl‡, and followed by a small number of troops amounting to about three hundred, ascended the mountain in the third hour of the day, where Arzan lay in ambush. They had not the least knowledge of the position of the enemy, and never expected to meet him there. On a near approach to

* Արծան Arzan, literally means in Armenian, statue, image or idol.
† Արծռունես Arzrunies was the title of a satrapy in Armenia, and signifies eagle-bearing. The Satraps known by this appellation, used to carry eagles before the Arsacian king Valarsaces and his successors.
‡ Անգլտուն Angltun, the genitive of which is Անգլտու Angltun, means the house of Angl or vulture. This was a title of distinction, conferred on a noble family in Armenia, compared to that bird of prey, on account of the ugliness and deformity of their features.
§ This is to be understood according to the mode of the computation of time, obtaining in eastern countries. The hour mentioned here, corresponds with nine o'clock in the morning. Thus we have in the Acts: "For these are not drunken, as ye suppose, seeing it is but the third hour of the day."
the acclivity of the mountain, Arzan and Demetr rushed out from the ambuscade, and on a signal being given, the trumpets of war were sounded, and a furious attack was instantly commenced. This was enough to alarm the Christian princes, whose horses took fright from the sound of the trumpets, and began to neigh and plunge, and create the greatest confusion. Hereupon, the prince of the house of Angl raised his voice and cried, 'Prince of the Seunies, step forward and see whether these are the troops of the prince of the north.' The necessary inquiries were made, but no satisfactory information was obtained. The prince of the Seunies returned and insisted on the removal of St. Gregory and his companions to a secure place, lest, he feared, they might be made prisoners by the enemy, which event would surely excite the anger of the king, and bring the Christian princes into disgrace. 'Send then,' added he, 'a trusty person to recall our troops, for the number of the enemy is alarmingly great, and innumerable flags are seen waving in the air.'

"No sooner was the warning given, than the prince of the house of Angl, gave charge of St. Gregory to the prince of the Mocks, with instructions to convey him to the castle of Olkan, and there to await the issue of the battle. Information of this was immediately sent to the troops. The prince of the Mocks, accompanied by St. Gregory, descended the declivity of the mountain, wishing to repair to Kuars. They met with great resistance on the way from a party of the enemy, but by the help of Providence, at last succeeded in effecting their escape. We were, however, pursued by a number of villagers, but being mounted on swift horses, took refuge in the castle of Olkan, where we met with a timely assistance and protection. The villagers having proceeded to the town of Kuars, informed its people of the place of our retreat. The castle of Olkan was, therefore, instantly besieged. We were thus seized with apprehensions for our safety, and forthwith dispatched a messenger with letters to the prince of the house of Angl, conveying him information of the perilous situation in which we were then placed. He immediately sent us four thousand troops, all selected from the army, and furnished with swords, who crossed the river and reached their destination on the following day. After a siege of three days, they took possession of the town of Kuars, and reduced its walls to ruins, and razed all its houses to the ground. The people of the place, that had escaped the stroke of the sword, were conducted to Meghti.

"The Christian princes being apprised of this, ascended the mountain, and descried Arzan in ambuscade with four hundred men, more or less. They immediately made a sortie on the enemy, and put
Arzan to flight. The Armenian troops having heard the din of battle, immediately crowded to the mountain. Upon this, Arzan began to rally, and heap on the Armenian princes torrents of abuse. 'Step forward, said he, 'ye base apostates, who disbelieve the gods of your ancestors, and are opposed to the glorious Keisaney. Do you not know that it is Keisaney that wages war with you this day, and will subdue you under our hands, and inflict you with blindness and death?' The prince of Arzrunies, having rushed forward, said, 'Thou worthless bully, if you fight on behalf of your gods, you deceive yourselves; if you fight on behalf of your country, you only display your own folly. Behold the prince of the house of Angl, and the prince of the house of Seunies, and the other nobles, whom you know too well.' To which Demetr, the son of Arzan, thus replied: 'Listen unto us, ye Armenian princes! it is now nearly forty years since we are engaged in the service of the mighty gods. We have an experience of their powers, and are assured that they fight with the enemies of their servants. We are not, however, able to cope with you in battle. This is the habitation of the king of Armenia, and ye are his nobles. But, be it known to you all, that though it is out of our power to conquer you, yet we prefer to die a glorious death to-day in upholding the honor of our gods, than to live and see their temples polluted by you. Death is, therefore, more welcome to us than life.' Having spoken this, Demetr challenged the prince of the house of Angl to a single battle.

"The prince of the house of Angl having accepted the challenge, made an instantaneous attack on Arzan, who inflicted a wound with his spear on one of the thighs of his antagonist, and was on the point of levelling him to the ground. The prince of the house of Angl having, by an adroit movement, regained his position, thus addressed the enemy: 'Know thou this, Arzan! that this spot must receive the appellation, by which you are called; for here thou art destined to fall, and be fixed like a statue!' No sooner was this spoken, than he lifted up his arm, and aimed a stroke of his sword on his right shoulder, by which his head, together with his left shoulder and leg, was instantly severed from the body. Thus fell Arzan, and was fixed like a statue on the ground. He was buried on the very spot, which to this day is called, after his name, Arzan.

"Hereupon the heathen army was immediately swelled by re-inforcements sent by the priests from the city of Vishap. The people of Par-tukh, and Meghti and Astaghon, also crowded to the spot of battle,
and the number of the army was thus increased to five thousand four hundred and fifty.

"Their arrival in the summit of the mountain, created great noise and confusion in the ranks of the two armies. The heathen priests made a simultaneous attack on the Armenian troops, and by a vigorous pursuit after them made them descend the declivity of the mountain and fly towards the village. The villagers, who lay in ambush, having encountered our troops, stopped their progress, and these being thus hemmed in on both sides, were put to the sword. But the prince of the house of Angl having passed through the ranks of the heathen priests, directed his course towards the mountain, where several men were kept in reserve, and caused great mischief by flinging stones at our horses. Demetr having observed the prince of the house of Angl ascend the mountain, left the rest below and pursued his steps. He was immediately followed by his troops, all mounted on horses.

"The battle was resumed on the top of the mountain. Our army waited in expectation of further re-inforcements. The whole of our troops had not yet assembled on the spot, of whom four thousand remained in charge of the prisoners in Meghti, and three thousand proceeded to Basain and Harc. The rest were given to pillage and marauding in the field. Ere decisive blows were exchanged, the approach of night put a stop to further operations. Both armies were, therefore, obliged to encamp on the spot and wait the dawn of the morn. On the following day the expected Armenian troops made their appearance; and a re-inforcement of about five hundred men, from the city of Tirakatar, came to the assistance of the heathen priests. The number of both armies were swelled in this manner. The heathens amounted to six thousand nine hundred and forty-six men, while the Armenians were only five thousand and eighty in all. The trumpets were sounded, and the battle commenced on both sides. In the beginning the Armenians proved victorious over the heathens. But the prince of Hashtens, formerly attached to the party of Demetr, but now commanding the Armenian army, deserted his post, and joined the ranks of the heathen priests with seven hundred men. The Armenians met with a formidable antagonist in this deserter. Our troops were seized with fear and dismay at the desertion of this brave warrior, whose superiority in military operations was generally acknowledged, and whose extraordinary prowess had rendered him an object of respect and admiration with all the Armenian princes. The rebel attacked our army with the greatest fury, and was flushed with the success of his arms. Hereupon the prince of the Seunies
cried to him in a contemptuous voice, 'Thou whelp of a wolf! thou
beganaest to display the disposition of thy father, and feel a delight in
feasting upon carrion.' The rebel replied in a bold and reproachful
manner, 'Thou vainglorious eagle! thou only piquest thyself on
the power of thy wings; but if thou ever fallst in one of my traps,
thou shalt soon feel the weight of my arms.' The prince of the
Seunies could not brook this taunt, but furiously rushing on him,
directed the axe which he held in his hand to his helmet, and having
driven him to some distance from his troops, pursued him to the
eastward of the mountain. Here, opposite to the convent of Innak-
nian, he brought him to the ground by a violent shove from the
horse; and having himself alighted, instantly severed his head from
the body, which he precipitated headlong from the mountain. 'Now,'
said he, 'let vultures behold you, and know that the eagle has killed
the hare.' Immediately after this, the prince of the Seunies returned
to the army; and the place where the prince of Hashtens fell, is to
this day called by the appellation of the Eagles.

"The Armenians were emboldened by this success, and the prince
of Arzrunies attacked the head priest of Ashtishat, called Metakes,
whom he dragged to the summit of the mountain, commanding a
view of the battle. Metakes here made a violent resistance, and
inflicted a wound on one of the thighs of his pursuer. The latter,
burning with rage and a spirit of revenge, levelled a stroke of his
scymetar on his neck, which he cut off from the body. He threw
down the headless trunk, and the spot where the deed was committed,
reached the appellation of Metsakol.

"The prince of Arges seeing this, consulted his safety in flight,
and secured himself in a place of concealment. The prince of Arzru-
nies, seemingly not noticing this, gently approached the fugitive, and
made a sudden and unexpected attack on him. The wretch fled into
the forest, where the sharp point of one of the branches of a tree,
having passed through his breast, hastened his fall and dissolution.
The conqueror returned with the horse of the dead, and the spot
was called the vale of Arges.

"Immediately after his return he found Demetr and the prince of

* Gaitakorean, literally, means a young wolf, or the
cub of a wolf.

† is an abusive mode of expression in Armenian,
similar to that of thou son of a dog.

‡ Prince of Arges was another title of nobility in
Armenia, literally signifying the prince of the bears.
the house of Angl wrestling together with the greatest fury. Having made a violent rush, he chopped off the right shoulder of the former, and threw it on the ground. The severed head he carried away in his knapsack. The victorious Armenians put the heathen army to the sword, and the number of the killed amounted to one thousand and thirty-eight. The rest were made prisoners, and stripped of all they were possessed of. The son of the prince of the Mocks fell in the battle by the hand of Demetr, and this melancholy event spread universal sorrow among the Armenian troops.

"The fall of Demetr was made a signal of cessation from slaughter, and the trumpet of peace was sounded by order of the prince of the Seunies. The two armies immediately desisted from the continuance of carnage. The surviving heathen priests gladly availed themselves of the occasion, by soliciting the Armenian princes to sanction the interment of their dead. Their request was readily granted. The killed on both sides were collected in heaps, and buried in pits dug for the purpose. Monuments were raised on their graves, bearing the following inscription, in Syrian, Hellenic, and Ismaelitish characters.

\[
\text{"The First Battle fought very fiercely, the Chief Commander in the battle was Arzan the Head Priest, who lies here interred, and with him one thousand and thirty-eight men. We waged this war for the Idol Keisaney and on behalf of Christ."}
\]

Here concludes the narrative of the religious war. Our historian, it appears, was an eye-witness to the scene he describes. This victory was celebrated by the Armenians with the greatest pomp and merriment. The heathen temples were razed to the ground, and the images of Keisaney and Demetr were broken to pieces. They were both made of brass. The length of the former was fifteen feet, and that of the latter twelve feet. The priests of the idols, with tears in their eyes, intreated the victors to put themselves to death, rather than destroy their mighty Keisaney. Six of the priests were killed on the spot, for the resistance they offered to the Armenians. On the restoration of peace, the prince of the Seunies proceeded
to the village of Kuars, and succeeded in persuading its inhabitants to forsake idolatry and embrace the Christian religion. Being duly prepared for baptism, they were conducted to the valley of Ayzasan, where they were baptised by St. Gregory, and thus admitted into the fellowship of the Church of Christ. "The number of persons," says Zenobius, "christened on the first of Navasard*, including men and children, amounted to five thousand and fifty." Females, it appears, were excluded from this number, and baptised on another day, appointed for the occasion. Some of the heathen priests and their families, however, tenaciously adhered to the idolatrous practices of their forefathers. The paternal persuasions of St. Gregory had no effect upon their minds. "Remember this well," said they to the Armenian princes, "that if we live, we will make you a recompense for your treatment; but, if we die, the gods will wreck their vengeance on you all on our behalf!" Hereupon the prince of the house of Angl ordered them to be taken to the city of Phaitacaran†, where they were imprisoned and their heads shaved. The number of these prisoners amounted to four hundred.

It is impossible to know what was the number of this Hindu colony at the time of their emigration from India into Armenia. We are, however, certain, that from the date of their first settlement in the Armenian province of Taron to the day of the memorable battle, a period of about four hundred and fifty years, they must have considerably increased and multiplied, and thus formed a part of the population of the country. No vestiges of this Hindu race can, at present, be traced in Armenia, save the record of their exploits, handed down to us in the narrative of Zenobius‡.

*†‡  

Navasard is one of the ancient Armenian months, corresponding with the month of August. An account of these months is given by M. Brosset in the Nouveau Journal Asiatique for December 1832, page 526.

Phaitacaran was the capital of an extensive province of that name, where Sanatrux, the great Armenian Satrap, proclaimed himself king immediately after the death of Tiridates. It is situated on the confluence of the rivers Araxes and Kur.

Our historian was also called by the appellation of Glak, whom St. Gregory appointed primate of the convent of Innknian, which afterwards received the appellation of Glak.
III.—Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions.

Fearing that many of the inscriptions with copies of which I have been favored by my mofussil correspondents, may be mislaid or lost sight of unless committed to print, I am led to anticipate the full explanation which many of them doubtless might receive from those who have learning, industry, and will, to decypher them, but want the necessary leisure at present to undertake the task,—by transferring them to the stone at once, and recording them in the Journal along with the notes that accompanied them, where they may be at all times available when accidental discovery may open a clue to their interpretation. Some indeed are of a promising nature, and have been in a great measure made out, while others have been alluded to in former Nos. of the Journal or in the proceedings of the Society, to which reference alone is all that can be offered. I must proceed in the inverse order of the plates, having numbered them without consideration.

Konkan Inscription.

No. I. of Plate X. is the reduced facsimile of an inscription on a slab of stone from Wara in South Konkan, presented to the Bombay Literary Society by Captain T. Jervis, of the Engineers, by whom it was supposed to be in the Cufic character. It was communicated to the Bengal Society by our associate the Rev. Mr. Bateman, in January, (see p. 58.)

Those who have noticed the series of ancient Hindu coins depicted in the November and December Nos. of the Journal of last year, will doubtless recognize in the present inscription the peculiar form of the Nāgarā character on the Saurashtra group of coins. The trisul surmounting the inscription would indeed have been sufficient to negative the possibility of its Cufic origin. From the position of this symbol, which we must suppose to have been in the centre of the slab, it is probable that a third of the inscription on the left hand is broken off, which alone would prevent the possibility of coming at the purport of it. This is a pity on more than one account; for the initial invocation might have afforded a clue to a few of the letters, to the language, and to the sect of Hindus that erected the monument; although the latter may be considered to be sufficiently established by the symbol of Siva surmounting the legend.

The chief peculiarity of this form of alphabet is, that the tails of the letters are lengthened and turned up backwards in a loop. Abstracting this portion, the essential part of the letter resembles the Gujerāṭī type of Mr. Wathen's inscriptions, (See vol. iv. p. 477.) The vowels also belong to the same type: the y is subjoined to the s and other
Inscription at the Damatha Cavern, near Maulanyeng (Moulmien)
consonants in the same manner; and, in short, there can be little doubt that both are of one family, and that the monuments bearing these characters may boast of as high an antiquity as has been allowed to the coins, (Pl. XLIX. vol. iv. page 684,) of the Saurashtra group. Some of these, it will be remembered, have a trilingual symbol, in common with the oldest form of coins dug up near Seháranpur; and the head on their obverse is supposed to be imitated from the Greek coins of Kodos, probably a Parthian successor of some of the petty Greek chieftains on the Indus. Other coins have a trident on the reverse.

In the first and third lines there appear to be numerals, which may be read २२५ and २५५, 1110 and 1100: the figure one being rather like the Bengáli than the Nágarí form. These however can hardly refer in any known era to the period assigned to the coins.

Moulmein Inscription.

No. II. of the same plate, is the inscription in the Barma character and Taláín language found in the Damatha Cavern near Moulmein by Captain W. Foley, and mentioned in his paper, (page 274 of the preceding No.) I have appended a translation by Ratna Paula in a postscript to the same paper, but nothing can be made of such an enigmatical jumble of figures.

Chunar Inscription.

No. I. of Plate IX. is taken from a pencil sketch of a stone slab in the Fort of Chunar near Benares, by Lieut. A. Cunningham, Engineers.

This young officer, who during his short residence at Benares has brought so many facts and antiquities to light as to make me blush for my own inactive residence there, had some time previously sent me a Nágarí transcript of the same inscription, in its present mutilated condition, written out by a Benares pandit, who also supplied the missing part of the text from a copy taken, he asserted, some years ago, before the surface of the stone had peeled away. An imperfect copy of the same, as it formerly existed, was also found among the Fort Adjutant's records at Chunar. On comparing the three, however, many discrepancies were perceived, and the position of the erasures was not marked in the pandit's transcript. I therefore again wrote to Lieut. Cunningham, who proceeded to the fort and took the copy himself from the stone, whence the present lithograph is made.

Having such abundant materials for making out what appeared a most simple inscription, I entrusted the whole to a young pandit, late of the English class in the Sanscrit College, to put together and translate. He made several alterations in the Benares pandit's readings,
and substituted what he considered would better fill up the gaps; the
sense was, however, so completely jumbled by these *amendments*, that
I was loth to trust the translation to print without first troubling our
learned Vice-President, the Rev. Dr. Mill, to look it over: and it was
fortunate I did so, as will be seen by the comment his valuable notes
afford on the attempt of the Benares pandit! As for the Bengali's ver-
sion, it was so much worse as to be unworthy of notice.

I had first imagined that the *Shahab ud-din*, whose invasion and
assault brings upon him the epithet of *Yavana* (the wicked-minded
and tyrannical), must be the first Patán sovereign of that name, whose
overthrow of Rája Banár of Benares in 1193, A. D., is circumstantially recorded in *Ferishta*. The date, however, which corre-
responds with Thursday, the 5th August, 1333, A. D., falls in the
reign of *Muhammed Shah*; and Dr. Mill has succeeded in discover-
ing the actual owner of the title *Shahab ud-din* referred to.

The inscription has some interest in a historical view, as supplying
the names of three successive rajas of Benares in the 13th century,
of which no clue is to be obtained from other sources. Neither local
tradition nor history supply any information regarding the holy city sub-
sequent to the overthrow of the fort by Cutb ud-din, until a cursory
notice of it occurs as the site of an encampment, in Baber's Memoirs.

Dr. Mill's restoration of the text is as follows, placing the inter-
polations in smaller type. I have inserted his notes on the pandit's
version, as affording an useful example of the caution necessary in
such cases, and proving how utterly void of trust are the attempts of the
pandits of the present day, unless they have to deal with one capable
of understanding what they would foist upon the unsuspicious as
faithful transcript and good sense.

*Line on the stone. Verse.*

1 I वार्षिपारे पुरा ये बृहस्पतः नाम नामतः ।
 तबुपतः सावरा नाम महाभक्तः महाभक्तः ।

2 II. साहिन्देवसंहा वस्मादिशखाति विश्रालेः भुवनाधिपत: ।
 सधैरभविषिष्टः: श्रेष्ठा: पद्यमभूनितः ।

3 III. तस्माचन्मणो जातः *सदायो नीतिक्षिमानः ।
 सर्वराजमुद्रीक्षितः विश्रेणः पुरपालः ।

IV. खामिरा राज्युक्तस्य राजा जयति धार्मिकः ।

4 प्रस[च: नर्स्मनगः]र[च] शामनः सतः हुः ॥

V. यशवर्दीनादितुयालयवनेन्द्रमदम् ।
1. INSCRIPTION FROM THE FORT AT CHUNAR, 1836.

2. INSCRIPTION FROM BÁRAHÁT IN GARHWAL

3. Inscription on a Granite-rock near Iskardo, in Little Tibet.
   under a bas-relief of Buddha.

4. Inscription on the entrance of a chamber containing an image of Buddha, in the Caves of Adjanta.

5. Facsimile of a doubtful name in the Bihirā Inscription. (see Pl. VIII.)
Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions.

5 VI. गंगाराजसिंह⁴[Namdev Nātha Sengupta⁴] चित्रितः।
तस्य अक्षरः च ततः अक्षरः।
VII. अक्षरः श्रीतिबिंबानीः। चंडः खंडः।
VI. श्रीमानाराजादेशे दुमे बोधः। संमातुता चित्रः।
VIII. तत्तत् सर्वे श्रीविषयादिताला चित्रः।
IX. श्रधाः युज्यते सामाज्यजीवलीः स्विस्वितः।
X. नमु दानिषु दैविः।
XI. भूमः श्राविषयः।
XII. तस्मादकुमलोऽगः।

Translation.

I. Of him who under the name of De'vaca, reigned on the opposite coast to Kāsi (Benares), the son called Sevana was as the sun in the firmament, greatly renowned.

II. That king being celebrated as illustrious by the sovereigns of the world, was ever surrounded by sages, ever devoted to Sambhu [or Siva], as the bee to the lotus.

III. Of him was Chandragana born, merciful, devout to the gods, endued with all kingly virtues, lord of all, guardian of the city, (Benares).

IV. His younger brother Svāmi Rāja excels as a religious king, gracious to all creatures, and skilfully exercising government, to the delight of good men.

V. By Muhammed*, lord of the hostile Yavanas [Moghals]

* This was Muhammed Sha'ih, the third Emperor of Dehli of that name, who succeeded his father Tughlec Sha'h Ghayash ud-dīn, A. H. 725—eight years before the date of this inscription—celebrated for his frantic expedition to the
Shahab ud-din* and the rest, though an enemy, was Sairâja†, the treasure of benignity, employed as prime minister.

VI. (By him) from a (far) country (was an army sent to the bank of the) Ganges. (The king) on hearing of this, (believed) that an angry and invincible (enemy was approaching.)

VII. Upon this (Svâmi Râja and other brave men), went with horses and men, and sound (of arms, &c.) to defend from the assaults of the (foe, their fort) [Chunar.]

VIII. Then did all the inhabitants sleep secure, for those (waves of terror) had passed by: (and then the army of Yavanas entered their fort by surprise or stratagem.)

IX. And since pacification‡ was not expedient, he [Svâmi Râja]

Chinese border, his attempt to remove the seat of empire from Dehli to Doulatábâd, his application for investiture from the Khaliph of Mecca, and many extravagancies which caused his sanity to be suspected. [The name Yavana, as is well known, is generally applied by the Brahmans to their Mahometan conquerors; though arising from a misconception of the term as occurring in their own ancient books, where it undoubtedly refers to the Greeks, whom Persians, Phoenicians and Hebrews always designated by the same name.]

* The Shahab ud-din here meant is not the emperor Omar Shahab ud-din, who succeeded his father Ala ud-din, A. H. 716, and was murdered after a short reign of three months; but must be one to whom, as Ferishta tells us, Muhammed Sha'h gave the title of Malic (by which he is called at the close of this inscription) and a place called Nusari as a jaghir. Ferishta's words are

وَلَّت شَهَاب إِذْ يَدُّ مَلِك إِفْتِتَار خَوَانِدُه نوُسَارِي رَبِّيَاءِكِه

Further on in the life of the same Emperor Mahammed Ibn Tughluk, and nine years after the date of our inscription, that at the close of a successful expedition to the Dekhan he gave to Sultan Shahab, who is most probably the same person, the title of Nasa'et Kha'n, and the government of Baider on the Indus, yielding annually the revenue of a crore of rupees.

سلطان را نصرت عن خطاب داها ولابت بیدر حواله اور نموود و اقطعات

All this is confirmatory of what is apparent from the inscription, viz. that this Shahab ud-din was the general of the army which Muhammed Sha'h or his Hindu minister sent against the Raja of Benares.

[A celebrated Cazi named Shahab ud-din is commemorated by Abul Fazl, who was flourishing at the time of Timur's invasion at the close of the 14th century. But this is somewhat too late.]

† This Sairâja I do not find mentioned by any historian of the time.

‡ The allusion is here to the several modes of dealing with an enemy enumerated in Menu VII. 198, viz. युद्ध paccification, द्वार presents भेद sowing dissensions; either of which three the Hindu legislator prefers in respect of
abandoned the fort for some days; only (presents) having been given (to the enemy, according to usage.)

X. (But once more) to protect his own people did the noble king Svámi Rája, the crusher of the pride of alien heroes in fight, (ascend his chariot)* surrounded by applauding heralds: but (having perceived) the great Turkish warrior surnamed (Sata) dos [or him of the hundred arms], at the approach of the hateful one in battle, he again left the fort of his own accord.

XI. Thence having approached Bhagavati [the goddess Anna Purna Devi at her city Benares.] having abode there, and meditated on her benevolence, thence returning with care, he established his kingdom here free from all thorns of trouble.

Samvat 1390, in the month Bhadra, fifth day of the waning moon, [Aug. 5, O. S. A. D. 1338.] on Thursday, was the kingdom set free from Malic Shaháb ud-din, acting under the protecting favor of Sairája Deva aforesaid.

Remarks on the Sanscrit text.

Verse I. The Benares Pandit's reading कामीश्यानेषु रजाय is much worse in sense, beside being inconsistent with the evident letters of the inscription, which are as exhibited above. The चि is required in Sanscrit construction by the स्तु of the next line.

II. The B. P.'s reading स्त्रिक्षिप; स च विनाय को बिवसाय तथाविषये: though somewhat smoother in metre, is inferior in every other respect to this, which (except for the indistinctness of the रा in विसाँच्र and of the syllables वनाधि is clearly marked on the stone.

In the second half, the B. P.'s reading स्रुपाद is inconsistent with the characters on the stone.

III. In the last quarter of this verse, I wish I could read with the B. P. विषेयशुपापाशिक: in one compound; Visvésa-pura being a well-known name of Benares.—But the visarga is too clear on the stone to admit of that reading.

IV. In the second half of this verse only the beginning प्रत्र and the end युद्धे with the exception of an ् in the middle, is clearly legible. My conjectural reading of the rest in small characters is accommodated to this—whereas the B.

prudence, to the fourth युद्ध giving battle; and our prince Svámi Ra'ja seems to have been of the same mind. The meaning here is however that to the first, pacification, he preferred the second, of buying off the enemy. If for नु we read नवः, it would mean that he abstained from both of these methods: if we read नाभ, it would mean, on the contrary, that he was profuse in his presents while he abstained from making peace. The first seems to me the best reading of the three: and all of them more probable than नूतन which is the reading of the Benares Pandit.

* I find no Moghul or Afghan warrior to whom this name can be considered as necessarily applying. The syllable स्रुता is conjecturally supplied to fill a hiatus on the stone.—W. H. M.
Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions. [June,

P.'s सुःशा: शास्ति दू:गेषिन्यारा प्रवणसास्त: is altogether gratuitous and irreconcilable with the yet remaining letters of the verse.

V. The B. P.'s reading of this verse:

महाबुधीश्चिताया यथा दृष्टं सर्वातः।

has only the advantage of mine as to the antepenultimate syllable of the first half, viz. the 2nd व् being somewhat more like what appears on the stone. In every other respect where there is any difference, any one may see how entirely he varies from the characters there visible, beside being incorrect in grammar and prosody, and quite unintelligible. Only three syllables of mine are conjectural, in a place where the stone is broken.

VI. All of this verse, which is not distinguished by small letters, is most clearly traced on the stone: but the B. P. has retained nothing of it but the three first syllables of the second line, (in which also he has thrust in another syllable with a visarga without warrant) in his reading, which is—

तदा संस्कृत संस्कृते: शास्ति सारस्त्रः।

most entirely gratuitous! beside that it annexes the first to sl. 5, and begins the 6th with the other.

VII. VIII. In these two verses, between which there is an interval in a broken part of the stone sufficient to contain a half-sloka or line, and which may throw some reasonable doubt as to the precise divisions of the slokas or distichs, the B. P., who divides differently from me, has not attempted to retain any thing of the yet remaining large characters on the stone, except in the first line, and the beginning of the last but one; while any one who compares his reading with mine, will see how much more he varies from his original. His reading is in five lines, as follows:

सर्वसाप्राप्तिस्मृतिः: भन्ति नेकलिसकाः। [Here वाण an arrow is misspelt.]

च्यामस्तु: बुधेष्ये व्यत्नास्वास्वः। [No संस्कृत as on the stone.]

प्रवीणेष्य च तं तुष्म सन्धैं सच वेदिक:। [A false concord here.]

तस्य सबे नास्त्रावन्त सामकाण्डः प्रकाशः। [All but the first syllables quite incompatible with the stone.]

IX. This the B. P. read quite differently; but any person comparing his two first lines with mine, may judge which is the nearest to the actual inscription. His third line is altogether gratuitous.

तस्य नास्त्रावन्त सामाकाण्डः पु: सङ्घ।

X. In this sloka, which is in the lyrical measure called शौर्याला विक्रिदितम, the B. P. has made the following very serious mistakes, 1st, making its second पाद or hemistich the first, (reading it otherwise quite correctly) to the exclusion of all the legible syllables of the first पाद, whose place in the measure is so palpable, viz. the 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th and 19th or last, which are on the stone clearly as they are here represented in large letters [having gratuitously supplied their place by a 3rd Anustabh line to verse IX. !] 2dly.
Filling up the place of the 3rd and 4th pādās by a crowded three of his own making entirely, except the eight last syllables of the last—though so much more of them are clearly legible on the stones at their proper intervals—just as I have placed them in the midst of the conjectural supplements. The B. P. has

(This 3rd pādā has a glaring false quantity.)

XI. This last verse, which is Anusṭāhī, like the nine first, is read by the B. P. as I read it, except that the 2nd quarter is with him चंसिनतं सिद्धिन् quite unlike the stone, and that the 3rd he begins differently, viz. पश्चात्तकत्सामाः borrowing to this place what he had omitted in the 2nd. The stone gives clearly throughout what I have written above.

After the date and the word गृहेष, the B. P. has gratuitously expanded the rest into a sloka, as follows:

I will add, that the inscription, as it is now legible, affords no countenance to the B. P.'s supposition, that the discreet Sva’mi Ra’ja acted under his elder brother Chandragana. He rather appears to have been his successor.

W. H. Mill.

Barahāṭ Inscription.

No. III. of the same plate, is the inscription from Barahāṭ in Garhwal, presented, in duplicate, to the Society by the Commissioner, Mr. Traill. This inscription also has been deciphered in part by the Rev. Principal of Bishop's College, who has kindly communicated its contents to me in the following letter:

"I have the pleasure of sending one of the Kemāon inscriptions, that of Barahāṭ in Garhwal.

It opens with the invocation स्वस्ति स्री: Svasti Śri, addressed apparently to a prince, and the first line contains the words यह चति चति चति नादिक्तिनं दूरं 'whose and where is a palace which is on a lofty peak and splendidly magnificent.' The second line of the inscription is a turgid verse in the Sārdūla vikrīdita measure, as follows:

"His son, whose ample condition was exalted by a numerous army, devouring the juices of the earth like the sun of summer, then arising sat on the throne, and even with his bow unbent, still ruled with
sage counsels, and the abandonment of all selfish passions. He who was originally by name Udára-charita, (the man of generous deeds,) being skilled in all holy duties, did even thus at once, as the best of the lords of power, reduce to fragments the army opposed to him, though crushing all other adversaries, chariots and all."

This is the whole of the second line. The third and last which is in prose begins गीत: प्रीतखः "the beloved son of a beloved father, and ends with the words ... नित्यं यावदृङ्गे पिपण्णा नावलकोमिः" चूफीते जयाः प्रभृत्य भृत्यारसः राज: स्मारस "As long as the sacred mark remains in the body, so long has the glory of these two illustrious ones (father and son) been concealed: but henceforward may the immortality of this king be unshaken!"

The meaning is not very good, and the word चूफीते: for Illustrious, is unusual, if not semi-barbarous, in its formation; but I can make nothing better of it, neither can I spell out the father's name from the strange characters of the first line. The second one is the only part on which I have no doubt.

W. H. MILL.

Iskardo Inscription.

No. 3 of Plate IX. is a copy of the inscription on a granite rock near Iskardo, the capital of Little Tibet, taken by Mr. Vigne, the English traveller, who sent it down through Captain Wade in hopes that M. Csoma de Körös would be able to decypher it.

Being found under an image of Buddha, it may be concluded that this inscription is but an extract from some of the sacred volumes of his followers; but it is in too imperfect a state for M. Csoma to be confident of the rendering, although a large portion of the letters may be read with ease and certainty. Their accurate form would pronounce them to have been copied by an artist, if not by one acquainted with the Tibetan alphabet.

Ajunta Inscription.

No. 4 of Plate IX. This mutilated inscription is from the caves of Ajunta. I am indebted for it to Mr. Ralph and Capt. Gresley, of Aurangábád, who paid a visit to those celebrated excavations last year, and I am not aware that this particular inscription has been yet published.

Mr. Ralph states that it was found "not in the largest Bauddda cave, but in the first which we inhabited, and the one where a square was formed by four pillars each way. The letters were on the right hand of a doorway of a small apartment leading into one containing the figure of Buddha; but here he was not represented with the two African statues of attendants, nor is this the cave where the Grecian helmets are found. The rough sketched countenances which are plac-
ed under the writing are in keeping with those that cover the whole of the little chamber, at distances of two or three inches from one another—these appear to be portraits of disciples seated,—all half lengths."

Captain Gresley has favored me with a ground plan of the cave from memory, but as accurate measurements were taken by Dr. Bird in 1828, for Sir John Malcolm, for the Royal Asiatic Society, it is unnecessary to insert it.

"The large cave, 40 feet square within the eight columns, has more brilliant figures in fresco painting than any I have visited. It is the one which contains what some have miscalled the zodiac, a portion of a large circle on the wall outside the first cell on the left hand on entering the cave-temple, where many small figures may still be traced." Some damage has been done since 1828, and it is the opinion of these travellers that time and rain will soon render the caves altogether inaccessible.

The first letter of the inscription is sufficient to shew to what alphabet the Ajunta writing belongs: it is precisely the y of the Allahabad and Gujerat inscriptions; the second letter is dh of the same alphabet, and the third is the m of the coins of the same period, differing slightly from that of both the inscriptions above named.

The collocation of these three letters, agreeing exactly with the commencement of the sacred text so constantly found on all the ancient Buddhist images lately brought to notice from Ava, Benares, or Tirhút, Ye dharmā, &c., led me to look for the remainder of the stanza; but it was evident that the text would not bear such a construction. Perhaps the Rev. Mr. Stevenson, whose attention has been successfully engaged on the Carli inscriptions, than which however the present seems considerably more modern, may be able to fill up the chasms and rectify the mutilations of this short legend, if indeed it be worth while to do more than recognise and record the style of Nāgari to which it belongs.

No. 5 of Plate IX. is merely a word in an inscription from the Behtari column, Ghazipur district, concerning which, as it occurred on the Allahabad column, a difference of opinion existed: Captain Troyer reading it Yagna Kacha, and Dr. Mill, Ghatot Kacha: the latter is evidently the most probable, if it be not quite certain; but I hope to be able to insert the whole inscription (taken down with great care by Lieut. A. Cunningham, Engineers) in my next number, with a full interpretation by the Rev. Principal of Bishop's College. I had lithographed it as Plate VII. to precede the present two, but the translation was not ready for insertion.

The species of land and fresh-water shells described in the following pages, form a collection, chiefly made in the hills on the N. E. frontier, which was purchased by the Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1833. One of the land shells, Scarabas triangularis, and two Neritinae and a Melania among the fluviatile shells, inhabit the jungles and streams of the Gangetic Delta, and were probably collected on the route to Sylhet. Several shells belonging to the genera Cerithium, Cancellaria, Planaxis, Phasianella, and Pedipes, which occur in the collection, have been omitted, as being, in all probability, marine, or semi-marine productions procured from the embouchures of the Deltaic rivers.

1. Vitrina Gigas. Testâ tenui, corneo-virente, ovato-depressâ, auriformi, velociter crescente, suprâ planatâ, rugis concentricis et striis radiatis decussatâ; subtus tumidâ; ultimo anfractu valde ventricoso, penâ totam testam efformante; apertura transversâ, rotundato ovatâ, prægrandi; labio valdē arcuato. Diam. 1.15 poll.

This shell is so flattened, and enlarges so quickly, that it has very much of the appearance of one of the macrostomata, to which I referred a specimen from the caves of Sylhet, recently fossilized with calc-tuff, when I first saw it. It has only two whorls exclusive of the apex, and differs in size, in the depression of the spire, in the very arcuated left lip, and the more extended mouth from the European species V. elongata. I believe that it is the first shell truly belonging to this genus which has been ascertained to inhabit India. Since I became acquainted with it, I have met with a second species alive, adhering to dead leaves at the roots, and to the lower part of the trunks of trees in the teak-wood attached to the Botanic Garden of Calcutta; but the characters of the animal restrict it to the genus Helicarion of Cuvier. Whether V. Gigas belongs to Cuvier’s Helicolumax or to Helicarion, cannot be ascertained without an examination of the animal; I therefore leave it in the original genus as defined by Lamarck.

2. Nanina decussata. Testâ corneâ, discordeâ, sub-depressâ, umbilicatâ; spirâ exsertiusculâ, obtusâ; anfractibus septem suprâ planatis, ultimo obtusè angulato; epidermide suprâ argutè decussatâ, infrâ radiatim striatâ; apertura transversâ, lunatâ. Diam. 1 poll; axis 0.35

On a cursory inspection of this shell, I erroneously considered it to be a variety of the species “vitrinoides” Deshayes, belonging to Mr. Gray’s genus Nanina, (Zool. Proceedings, 8th July, 1834,) which I indicated under the name of Macrochlamys in the first No. of the Jour-
nal of the Asiatic Society for January 1832, pp. 13 and 76, and which I altered to that of Tanychlamys in a paper on the genus read before the Zoological Society in August 1834. Mr. Gray's characters, drawn up from specimens preserved in spirits, and from General HARDWICKE's drawings, having the advantage of priority of publication, his name, although inexpressive, will necessarily be adopted. Several independent observers have united in stating the necessity of separating this genus from Helix, on the characters of the animal; witness the observations of Lieut. Hutton, Journal of the Asiatic Society, vol. iii. p. 83.

The species under review differs from N. vitrinoioides in sculpture, has a more exerted spire than the generality of specimens of that shell, has a more angular periphery, is of a lighter colour, and, possessing the same number of whorls, is larger and of a thicker substance. The epidermis is apt to peel off the under side.

I have a third species belonging to this country, which I lately took at the foot of the Rajmahal hills. It differs in its smaller size, its lighter colour, and in the form of the aperture from both vitrinoioides and decussata, and from the former it altogether differs in its habits even when inhabiting the same spot, abounding on shrubs and bushes, while N. vitrinoioides is confined to the ground, to rocks, and to brick work.

3. Helix plecostoma. Testá reversá, depresso-conoideá subtús tumidâ; spirá exsertiusculâ; anfractibus suprà planatis, radiatim plicatis, rugis transversis decussatis; ultimo angulato, angulo subtús marginato. Aperturâ lunată, plicâ, (ut in Helice personata) interdum insconspicâ, ultimo anfractui adhaerente; umbilico profundo, anfractus pleuroseque exhibenti. Diam. 0.35 poll. paulo plus.

This shell has a salient plate on the penultimate whorl connecting the two extremities of the peristome, as in H. personata, but differs from it in its other characters. The peristome is more rounded than in H. Cocycris, the spire more conoid, and the satures less conspicuous. It belongs to the subgenus Helicodonta of De Ferussac, but in the angularity of the periphery it approaches to Helicigona.

4. Helix Oxytes. Testá ferrugineo-corneâ, depressâ; spirá convexâ, apice planato; peripheryâ acutâ; anfractibus obliquè subplicatis, suturis non excavatis; peristomate subreflexo; umbilico lato et profundo anfractus usque ad apicem exhibenti. Diam. 1.8 poll.

In form it exactly resembles H. acumen of Dalmatia, but exceeds it in size, and differs in colour, in its sub-reflected mouth, and in sculpture, the whorls being destitute of decussating striae and of the polish which adorns the latter. It belongs to De Ferussac's groupe
of Helicigona, and to the 2nd division, Vortices. It would stand as a Carocolla of Lamarck. Whorls six, exclusive of the apex.

5. Helix climacterica. Testá subdepressâ, subtús tumidâ; spirá sub-conoidea, gradatâ; anfractibus omnibus angulatis, suprâ planatis, argutè plicatis; apice obtuso. Periphaerîa angulatâ. Peristomate acuto, non reflexo. Umbilico nullo. Diam. 0.75 poll.

This species resembles H. barbata of Cephalonia in its general habit and in the peculiar form of its spire, which rises like a flight of steps; but the apex, though obtuse, is more exserted, and is desti-
tute of the flattening observable in the Cephalonian species. Whorls eight, exclusive of the apex. It belongs to Helicigona of De Ferussac, and to its first groupe, which is destitute of an umbilicus.

6. Helix Serrula. Testá subdepressâ, sub-conoidea subitus convexâ; apice acuto; anfractibus suprâ conferthissimè radiatim plicatis, marginatis, marginibus elevatis; ultimo anfractus infrâ laeviore, periphaeria marginatâ, serratâ. Umbilico profundo, mediocri; peristomate acuto. Diam. 0.55 poll.

Whorls seven, exclusive of the apex. This is also a Helicigona, 2nd groupe. It is allied to a new unnamed species which I have from Malta, but has a smaller umbilicus in proportion, and a more acute spire. It is also larger.

7. Helix tapeina. Testá sub-conoidea, suprâ convexâ, subtús tumidâ; epidermide minutissimè corrugatâ; periphaerîa angulatâ, peristomate non continuo, subreflexo. Umbilico mediocri, profundo; omnes anfractus exhibente. Diam. 0.6 poll.

Whorls seven, exclusive of the apex. It is allied to Carocolla Lapicida, but differs in sculpture, in its discontinuous peristome, less angular periphery, and more conoid spire. The aperture is also more open. It belongs to the 2nd groupe of Helicigona of De Ferussac, and to the genus Carocolla of Lamarck.

8. Helix delibratus. Testá depresso-planâ, subtús tumidâ; epi-
dermide corneâ deciduâ; anfractibus transversè striatis; aperturâ transversè rotundato-ovatâ; peritremate vix continuo, reflexo; umbilico lato, anfractus plerosque exhibente. Diam. 0.9 poll.

Whorls four. Of the same type as the European species H. cornea, from which it differs in colouring and in the form of its spire, which resembles that of H. deplana of Croatia; but from this species it differs in the form of the mouth, and in the markings, as well as in its more open umbilicus. From Helix granulata (mihi) of the Western Provinces, it differs in the more transverse mouth, more flattened spire, and wider umbilicus, in its plainer colouring and greater size, and in the want of that minute shagreened appearance, under the lens, which
renders that species so remarkable. It belongs to the subgenus *Helicella* of De Ferussac. The epidermis scales off like that of the *Solenes*, whence the trivial name which I have conferred upon it.

9. **Helix Cestus.** Testá subdepressā, cornēā vel fuscescente, radiatim striatā, subitus convexā, perforatā; spirā sub-conoideā; apice obtuso; ultimo anfractus angulatō, fasciā unica rufo-fuscā, mediā, reliquis fasciā saturāli cinctis; peristomate sub-reflexo. Diam. 0.65 poll.

Whorls five. *H. cestus* approaches in form and colour to a species which I possess from the Tyrol, and which is marked "*H. zonata,*" but which does not agree well with Lamarck's characters of *planospiru*, of which he gives De Ferussac's *zonata* as a synonym. It differs from it in not having a white or a much reflected peristome. It belongs to the sub-genus *Helicella*.

10. **Bulimus citrinus.** Lamarck.

This is the reverse variety of a handsome shell, of which South America is recorded as the habitat by Lamarck. It is perforated, (of which character he makes no mention,) and of an uniform yellow, without bands or marks, and being weathered, no polish is observable. Length one inch.

11. **Achatina tenuispira.** Testá elongato turritā, cornēā, longitudinālīter striatā, versus apicem attenuatā, columnāri; anfractus ultimo interdum fasciis quibusdam albidis transversis ornato; suturēs impressēs; apice obtuso. Long. 1 poll. circiter. Lat. 0.55.

This *Achatina*, belonging to De Ferussac's subgenus *Cochlicopa* and to his groupe of *Hyloides*, is remarkable for the attenuated columnar form of the terminal whorls of the spire.

12. **Achatina crassilabra.** Testā turrito conicā, lāvi, cornēā, longitudinālīter striatā; anfractus convexēs, suturēs excavatīs; labro intūs incrassatō; columnālē præarcuatā; apice obtuso. Long. 0.7. Lat. 0.3 poll.

This shell has the habit of a Ceylon species which I believe to be *A. nitens* of Gray. It differs in greater size, in its incrassated outer lip, in its somewhat more ventricose form, and in its sculpture. It approaches to Swainson's genus *Achatinella* in the arcuation of the columella, but differs in the absence of the thickened pliciform termination to it, and in having the incrassation quite at the edge of the outer lip, instead of removed to a little distance within it.

13. **Clausilia loxostoma.** Testā sinistrorsā, fusiformēs, medio ventricosā, corneo-grisescentē; anfractus convexēs, lāvigatīs, striis obsoletīs; suturēs confortissimē crenulatīs; apertura elongatā obliquā, bi-plicatā, suprā angustiōri, infrā dilatatā peristomate reflexo; columnālē præarcuatā. Long. 0.85 poll.
Out of a collection of 32 European *Clausilia*, I find none with a similar obliquity of mouth, from which character I have named the species. The outer lip projects beyond the plane of the aperture. The crenulations of the sutures differ altogether from the papillary appearance which is common to several species, such as *papillaris*, *alboguttata*, &c., and they are not elongated as in *C. nitida*.


This shell, independently of its form, sculpture, colouring, and acute varix, may be at once distinguished from *Scarabus imbrinum* by its peculiar umbilicus; that feature being rounded and perforate in the Malassan species. The number of teeth on the rib, which is situated at some distance within the outer lip, is very variable, ranging from three to seven; of these three are always more prominent. In weathered specimens the subordinate denticulations are generally unobservable. Occasionally the whole of the shell is of a dark chestnut colour, with obscure bands of a more saturated colour. In his Synoptical table, Dr. Ferussac mentions two species from Bengal, *S. plicatus* and *S. Petiveri*, both distinct from *S. imbrinum*. As he gives no description, I am unable to say whether our shell is identical with either or both: the latter contingency may possibly be the case, considering the great difference of form observable between young and aged specimens, and the uncertainty attendant on the species *S. Petiveri*, which appears to have been established solely on the inspection of a plate, no reference being made to any museum.

All the specimens of the shell in the collection are weathered, and in that state appear of a livid purple colour; this circumstance was, however, amply compensated for by an excursion which I made with Dr. Pearson to the alluvial island opposite to Fort William, in quest of objects of natural history, during which that gentleman discovered the live animal under decayed vegetation, and under bundles of the *hoogla* grass cut down for sale. From these retreats, which it occupied in company with the amphibious *Assiminia Gangetica*, we made a large collection in a short space of time. I have searched for it in vain on the neighbouring mainland, in the vicinity of the Bishop's
College and the Botanic Gardens, as well as on the opposite side of the river; but specimens of deserted shells were taken by a friend, as low down as the junction of the Damoda with the Hooghly.

It is only of late that French naturalists have verified the terrestrial habits of the genus. The present species is much distressed when thrown into water, and crawls out of it when immersed. Its decidedly amphibious companion, Assiminia Gangetica, I have met with, on dewy mornings, more than a furlong from the river's bank, crawling among moist grass.

15. Cyclostoma involvulus. (Muller.)

This elegant species, which is abundant in a living state at Rajmahal, Secrigally, and Pathargháta in Behar, attains a large size in the Silhet collection. When adult it is always possessed of a beautiful orange colour on the peristome. It is Cyclostoma torquata of Lieut. Hutton, J. A. S. vol. iii. page 82, and is the species alluded to by me in vol. i. page 12, in my remarks on the genus Pterocyclos.


I was at first disposed, from a consideration of the habit of this shell, to view it as a variety of a Tenasserim shell, described by Mr. G. B. Sowerby in the 5th volume of the Zoological Journal under the name of Cyclostoma perdix; but a careful comparison with specimens which Mr. Sowerby had kindly presented to me, has enabled me to distinguish it as a separate species. It differs in its sculpture, in its more developed keel, more contracted umbilical cavity, and in the possession of a singular epidermis, of which Mr. Sowerby's specimens of C. perdix, though one was taken alive at Tenasserim, appear to have been destitute. In the latter species the markings are white mottled on a chestnut ground; in zebrinum they consist of distant zigzag flames of light chestnut on a white ground.


The acquisition of several live specimens of this genus (established by me in the first No. of the Journal) during the last rainy season, at the hill of Patharghata in Behar, where I first met with dead specimens of P. rupestris, enables me to disprove the conjecture of Dr. Pearson that a branchial apparatus or projecting syphon is attached
to the neck of the animal, as well as to confirm its affinity with the genus *Cyclostoma*, with which Mr. Sowerby has classed it. The name originally annexed to the genus was altered by Dr. Pearson, on insufficient grounds, as, independently of the violation of received rules of nomenclature*, of the existence of the tabular appendage in perfection in only one species of the genus, and its non-existence in others, the new name tended to convey an erroneous impression of the use of the anomalous excrescence observable in the shell of *P. hispidus*.

Dr. Pearson assumes that the specimens of *P. rupestris* from which the characters of the genus were taken, were immature shells, but a strict search in the habitat of the species, and the acquisition of 16 specimens of different ages and growth, of which 12 bore all the marks of being adult, dispelled all doubt of the obtainment of the perfect shell. The retromitted and retroverted tubular wing, affording an index of a former mouth, and which does not appear to have been accompanied by a reflexion of the peristome, exists in that form in *P. hispidus* only, and the sinus under the wing which crowns the final aperture is never so strongly marked as in the other species, bearing more resemblance to the channel under the wing of Gray’s *Cyclostoma Petiverianum*, which shell indicates the passage to the Genus *Cyclostoma*, not only by this feature, but by the intermediate form of its umbilical cavity, and its operation.

A comparison of the animal of *Pterocyclos* (my four living specimens of which I assumed to be female, from the absence of the exserted organ so conspicuous on the neck of the male *Cyclostoma*) with that of *Cyclostoma involvulus* shewed only the following differences. In *P. rupestris* the mantle is sinuated, to correspond with the sinus at the crown of the aperture, and its edges are reflected over the edges of the sinus, but there is no organ projected through it by

* In conferring generic names it is an obvious rule that the part should not be put for the whole, by designating the genus from an organ, without a change of termination, or the addition of a distinguishing epithet. The circumstance of the feature being peculiar in the family to which the groupe belongs, will not justify a departure from the rule; were a relaxation from it allowed in one instance, we might be called upon to recognize an anomalous form among the aceanphalous mollusca (to suppose an extreme case) as the genus "Caput!". In the present instance the effect of the proposed substitution, is to set aside a name published by the first describer of the genus, which name is equally applicable to every species hitherto discovered, as it is not contingent on the presence or absence of a sinus or a tabular, or other perforation, but on the existence of a wing attached to the otherwise circular aperture. Hence the supposed necessity for a change of nomenclature is not apparent.
the animal, nor does the mantle line the interior surface of the wing. No organ likely to occupy the sinus is observable either when the animal is crawling or when it is drawn out to its fullest extent. The foot is shorter in proportion than that of Cyclostoma, hardly appearing beyond the disc of the shell when the animal is crawling, and the curious cup-shaped operculum is received into the wide vortici-form umbilicus of the shell, which it almost fills, whereas the thin flat operculum of C. involvulus is carried behind the shell.

My living specimens of Pt. rupestris were taken at Patharghata* during a morning shower in September. I had in vain searched the ground and bushes among the moist rocks and dripping jungle, where multitudes of Cyclostoma involvulus, the reversed Helix interrupta and Nanina vitrinoides were moving about, and had nearly abandoned the search, when I thought of trying an open tract of the hill whence the jungle had recently been cut. Here, on the exposed side of the hill, as well on the bare surface, as under leaves, I at last discovered the sought-for shell. At the foot of the hill a single specimen of a small conoid Helix, which I had recently discovered at Berhampore, was found adhering to the leaves of a shrub.

Pterocyclos hispidus, is perfectly distinguished from P. rupestris by its greater size, the flatness of its spire, its sculpture, hispid epidermis, retromitted tube, and the inferior development of the adult mouth. Coming from a climate where it enjoys damp throughout the year, it may possibly use the perforation for a breathing hole when its aperture is closed, but in P. rupestris the operculum is drawn in beyond the sinus, so that no such use can be made of it for breathing air, for which, moreover, it has probably little occasion during the season of drought and torpidity.


This species, which is coloured like one of the varieties of P. rupestris, never attains more than half the size of that species. The numerous specimens brought from Silhet have all a perfect, reflected peristome. It is also distinguishable by the greater tendency of the sinus being often in strict contact, though the circle is never completed by

* Besides some other plants in flower which I had not leisure to note, I observed a little blue-flowered Tradescantia, a dwarf Ruellia, and a beautiful large-flowered Pesticia with spikes of flowers of a pale verdigris-green colour, which I had only once before seen ornamenting a corolla in a species of Ixia (J. maculata?) In December 1831, the jungle on the side of Patharghata was flaming with the rich blossoms of Hottonkioildia coccinea. On Kotnási, a hill between Patharghata and Terriagali, I captured a fine specimen of the splendid Bupestis Chrysis.
the confluence of the shelly matter. The impending wing also shews a greater tendency to a retroverted and tabular form.

It is probable that Sowerby's *Cyclostoma bilabiatum*, from Salem in the Madras presidency, will form a fourth species of *Pterocyclos*, distinguished by the sinuated addition at the back of the true lip. When I examined it in London, I thought that it was identical with *P. rupestris*, and that my specimens of the latter had not attained their full growth; a further search in the locality of the species, and the consideration that the sinuated lip must have been of previous formation to the reflected circular aperture, have contributed to alter my opinion on the subject.

*Cyclostoma suturale* has the aspect of an immature *Pterocyclos*. Its habitat is, I believe, Demarara.

I had prepared the whole of my notes on the collection both of land and fresh-water shells during a period of leisure previously to the close of last year, but I have since then been prevented by want of time from correcting and arranging them. Dr. Pearson's hint, in his report on the Museum, has called forth this first brochure, consisting of the land-shells, I fear in rather an unfinished state, for which I trust that circumstances will prove an apology. The fresh-water shells shall follow at the earliest practicable period.

V.—*Description of two new species belonging to a new form of the Meruline Group of Birds, with indication of their generic character.*

By B. H. Hodgson, Esq. Resident in Nepal

These birds have the wings, tail, and feet of *Turdus*; and if we continue the comparison from the external to the internal characters, we find a similar construction of the tongue, stomach, and intestines in both.

Both, too, have a similar regimen, habits, and manners. Yet they are strikingly contradistinguished by the respective forms of the bill. In the thrushes that member is compressed, and has its arched maxilla freely exserted from the frontal feathers, and very little cut out by the nasal fossæ. In the birds now in question, on the contrary, the bill is so much depressed as to be more than twice as broad as high at the base; and its straight maxilla, greatly incumbered by the frontal plumes, has the nasal fosse so far produced to the front as to pass the centre of length of the bill.

In the birds before us, too, the head is furnished with a garruline crest; which is never observed in *Turdus*. The tarsi are lower than in the generality of thrushes; and the tail is somewhat longer and less even at the end. Like most of the Nipalese thrushes, these birds are common to all the three regions of the kingdom. They are shy in
their manners, adhere exclusively to the woods, live solitarily or in pairs, breed and moult but once a year, nidificate on trees, and feed almost equally on the ground and on trees. I have taken from their stomachs several sorts of stony berries, small univalve mollusca, and sundry kinds of aquatic insects.

These birds are not generally or familiarly known to the Nipalese, but the foresters, whom I have met with, denominate them Cocho: and by that name, latinised into Cochoa, I have designated them generically in my note book.

As a Meruline genus, placed close to Turdus, the following character may perhaps serve to mark them.

Wings, tail, and feet, as in Turdus.

Tarsi rather lower and tail somewhat longer.

Bill straight, considerably depressed: the maxilla excided beyond the centre by the nasal fosse: the nostrils very large, and nearer to tip than to gape. Head crested as in Garrulus. The two species at present known to me I shall call, from their prevalent colour, Viridis and Purpurea.

The following is their description:—

Cochoa purpurea. Purple Cocho, Mihi. Male, dark purple: cheeks black: crest, tail, and upper apert portion of the wings, soft grey blue, more or less purpureoscent: lower part of the wings and tip of tail, black; and both black internally: a white speculum on the wing, just below the false wing: bill and legs black: iris brown. The female, brown where the male is purple; and the upper part of the wings also brown. The young are rufous below with black bars: brown above with rufescent white drops: head blue as in maturity, but barred. The species is eleven to eleven and a half inches long by sixteen to seventeen wide, and weight three and half to four oz.

Co. Viridis. Green Cochoa, Mihi. Brilliant parrot green, paler and changing into verditer blue on the belly and thighs: crest, cheeks, and neck posteally, brilliant blue: upper part of the wings and tail, the same, but paler with a grey cast; and both black internally, and apertly towards the ends, as in the preceding species; through the eye to the nostrils black: bar of same hue across the pale portion of the wings, caused by the long coverts and bastard wing being tipt with that colour: legs fleshy brown: bill black: iris brown: size of the last: sexes alike.—N. B. This species is apt to vary considerably before it has reached maturity as well as under moult, when the back is sometimes lunated with black; and the soft blue portion of the wings is smeared with brownish yellow. At first, the young males are exactly like the female. The following more particular description of
the several members and organs is equally and exactly applicable to both species.

Bill to head as five to four: sometimes merely equal to the head: considerably depressed, except near the tip; at base more than twice as broad as high; straight; culmen produced among the frontal feathers, which are soft and turned back; sides of the maxilla cut out beyond the centre by a broad membranous and plumose fosse: tomiæ locked, trenchant, and entire; towards the gape somewhat incurved—towards the tip, straight: tip of upper mandible inclined and notched; of the lower, subrecurved and subemarginated, sometimes straight and entire. Nares nearer to the tip than to the gape; at fore end of the nasal fosse, lateral, longitudinal, elliptic, large, free, shaded above by a small nude process of the fossal membrane, and set over with tiny incumbent hairs: gape scarcely to the fore angle of the eye and subciliated: wings reaching to centre of tail, firm, first quill bastard, second long, fourth longest; all four slightly emarginated on their inner web. Tail composed of twelve firm feathers, rather longer than in *Turdus*, the four laterals gradated in a small degree, more than in *Turdus*.

Tarsi submedial, stout, rather longer than the central toe, usually smooth, sometimes crossed by three or four scales.

Toes simple, ambulatory, compressed, moderately unequal; outer basally connected; hind stouter and subdepressed.

Nails compressed, obtuse: the central fore with both margins dilated but entire.

Head furnished with a soft, full, garruling crest. Tongue simple, flat, medial, subcartilaginous, with cartilaginous, subjagged, tip. Stomach muscular, of medial subequal thickness, the lining tough and grooved. Intestinal canal 20 to 25 inches long, of subequal calibre throughout; close to anal end, two grain-like caeca.

The intestines are longer in proportion than those of *Turdus*: but otherwise similar.

VI.—On a New Genus of the Meropidae.—By the same.

Order Insessores; Tribe Fissirostres; Family Meropidae, Vigors.


Generic character:—

Bill much elongated and arched throughout, strong, greatly compressed; the sides nearly vertical, and the ridge flattened towards the base. Wings moderate, full, not acuminated, fourth quill longest,
one and two considerably and subequally gradated. Nares entirely concealed by incumbent setaceous tufts. Tail longish, quadrato-quadrate, strong. Feet and tongue as in Merops. In the family of the Meropidae but one genus has heretofore been recognised. If the above characters be admitted to differ materially from those of Merops, and if the birds to which they apply are distinguished by a marked and consequent diversity of manners, I presume the propriety of the generic separation will not be questioned.

Now, the bee-eaters proper, according to my experience, have invariably a long and acuminated wing, and aërial swallow-like habits corresponding to that form of wing. Again, their bill is considerably spread laterally except towards the tip; the general form being tetragonal, and the ridge acute.

In Bucia, on the contrary, the wing is not so much acuminated as in the thrushes. It is distinguished for considerable, uniform, breadth; not at all for length; and the habits of the bird are quite foreign to perpetual questing on the wing in the open country: they lead it to seek the deep recesses of the forest,—and there, tranquilly seated on a high tree, to watch the casual advent of its prey, and, having seized it, to return directly to its station. The bill, again, is greatly compressed with vertical sides and ridge flat towards the base, convex towards the tip. This organ is, moreover, strong, longer, and more arched than in Merops. The Buciae are of rare occurrence, and are solitary wood-landers; whereas the bee-eaters proper are gregarious, and common tenants of the champaign. Our birds are found in the lower and central regions of Nepal; but seldom or never in the northern. The Nipalese call them Bukay-chera; chera being merely a corruption of chiria, or bird. I latinise the former word to procure a generic appellation.

I have as yet discovered but one species, of which the following is the specific name and character.

Bucia Nipalensis. Nipalese Bucia, Mihi. Bright parrot green, shaded on the belly and vent with bright buff; lining of the wings and lower tail covert, pure buff: wings internally and basally, and tail on the inferior surface, the same: forehead and gular hackles, blue: the last, formed of a double series of long, composed, drooping plumes, ranged opposite to each other on either side the trachea: bill plumbeous, with black tip: iris brown: legs greenish yellow. Length thirteen to fourteen inches: breadth between the wings seventeen to eighteen: weight three to four oz.: sexes alike.

The bill is more than twice as long as the head. It has a considerable and uniform arcuation throughout; is hard, strong, entire, very moderately excavated internally; at base scarcely broader than high;
and nearly twice as high as broad immediately beyond the base. The ridge above, though narrow, is quite flat from the brow to the centre of length; beyond it and below, convex. So great is the lateral compression, that the sides are plane and nearly vertical: the cutting edges are trenchant and unemarginated: the tips pointed and nearly equal. The nares are rounded, lateral, basal; the fosse evanescent; the aperture covered closely by a small incumbent tuft of setaceous plumuli.

The tongue is long, flattened, pointed, cartilaginous, and feathered towards the tip. The gape is scarcely cleft to the fore angle of the eye, and smooth.

The wings are of very moderate length, but of great and pretty uniform fulness or breadth: the tertiaries and primaries equal: first and second primaries considerably and subequally graded; third and fourth nearly equal. Fourth longest: first not bastard; more than half as long as the fourth.

The tail is rather long, and is composed of twelve very firm, broad, and equal feathers. The tarsi are very low: knees and more plumose: acrotarsia scaled: paratarsia smooth: toes long and typically syn-dactyle; the soles being quite flat, and the exterior toe joined to the central fore as far as the second joint—the interior, as far as the first.

Nails subequal, much compressed, falcate, feeble, and acute: the central fore with a large unpectinated comb. From the chin to the breast depends a row of plumes, inserted opposite to each other on either side the trachea. They are more than two inches long, of composed web, and medial equal breadth. Their mobility gives the living bird a very grotesque appearance. Some such appendage seems to distinguish one of the true bee-eaters, viz. that called amictus.

These birds feed principally on bees and their congeners: but they likewise consume great quantities of scarabæi and their like. They are of dull staid manners, and never quit the deepest recesses of the forest.

In the Rája’s shooting excursions they are frequently taken alive by the clamorous multitude of sportsmen, some two or more of whom single out a bird and presently make him captive, disconcerted as he is by the noise. It may be worth while to add, in conclusion, that the true bee-eaters are never seen in the mountains: nor the Bucie ever, I believe, in the plains. The intestinal canal in our birds is usually about twelve inches long, with cæca of an inch and more in length, placed near to the bottom of it. The stomach is muscular, and of medial subequal thickness. Such, too, is the character of the stomach and intestines in Merops.
VII.—On a new Piscatory Genus of the Strigine Family.—By the same.

Order Raptores. Family STRIGIDÆ.

Genus new. Cultrunguis, Mihi.

Generic character:—

Bill subequal to the head, straightened as far as the cere, gradually curved beyond it, moderately compressed, strong. Wings medial, equal to the tail, four and five longest and subequal; three first considerably gradated, first not pectinated. Tarsi rather elevate, partially or wholly nude, reticulate. Toes nude, and reticulate with three or four scales next the talons; the anteriors subequal. Talons medial, stout, subequal, compressed, cultrated below*. Egrets as in Bubo, disc and ears as in Noctua. Tail short.

It is some time since Gen. Hardwicke made known to science an owl with nude tarsi†. The circumstance was remarkable, but it does not seem to have led him to any further investigation. Some years back I discovered a similarly-characterised species, and at the same time noted that the talons were sharpened like a knife on their lower edge. In process of time I discovered another species with the tarsi half naked; and this also had cultrated talons. But my specimens of both species happened to have the stomach empty; and I had no immediate means of observing the manners of the birds. In 1830 I had opportunity to note that both species flew well by day, and were constantly found on the banks of rivers. Analogy with the eagles then led me to suspect that these birds might possibly be fishers: but still, until I had seen them fishing, or had obtained specimens with fish in the stomach, I could have no safe ground for assuming so extraordinary a fact. I have now, however, procured specimens with the stomach full of fish, and fish only‡; and I presume that the post-facto inference from structure to habits will scarcely be questioned. Whether Hardwicke’s owl will, when better known, constitute another genus of the fishing owls, remains to be proved: but that bird is sufficiently distinguished from either of mine by its shielded tarsi. In forming a new genus for two new species, essentially alike, and very materially differing both in conformation and habits from all known birds of this family, I rely upon the sanction and support of men of science. And I shall only add, before proceeding to give the specific characters, that those of the genus have been derived from a freer use of ordinary external characters than has heretofore been made in

* Hence the generic name, cultratus and unguis.
† Of the yet earlier Strix nudipes of Daudin, nothing seems accurately known.
‡ I have just discovered that they prey on crabs as well as common fish.

B. H. H., 2nd July, 1836.

3 A 2
respect to the Strigine birds. Cuvier regarded these birds as constituting but one genus. Vigors raised this genus to the rank of a family, advancing Cuvier’s subgenera to genera. But Vigors left Cuvier’s character as he found them,—whether wisely or not, I shall not presume to say. I suspect, however, that, as species multiply and become accurately known, resort will be had to characters analogous to those by which the Diurnal Raptors (to go no further) are generically distinguished, if not from a sense of the superficialness of the old characters, yet from a want of determinate new ones. It is surely reasonable to distinguish all the Raptors upon similar principles; and, as the external construction of the Strigine birds certainly renders this quite practicable, so, I believe, that the analogies thus necessarily suggested to the student between them and the Falconidae, would tend to the higher uses of the science.

First species: C. Flavipes, yellow-footed Cultrunguis, Mihi. Head, neck and body below, bright rusty, each plume striped down the shaft with saturated brown; the stripes narrower below than above: disc and leg-plumes immaculate: back wings and tail, saturated brown, transversely barred, and largely emarginated and tipt, with rusty; the bars interrupted on the shafts, and frequently resembling triangular indentations: four bars across the great quills and tail feathers; and the tips of both largely paled: plumes of the thighs and tarsi downy: half the latter nude: nude portion and the toes, flavescent fleshy grey: talons horn yellow: bill blue, with a dusky tip: iris bright yellow: edges of eye-lids black: twenty-two to twenty-three inches long by 55 to 58 wide. Weight three and a half lbs.

N. B. The sexes resemble each other both in size and colours.

Second species: Cultrunguis Nigripes, Mihi. Head, neck, back, and whole body below, pale earthy brown, with a fawn tinge; paler and albescent on the abdominal surface; each plume striped down the shaft with a saturated brown mark, which is narrower below than above; and each also crossed with numerous slender zigzags of brownish fawn colour: wings and tail saturated brown, triangularly indented or cross-barred, and broadly tipt, with obscure rufous yellow, which is freckled, for the most part, on the tertaries, and scapulars, with brown: great quills and rectrices, quadricinctate, as in the preceding: disc earthy brown: thighs pale fawn: both immaculate: throat white, and almost or wholly unmarked: wings albescent towards the roots of the feathers: bill dusky horn: iris bright yellow: edge of eye-lid black: tarsi and toes, purpurescent dusky: talons the same, with black points: thighs and knees to the front, covered with downy plumes: tarsi and toes, nude: size of the last.
Cultrunguis Flavipes - with Nigripes type of the Genus Cultrunguis

N.B. inner side of the foot: size of nature.

J. B. Tawin's 1st. Press Calcutta.
1836.]

Report on Nepal Rice, Wool, &c. 365

N. B. This species bears an extreme resemblance, in point of colours and size, as in other respects, to the Strix Hardwickii. But it may be at once distinguished therefrom by its reticulated tarsi.

The sexes, as in the preceding species, are alike both in size and colours. These birds moult once a year, between June and October, inclusive; they breed in February-March; and are almost equally common in the several regions of Nepal, notwithstanding the great diversity of climate.

The structure of their stomach and intestines offers no marked peculiarity. The intestinal canal is from three and half to four feet long; very thick-coated throughout; considerably wider above than below; and furnished with two thin caeca, from three to four inches long, which are situated near the anal extremity of the canal, and widened considerably at their distal end.

The stomach is rounded, considerably and equally thickened in its coats, and provided with a toughish and rugose lining, which is easily separated.

The coats do not consist of proper muscle, but of a substance between gland and cartilage; for which I know no name, commonly as it occurs. The succentorial stomach is purely glandular, with soft papillated lining, not distinguishable from the body of the organ; the points of the papillae being, in fact, mere excretory pores directly in contact with the secreting substance.

The following detail of dimensions is taken from a male specimen of Flavipes: but so similar are the two species, and the sexes of both, that it will equally represent the average size and proportions of the males and females of both species.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Foot</th>
<th>Inch</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tip bill to tip tail</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bill, length of</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>— basal height of</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 ⅝</td>
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<tr>
<td>— basal breadth of</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 ⅝</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tail</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarsus</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 ⅜</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central toe</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 ⅔</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expanse of wings</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>3⅔ lbs</td>
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</tbody>
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[Communicated by Government.]

The Society having received from their Committee of Colonies and Trade a report on sundry articles sent to them for examination from
the Honorable Court of Directors of the East India Company, have been pleased to approve the same, and have directed their Secretary to transmit a copy of the Report forthwith to the Honorable the Court of Directors, with an assurance that the Society will at all times be happy to receive from them any communications connected with the objects of this Society.

(Signed) ARTHUR AIKIN, Secy.

REPORT.

The Committee of Colonies and Trade having been directed by the Society to examine sundry articles sent to the Society by the Honorable the Court of Directors of the East India Company, and referred to this Committee 4th November, 1835, report as follows:

I. The Soomla or Himalaya paddy, or mountain rice, received from Mr. Hodgson, Resident at Nepal, appears to be of the same kind as a sample (comprising five varieties) sent to the Society of Arts in 1821, by Dr. Wallich.

From the great height above the level of the sea at which this grain is cultivated in Nepal, it is suggested that it may perhaps be advantageously introduced as an agricultural crop in the North of Europe.

Before this can be determined in the affirmative, it is necessary to prove, first, that this grain is capable of coming to maturity in the climate of the North of Europe; and, secondly, that the clear profit of a crop of hill-rice from a given area shall be at least equal to that of a crop of oats, barley, or rye from the same area.

Several parcels of the former quantity of hill-rice were distributed by the Society to persons residing in various parts of England; and several were likewise sent to France, to Switzerland, to Germany, and to Russia. Of those sent to the Continent, the Society has received no intelligence; and of those distributed in England, the result has been, with one exception, that the seeds did not germinate. A notice likewise was inserted in one of the French journals a few years ago, from which it appeared that various attempts had been made to grow the hill-rice of Nepal in some of the districts of France from seed distributed by the Government of that country, but wholly without success.

Mr. Anderson, the Curator of the Apothecaries' garden at Chelsea, was one of those who undertook to make an experiment on the possibility of growing the hill-rice in England, and was, in consequence, furnished with some seeds of the five varieties at that time in the Society's possession. They were sown in March, and some of each kind germinated and did very well while they were kept in the
hot-house. In May they were removed to the green-house, where they became stout, healthy plants. In the end of June they were transferred to a sheltered place in a basin for the growth of aquatic plants, having nine inches depth of water and twelve of mud; here they grew and promised well till the beginning of August, when, the weather becoming cloudy and rather cold, they became sickly, and were all dead by the beginning of September without having come into flower. It seems, therefore, evident that the temperature even of the warmer parts of England is not sufficient for the successful cultivation of hill-rice.

The latitude of Sirinagar, where this grain is cultivated, is about 30°; that is, under nearly the same parallel as Cairo; and although, from its height above the sea and its vicinity to ridges of snowy mountains, the winters are severe, yet in such situations the summers are much hotter than on lower levels in higher latitudes, where the average temperature of the whole year is not perhaps greater than that of the middle of one of Europe. In Florence, and even in Rome, frost and snow are by no means of unfrequent occurrence in the winter, and yet the summers are hot enough to bring to perfection many annual vegetable products, rice among the rest, which will not succeed north of the Alps.

Concerning the second head of inquiry,—viz. the comparative profit of land cropped with hill-rice, and with barley or oats,—the Committee are not in possession of a single fact on which to found an opinion. But they may be allowed to state that, as the farinaceous food of Europeans is consumed chiefly in the form of bread or of cakes, and as rice is not capable of being made into either one or the other of these preparations by the simple process of kneading with cold water and then baking, either an additional process of cooking would be necessary in the attempt to substitute rice for the ordinary European grains, or the new habit must be superinduced, of doing without bread and replacing it by boiled rice.

In order to obtain a correct opinion of the comparative value of hill-rice with the other qualities of this grain in the London market, a sample was sent to Mr. Ewbank for examination. That gentleman reports that fine Carolina rice, imported in the state of paddy and cleaned here, is worth 30 shillings per cwt.; that fine Bengal rice cleaned here, is worth 23 shillings per cwt.; that rough and inferior East India rice, imported half-cleaned and finished here, is worth 14 shillings per cwt. This latter was purchased from the importer at eight shillings, lost 20 per cent. in cleaning, and the cost of this process was two shillings per cwt. ; so that there remained only two shillings per cwt. for interest, profit, &c.
The hill-rice is nearly of the same quality as the latter kind, being dark coloured, opaque, and not at all calculated for the English market.

The opinion, therefore, of the Committee is, that the hill-rice cannot be successfully cultivated in Europe; and that, if capable of being so cultivated, it could not enter into competition in the European market with Bengal rice.

II. The wool of the Hooniah sheep of Tibet consists of two samples,—one, of the wool in its natural state; and the other, of a portion from which the black hairs have been separated.

The former is of precisely the same quality as a parcel sent last year (1834) to the Society by Dr. Wallich; and the market price of it in London, at that time, was, according to Mr. Ebsworth, of Basinghall Street, from 10 to 11 pence per lb.

The two samples, after being examined by the Committee, were also examined by Mr. Ebsworth, and by Mr. Southey, of Coleman Street.

According to Mr. Ebsworth, the value of the wool in its unsorted state is from five to seven pence per lb. A considerable quantity of similar wool from India, but rather coarser, has been sold in the London market during the last two years at from two and half to seven pence per lb. The sorted wool is worse than the unsorted; for, in separating the dirt, all the finer filaments have likewise been taken away.

Mr. Southey estimates the value of the unsorted wool at about 10 pence per lb.; and states, that it greatly resembles a large portion of the wool imported from Jutland and Denmark.

Mr. Hodgson’s expression that the “wool is said to be superb,” does not in the least apply to the sample actually sent by him; but as he has stated that the animal “is of trans-Himalayan origin, and will not bear the heats of Nepál,” it seems probable that the wool in question was grown in that country, and has greatly degenerated; it being well known that the sheep of Barbary produce hair rather than wool.

The Committee think it incumbent on them to notice an opinion expressed by Mr. Southey, from the great attention which that gentleman has paid to the growth of wool; namely, that the Hooniah and other coarse qualities of Indian wool, of which many hundred bales have recently been imported, would be very materially improved by the introduction of some well-selected rams, of which an ample supply might no doubt be obtained from New South Wales.

* This expression completely confirms the observations previously made respecting the hill-rice of Nepál, which thus seems to grow in a climate too hot for the production of wool.
III. Two large pieces of cloth made from the down of the Simool or Tree-Cotton, *Bombax heptaphyllum*, from Gowahatty in Assam, the place of their manufacture.

On examining the cloth it appears that the fine short down of the *Bombax* has been spun into a large wove slightly twisted cord or roving, and that this is made into cloth by interweaving it with a warp and short of common thin cotton-thread, much in the manner of carpeting. It composes a loose cloth, incapable, probably, of being washed without injury, but considerably warm, very elastic, and light.

From the shortness of the staple and the great elasticity of the fibre, it is not at all probable that it could be spun by the machinery now in use for spinning cotton; but the combination which it exhibits, of fineness of fibre with great elasticity will, no doubt, make it rank high as a non-conductor of heat, and therefore fit it for making wadding, and for stuffing muffns, and perhaps mattresses. When carded with wool it might probably form the basis of fabrics of great warmth, lightness and silky softness.

IV. Sample of Safflower made at Myrung in Assam, by Lieut. Rutherford.

The Committee not wishing to rely entirely on their own judgment in this case, more especially as the whole quantity placed at the disposal of the Society is not enough for a satisfactory comparative trial either on silk or on cotton, have availed themselves of the opinion of several dyers and brokers, the concurrence of whose judgment with that of the Committee induces them to consider it as correct.

Mr. Grieve, silk dyer, of Booth Street, considers the sample to be clear and of good quality.

Messrs. Racine and Jaques, silk dyers, of Spitalfields, consider the sample to possess a fair proportion of colour, though not of equal quality with the best from Bengal.

Messrs. Johnson and Renney exhibited to the Committee samples of safflower from different places and of various qualities. They stated that the best Indian comes from Dacca, of which there are two varieties, one from Paturaghauta, and the other from Billespour; the former of which is the more valuable to the amount of about 20 per cent.

Mr. Renney stated, that during his residence in India he paid much attention to the preparation of this dying drug. The time for gathering the flowers is near the end of the dry season, when the tanks are almost exhausted; in consequence of which, the water employed to wash the safflower is generally muddy and swarming with animalculae: hence it happens that the cakes, though packed in
close boxes, are often more or less injured by worms; which injury he conceives would be greatly diminished by substituting clean spring water for that of the tanks. The sample before the Committee is fair and clean, and suitable for the market, and is worth about £7 a cwt.

The finest safflower of all comes from China, but is not an article of regular appearance in the market. The comparative value of it is as high as £30 per cwt.

Mr. Emley, drug-broker, and a Member of the Committee, considers the sample to be of good fair merchantable quality, and in value as stated by Messrs. Johnson and Renney.

V. Two skeins of fibre made from the leaves of the wild pineapple, and two net bags made of the same material, sent from Gowa-hatty in Assam, by Captain Jenkins.

The sample is not sufficient for any fair comparative trial of its tenacity.

The Society are already in possession of fibre from the leaves of the black Antigua pine and from the Penguin pine of Jamaica, which latter is occasionally made into ropes in the West Indies, but is not the object of any regular manufacture, the expense of labour in those colonies rendering it more advantageous to import from England cordage ready made. It appears likewise (from Burnett's Wanderings in New South Wales, &c. vol. ii. p. 207), that at Singapore the Chinese settlers obtain fibre from the leaves of the wild pine-apple, which fibres are exported to China, where they are employed as a material for linen. Also in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, for January, 1832, is a paper by Lieut.-Col. Watson on Chirra Punji, the sanatory station recently occupied by the East India Company, in which it is stated, p. 27, that the pine-apple plant flourishes in great abundance in the adjacent valleys, 4,200 feet above the level of the sea, and that the leaves are gathered by the natives for the purpose of obtaining from them, by a very simple process, a strong fibre, which they employ as the material of the net pouches or bags in common use among them.

From these indications it would perhaps be worth while for the Court of Directors to have a quantity of the fibre imported, sufficient for a fair comparative trial with hemp and flax.

IV. Sample of the wood of the Nipal Privet, Ligustrum Nipalense, from Mr. Hodgson.

A specimen of this wood was found among those sent to England by Dr. Wallich, and of which a catalogue is published in the 48th vol of the Society's Transactions. It appearing to Mr. Aikin, the
Secretary, when drawing up the catalogue*, that the specimen referred to promised to be useful to engravers on wood, it was accordingly put into the hands of Mr. Branston, who reported very favorably respecting it. That specimen was a piece of a bough or trunk a few inches in diameter, and had been taken sufficiently high above the root to be of a perfectly uniform texture. The present sample, from its broad irregular rings, appears to have been cut as near as possible to the root, in order to get it of the greatest size: but, in so doing, the uniformity of texture absolutely necessary to fit it for use by the engraver has been wholly overlooked, and the result is a sample perfectly worthless for the object for which it is intended.

By order:
(Signed) Arthur Aikin, Secy.

IX.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 6th July, 1836.

The Rev. Dr. Mill, Vice-President, in the chair.

Captain R. Lloyd, I. N., Dr. D. Stewart, and Dr. McClelland, proposed at the last meeting, were ballotted for, and elected members of the Society.

Mr. Wm. Speir was proposed by Mr. J. Prinsep, seconded by Dr. Mill.

Sergeant Dawe, of the Delhi Canal Establishment, proposed as an associate member by Mr. J. Prinsep, seconded by Dr. Pearson.

Read a letter from Wm. Mackenzie, Esq., stating that, in consequence of the pressure of business, and other indispensable engagements, he was obliged to retire from the Society.

Read a letter from Charles Kongo, Foreign Secretary to the Royal Society, acknowledging the receipt of the Journal, and Index As. Res.

The following circular, enclosed in the above, was read and directed to be printed for general information:—


Sir,

I am directed by His Royal Highness the President and Council, to acquaint you, for the information of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, that His Majesty the King has been pleased to grant two Gold Medals, of the value of Fifty Guineas each, to be awarded by the Royal Society on the day of their Anniversary Meeting in each succeeding year, for the most important discoveries in any one principal branch of Physical and Mathematical knowledge.

His Majesty having graciously expressed a wish that scientific men of all nations should be invited to afford the aid of their talents and researches, I am accordingly directed by the Council to announce to you, Sir, that the Royal Medals for 1838 will be awarded in that year, the one to the author of the most important unpublished paper in Chemistry which may have been communicated to the Royal Society for insertion in their Transactions, after the present date and prior to the month of June in the year 1838;—the other, to the author of

* See Journal As. Soc. II. 182.
the most important unpublished paper in Physics, which may have been communicated to the Royal Society for insertion in their Transactions, after the present date and prior to the month of June in the year 1838.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your very obedient humble servant,

Chas. König, For. Sec. R. S.

To James Prinsep, Esq.

Secretary of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta.

Read a letter from H. T. Prinsep, Esq., Secretary to the Government of India, General Department, intimating that the Right Honorable the Governor of Bengal had been pleased to empower the Curators of the Public Library to make over to the Society the Oriental books printed in Europe, on the same conditions, with the manuscripts and works already transferred from the College of Fort William. The Secretary stated that he had in consequence received charge of three hundred volumes—some few being, however, duplicates of works already in the library.

A letter from the Civil Auditor, desiring to be furnished with an abstract of the establishment entertained for the care of the Government Oriental Works. Understanding the 78 rupees monthly to be a consolidated allowance, in which case no detail of its expenditure need be furnished, Resolved to make a reference on the subject to Government.

Library.

Read a letter from H. T. Prinsep, Esq. Secretary to the Government of India, forwarding on behalf of the Honorable the Court of Directors for presentation to the Society, a copy of the Catalogue of Stars in the Southern Hemisphere, by Lieut. Johnson, H. C. Ast. at St. Helena.

Read a Persian note from Manu Lal, presenting a copy of a compilation from standard Persian and Hindustani Poets, published by himself under the name of Guldesteh i Nishát,—The Nosegay of Pleasure.

Read a letter from Kumar Radhacanth Deb Behadur, forwarding for presentation to the Society a copy of his great publication, entitled Sabda Calpa Drama, an Encyclopedical Lexicon in Sanscrit, vols. 1, 2, and 3. The subsequent or the remaining vols. will be forwarded when published. Also translation of an extract from a Horticultural work in Persian, printed by the Roy. As. Soc. of London.

A volume of selected papers of a literary nature published in the Government Gazette while Mr. Wilson was Editor, was presented by Mr. James Prinsep.

Meteorological Registers for April and May 1836, were presented by the Surveyor General.

Museum.

Read a letter from Prof. Goodeve, Secretary to the Medical and Physical Society, requesting the Society’s acceptance of a pair of glazed almirahs, their contents having been transferred to the Medical College.

Two large chatta-hats from Assam, were presented by Dr. W. B. Davis.

Various rude specimens of domestic implements from New Zealand, by Mr. H. T. Prinsep.
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Literary and Antiquities.

Read a letter from R. D. Mangles, Esq. Secretary to the Government of Bengal, Judicial Department, transmitting on behalf of the Right Honourable the Governor of Bengal, a Census of the population of the town of Gyah and its suburbs, framed under the superintendence of Mr. Hawthorn, the Magistrate of Behar.

A note on the origin of the Armenian era and the reformation of the Haican Kalender, by Mr. Johannes Avdall.

Read a letter from L. Wilkinson, Esq. Agent at Bhopal, forwarding the copy of an inscription on a copper-plate lately found at Piplianagar in the Shujal Perganah, by a krisan, or husbandman, in ploughing; with an English translation.

Read a paper by Major Lloyd, on the sacred silken vests of the Tibetan priests, alluded to in Turner's Embassy. They are adorned with images, and have a lettered border of sacred texts woven into the scarf: one of these had been submitted to Mr. Csoma de Körös, and by him translated.

[This note will be printed in our next.]

Mr. Hodgson forwarded an amended list of the Sanscrit Baudhā works procurable in Nepal. Such as have been sent home to Paris or London, were noted by an asterisk.

Physical.

A note on the progress of the boring in Fort William was read by Capt. Taylor, Town Major. [Vide infra.]

A memorandum of a well sunk in the Chandpur bunds, near the foot of the Sewalik range, was likewise communicated by Lieutenant Baker, Engineers.

A descriptive catalogue of part of the Society's collection of Silhet shells, was received from Mr. W. H. Benson, M. A. S.

[Printed in the present number.]

A letter from Lieutenant Geo. Fulljames, giving further detail of the fossil discoveries at Perim, and announcing the despatch of specimens for the Society's museum.

[As this letter arrived while the Baron Hugel's note was in the press, the interesting particulars it contained were appended to that paper; see last No. p. 290.]

Mr. B. H. Hodgson transmitted 27 further specimens of his Illustrations of Nipalese Zoology; also papers,

On three new genera of thrush.
On three new species of woodpecker.
Dr. W. Cantor submitted his sketch of an undescribed hooded serpent with fangs and maxillary teeth, accompanied with coloured drawings on a large scale.
Dr. N. Wallich presented two papers on new genera of plants, by Dr. Griffiths, to which the author has given the names of Bucklandia and Sedgwickia.

[These will be inserted in our next.]
Presentations to the Museum of Natural History.

Specimens of the great-eared owl, (Bubo Macrocephala;) Flammeous Fly-catcher, (Muscelapa Flamma;) Gural King-fisher, (Haleyon Gural;) black-headed Oriole, (Oriolus Melanoecephalus;) Bengal woodpecker, (Picus Bengalenisis;)—Woodpecker, (Picus Macei;) skulls of Hornbill, (Buceros Homrait;) and Pelican, (Pelecanus Onocrotalus,) and skin of the Amethystine Python; presented by W. B. Davis, Esq.

Specimens of Silky-throat Râyâ, (Raya Sericeo-gula;) Nepal Bucia, (Bucia Nepalensis;) black-headed Sibia, (Sibia Nigriceps;) Picaoid Sibia, (Sibia Picaoides;) and blue-winged Chloropsis, (Chloropsis Cyanopterus;) presented by B. H. Hodgson, Esq.

The above are specimens of new genera, instituted by Mr. Hodgson; papers on which he has favored the Society with; and the specimens will be figured in his great work on the Fauna of Nepal.

Specimens of white eye-browed Jacana, (Parra Superciliosa,) and Girra Teal, (Anas Girra,) presented by W. C. Smith, Esq.

The internal ear of the Whale, presented by H. T. Prinsep, Esq.

Specimens were exhibited of Birds from Almorah, mounted in the Museum; and an articulated skeleton of the Adjutant, also prepared there.

On the conclusion of the ordinary business of the meeting,

A letter was read from the Most Rev. the Bishop of Cochin China, (who was present at the meeting) resubmitting a proposition for the publication of his Anamitan Dictionary, and stating that in an interview with the Governor General, he had been empowered by his Lordship to renew his application to Govt. through the Secretary of the Society.

The favorable recommendation embodied in the report of the Committee of Papers last year, was qualified on one point,—namely, in as much as the specimen of the work then before them wanted the Chinese character, which was deemed essential to its perfection as a literary work. This was now removed, and the Bishop was present, and ready to engage for its correct insertion: he would also engage, should it be determined to publish in lithography, to write, or superintend and correct, the whole of the work on transfer paper, for the consideration of 4,000 rupees. The paper and printing might cost about 1,200 more. On these new grounds it was agreed that there would be no disrespect in submitting a second application to Government in favor of the proposition, which the Secretary was requested to prepare.

Note on the Progress of the Boring in Fort William. By Captain Taylor, M. A. S.

In laying before the Society the accompanying section* and specimens of the strata found in the recent operations carried on in Fort William for the discovery of a spring of pure water, it may be expected that I should give some account of the progress and state of the experiments; I therefore beg to offer the following observations.

* We postpone this until the operations, hitherto so successful, may have been brought to a close.—Ed.
A detail of the early part of these operations, which commenced in October last, would comprise little besides a narrative of difficulties barren of facts scientifically interesting. It will be sufficient briefly to state, that in the first attempt a depth of 136 feet only was attained by boring; when the same quicksand which in every case seems to have baffled General Garstin’s efforts to proceed, put an end to this also. — The tubes, without support in the loose sand, separated in several places, and fell out of the perpendicular; all attempts to rejoin or recover them failed.

As the same strata, and consequently in so much as that is concerned, the same difficulties might be expected to occur in boring in any part of the alluvial formation of the delta of the Ganges, it was not supposed that any material advantage would be gained by changing the site of operations; it was resolved to proceed with a second attempt in the immediate vicinity of that where we had just failed.

On the 28th of April another shaft was commenced; experience had suggested several improvements in the arrangement of the machinery, and taught us to use the tools with better effect. The improved skill of the workmen was made manifest by the fact, that the depth of 126 feet, which in the first attempt occupied forty-seven working days to attain, was now reached in eighteen with ease and facility.

So far the strata passed through, corresponded precisely, in their order at least, with all that had occurred on former occasions. The same quicksand which caused the abandonment of the first attempt was reached at 120 feet; and at this point our difficulties commenced. To obviate the disaster which had rendered our labour abortive in the first instance, the tubes were secured against dislocation in the loose sand by screws at their joints; and to this precaution must be attributed the success of the work so far. The sand alluded to is so loose, I may say, semifluid a character, that on the removal of a portion of the water which stands in the tube to 15 feet from the surface, it immediately rose 17 feet; and although at this time the work was prosecuted night and day without any intermission, the sand rose faster in the tubes than it could be removed; so that at the end of eleven days and nights of incessant toil it had risen from 124 to 103 feet.

Hence it became evident that the only mode of overcoming the obstacles presented by the sand was to force the tubing down, until coming in contact with some firm stratum, the sand should be excluded. By unrelaxing perseverance and much labour, frequently gaining but a few inches in the day, the tubes at last attained a depth of 157 feet. The sand was gained upon; at 152 feet it was observed to become darker in color and coarser in grain, containing a quantity of what appeared to be small pieces of iron ore*. At 159 feet a stiff clay with yellow veins occurred, resembling in appearance a thin stratum passed at 127 feet. The borer, which during the prevalence of the sand was always behind the tubing, sometimes several feet, now penetrated in advance of it, and in less than 24 hours reached the depth of 175 feet.

The clay at 163 feet changed, for a short space, remarkably in color and substance; becoming dark, friable, and apparently containing much vegetable and possibly some ferruginous matter. At 170 feet it became sandy, and gradually passed into a very coarse sharp sand mixed with small fragments of quartz and felspar, which was brought up from 175 feet.

This gravel or shingle at present impedes further progress, until we shall have made some auger capable of penetrating and lifting the stones.

* Red waterworm nodules of hydrated oxide, like the laterite of South India.—Ed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observations at 10 A.M.</th>
<th>Thermometer</th>
<th>Weather</th>
<th>Wind</th>
<th>Barometer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date and Year</td>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>Pressure</td>
<td>Direction</td>
<td>Pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 A.M.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.9.38</td>
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<td>2.9.38</td>
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<td>3.9.38</td>
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<td>4.9.38</td>
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<td>5.9.38</td>
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<td>7.9.38</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.9.38</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The new standard Barometer stands this month, 
39.23 at 10 A.M. and 39.24 at 4 p. m. Less than my former standard, giving the same difference between the morning and evening.
I.—Translation of a Tamba Patra, which was found in a field of the village of Pipliánagar in the Shujálpur Pargáná, by a Krisán engaged in ploughing, and presented to Mr. L. Wilkinson, the Political Agent at Bhopál, by the Jagirdár.

[In a letter to the Editor of the Journal of the Asiatic Society.]

It is incumbent upon the friend of research to contribute every piece of information, however trifling, thrown in his way by accident or opportunity, by which the future researches of our successors in regard to the history and chronology of this country may be, in any degree, promoted. With this view I have thought it proper to forward to you the copy of an inscription on a copper plate lately found at Pipliánagar, in this neighbourhood. For the benefit of the purely English reader, I have added a translation, which, if found correct, you can also insert.

On referring to the Chronological Table of the rajas of Málwá, given in the number of your Journal for December 1835, I find that this plate confirms the Ujjain Inscription in regard to the order of succession of four princes.

Three other copper-plates have since been found at the same village. I have not yet had time to translate, or indeed to decipher them.

L. Wilkinson.

[This inscription does more than Mr. Wilkinson allows, for it adds four important names to the Ujjain list, below that of Jayavarma, (see Chron. Tab. 105,) and having a date A. D. 1210 to Arjun the last of the list, it exactly fills the blank between the former prince (1143), and Birsal in 1220. We have no space for comments, but we offer our best thanks to Mr. Wilkinson for his valuable contribution.—Ed.]
Transcript of the text in Modern Nāgarī.

तस्माद्धिर्मिनिजातीयनाब्राह्मणां भूमिभवतः

प्रतिच्चवत्यास्वम् मकर शराजिनि वपूः।

जग्माहाद्वतन दिर्गाहद्विजनः मकरानि वपूः।

तोडापञ्चाबारामीता जाने क्षुण्या रसाहितं।

सेतासीत्वम्येशर्ये दातुवेश्चति ताग्न्यातं।

चने मन्दरकस्वारसारिकः श्रमितस्तथे।

प्रायोगिकाद्रिगा मारे: स राम: श्रृणश्चरुव:।

भीमेनानि धता मात्रः यथाध: स उपाधिरः।

वन्द्यांपेतुना जीयासखितस्य निन्सिहं।

परस्युपुलोत्सः कंसाजिमिस्मा नपूः।

श्रीमीदव ध्यासिदासीनांकंभोजः।

यद्राहस्तिकादैति विगुणस्तत्सनोः।

हिंदूप्रयवः पुंजपुरुरीविनिमीजिन्तं।

ततोभूदश्वादिवसी निल्यासानेकालोः।

वासाधारणीविनिहितारिथोः।

महाकलक्यंति यशोंवाहिमवामुः।

काति नैषूकुवितांलांगा भूमतम् कटोऽवंचा:।

तस्माद्धिर्मिनिजातीयनाब्राह्मणां भूमिभवतः

यथाभवः धीमानसूत्सीमा मद्यीभुजः।

प्रतिच्चवाटं विपेषयो द्वेष्ट्याः सर्वं।

चानेज्यदत्तां निन्द्येशे मध्यविनशादादृष्ट।

तस्याजनः यशासम्म पुत्रं चत्रविशेषः।

तस्माद्धिर्मिनिजातीयनाब्राह्मणस्वमुः।

तस्माद्धिर्मिनिजातीयनाब्राह्मणस्वमुः।

मुख्ये निवेशीविष्णुवाम मन्द्रामुः।

धार्योघुकत्या सावः दिर्गाधिक्षत्र चिह्नतां।

सांपुगिन्यस्य वसाठिस्मातू लोकत्वेश्चित।

तस्माद्धिर्मिनिजातीयनाब्राह्मणस्वमुः।

भूमि सुभाष्मति धमेनिष्काळाहीतः।

वयस्च ज्ञवति दिर्गाहद्विजन: प्रतिच्चवितस्त।

दासादप्रभुवमाद्यकार्य सतानुवर्ज्यविशिष्टः।

मुनियम्गव गते तस्माद्धिर्मिनिजातीयनाब्राह्मणस्वमुः।

दिशामा धनियाणधिब्य सर्वं वञ्चोऽवंची।
found in the Shujalpur pargana. | 379

1836.]

In the Shujalpur pargana, found

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1836.]

In the Shujalpur pargana, found

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1836.]

In the Shujalpur pargana, found

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Translation.

To Virtue, the most worthy object of desire to man, hail!

1. May the best of Bráhmans, who gives happiness to the whole universe by accepting a small portion of the earth as an emblem of the whole, give happiness to you.

[Or, may Shesha, who gives happiness to the whole world, upholding (by contact with) that portion (resting on his head), give happiness to you. Or, may the moon, who gives happiness to the whole world, and who receives (in an eclipse) the shadow of the earth, give happiness to you.]

2. May that Parashuráma, who gave to the Brahmans the whole earth, after it had become red as the setting sun, being drenched in the blood of the race of Cshatriyas prostrated in terrible conflicts, ever be praised.

3. May that Ráma, who victorious in battle, quenched in the flood of tears, caused Mandodari to shed the fire that burnt in the breast of the virtuous Sí'ta, when torn from her consort, give salvation to you.

4. May Yudhishtíra, whose feet the valiant Bhi'ma kissed in humility, and whom Chandra, the founder of his race, formed wholly in his own likeness, live for ever.

5. The illustrious Rája Bhoja Deva, formerly reigned: he was the chief of the Paramár princes, and in glory equal to the conqueror of Kansa. He traversed the earth in victory even to its ocean limits.

6. On the appearance of this glorious king, the fame of all hostile princes in all regions of the earth faded into obscurity, as white water-lilies in a ruffled lake bowing their heads submissively, lose their brightness before the world-pervading glories of the rising full moon.

7. To Rája Bhoja succeeded Udayáditya, whose constant delight was in the pursuit of pleasure: he was singularly endowed with the virtues of a hero; and stripped his enemies of their glory and fame.

8. How many proud princes with their terrible armies did not this Rája overthrow in ever-memorable battles, which resembled the war of elements in the universal deluge by the rapid discharge of his irresistible and fast-flying arrows; or he was like the whirlwind, which rising up at the universal deluge by its irresistible force, overthrows whole ranges of terrific and inaccessible mountains.

9. After him succeeded Rája Naravarma, who smote his enemies to death. He was wise and steadfast in support of religion and virtue: a very paragon of excellence, and a perfect model to the princes of the earth.
10. He restored to religion, who stood infirmly on one foot in this iron age of guilt, its four-fold support, by making daily grants of land to Brahmans.

11. Yashovarma, the chief ornament of the Chshatriya tribe, succeeded to him; and to him succeeded Ajayavarma, distinguished by his wealth and victories.

12. His son Vindhayavarma, glorious in his life, next followed. He was distinguished for his heroism, and by his personal prowess, and directed his ambition to the reduction of the country of Guzerât.

13. The sword of this warrior assumed a threefold edge, when upraised to yield protection to the three worlds.

14. His son Amushyayana, equal to Indra in glory, next ruled the people. Subhatavarma, whose aim was directed towards confirming the people in the practice of virtue, succeeded to him.

15. The angered prowess of this conqueror, like the fiery rays of the sun, which exercised its thundering rage on the city of Patan in (or cities of) Guzerât, is witnessed to the present day in the forest-configurations that still prevail in the country.

16. On the ascent of this prince to heaven, his son, Arjuna Râja, succeeded, who still holds on his arms the circle of this earth, as a bracelet encircles the wrists.

17. This prince, when still a child, put Jaya Sinha Râja to flight even in child's play; the eight Dikpâls (or rulers of the eight corners of the world) smiled at his success. Thus his fame reached the ends of the world.

18. He is a very treasure of poetry and melody. Saraswati, delighted by the accomplishments of this prince, gave him her own lyre and her sacred volumes.

19. To whom but to him, who is equally renowned for the threefold virtues, learning, valour, and generosity, can we attribute the enlightenment of the three worlds?

To this Râja belongs all prosperity. By these presents he informs the officers of Government, all Brahmans and others, the patel and rayats of the village of Piriwiri in the Shakapur parganâ, that in the fort of Mandu, this day 10th Phâlgun Shakla of the Samvat year 1267, he has given away this village in free gift, in commemoration of his accession, after the prescribed ablutions and due worship of Sambhu, and with due regard to the fleeting vanities of this world.

20th verse. As the clouds are drifted along by the wind, so enjoyment from the senses lasts but for an instant: the life of man is like the dew-drop depending from the tip of a blade of grass; and virtue is the only friend that will avail in the world to come.
Thus reflecting upon the vanities of this world, he resolved to seek the (sure though) invisible rewards of a future state. He therefore gave this village to the Brahman Govinda, his purohit, the son of Jaitrah Sinh, the son of Somadeva, the son of Delana Avasavika, of the Tribe (Prawar) of Kâshyapa, Vatsåra and Naidhruva, of the family (Gotra) of Kâshyapa, and a follower of the Madhyandina (or Wajasaneya) shakka or branch of the védas. He gave the whole village to its utmost limits, and all its groves of trees, with the full usufruct of its rents and revenues and rights, and of all the moveable property therein, including all right to trove property found therein, that he and his father and mother may increase in good works and in reputation. This gift is to last so long as the moon, and sun, and the earth shall endure, being duly made with consecrated water on a befitting record and with all reverence. Let the patêl and all the inhabitants of this village, bearing the royal generosity in mind, obey his orders, and make over to him the full usufruct of all the rights and dues heretofore paid to Government, excepting only such endowments and grants as have been made to temples and Brahmans. And let my descendants, and all who may succeed me, though not of my blood, well understanding that they will thereby be entitled to a participation in the fruits, preserve and maintain this grant in its integrity.

It has been written,—

"Sâgar and many other princes have enjoyed the earth in succession. But every prince who maintains in full force any grant of a predecessor, acquires the same religious merit and title to future reward as the original donor."

And again it has been said,—

"The Râja, who resumes grants of land made as a religious offering either by himself or by former Râjas, shall become a vile worm to roll in filthy ordure: and shall drag his ancestors down into the same pollution. Reflecting that power and wealth and even life itself, are as unstable as the drop that floats on the leaf of the lotus, let every man refrain from detracting from the good name and from perverting the religious merits of another."

Written on Thursday, 10th Phalgun, Shudha of the Samvat year 1267, by the Râj-Gûru Madana, and with the concurrence of the most learned Pandit Bilhana.
II.—Note on the white satin embroidered Scarfs of the Tibetan Priests.

By Major T. H. A. Lloyd. With a translation of the motto on the margin of one presented to the Asiatic Society. By Alex. Csoma Körösi.

Having received lately, with a letter from Bútan, one of the silk scarfs mentioned by Turner as in use in that country and Tibet, which, though rather dirty, is of a superior manufacture and more highly ornamented with figures of deities than those I have heretofore met with, I think it may be presented as a specimen to the Society. I can fully confirm Turner's account of its general use in all intercourse, and am sorry I have not had any opportunity of ascertaining the origin of the custom, which is, I believe, peculiar to Tibet, Bútan, and Sikhim. I applied to Mr. Csoma Körösi for an explanation of the sentences woven in at the ends of the scarf, and that gentleman has kindly transcribed and translated them. I enclose his notes on the subject, and to save you the trouble of a reference, I shall copy what Turner says on this subject; to whose account I can only add that these scarfs are almost indispensable in all religious offerings, as well as on the occasions he mentions.


Page 67. "We each advanced, presenting, one after the other, a white silk scarf, or long narrow piece of pelong, fringed at both ends, as is the custom in these countries, to the Rája, who, keeping his seat all the time, took them in his hand, and passed them to his zempi.

Page 71. We delivered to the zempi, or master of the ceremonies, a silk scarf for each of us, which being thrown across our shoulders, he dismissed us.

Page 72. An inferior, on approaching a superior, presents the white silk scarf; and, when dismissed, has one thrown over his neck, with the ends hanging down in front. Equals exchange scarfs on meeting, bending towards each other, with an inclination of the body. No intercourse whatever takes place without the intervention of a scarf; it always accompanies every letter, being enclosed in the same packet, however distant the place to which it is dispatched. Two colours are in use for this manufacture, which is of China, white and red: the latter is rather confined to the lower orders: the white is respectful in proportion to its purity and fineness; there are various degrees in both. I am yet ignorant of the origin of this custom, but shall endeavour, at some future time, to obtain an explanation of it.
P. S.—I may also mention that the *kow-tow* or nine prostrations, as knocking the head nine times on the ground, is in these countries always performed by inferiors approaching their superiors.”

**Translation of a Tibetan sloka, found on a white piece of China scarf, called न्यैङ्गन्तङ्कन: bh[kr]ashis kha b[tags, or “scarf of benediction.”

Nyin-mo bde-legs mts'han bde'-legs, Nyin-mahi gung yang bde-legs-shing,
Nyin mts'han rtag-tu brda-legs-pahi, dkon-chog gsum-gyi bkra-shis shog.

**Translation.**

Blessed the day; blessed the night; the mid-day also being blessed: may day and night, always return (bring) the special favour of the three most precious (holy) ones.”

(Or thus; the favour of the eminent three holy ones) the न्यैङ्गन्तङ्कन being rendered, in Latin, *insignis*, *eminens*, &c.

**Note.**—On the cloth the *न्यैङ्गन्तङ्कन is not sufficiently distinct; I took it first for न्यैङ्गन्तङ्कन as in the two former lines; but now I correct it as it probably stands on the cloth.

30th May.

A. Csoma Körösi.

III.—**Note on the origin of the Armenian Era, and the reformation of the Haican Kalendar.** By Johannes Avdall, Esq., M. A. S.

While the Abyssinians, Babylonians, Egyptians, Persians, Bactrians, and other primitive nations of Asia, have each had their respective epochs, the people of Armenia, where the descendants of the second grand progenitor of mankind began to increase and multiply, are not without a national era of their own. It is not my intention to enter here into a description of the various eras that have from ancient times obtained among the people of the East, as they have been successfully treated of in the chronological works of learned authors. I shall only confine my observations to the origin of the Armenian era, and the reformation of the Haican or Armenian kalendar.
It appears from our historical records that the Armenian era originated in A. M. 3252, immediately after the coronation of the Armenian king Paroyn. Arbaces, prince of the Medes, it must be remembered, having availed himself of the assistance of Paroyn, and of Belesis Nabonassar, a prince of Babylon, succeeded in subverting the Assyrian kingdom, and proclaiming himself king of Assyria. Ensigns of royalty were conferred by the conqueror on both of his powerful allies, each of whom returned from the field of battle to his respective country. This memorable conquest of Assyria was signalled by the commencement of the era of Nabonassar in Babylon, and by the origin of the Haican era in Armenia, which dates 743 years before Christ.

The Armenian era was from the commencement regulated according to solar years, like the eras of the Babylonians, Medes, Persians, and Egyptians. The ancients were of opinion that the solar year consisted of 365 days, without paying any regard to the addition of the six hours, which formed the concluding part of each year. Consequently, the Armenian era, like that of Yezdegird the third of Persia, anticipated the Julian year by one day in every four years. They divided the year into twelve months, giving to each 30 days, and added five days at the end, called Aveliaz, which signifies added, and is equivalent to the Greek word pagomen (παγομεν.) Thus the Armenian calendar year was made to comprise 365 days, leaving out the six hours. And according to this mode of computation all the Armenian years are common, but not intercalary. The following are the names and days of the Armenian months.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Armenian months.</th>
<th>Days of the mths.</th>
<th>Total of the days.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Կանաք. Navasard.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Հորի.</td>
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<td>90</td>
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<td>Տերե.</td>
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<td>120</td>
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<td>Կաղզո.</td>
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<td>150</td>
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<tr>
<td>Արազ.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Մեհեք.</td>
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<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Արջ.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>240</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ահեք.</td>
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<td>270</td>
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<tr>
<td>Մարեր.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Մարգազ.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Հիրոտիզ.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aveliaz,</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here in the order of the Armenian months are to be seen not only the number of days thereof, commencing from Navasard, which is the first month of the year according to the Armenian era, but also the total of the days of the year up to Aveliaz or Pagomen, which invariably consists of 5 days, even in leap years.

According to the above mode of computation, the month of Navasard will commence on the 24th of August in the year 1836, and after a lapse of four years it will begin on the 23rd of August 1840.
In this manner it will anticipate the Julian year by one day in every four years, and after a period of 120 years the difference between the Armenian and Julian epochs will be 30 days. The lapse of 1460 years will increase this difference to a whole year, and the beginning of Navasard will again fall on the 24th of August, the day on which it will have commenced in the year 1836.

It is stated in ancient Armenian chronological works, that the Armenian era was recommenced on the 11th of July, A. D. 552, on which day fell the first of Navasard. But the want of an intercalary day in the Armenian year creates a deviation of the beginning of the month of Navasard from the day of the Roman month, on which it originally commenced. We know on the authority of Armenian authors, that the month of Areg in the early part of the fifth century corresponded with the month of March. Niæses the Graceful concludes his letter to the Greek Emperor Emmanuel thus: "Written in the Armenian era 619, in the Armenian month of Areg, and in the Roman month of October." And in an old manuscript copy of the Armenian Ritual is stated thus: "Written in the Armenian era 670, in the month of Mehekan, which corresponds with the month of August."

In the year of Christ 551 the Armenian Kalendar was reformed by the Armenian Pontiff, Moses the Second, a native of the village of Eliward, in the province of Aragazotn, and eminently distinguished for his extraordinary talents and profound erudition. On his elevation to the pontifical throne, he devoted his attention to the reformation of the Armenian Kalendar. A council was accordingly convened by him in Duin, consisting of learned Bishops and scientific individuals, by whose co-operation he succeeded in remodelling the Armenian Kalendar, as much as the circumstances of the times permitted, by newly commencing the cycle. Thenceforward the Armenian nation adopted the reformed Kalendar, and generally began to reckon their years in accordance with the rule laid down therein. In order to know the Armenian era, deduct from the Christian era 551 years, and the remainder, whatever it may be, will be the Armenian era required. For instance, if 551 years be deducted from 1836, the remainder will be 1285, which is the present Armenian year.

It is usual with the people of Armenia to reckon the hours of the day from sunset to sunset, in imitation of the custom prevalent in ancient times amongst the Italians. The day, consisting of 24 hours, is called in Armenian ڵڿ-է Aur, which entirely corresponds in sound with the English word hour! In the Armenian language the hours of the day and night have respectively distinct names, which I shall state below.
Conjectures on the march of Alexander.

It is recorded in the ancient annals of Armenia, that ARMENAC, the son of HAIC, had twelve brothers, who were respectively called by the names of the twelve Armenian months. He had also twenty-four sisters, who received the respective names of the twenty-four hours of the day.

The Armenians of British India as well as of other parts of the globe, have adopted the use of the old Julian style and months in mercantile transactions, and in their correspondence with Europeans.

IV.—Conjectures on the march of Alexander. By M. Court, ancien élève de l'école militaire de St. Cyr.

[Communicated by Captain C. M. WADE*]
It was in this province that the traitor Bessus seized the person of Darius, whom he subsequently assassinated. History does not record the spot where the assassination took place. From the statement of Plutarch, it appears Alexander sojourned for some time in Parthia. After he left this province his march became exceedingly irregular and confused, and we find no historical elucidation of it. Some historians say that he returned to Hyrcania; Plutarch is amongst those who give us this statement; others, however, relate that he marched into Bactriana. Renneel, the geographer, is of opinion, that on leaving the western provinces of the Caspian Sea he passed through Aria and Zarangæi to make the conquest of Arachosia, and that from thence he proceeded to direct his attack upon the Bactrians. I am led to be of this opinion; and what most strongly induces me to adopt it, is the death of Philotas, which was very much anterior to the murder of Clitus; and it is well known that the former perished in Zarangæi, and the latter in Sogdiana. Alexander on leaving Parthia passed through Aria, which is watered by the modern Arius, anciently called the Heriroud, and which passed by Herat. He here built a town, which I imagine must be that called Obeh, situated ten farsangs to the east of Herat: however, this latter town was built by Alexander, according to the reports of its inhabitants; but some geographers refute their statement by giving as their opinion, that Herat is not the Aria of the ancients. Barbie du Bocage says, that Artacvana, otherwise called Aria, was the capital of the province of this name. In regard to this, I must notice that in my travels from Ispahán to Yezd, I found the town of Ardecon, in its vicinity, in the same route, the equally ancient town of Akda, and quite close to this again was another called Beni-bít. Now these three towns bear in their names the strongest resemblance to those called Aria, Artacvana, and Bitaxia, that Barbie of Bocage fixes in Aria Proper. This country, of which I have just spoken, is situated between Ardistán and the province of Yezd, and is no other than the Isatæchæ (ἰσαταχαῖ) of the Greeks, where the worship of fire and the institutions of the Magi were established. I must, moreover, notice that at the distance of two days' journey southward of the town of Tán, we enter the territory of Bucharia, and here meet with ruins, which may be attributed to the ancient Persians; but I must observe, that neither in this canton or in those of the three above-mentioned towns, is any river bearing the name of Arius to be found.

From Areia, Alexander marched into Zarangæi, now called Sigistan, but a vestige of its ancient name remains in that of the actual capital called Zarang, which is no other than the town of Prophasia, where Alexander put Philotas to death.
This town was situated at a short distance from the Etymander, now called the Hind-mind, which river empties itself into the lake Zéré, otherwise called Néthendam, known by the ancients under the name of the lake Arian. This river receives in its course that which flows from the territory of Farrah, and which is no other than the Pharmacotis of the Greeks, for there is not a doubt that Farrah was the ancient Phra, the country of the famous Rustam of Persia.

From thence he went into Arachosia, a province watered by the river Arachotus, which emptied itself into the lake Areiana, and which is the same as the Aracandab, which has its source in the canton of Navor, and which subsequently flows through the territory of Candahar, and from thence falls into the Hind-mind four farsangs below Gerishk. The town which was situated on this river, said to be built by Semiramis, ought to be found amongst the ruins of Candahar, or more probably it is the ruins of that town which are visible upon the river Arcassan, four farsangs below Candahar upon the road to Shikarpur. Two equally ancient towns are those of Eskarganj, and of Sher-sofa, the ruins of which may be seen upon the road which leads to Ghazni. As to the Alexandropolis of Arrokhajje, it undoubtedly is old Candahar. Nicrea appears to me to be Ghazni.

The Macedonian conqueror must necessarily have passed through Candahar, as the several roads branch off from this town which lead to India, through Cúbil, Ghazni and Shikarpur; and moreover all the extent of country to the south of Arachosia, is nothing but one desert of moving sands, which occupy a distance of forty farsangs, stretching over as far as the country of Neskhi and Karan, which form a part of Balúchistan.

To the north of Arachosia we find the country of the Paropamisæi, separated from Bactriana, by a high chain of mountains, to which the name of Caucasus was given by the companions of Alexander, out of compliment to this prince, who wished to traverse them. Here they found a cavern that they transformed into the cave of Prometheus. I have been assured that a similar cavern does exist in the environs of Candahar, at the spot called Khar-Jemshid-jan. The mountainous part of the country of Parapamisæi is now inhabited by Hazarés, amongst whom exist a tribe of the Bactriars, who doubtless are a descent from the intrepid Bactrians who offered such a valorous resistance to Alexander, and who repulsed him several times before they were made to surrender. I presume that this conqueror penetrated into this country, either by re-ascending the valley watered by the Aracand-ab, or by passing through the defiles of the chain of Gul-kau, near Ghazni, where we may remark some dykes built here by
Sultan Mahmud Ghaznavi. In this passage he had to penetrate through heavy falls of snow before he could reach Bactria, the capital of Bactriana, which they say must have been the same as Balkh.

This country, according to Barbis' du Bocage, extended to the south of the Oxus, a large river which stretched as far as the Paropamisus. It compromises Bactriana, properly so called, and the country of Margiana, of which I have already spoken.

Oxyartes, the father of Roxana, was king of the whole of this country.

It was at Bactria that Alexander condemned Bessus to have his nose and ears mutilated. Calisthenes was arrested at the place called Cariata. Plutarch relates, that Alexander was on the banks or confines of the Oxus when he first meditated the conquest of India.

The route which he pursued is, I imagine, the one now adopted by the caravans which pass from Balkh to Cabul, and which appears to be the only passable road through which this mountainous country can be traversed.

This road passes through the territory of Bamiana, a very ancient town, not far from which are to be found the prodigious ruins named Gulgula. Six kos further, we meet with others that are attributed to Zohak Shah; and at the place called Sigan, there are the remains of a fortress, the building of which the inhabitants attribute to Alexander. If this tradition be well founded, there is not a doubt that it must have been in this spot that Alexander built the town in the country of the Paropamisaei, and from whence he proceeded to Cophenes.

This starting point is a stumbling-stone for geographers, inasmuch as none of them have been able to determine its exact position. For, proceeding in their narration from thence, some state that he marched to Cow, which they mistake for Cophenes; and had he done so, he must have quitted the Paropamisaei, gone through the defiles of Ghazni, and have precipitated himself from thence to the cantons of Gerdiz and Lougird; then crossing the country of the Bangishe he would have proceeded to Peucelaotis by the route of Kohát. In this case Borikrajjan must be Arigœum, of which we find mention made in history. But I would observe, that along this route no such important river as the Cophenes is to be found; and then again how improbable it appears that Alexander, who had such an immense tract of land to explore, would have ordered his generals Hephæstion and Perdiccas to conduct a division through a track so distant as that through Peucelaotis. It is then more probable that he must have taken the road to Cabul, and from thence dismissed his generals, with orders to proceed in their route to Jelalabad,
Conjectures on the march of Alexander.

and he himself pursued that which led to Lagman, and which answers the historical description, being very rugged and mountainous, but still such as to allow the cavalry to penetrate through it. From thence he could give assistance to that division of his army which were detached towards Peucelaotis.

Whilst pursuing this train of supposition, I cannot help observing that the Macedonian conqueror must of necessity have passed through Câbul; for its geographical position is so brilliant, so advantageous, that it is a military position which we cannot but suppose that he noticed, and therefore traversed it.

It is then only the more unaccountable, that to this day that no geographer has been able to ascertain the ancient name of this town, the foundation of which the inhabitants attribute to Keikobad. From the fertility and luxuriance of this territory, I am led to think that it must be the same as Cabura or Ortospanum, of which Barbie' du Bocage speaks, describing it as "a town situated upon the route which led from the Alexandria of the Areians to India, and which was not very far from the Paropamisan Alexandria."

Rennel's opinion appears to be erroneous when he says, that the Cow-mul of Barber Shah is the same as the Cophenes, the principal branches of which, he adds, are rivers flowing from the Ghazni and Guerûtiz; for the river Ghazni, according to the account given by its neighbouring inhabitants, empties itself into a lake which is situated at the south of Moukkor, in the canton of Zermele. As to the branch called the Guerûtiz, it is no other than a narrow stream, and can scarcely be denominated a river. On the other hand, he adds, that the river of Cophenes was defined as the eastern boundary of the province of Paropamisus, of which Alexandria was the capital. I must observe, that from the direction the Cow takes in its course, it goes too far southward of the Paropamisus to form its eastern boundary; what he says there seems to have a more just reference to the province of Arachosis.

I am very tenacious, then, of my opinion, that the Cophenes must be the same as the river of Câbul. This river has its source in the country of the Hazarés, betwixt Bamian and Câbul; it has its fall in the mountains of Meidan, through which runs the road which leads from Câbul to Balkh; from thence it traverses Câbul, and receives below this town the river of Shéikabad, which also takes its source from the Hazarés; a little lower still it is enlarged by its junction with the Panje-shir; this takes place at the spot called Teng-carun. From thence it proceeds in its course through a mountainous part of the country, and empties itself in the western extremity of the valley.
of Lagman, where it receives the waters of the Alumkhar, which flow downwards from that territory. We follow it from thence into the valley of Jelalabad, where it is enlarged by its junction with the Surkh-âb, which rises in Péivar; and then again it receives the Khonár, which flows through Kaféristán. In leaving this deep valley it passes anew through the mountains of Dekha, and empties itself at Micheni in the province of Peshâwar; and when passing a short distance from Ashnagar, it receives below that town the Jind, which flows from the country of Baoujor, then passes by Noucharch, Akhora and Jengir, and from thence finally empties itself into the Indus; and here we lose it about half a league below the fortress of Attok*. From Cabul to Jelalabad it is known by the name of the river Câbul, in the Moumnds by that of Khameh, at Pishâwar they give it the name of Nagouman, and below that it is called Landeh, by the Kattuks and Yusufzies.

From its source to Ashnagar it abounds in rapids, which make it quite un navigable in the rainy season, and more particularly so during the heavy falls of snow, which swell it out to a prodigious breadth. I have above concluded that Alexander took the route to Lagman, after having ordered his generals to go to Pencelaotis.

The Aspiti and the Thyrreî that he attacked, appear to me to be the Buzbins and the Touris, who inhabit the mountainous part of the country which separates the valleys of Lagman and of Jelálábad from the territory of Câbul. As to the town of Arigæum, which was found beyond these mountains, it may be Alichung, a very ancient town situated in the valley of Lagman. That of Tigueri, which is here to be observed near the rivers of Meitarlam, is also of a very ancient date. The two rivers of Choe and of Evaspla, that he must have crossed in order to arrive, must in all probability be the Penj-shir and Alumkhar.

The valley of Lagman, as also that of Jelâlâbad, were formerly inhabited by an idolatrous people, who were driven after the first conquests of the Mahomedans beyond the chain of Hindâ-kou, the Emodus of the ancients. They are now known under the names Sidposh or Kaforis, and the country that they inhabit is just below that of Kaferistán.

* The latter part of its course may be traced on a map, which we have been permitted to copy from M. Court's original survey on its way to the Asiatic Society of Paris, and which, with a few extracts from his geographical notes on the country, will appear in our next number.—Ed.
These nations declare that they are descendants of the Ghoris, which name resembles greatly that of Gurei, of which notice is taken in history.

At Jelalabad ruins of a considerable extent are to be found: their origin is not, however, known. It is the same with those that may be observed three stages further off, near the defile of the Kheibers, and which are called Pishboulak. These last are situated on the northern range of the chain of Sefidkoh, and not far from thence is the village of Azarno, which one meets in the road from Jelalabad to Peshawar. In these ruins are to be found some medals exactly like those of Manikya; and from this I am led to believe that these towns must be of equal antiquity. It remains now to discover what were the names by which they were then called. The Muminds appear now to occupy the country of the Assaceni, against whom Alexander marched, after having crossed the Gureus. This river, which he crossed with great difficulty, appears to me to be the Khonar, a river the stream of which is very rapid and full of polished stones, like the Alumkhar: it flows from Kaféristan. If it be not this river, it must be that of Cábul itself, which here took the name of Gureus, from the Ghoræus which inhabited the banks, or rather the Jinde which traverses the country of Bajru.

From thence Alexander went into the country of Bajru, called by us Bijore. This town is situated 60 kos N. N. W. of Peshawar; is very ancient, and we may there find many medals like those of Manikya. It remains to be proved if it is really there that we find the Bazira of the Greeks. This mountainous country is traversed by the river Jinde, which divides it from the canton of Swúat, and which after having emptied itself into the defiles of the Tengui passes to the west of Ashnaqr, throwing itself thence into that of Cábul. If Bajor be the Bazira of the Greeks, it is in this country that we must search for the famous mountain of Aornus, the seizure of which was one of Alexander’s most brilliant exploits.

From this country Alexander passed towards the Indus, and took possession of the town and fortress of Peucelaotis, which Héphéstion and Perdiccas had been besieging for upwards of a month.

Several geographers think that this province is the same as that of Peshawar. In this case the Malamantzus, upon which Peucela was built, is no other than the river Barreth, which flows downwards from the Kheiber mountains, and which loses itself in that of Cábul. Rennel, led into error by Forster, supposes that Pakkheri, which he calls Pukkholi, was the Peucelaotis of the Greeks. This last town was found at the west of the Indus, whilst Pakkheri was at the east of
this stream, and at a considerable distance from it, and moreover in a mountainous country, where the Indus has never been able to change its course. Besides, Peucelaotis was contiguous to Bazira, a town that they suppose must have been Bajur.

From Peucelaotis Alexander returned on his steps, directing his march towards the north-west, in order to investigate Aornus. After the capture of this rock, he made a second expedition into the country of the Assaceni, between Bazira and Peucelaotis.

Ashnagar, which several geographers mistake for Massaga, the capital of the Assaceni, appears to me to be the town of Nysa. Its vicinity to Cophenes, and above all what Plutarch states that Alexander said to the Macedonians, who hesitated and seemed to fear encountering so deep a river, all corroborate my conjecture. I must, besides, observe, that three kos below this town, and on the borders of the Câbul, is the village of Nysetta, where there are some vestiges to be found. All the suburbs of Ashnagar are scattered over with vast ruins, of none of which we know the origin, and where we find some very ancient medals. The actual fortress of Ashnagar overlooks this territory.

In starting from thence to the Indus we meet no other river, with the exception of a small stream which flows from the Babûzies, and which passes between the Hottî and the Kapourdígarhi to throw itself from thence into the river Câbul, below the Nouchareh.

At six kos to the N. E. of Ashnagar is the mountain of Behhi, isolated upon a vast plain, and upon which may be remarked the ruins of a very vast town, which seems to be of most ancient date, and which, according to the reports of its present inhabitants, was the residence of the ancient kings of that country. Specimens of bas reliefs may there be found; also the remains of an aqueduct, by which thence the waters of Ashnagar were carried to the town. At eight kos to the north of Behhi we see the summit of a mountain, situated between the canton of the Babûzies and the massive ruins of a fortress, which was only accessible by a path cut through the rock.

This spot is called Pelley. At 18 kos N. E. of Ashnagar we see on the southern range of the mountain called Kohganga the vast ruins of a town, that the present inhabitants say was peopled by idolaters, and which is quite close to the existing town Bazir. At 15 kos to the east of Ashnagar is the actual town of Kapourdígarhi, which from its locality might well be the ancient Caspatyrus, the capital of the Gandarii, which is placed by our geographers to the east of Assaceni, on the western bank of the river Indus.

I have remarked, that close to this town is an inscription in characters quite similar to those we observe on the ancient Indian medals.
of Manikyala*. To the west of this town is the territory of Hotti or Hoddi, which received its name from an ancient sovereign of this country, who might have been the Omphis who surrendered himself to Alexander.

On the western bank of the Indus ruins may be observed at Pevur Toppi, Hound, and Mahamadpur. Those of Hound are all striking, and there may be found blocks of marble containing inscriptions traced in characters quite unknown to the inhabitants.

As for the ruins of Mahamadpur, situated at the junction of the Indus and the river Cäbul, they are, we are told, more than two thousand years of age. After having exhausted the above facts relative to the country of the Youzoufzies, I shall be led to form more than one conjecture on the true position of Bazira; but I have been quite perplexed by Rennel, who says that “Alexander after his arrival at the bridge made an inland excursion into the country situated on the western banks of the Indus, to visit the town of Nysa, and that he subsequently penetrated into the country situated between the two rivers of Cophenes and Indus.”

Being quite devoid of all references or means of solving my doubts, I am obliged to adopt the supposition of this judicious guide.

As to the Assaceni who inhabit the lower part of the western bank of the Indus, they are only inhabitants of Katteuk, and the town of Ora is perhaps the same as Akhora. As to that of Sabissa or Capissa, we must seek for it in the canton of Lachittiri, or in that of Kohit.

As relates to Aornus, which is situated in this country, and of which Alexander made himself master, it is probably the castle which was opposite Attok, and the vestiges of which we see upon the summit of the mountain: its foundation is attributed to Raja-Hoddi. According to some geographers, Attok is the town of Taxila; through which the army of Alexander effected the passage of the Indus. If it be not this town, we must recognize it in that of Torbila: the locality of the ruins which we there remark lead me to form this conjecture. It is possible besides, that this name may have undergone some change in its orthography. We know that the Greeks were not exact in their mode of spelling the names of the towns and countries which they invaded.

* We have written to M. Court to request, if it be possible, that facsimiles may be procured, both of the inscription near Ashnagar, and of those on the marble blocks at Hound. The Pehlevi inscription copied by M. Court from one of the Manikyala topes has excited very great interest at Paris: it would be very desirable to obtain a precise facsimile of it.—Ed.

At the first meeting of the British Association for the advancement of Science, the Committee appointed to draw up a list of desiderata in the various departments of science, included among the objects of meteorological inquiry an investigation of the theory of the wet-bulb hygrometer; and in the circular then prepared, and at the subsequent annual meetings repeated, the Meteorological Committee was pleased to compliment with its favourable notice the papers published anonymously on this subject in the Calcutta "Gleanings in Science."

The requisition of the British Association appears to have remained unanswered until the Dublin meeting in August last, when Professor Apjohn, of the Royal College of Surgeons in Dublin, brought forward the results of his own experiments, and expounded a simple and elegant formula which he had in every case found to agree with them, and to be practically applicable to the various conditions of the problem.

Dr. Apjohn’s papers are published in the Philosophical Magazine for March, October and December, 1835; and it is principally an observation in the opening of his memoir which induces me to revert to the subject. "In the first report," he says, "mention is made of a register of observations kept in the East Indies, which, as belonging to high temperatures, would necessarily exhibit great depressions, and would therefore be valuable as a standard of comparison; but I have in vain searched for the Calcutta Journal ‘Gleanings in Science,’ in which they are said to be contained."

In one respect we may deem it fortunate that the sluggish circulation of our humble periodical had not attained the shores of Ireland; if to the want of the data which "the Gleanings" might have furnished we are indebted for the series of experiments undertaken by Dr. Apjohn; for the more varied these may be, and the more numerous the observers, the more confidence may reasonably be placed in any formula that may accommodate itself to the whole.

I might without vanity claim to my own share as large a portion of the labour of experimental investigation as has rewarded the patience of any observer of the wet-bulb indications; having, with little intermission, registered daily observations since 1822; but I am more anxious to claim for my lamented fellow labourer, Captain Herbert, the merit of having treated the theoretical portion of the subject—I will not say in a more philosophical manner than had hitherto been followed, because Gay Lussac had before exercised his masterly hand upon it, but,—in a manner equally sound in principle and creditable to himself,
considering that he had not the means of referring to the original memoir of the French philosopher, and that he had only the erroneous views of the Edinburgh Encyclopaedia to guide, or rather to misguide, him.

In Captain Herbert's first paper*, he reviewed with unsparring criticism the paralogistic reasonings of the Encyclopedist, Mr. Anderson, and pointed out the true basis of the wet-bulb depression so nearly in accordance with the views of Dr. Arjohn, of Dr. Hudson his coadjutor, and of M. Gay Lussac, that it establishes the general correctness of all, although the particular formula which he proceeded to build upon it, naturally agreed best with the data that my own experiments, published also in the Gleanings of March 1829, had furnished to him. He had fortified himself for the investigation by previous study of the doctrine of the latent heat of gaseous bodies, upon which subject he had published a brief but luminous essay in the Oriental Magazine for September 1827; and certainly no subject has so much needed a sprinkling of rationality to lay the dust of unphilosophical hypothesis which even yet remains to obscure a plain question; so much so, that Dr. Hudson, one of our Dublin competitors, while he acknowledges the dependence of the problem on the relative capacity for heat of air and aqueous vapour, "will not dwell on this method nor the corrections it would require, placing no reliance on the truth of the requisite assumptions†."

But before entering into a review of the various theories that have been adopted by others, it may be preferable to describe in as succinct a manner as is consistent with clearness, the course I originally pursued to supply the experimental requisites for calculation, and upon which I ventured to form a table‡ for the reduction of wet-bulb indications to hygrometric degrees in 1828-9.§ I have recently concluded a second and even more extended series of similar experiments, with the advantage of superior means and apparatus, which have enabled me to prosecute some branches of the inquiry that I believe have not before engaged sufficient attention.

In all hygrometric speculations it is usual to consider the state of extreme moisture, or the point of aqueous saturation of the air, as

§ Before this period in 1827, I furnished a "table of multipliers" for reducing the depressions into aqueous tensions, calculated from three years meteorological observations at Benares with this instrument and the hair hygrometer. The Royal Society, who did me the unexpected honor to publish my registers, retrenched this table, and the notes which accompanied it. They had been, however, in the mean time printed in the Calcutta Oriental Magazine for March, 1827.
represented by 100°; while extreme dryness, or entire absence of aqueous vapour, is expressed by 0°. The intervening degrees comprehend every intermediate state of moisture that can possibly occur, and conveniently express the percentage of actual moisture present, or as it is more scientifically termed, the centesimal tension of the vapour.

The point of saturation on the wet-bulb instrument (100) is indicated by 0°, because evaporation, and the cold consequent on it, then ceases. The questions to be solved then are, 1st, What is the maximum depression, which corresponds to perfect dryness (0) in the assumed scale, for every temperature?—and 2nd, What is the value of each intermediate degree (Fahrenheit) of depression of the wetted thermometer in terms of the centesimal tension or 100 hygrometric degrees above alluded to?

I. There is one very easy method of attaining the first object: viz., by exposing a wet-bulb thermometer to a current of perfectly dry air of various temperatures. This was the mode pursued by Gay Lussac between the temperatures 32° and 70°, in 1827: by myself in 1829, between 70° and 140°, and recently continued up to 700° Fahrenheit: it is the plan proposed to be pursued by Dr. Hudson*, and employed in the test experiments of Professor Apjohn in 1835†. In fact, this is the only accurate plan of testing the maximum depression, which is to represent 0° on the hygrometric scale: for the exposure of a wet-bulb thermometer in still air dried to the utmost, fails to produce a maximum, the instrument being necessarily surrounded with a medium not perfectly dry. Dr. Apjohn makes the error by this method ⅜th; I have found it about ⅗th.

II. The second question, as to the value of intermediate depressions? may be ascertained by drying the air to various points, as 20, 30, 40 per cent. which can be done by exposing it to various saline liquids, or more conveniently to sulphuric acid of different strength, and then submitting the thermometer to a current of it as before. This mode was used long since by M. Gay Lussac in testing the value of the degrees of Saussure's hair hygrometer, and it was followed by myself in a repetition of the same train of experiments in 1825‡. To obtain, however, an equable current of wholly or of partially dried air for a sufficient duration of time, is by no means easy; nor do I think that air merely passed through a tube containing sulphuric acid or chloride of lime, without remaining in protracted contact with it, would be thoroughly deprived of moisture. At any rate, to ensure confidence, there should be the means at hand of record-

† Ditto, p. 271.
‡ See Brande's Journal of the Royal Institution, XXII. 28.
ing its actual state. M. Gay Lussac merely dried his air by chloride of lime, and his depressions will be seen to be all below the mark.

Professor Apjohn states, that he pressed air from a caoutchouc bag through three of Wolfe’s bottles, passing it thrice through the acid on its way to the thermometers. This must have been inconvenient and difficult to regulate, and the knowledge of the real condition of the air was withheld; although there can be little doubt that it was thoroughly dried. My own method was to dry the air previously for days or even weeks in a large gasometer, whence it could be driven in a very uniform current. The secret of the facility I enjoyed in this respect lay in the substitution of cocoanut oil for water in the reservoirs of my gasometers, which not only prevented the accession of moisture, but preserved the gas unaltered for any length of time;—I have fearlessly lighted a jet of hydrogen that had stood two years in my gasometer!

There are other modes of obtaining intermediate stages of dryness: the most obvious is by using the atmosphere itself of a dry or damp day, first ascertaining by Dalton’s dewpoint experiment its actual hygrometric state, and noting the corresponding indication of the wet bulb thermometer; the averages of a good meteorological register are of this kind. Again, when damp air is artificially heated by passage through a warm tube, the capacity of the warm air for water being increased while the dew point remains unchanged, an effect tantamount to using drier air may be obtained and exactly estimated. The rarefaction of air also, (in the absence of the means of fresh supply of water) produces a measurable diminution of the ratio of humidity per given volume. These simple methods have been used by all experimenters, particularly by Leslie himself, the original projector of the evaporation-hygrometer.

In describing, therefore, my experiments directed to the two main inquiries, it will save some circumlocution to designate the methods pursued as, 1st, dry air current; 2nd, current of air having given aqueous tension; 3rd, heated air of known tension; 4th, rarified air do; and 5th, dew-point comparisons.

But there are other important branches of inquiry necessary besides the above two, ere we can hope for a formula to satisfy all conditions of the wet-bulb problem.

III. The experimental effect of diminished and augmented atmospheric pressure?

IV. The amount of depression in other gaseous media? and

V. The effect of greater or less velocity of the air on the temperature of evaporation? This effect has been sufficiently examined by
DALTON himself, as regards the quantity of water evaporated. Theoretically, however, it has no influence on its temperature; and this is confirmed by experiment, under certain limitations.

With such an appalling complication of influences to be traced out, it is hardly to be wondered at that M. Gay Lussac himself should have given up the prosecution of the wet-bulb problem, or that the Editor of the Royal Institution Journal* should have joined in its condemnation at a time when the elegant method of DANIELL was winning general favor. Nevertheless, independently of its direct preferability as the most simple mode of registering the humidity of the air, the problem itself is of the highest importance, in the solution not only of very many phenomena in pneumatics and meteorology, but of such standard doctrinal points of theory, as the latent heat of gases and steam; and others of practical utility—as the artificial production of ice and cold. I shall have occasion to adduce a few illustrations ere I conclude; but I must now proceed to my first series of experiments.

§ 1. On the curve of maximum depression.

The apparatus used for drying the air is sectionally depicted in Plate XXI. fig. 1, where a is a dish containing concentrated sulphuric acid enclosed in a 120 pint gasometer. Another similar dish rests in the glass double bell receiver b, wherein are suspended a hair hygrometer (the only instrument applicable as a tell-tale, and indeed an invaluable hygrometer for every purpose) and a delicate thermometer. Through this receiver the air of the gasometer passes to the stopcock and short glass tube c, in which is placed a small thermometer, covered with muslin and dipped in distilled water at the moment before the experiment commences.

The only difference in the order of M. Gay Lussac's experiments, being, as I have stated above, that he employed chloride of lime without a tell-tale hygrometer, while in my first Benares series I employed the same salt with this addition, it would be easy to apply to that philosopher's results the correction I found necessary for the want of complete desiccation in my case. At all events, as his series comprehends low temperatures, which were beyond my reach in India, it will render my review of the question more complete to insert his valuable table, converting the centigrade expressions into those of Farenheit's thermometer. In the fourth column I have added the aqueous tensions† at the wet-bulb temperature; and in the fifth, the quotients of

† By Biot's formula founded on DALTON's experiments, and published in the Edinburgh Encyclopedia, Mr. ANDERSON's article Hygrometry.
the depressions divided by these tensions, which will be found to be the key to the formation of a formula for the problem.

**Tab. I.—Depressions observed by M. Gay Lussac.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temp. of dry air</th>
<th>Therm.</th>
<th>Wet-bulb Depression</th>
<th>Aq. tens. Qt. of Temp.</th>
<th>Wet-bulb Depression</th>
<th>Aq. tens. Qt. of Temp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t°</td>
<td>t'°</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>f°</td>
<td>t°</td>
<td>t'°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>25.4</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>62.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>64.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>66.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>.179</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>71.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>73.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>33.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75.2</td>
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<td>34.9</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>77</td>
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</tr>
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<td>53.6</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average ratio of depression to aq. t°, 74

It will be remarked, that with exception of the three or four last experiments, the depression follows a nearly uniform ratio to the aqueous tension, being 74 times greater. The air in the last four was doubtless not quite so dry as in the others; for in my own first series, which begins nearly where the French table leaves off, the depressions are found considerably in excess of M. Gay Lussac's results.

In the series in question the presence of the hair hygrometer enables me to make an approximate correction for imperfect dryness founded on a coincidence, which will be explained hereafter, between the curve of depressions and the curve of the hygrometer, so that nine degrees of the latter + or —, for instance, will nearly represent 9 per cent. + or — in the depression, near the dry extremity of the scale*. The barometric correction will be also explained further on.

**Tab. II.—Maximum Depressions determined at Benares.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temp. of dry air</th>
<th>Therm. depression</th>
<th>Barom. at 32°</th>
<th>Hair Hygrom.</th>
<th>Corrected depression</th>
<th>Corrected wet bulb</th>
<th>Aqueous tens. at t°</th>
<th>Quotient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t°</td>
<td>t'°</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>t°</td>
<td>f°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>29.43</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.5</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>.403</td>
</tr>
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<td>83.5</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>.402</td>
</tr>
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<td>84.7</td>
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<td>29.7</td>
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<td>9.5</td>
<td>32.3</td>
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<td>.405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>.411</td>
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<td>54.8</td>
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<td>.20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>.407</td>
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<tr>
<td>90.2</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>.15</td>
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<td>36.1</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>.429</td>
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<td>90.3</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In continuation of the foregoing, I will now give the Calcutta series, in which sulphuric acid was used in lieu of chloride of lime,

* This mode of correction was not adopted in my former paper, and the depressions were consequently too low.

3 f
and a greater dryness consequently attained; though in some cases I had not the patience to wait until the hygrometer marked 0: in fact, if it did, there was usually enough of moisture in the passages of the gasometer to cause a fall of 1 or 1½ degrees in the tell-tale hair hygrometer, ere the air reached the vent.

**Table II. 2nd pt.—Maximum Depressions determined at Calcutta.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temp. of dry air</th>
<th>Wet-bulb observed depression</th>
<th>Barom. at 32°</th>
<th>Hair at 32°</th>
<th>Corrected Barom.</th>
<th>Corrected Aqueous depression</th>
<th>Quotient of wet-bulb tens. at t’</th>
<th>Quotient of wet-bulb tens. at t’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t°</td>
<td>t°</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>29.67</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>.471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>58.4</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
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<td>.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92.0</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88.7</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>.406</td>
</tr>
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<td>87.0</td>
<td>54.8</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>53.6</td>
<td>.420</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>.381</td>
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<td>54.5</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.9</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same uniformity in the quotients of the last column will be remarked in these two tables, but the average is now 81.8, considerably higher than the Paris result.

Having thus by the ordinary atmospheric temperature of a Calcutta laboratory in May, brought up my train of observations to 96°; and finding that the depressions so much exceeded those for the same portion of the series ascertained at Benares by suspending a wet-bulb thermometer in a vessel of sulphuric acid heated successively from 90° to 140°*, I devised the following method of extending the dry-air current series to temperatures still more elevated.

In the first place, the gas-pipe of the gasometer was encased for about four feet of its length in a larger leaden pipe connected with my small steam engine, so that a current of steam could be maintained in the latter during the continuance of the experiments, as is shewn in fig. 2. Pl. XXI. The extremity of the gas-pipe terminated in a glass tube holding, first, a dry thermometer, and an inch further on, the wet-bulb thermometer, inserted through corks.

On letting on the steam, (the two thermometers being stationary at 92°,) one began to rise rapidly, while the other fell very slowly. I could not, however, succeed in getting the former to rise beyond 190°, though the steam itself was at 215°. The wet-bulb then stood at 85°.0 and it fell to 80°.4 at 180°:—80 at 170, and 79.5 at 166. The

* See Gleanings, I. 79. I purposely exclude these results in the present place, lest they should confuse the view; but they are, nevertheless, valuable in another sense, as shewing the difference, between the depression in calm air and in a current.
fluctuations of the dry thermometer being so considerable for a nearly stationary temperature of evaporation, it was somewhat difficult to determine the exact terms of coincidence; but the above are selected as the best from a great many readings recorded in my note book.

In a second experiment with air containing \( \frac{5}{100} \)ths of aq. ten. at 94°.3 (= \( \frac{1}{2} \)ths at 170°) the dry thermometer became stationary at 170°, with the wet at 87°.7.

In a third trial, aq. ten. .65 at 94.6 (= \( \frac{3}{5} \)ths at 180) the stationary points were 180, and 90.

In a fourth, dew-pt. 74.3 (aq. ten. \( \approx 4.4 \) at 190) the same points were 190 and 92.2—Bar. 29.50.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<tr>
<td>29.55</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>105.0</td>
<td>0?</td>
<td>0?</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180</td>
<td>80.4?</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170</td>
<td>80.</td>
<td>90.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.50</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td>97.8</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>( \pm 7.2? )</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180</td>
<td>90.</td>
<td>90.</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>( \pm 7.4? )</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170</td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>( \pm 7.7? )</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observing the very rapid increase of the evaporating depression with the rise of the temperature, I perceived that I might safely carry my experiment to much higher limits than the boiling point of water. I accordingly next passed the current of dry air through a porcelain tube maintained at a bright orange heat in a Black’s furnace (fig. 3, Pl. XXI.) At the further end of the tube a lateral hole was perforated to admit the bulb of the thermometer, coated with two-fold muslin that it might hold a larger supply of moisture. It was necessary to watch the experiment carefully, as, the moment the water was removed, a sudden rise took place, which would have otherwise broken the thermometer, while the cloth and cork were instantly charred with the heat. The actual temperature of the dry current was then estimated in the following manner: a thermometer, with the tip of its stem left open, was held mid-tube in the position previously occupied by the wet-bulb. In a few minutes the mercury boiled off, shewing that the temperature somewhat exceeded 656°. A very thin slip of tin was instantly fused: one of lead was then held within the tube, but it required to be passed a little in advance of the position of the wet-bulb ere it melted:—we may therefore assume the heat of the dry air to have been under 700°. Two experiments agreed precisely in giving the temperature of evaporation 145°. With a very rapid current the wet-bulb thermometer fell to 144°, but probably the air had not then time to get thoroughly heated in traversing the furnace.
There would have been little satisfaction in carrying this train of research further, because of the difficulty of measuring the temperature; otherwise it is evident that the coated thermometer might be safely trusted in a much greater heat, ere it would itself reach even the boiling point of water under the ordinary pressure; an illustration of which will be hereafter mentioned, but, not being strictly experimental, it cannot be introduced here.

Having however accumulated abundant data for the formation of an experimental curve, I may proceed to throw them together in the form of a diagram (fig. 4.), and to compare at once the results with the various formulæ that have been proposed by different philosophers.

As, however, each author has employed different algebraic characters for working out the problem, it will be better first to bring them to common terms, adopting the most simple expressions: thus let

\[ t = \text{the temperature of the air.} \]
\[ t' = \text{the temperature of a wet-bulb, or of an evaporating surface.} \]
\[ t'' = \text{the temperature of saturation, or the dew-point.} \]

then \( f, f', \) and \( f'' \) may be conveniently used to represent the force of aqueous vapour, at \( t, t', \) and \( t'' \) respectively. \( d, \) the depression, is of course \( t' - t', \) and not absolutely wanted, but it is frequently a more convenient expression; and \( D \) may be also used to distinguish the maximum depression in dry air, when \( f'' = 0. \)

Now supposing the increasing temperatures, \( t, \) to be represented by the abscissæ of the divided line TT, the observed depressions may be laid off as ordinates, through the apices of which a dotted line being drawn, will form an experimental curve of maximum depression, for which a mathematical expression is required.

Next, to collect the materials for the theoretical curves to be entered in the same diagram, we must take a cursory view of the existing theories.

Leslie, who must be regarded as the inventor of the wet-bulb hygrometer, deserves the precedence in this inquiry. His experiments were conducted by approaching a dry and a wet thermometer together gradually towards a heated furnace in a closed chamber. The Professor calculated the hygrometric conditions of the air as its heat rose; and on comparing his results, he was led to the conclusion, that as the caloric necessary to convert water into steam was \( 6000 \) degrees of his instrument, and the capacity of air was \( \frac{3}{4} \)ths of that of water, the same measure of heat would raise an equal mass of air, \( 16000 \) degrees; and consequently that at the temperature of the wet-bulb, \( t', \) air would take up the \( 16000 \)th part of its weight for each
degree marked by his hygrometer, which is equal to the 2880th part for each degree of depression by the common thermometer.

Now \( p \) (Barometric height) may be substituted for the weight of the air, and \( f' \) for the saturation weight of vapour at \( t' \): therefore by

\[
d \times 2880 = \frac{d}{30} = \frac{d}{96}
\]

or, (as \( d \) is the object sought) \( d \) (or \( D \)) = 96 \( f' \), at the pressure 30.

This simple enunciation, making \( D \) in the direct ratio of \( f' \), is unduly criticized by M. Anderson in his elaborate treatise on hygrometry in Brewster's Encyclopedia; but while in reality it will be found closely to agree with the experimental data, and with the subsequent formulæ of others, the new expression deduced from "the laborious investigations" of the critic, turns out to be wholly at variance with experiment, except accidentally at the temperature of the single trial he has himself recorded: his formula (omitting the correction for the barometer)

\[
D = (36 - \frac{D}{10}) (f' - f'')
\]

which, when \( f'' = 0 \), is convertible into

\[
D = f' \times 36 - \frac{D}{10}
\]

making the depression depend on the tension at \( t \), instead of at \( t' \).

M. Gay Lussac's memoir should, I fancy, precede Mr. Anderson's. It was written in 1815, though not published until 1822. The rationale of his formula is explained in these words:—

"Le froid produit (par l'évaporation) est à son maximum lorsque le calorique absorbé par la vapeur est égal à celui que perd l'air pour se mettre en équilibre de temperature et de pression avec elle, plus à celui versé sur la surface évaporante par les corps environnants; mais la quantité de ce dernier, lorsque le froid produit n'est que de quelques degrés, est très petite en comparaison de l'autre, et peut être négligée." If, therefore, on one side the latent heat of vapour \((l)\) and its density \((\overline{s})\) be combined with its weight \((f')\); these should counterbalance the weight of air \((p - f')\) combined with its capacity \((c)\) and the number of degrees cooled \((D\) or \(t - t')\); that is, \(f' \overline{s} l = (p - f') (t - t') c\)

or, at 30 inches, \(f' \times 625 \times 960 = 30 - f' \times d \times 2669\) and

\[
D = \frac{2247 f'}{30 - f'}
\]

depending as before on \( f' \). With dry air, the divisor in this equation should, I imagine, lose \(-f'\) altogether, which would elicit the value of \( d, = 74.9 f'\); a value lower than Leslie's, but almost exactly agreeing with M. Gay Lussac's own experiments detailed in Table I.

Captain Herbert's formula was founded on the proposition that "when the equilibrium or stationary point of the wet-bulb is attained,
the indefinitely small decrements of caloric from evaporation are balanced by the indefinitely small increments arising from conduction and radiation in the equally small moments of time." Now as Messrs. Dulong and Petit have shewn that the rate at which a body cooled below the temperature of the air (by conduction and radiation) reacquires heat, is proportional not to the simple difference of temperature, but to that difference raised to the 1.233 power; hence it should follow that the amount of evaporation should increase in the same ratio; "but," says he (page 191), "how determine the rate of evaporation? One of the most striking phenomena of evaporation is the cold produced by it; the consequence of the absorption of heat attending the conversion of water into vapour. This depression of temperature must evidently be as the evaporation; or rather the momentary depression will be in proportion to the rapidity of the evaporation. The momentary depression is equal to the momentary increment of heat which would take place were the cooling power of evaporation suspended, and the moistened bulb thermometer allowed to assume the temperature of the air. "This is known to be as the 1.233 power of the total depression: the evaporation will then be as the 1.233 of the depression." But the evaporation is (according to Dalton), as the tension of the evaporating surface minus the tension of the vapour in the air (= 0 in dry air:) then finally this tension will be as the 1.233 power of the depression: or

\[ d m = \frac{1.233}{\sqrt{f - f'}} \]

\( m \) being a co-efficient depending on the latent heat of air and the ratio of the evaporation to the weight and surface necessary to produce a fall of one degree; which Captain Herbert deduced from the experiments made at Benares. The complete formula, at 30 inches, for dry air becoming

\[ D = \frac{1.233}{\sqrt{6.056}} \]

in which \( L \) (proportion of mass of water to the vapour required to be evaporated to produce a fall of 1°) is derived from a table published in the Oriental Magazine, September 1827; it varies from 898 at 40° to 1005 at 90° and 1250 at 1800. The divisor 6.056 would require to be diminished to 5.4 to suit the present experiments, but neither would the formula then agree so well as the more simple one of Leslie and others. The fact is that the experimental curve is of so simple a nature, that any geometric series of moderate divergence may within limits be accommodated to it by proper co-efficients: thus my
own formula was merely an empiric one formed to represent the experimental data of Benares and those of Gay Lussac in the most ready manner, expressing the depressions in terms of the temperature of the air: the former increasing geometrically with arithmetical increments of the latter, I found \[ d' = \frac{t'^{1.275}}{8.97}; \] but this does not correspond at all with the higher depressions now ascertained experimentally, though it suits those of the former series. We may, therefore, reject it without further regard; nor need we pause to consider Berzelius' more simple rule, founded, he says, on the experiments of August, Bonenberger and others, viz. that the temperature of the wet-bulb is always an arithmetical mean between that of the air and the dew point, or \[ t'' = 2t' - t, \] which, except at certain points of the scale, is utterly erroneous.

We now come to Professor Apjohn's formula, which will be found not to differ essentially from those of Leslie or Gay Lussac. It is \[ f'' = f' - m d \] (at 30 inches pressure) where \( m \) is a co-efficient as usual "depending upon the specific heat of air, and the calorie of elasticity of its included vapour," of which the arithmetical value deduced from received data is \( 0.01149 \) or the equivalent vulgar fraction \( \frac{1}{87} \) at \( 50^\circ \) Farh. Now in the case of extreme dryness assumed for our comparison, \( f'' = 0 \); therefore \( d = 87 f' \); an expression entirely agreeing in form with Leslie's, but rather smaller in amount, and more nearly, as will be seen, in accordance with the experiments of Tables II and III.

Dr. Hudson arrives, from different premises, at nearly the same method as Professor Apjohn*. He calculates a column of the "relative quantities of heat (Q) necessary to supply vapour of saturation to dry air at each degree of wet-bulb temperature, \( t' \), and then finding from experiment at one point (\( t' = 61^\circ \)) the actual depression (51.124 Apjohn), the depressions at other degrees he assumes to be direct proportionals, or Q (at \( 61^\circ \)) : Q' :: 51.124 \( \cdot D. \)

Now it is evident that in this equation, as in most of the preceding, Q (whence D is directly derived) necessarily depends on the aqueous tension, \( f' \), affected by the indispensable co-efficient of the latent heat of water, vapour and air, or as Dr. Hudson deduces from Despretz's values, \[ Q = \frac{1168 - t \times 22 f'}{448 + t}. \]


† If the theory which makes the sum of the latent and thermometric heat for gaseous bodies a constant quantity be correct, Dr. Hudson's expression does
ordinary temperatures, $Q$ on an average will be found $= 50 f$
and $D$ is assumed from Apjohn's experiments $= \frac{51.124 Q}{25.9} = 1.9 Q$;
so that by this formula (at 30 inches,) $D = 98 f$, nearly; being a
little in excess of Leslie's original formula. This is attributable to
Apjohn's single experimental depression assumed as the basis of the
whole calculus being somewhat too great.

It cannot be said after the preceding list, that the wet-bulb theory
has been neglected. On the contrary, it may be rather feared that
the researches of its earliest investigators, particularly those of Leslie
and Gay Lussac, have been neglected; for it is certain that their
formulae are nearly as well adapted to the actual phenomena as any
that have been since suggested. This cannot be more strikingly
exemplified than in the accompanying diagram, (Pl. XXI.) which
has been filled up from the preceding data. The abscissæ represent
the temperatures ($t$), and the ordinates the maximum depressions in
dry air ($D$). The experimental determinations are shewn by dots*, and
the principal theoretical curves delineated, are distinguished by the
name of their authors.

The following table also embraces a comparative view for every
degree of temperature, the experimental entries being adapted
by interpolation from the observations before set forth.

not seem open to objection. The volumes of air at different temperature
being as $448 + t$ directly: the densities are as $448 + t$ inversely; and for
any other pressure $\frac{f}{30}$ the density of air at $t$ will be $\frac{660f}{448 + t \times 30}$
$= \frac{22f}{448 + t}$. Further, allowing the atomic theory of volumes, the density
of vapour at $t$ will be $\frac{.625 \times 22f}{448 + t}$. Compounding this expression with that
of the latent heat of vapour at $t$ which is $1168 - t$ (being 956 at 212°); we have
as above the quantity of heat necessary for the vapour of saturation at $t = 1168 - t \times 22f'
\frac{448 + t}{448 + t}$. The author has steered clear of what he considers the
disputed points, of the capacity of air and vapour for heat: but it may be reasonably doubted whether the assumption of the equality of $t + t$ be a whit more
tenable.

* In the portion of the curve marked "Prinsep's experiments," both the un-
corrected and the corrected observations are entered; the latter, distinguished
by a dotted line passing through them, are alone to be attended to. The cor-
rected places of the sulphuric acid experiments have been omitted, because they
are necessarily doubtful. The flexure of Gay Lussac's curve seems to be the
most suitable to experiment, were its ordinates a little increased.
Depressions of Wet-bulb Thermometer in dry air.
Tab. III.—Comparison of various formulae for the depression of the wet-bulb thermometer in a current of dry air, with the results of experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>t′</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>9.2 G</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>12.7 G</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>16.1 G</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>17.0 A</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>19.9 G</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>23.7 G</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>25.7 P</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>30.6 P</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>38.4</td>
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<td>110</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>35.5 P</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>44.0</td>
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<td>120</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>41.2 S</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>47.8 S</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>54.1 S</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>60.9 S</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>67.8 S</td>
<td>77.4</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>75.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>170</td>
<td>105.5</td>
<td>74.8 C</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180</td>
<td>111.5</td>
<td>81.3 H</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>79.8</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>190</td>
<td>117.5</td>
<td>87.0 P</td>
<td>96.4</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>97.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>123.5</td>
<td>105.0 P</td>
<td>109.5</td>
<td>109.6</td>
<td>96.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>112.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>210</td>
<td>129.5</td>
<td>105.0 P</td>
<td></td>
<td>112.0</td>
<td>102.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220</td>
<td>135.0</td>
<td>105.0 P</td>
<td></td>
<td>120.0</td>
<td>118.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[The letters in column 4 denote, G. Gay Lussac; A. Apjohn; P. Prinsep; S. experiments tried at Benares, by suspending the wet-bulb thermometer in a half filled bottle of sulphuric acid; these have been augmented 10 per cent. on insertion:—C. and H. Carbonic acid and Hydrogen gas heated in the steam pipe.]

The last line may be looked upon, in some measure, as the test line of the various formulæ: for, the hot current of air from the furnace, we have seen, barely melted lead and boiled mercury; its temperature, therefore, could not much exceed 660 Farh. Let us see what it would be according to the principal formulæ depending upon the aqueous tension at $t'$, which, when $t' = 145°$ is 6.53 inches by Dalton.

Leslie’s formula gives $6.53 \times 96 + 145 = 772^v$

Gay Lussac’s (retaining $f'$) $6.53 \times 95.7 + 145 = 770$

(omitting $f'$ in divisor) $6.53 \times 782 + 145 = 655$

Hudson’s formula gives $487 + 145 = 632$

Apjohn’s, $6.53 \times 87 + 145 = 702$

Formula deduced from my expts. $6.53 \times 84 + 145 = 697$

Anderson’s, Herbert’s, and my former formulæ are too much at variance at this high point to be worthy of quotation. The rest

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agree remarkably well, and it does not materially signify, nor is it perhaps possible to certify which multiplier is to be preferred. Professor Apjohn's has the merit of coinciding precisely at the temperature of 190° with my steam experiment; but for the range of lower and more practical temperatures it is perhaps slightly in excess. The simpler expression of "one-eightieth of the depression = the aqueous tension at t" would there be nearer the mark; and would be easier of application. From my own experiments I deduced a mean of $D = 84 f'$ with which I constructed the table at the conclusion of this paper, but I must in fairness acknowledge that its preference to Professor Apjohn's rule is nearly evanescent in practice.

§ 2.—Value of depressions less than the maximum, in centesimal hygrometric tension.

We are now arrived at the second subject of inquiry, which is in fact of more practical importance than the first, since it includes every observation that can be made in an atmosphere never reduced to a state of absolute siccity.

The simplest condition of the case of intermediate depressions would be that assumed by Dr. Hudson, viz., that the maximum depression being divided into 100 parts, each part should indicate one hundredth of the moisture of saturation at the given temperature, or $D: d : : f' : f''$.

But such a law is not found to prevail in reality: nor is it analogous to the course of nature that it should exist in the case of the wet-bulb thermometer, when the hair-hygrometer and the law of evaporation require different ratios. It is more consonant with theory*, as it proves to be with practice, that the tendency to evaporation, and the cold consequent upon it, should increase in a geometrical ratio to the dryness of the air.

* The depressions will, ceteris paribus, be less, the more aqueous vapour is previously contained in the air, because the specific heat of a given volume of vapour being .529 (or .847×.625) while that of air is .267, the specific heat of any mixture of the two must exceed that of air alone. But the curvature imparted to the line of depressions from this cause may easily be shewn to be trifling. Thus at the temperature of 80° where $f' = 1.00$ inch; the capacity of dry air being $c$, that of moistened air will be $c \times p - f'' + c' \times f''$; whence, calling $c=1$, for saturated air we should have the specific heat 1.053; and for half-saturated air, 1.031; and the depressional degrees at those points will be inversely so much less than those at the dry extremity of the curve. Were the other agents easily evaluated, we might through this means verify the specific heat of aqueous vapour.
Dekydessions of Wet-bulb Therm observed.
Before proceeding to detail the experiments directed to the elucidation of this point, it may be as well, as we have already become acquainted with the theoretical expressions of other authors for the maximum, to see how they also bear upon the intermediate depressions.

The formula of M. Gay Lussac makes no provision for aught but the maximum depression; but the omission may be readily supplied on the same simple principle as has been adopted by Professor Apjohn; namely, by the addition of \(-f''\), the aqueous tension at the dew-point, to \(f'\): thus, by the latter author, in all cases \(d = 87 f' - f''\).

At first sight, this would seem a simple arithmetical ratio, like Dr. Hudson's, but inasmuch as the tensions \(f'\) are themselves in geometrical ratio to the temperature \(t\), the same parabolic curvature will extend to the centesimal depressions; or \(f' - f''\) will follow some low power of \(t - t'\).

Captain Herbert's rule has the same happy introduction of \(f''\). We have therefore but two theoretical enunciations to put to the test of comparison with experiment: for which purpose I will now bring forward such evidence as I have accumulated. In this branch of inquiry materials are so numerous in my registers kept at Benares and Calcutta, that it becomes expedient to gather selected data into groups adapted to elucidate various points of the hygrometric scale. Moreover, as unity, or the maximum depression, varies in amount at each temperature, all observations must be brought to common centesimal terms before they can be compared in the manner which is best adapted to give a quick perception of the relation of such phenomena; namely, by a diagram, as in Pl. XXII. First, then, to enumerate the data afforded by method 5, or comparison with the dew-point, of which, in addition to my Benares observations, I have profited by the presence of an American ice-house on the banks of the Húghlí to collect an accurate series made thrice per diem in the hottest period of our Calcutta year.

Tab. IV.—Comparison of intermediate Depressions with aqueous tensions, ascertained by the dew-point method, at Benares.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of observations agreeing closely in their respective particulars</th>
<th>Temp. of air</th>
<th>Wet-bulb Dew-point</th>
<th>Centesimal tension</th>
<th>Depression Complement cent. Tabular centesimal tension deduced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(t)</td>
<td>(t')</td>
<td>(t'')</td>
<td>(f'' - f')</td>
<td>(t - t')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Obs. mean,</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Obs. ditto,</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Obs. ditto,</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Obs. ditto,</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Obs. ditto,</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>64.5</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Obs. ditto,</td>
<td>88.2</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Obs. ditto,</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 a 2
Experimental Researches on the Depressions

Second series, from observations in Calcutta.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>t'</th>
<th>f^2 - f</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>D-d</th>
<th>Tab. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Obs. open air, 82.1</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>78.1</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 84.6</td>
<td>79.9</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 85.6</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 87.7</td>
<td>80.2</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 96.0</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 93.8</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 87.3</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 97.1</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, 97.3</td>
<td>73.6</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Steam pipe, 19.0</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>97.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Vacuum-pipe 92.8</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>12.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Third series, extracted from other observations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>t'</th>
<th>f^2 - f</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>D-d</th>
<th>Tab. Err.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Obs. by Herbert on river Ganges, 91.4</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>78.1</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Obs. by Applejohn, 70.0</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Obs. ditto, (heated air) 93.2</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the following series the air was dried to two fixed points of hygrometric tension by means of sulphuric acid, of which the drying power was known beforehand by the table which I published, from careful experiment, in my note on the hair hygrometer before alluded to; but I preferred verifying those determinations by fresh measurement of its barometric tension, in the mode I had adopted to correct the tables of aqueous tension during the past year; namely, by moistening a barometer tube with the acid solution, and mounting it in the ordinary manner. The daily readings registered in my monthly tables for May-June afforded a more accurate average than a cursory trial could have yielded; but the result was in perfect accordance with my former determination.

Fourth series—current of air partially dried.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of observations</th>
<th>Temp. in similar circumstances of air</th>
<th>Wet-bulb</th>
<th>Known cent. Hygrom.</th>
<th>Hair tension</th>
<th>Depres.</th>
<th>Complement cent. deph.</th>
<th>Tabular cent. tension</th>
<th>Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 Obs. with gasometer current, Sulph. acid, 1.344</td>
<td>90.2</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Obs. ditto, 87.2</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Obs. ditto, 90.3</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Obs. ditto, 96.4</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Obs. ditto, 94.0</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>-03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Obs. sulph. acid, 1.48</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>+02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Obs. ditto, 87.7</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Obs. shorter tube, 84.4</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Obs. brass tube, 87.8</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* It will be seen by the Meteorological Register for May 1836, that pure sulphuric acid caused the barometric column to be higher even than a boiled tube. This must be attributed to capillarity, which is negative with mercury, but acts in an opposite sense with acid or water. No allowance is made for capillarity in my registers.
On inspection of the columns of complementry centesimal depression and centesimal tension in all the foregoing tables, the constant excess of the former is their first predominate feature; whence the certain conclusion that the ratio is not direct. But to arrive quicker at a conclusion of what it may be, let us view the position of the whole series in diagram 6, Pl. XXII. Here the base line designates the hygrometric tensions \( f'' \div f \) and the ordinates denote the corresponding centesimal depressions \( D - d \div D \). If amid such a straggling and scattered nebula it be allowable to trace a normal line, the curve \( D \, d \) will have a preference over any other. Pursuing its dubious course, it passes through the two principal test groups, upon which more dependence ought to be placed than upon isolated comparisons with the dew-point in still air. Now this line \( D \, d \) nearly coincides with the curve I suggested in 1829, from my Benares experiments, making \( H \) (or \( f'' - f \)) follow the ratio of \( D - d^{1.5} \); or, calling \( D = 100 \), \( H = \frac{D-d^{1.5}}{100} \); in other words, the centesimal tension is as the difference of the actual and the maximum depression raised to the 1.5th power; a form obviously very convenient to be worked by logarithms. This formula has been used for constructing my general table; and its errors may be judged of by the last two columns of the preceding experiments: but it need by no means supersede the elegant formula \( d = 87 \, f'' - f'' \) when the table is not at hand. The curve corresponding to the latter formula at 90° is also entered in fig. 6. At lower temperature it will have less flexure.

On the same diagram I have traced the curve of the hair-hygrometer indications, both according to Gay Lussac's data and those of my original plate in Brande's Journal, on purpose to shew that the depression curve passes between the two near the summit:—it was hence I derived the rule for correction of the rough maximum depressions, (Table I. II.) by taking it in the direct ratio of the hair-hygrometer indications: and the near accordance of the maxima so deduced, with the observed maxima in dry air, is an additional testimony in favor of the assumed parabolic curve.

It seems an unmerciful increase of the tax upon my reader's patience to extend this train of comparison further: yet it would be hardly fair to omit any thing that can tend to elucidate the subject or assist future investigation: I will not, therefore, forego, through a false and unphilosophical delicacy, the insertion of an abstract I had prepared for my own satisfaction, of three years' comparative deductions from the wet-bulb and hair-hygrometer. It detracts somewhat from its value, that a constant index error of 4 degrees has to be substracted from the readings of the hair-hygrometer during the period in ques-
The actual tension of vapour in inches, found by multiplying DALTON’s maximum tension of vapour at t by the percentage here given, is,

The actual tension of vapour in inches, found by multiplying DALTON’s maximum tension of vapour at t by the percentage here given, is,
at 81°. 2 = 1.040 \times .71 = .738; at 83°.8 = 1.128 \times .63 = .711 (or .716 at 81°.2) being at the two periods of the day, on an average, very nearly equal; though, relatively, the air is much drier in the afternoon.

A similar comparison to that afforded by the above table would have been published with my journals for 1825-6 in the Philosophical Transactions for 1827, had the registers been allowed to stand as they were; but the columns of aqueous tension were struck out, although from the elaborate care I had taken in valuing the degrees of my hair hygrometer they were entitled to some reliance. It is, however, not worth while to republish them, as the wet-bulb instrument was then situated outside and the hair hygrometer inside the house*, and the two columns are not strictly comparable. One little table, however, deduced from four years' daily experiments at Benares, which was also suppressed at home, I think likely to prove useful, while it bears directly on the wet-bulb theory, and exemplifies the truth of the assumption of its immediate dependence on \( f' \). This table shews the actual evaporation in depth per month, as measured by a small evaporameter suspended in the open air, for the opposite extremes of the year. The instrument is described in the fifteenth volume of the *Asiatic Researches*. I have collected on the left hand the observed quantities, and have now inserted on the right the theoretical numbers which should express the ratio of evaporation. The results are even more satisfactory than could have been anticipated; and lead to the following very simple rule to find the amount of evaporation roughly in inches per diem. "Multiply the aqueous tension at the wet-bulb temperature by the observed depression in degrees, and divide by 34." Omitting the latter operation, the product will express in round terms the evaporation per month in the open air, or in a moderate breeze.

| Tab. VI. — Rate of Evaporation and simultaneous depression observed at Benares. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Months | Year | Temp. of air | Wet-bulb. | Depression, observed evaporation per month | Ditto per diem |
| April and May | 1823 | 88.0 | 68.9 | 19.1 | 13.9 |
| | 1824 | 93.1 | 71.8 | 21.3 | 11.9 |
| | 1825 | 92.3 | 74.2 | 18.1 | 14.7 |
| | 1826 | 90.4 | 69.8 | 20.7 | 15.1 |
| Means | 91.2 | 70.9 | 20.3 | 13.9 | 0.463 | 0.748 | 15.18 | 0.447 |
| March | 1823 | 79.8 | 62.0 | 17.8 | 8.7 |
| | 1824 | 81.4 | 66.5 | 13.8 | 6.7 |
| | 1825 | 75.1 | 64.7 | 11.4 | 4.0 |
| | 1826 | 80.8 | 63.4 | 16.4 | 9.8 |
| Means | 79.4 | 64.1 | 15.3 | 7.3 | 0.243 | 0.599 | 8.16 | 0.240 |

* The Calcutta Oriental Magazine, 1827, contains the whole paper.
Experimental Researches on the Depressions

July and August,

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
1823 & 80.5 & 78.2 \\
1824 & 85.6 & 82.1 \\
1825 & 86.9 & 81.3 \\
1826 & 84.4 & 80.8 \\
\end{array}
\]

Mean: 84.4

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
1823 & 2.3 & 2.3 \\
1824 & 3.5 & 2.6 \\
1825 & 4.6 & 4.4 \\
1826 & 3.6 & 3.6 \\
\end{array}
\]

Mean: 3.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>July</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Depression of wet-bulb by Daniell</th>
<th>Depression of wet-bulb by Anderson</th>
<th>Increment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1823</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1824</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>+3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1825</td>
<td>86.9</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>+3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>+3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Means: 84.4, 80.6, 3.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>December and January,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1823 &amp; 60.1 &amp; 55.7 &amp; 4.4 &amp; 2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1824 &amp; 61.8 &amp; 56.6 &amp; 5.2 &amp; 4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1825 &amp; 63.5 &amp; 58.3 &amp; 5.2 &amp; 5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826 &amp; 63.8 &amp; 54.9 &amp; 8.9 &amp; 3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: 62.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The whole twelve months,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1823 &amp; 76.4 &amp; 68.1 &amp; 8.3 &amp; 65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1824 &amp; 80.0 &amp; 71.2 &amp; 8.8 &amp; 60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1825 &amp; 80.0 &amp; 71.1 &amp; 8.9 &amp; 67.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean: 78.9

I have, as yet, had no opportunity of applying the principle ascertained from this table, to the circumstances of other places.

§ 3.—Influence of the Barometer on the Wet-bulb depression.

All philosophers agree in rating the influence of atmospheric pressure on depression as inversely proportional to the height of the barometer; so that when the depression under a pressure of 30 inches is known, it may immediately be found for any other pressure by multiplying \(d \times \frac{30}{p}\), \(p\) being the observed height of the barometer.

That the evaporation increases with diminution of pressure nearly in the above ratio, has been proved by various experiments; and it might confidently be anticipated, from the necessary connection between the evaporation and the refrigeration, (as exemplified in the concluding table of my last section,) that the same law would prevail in the depressions: but the only two experiments directed to this point that I am acquainted with, lead to an opposite conclusion. These were cited in my former paper; but as they are not accessible to many readers, I will here repeat them. Mr. Daniell's experiment will be found in Jour. Roy. Inst. XVII., and Mr. Anderson's in Brewster's Cyclopaedia, Art. Hygrometry.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barometric pressure</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Evaporation in grains by Daniell</th>
<th>Depression of wet-bulb by Daniell</th>
<th>Increment</th>
<th>Deposition of wet-bulb by Anderson</th>
<th>Increment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>15.92</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.9</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>29.33</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.5</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>50.74</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>+1.5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>+1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The tables now published by the astronomer at Madras will afford good data; but his mode of measurement must be first known, as his evaporation seems double of my own.
Now in these instances the evaporation certainly followed the inverse pressure law; but the depression was made to receive only a constant arithmetical increment for each geometrical decrement of the pressure; in accordance with which I assumed that the proper correction for variation of pressure should be \( d \sqrt{\frac{30}{p}} \) rather than \( d \frac{30}{p} \); and even this would require a different co-efficient to make it suit the two cases quoted above. Under such an uncertainty as to the real amount of this important correction, I was induced to direct a fresh series of experiments to this particular object; and as my results differ greatly from what has preceded, it is incumbent on me to describe my process a little in detail.

I first prescribed to myself the necessity of working with a current of air as similar as might be to that of the maximum series, as without such a precaution it would be impossible to ensure the permanent hygrometric status of the air in contact with the wet-bulb. The bell glass of an air-pump, under which I imagine the experiments of Daniel and Anderson to have been conducted, could not possibly fulfil this indispensable condition, since a partial halo of moisture would encircle the bulb of their thermometer;—nor do they appear to have used a hair hygrometer to inform them how far this might be the case. Mr. Daniel it is true had a dew-point instrument fitted into the side of the glass receiver, but for slight aqueous tension this instrument becomes wholly useless. The extent to which his air was dried can be calculated pretty well from his own datum that the depression at 50° was nine degrees, which by my table would indicate centesimal tension '30: or by Apjohn's formula \( \frac{263 - (9 \div 87)}{357} = .42 \) in the latter case requiring a cold of 8 degrees, and in the former of 16, below the freezing point to produce deposition.

But to return to my own experiments:—

In place of the short open glass tube connected with the gasometer and glass balloon in which the wet-bulb was before exposed to the current of air, (fig. 1,) a thin horizontal brass tube (fig. 7) was substituted, having two lateral apertures for the admission through corks, air-tight, of the dry and wet thermometer bulbs \((t, t')\). From the same brass tube descended a glass barometer tube \((p)\) into a reservoir of mercury, similar to the gage of an air-pump, for marking the actual pressure close to the thermometers. The other end of the tube was conducted by a flexible pipe \(F\) to the receiver of an air-pump, where a continual vacuum could be kept up by pumping without intermission during the course of an experiment.
and by manœuvring the stopcocks \((k, k')\) at the two ends of the brass tube, the pressure could be maintained at any point, and the draft of air regulated until the temperature of the wet-bulb had been satisfactorily ascertained.

Finding that the labour of working the pump was rather irksome in a climate of 95°, I afterwards availed myself of the vacuum engine of the coining-press room in the Mint to relieve me from this duty. In the pipe leading from the twelve recoil-pumps of the presses a vacuum of about (or rather 30—27) inches is constantly maintained by the steam engine, so that by adapting the tube \(F\) to this with a stopcock, I was enabled to regulate the pressure, and prolong each interval with the utmost ease and comfort.

It will be seen from the table of experiments below, that by employing a current of dry air the freezing point was readily attained under a pressure of \(7\frac{1}{2}\) inches, while the dry thermometer, only one inch from it, marked 92°: whereas all who have tried Leslie's process for freezing have found it exceedingly difficult in the hot weather of this country to produce ice with a vacuum nearly perfect. The reason has been already explained: in the latter case the partially moist atmosphere arrests the progress of refrigeration; whereas in the latter, the vapour rising from the evaporating surface is continually removed;—it is, in fact, like sitting under a punkah or without it, an illustration that requires no comment to an Indian reader! Of such influence is the motion of the air in the experiment, that, as will be seen presently, a cold much below the freezing point may be attained under a pressure of \(4\frac{1}{2}\) inches, with common air at 92° containing six-tenths of its vapour of saturation (dew-point = 75°) and without the aid of sulphuric acid, or any other artificial means of previously drying it! This unexpected result opens a wide field for speculation as to the possibility of modifying the apparatus of Leslie for the artificial production of ice; and I hope, when leisure permits, to resume the thread of this collateral and highly interesting discovery. The nature of the problem teaches us à priori, that if a temperature of 20° can be attained under a pressure of \(4\frac{1}{2}\) inches, the cold at two inches ought to be many degrees below zero of Fahrenheit's scale!

Out of four experiments made with the air-pump, and eight with the Mint vacuum engine, it will be sufficient, after quoting the numerical results of the whole, and referring to the accompanying diagram (Pl. XXII. fig. 10.) for a comprehensive view of their general bearing, to select two or three of the most regular examples for analytical discussion.
TAB. VII.—Depressions under diminished pressure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temp. of air</th>
<th>20.</th>
<th>22.5</th>
<th>15.</th>
<th>7.5</th>
<th>6.0</th>
<th>5.5</th>
<th>5.0 in.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temp. of wet-bulb, under a pressure of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyg.</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last experiment is evidently affected with some accidental error, since the depression is less at 22.5 inches than at 30. I imagine the external air was admitted through an unobserved leakage of the tube, or a drop of water may have fallen in the tube, and thus moistened the air before it reached the wet-bulb.

I now detached the gasometer and balloon, and admitted the air of the room directly into the tube at stopcock $k$ (fig. 8) keeping up a prolonged current at intervals of every two inches of pressure from 30.0 upwards to 5 inches, and then descending in the same manner: taking care to wet the thermometer from time to time as its water evaporated. In ascending the scale I regulated the pressures in the barometer-gage principally by manœuvring the stopcock ($k'$) next to the vacuum pipe, the orifice at $k$ remaining constant: whereas in descending, I allowed $k'$ to remain untouched while I brought the gage to the desired point by gradually opening the outer stopcock $k$.

The effect of this will be understood on viewing the apparatus: the current of air was considerably stronger in the last case than in the first, and in consequence the depressions are somewhat greater. To this it must be added, that in the ascending scale the depressions will tend to lag below their full amount, while in descending they will err in an opposite sense; all of which is well exhibited in dotted curves numbered 10, 11 of diagram 10. The mean of the two series (marked by a plain line on the diagram) may be assumed as a good foundation for the analysis we have proposed.

Experiments 10 and 11, on depressions under diminished pressure.
Temperature of the room 92°.2; dew-point 74°.8 = centesimal tension .58
Hair-hygrometer, 79 = ditto .57
At the first glance towards the final columns of this table, one might at first be led to exclaim, upon the wonderful accordance between theory and fact! The ascending series, especially, agrees exactly with the calculation in several points, and does not diverge materially until the pressure falls to six inches, far beyond the reach of any likely contingency within our observance.

But all this seemingly agreeable coincidence is, in a measure, delusory. The effect is compounded of two different influences—1, the rarefaction; and 2, the diminution of humidity which is consequent thereon. We know from our second section of experiments how to appreciate this latter disturbing cause, and so isolate the reduction of temperature due to the diminished pressure alone; but the prior experiments give us an opportunity of estimating it in a more direct manner. Thus, taking experiment 7, we have the following data: the temperature being 91° Fahrenheit. The fourth column contains the hypothetical depressions on the supposition of the inverse-pressure ratio.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barometrical pressure inches.</th>
<th>Depression in dry air.</th>
<th>Increment observed.</th>
<th>Theoretical depression.</th>
<th>Increment calculated co-efficient.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>D−d</td>
<td>d × 30</td>
<td>d+30−d</td>
<td>Δ ÷ δ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>+2.9</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>+10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>+9.6</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>+32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>+28.3</td>
<td>130.8</td>
<td>+98.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>+30.1</td>
<td>165.5</td>
<td>+132.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>+39.4</td>
<td>176.5</td>
<td>+143.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>+40.1</td>
<td>179.8</td>
<td>+147.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rate of increment observed, it will be remarked, here invariably falls short of the calculated rate in the fifth column, but it bears always the same proportion to it, about one-third; as shewn in the sixth column: therefore in this example the law of the inverse pressures holds good relatively, but it requires a co-efficient to reduce the absolute amount. Thus, the maximum depression in dry air at any
pressure will, by the experiment, be equal to \( d + 0.27 \left( \frac{d - 30}{p} \right) \) instead of \( d + \left( \frac{d - 30}{p} \right) \) (or simply \( d - \frac{p}{30} \)). I will not seek to enquire the cause of this deviation from theory; or whether it be peculiar to the form of apparatus I employed; or whether the effect will be constant under all circumstances.—I will merely suggest that the supply of heat from extraneous sources—the brass tube (only half inch diam.) radiation, &c. could not fail to reduce the cooling effect of the mere current of air; and here we have the measure of their united disturbing power, which it is satisfactory to find constant throughout.

Let us now see whether the same constancy can be traced in the more elaborate experiment with common air (10-11.) The first thing necessary is to calculate the percentage of moisture for each step. Now, as under 30 inches the centesimal tension was found to be '58 by the dew-point, and as no source of fresh supply was at hand, the tension at any other pressure should be directly as the pressure, or inversely as the volume; since it is evident that a double space, for instance, will require twice as much aqueous vapour to bring it to a given state of humidity; the aqueous tension, therefore, will be \( '58 \times \frac{p}{30} \) for this series of experiments. Again, from our table of depressions, (from the diagram or from the formula) can be obtained, with the reading at these variable states of humidity, the depression either in dry air or in air of the initial tension '58. I have, in fact, given both in the following table, and have set in the three last columns the calculated depressions by the expression just found of \( d + 0.27 \left( \frac{d - 30}{p} \right) \).

Tab. VIII.—Experiment 10-11, reduced to a constant hygrometric state.
With exception of the four lowermost entries, the three middle (or observed) columns of this table accord wonderfully well with the three last, which are calculated by the formula above given multiplied into T, (the tabular cent. dep.) ; which is variable in the first of them, (that of the experiments;) is equal to .32 for the case of humidity .58; and is of course = 0 for the final case, of extreme dryness.Were we to suppose that the dryness of the air did not mount higher than .18 (second column) from some unperceived cause, the calculated depressions would suit equally well from beginning to end; and it must be remembered that any disturbing force will be much more felt in the low pressures. Moreover, it can hardly be expected that the depression should continue to follow the same law, after the evaporating surface has congealed into ice. Had the ascending series of depressions only been used, instead of the mean, the accordance would have been greater towards the middle of the scale.

It is hardly necessary to analyse any more of the present series, after ascertaining that the same co-efficient is equally applicable to dry and wet air. We may therefore proceed at once to the conclusion, that the depression of the wet-bulb thermometer, ceteris paribus, varies inversely as the barometric pressure, the actual variation being for every case twenty-seven hundredths of the calculated variation.

§ 4.—Depressions under augmented barometric pressure.

It would perhaps have been better to have preceded the last enunciation, by a description of the experiments included under this head, since they obviously form part of the same series, and must be governed by the same law. They need not detain us many minutes.

The modification of apparatus now employed is depicted in fig. 9. Between the gasometer and the brass tube furnished with the two thermometers was introduced a condensed air blow-pipe; while at the other extremity near the discharge cock k', was adapted a syphon barometer capable of shewing an increase of pressure up to + 12 inches. By keeping up the action of the pump with the discharge cock more or less open, a current of condensed air could be maintained at any pressure until the readings of the wet-bulb became stationary; for, as before stated, it was upon the current only that reliance could be placed; and my endeavour was always to maintain the same rapidity in the passage of the air, although small variations in this particular do not, and ought not, to produce any sensible error.

Not having used a hygrometer in this series, I trust to the depression itself (at 30 inches) to supply the datum of the humidity; and here of course, under condensation, the moisture increases directly
with the pressure. On the diagram this is very conspicuous in figs. 13, 14; and as the air approaches dryness, the line formed will be seen amalgamating with the curvature of the former experiments.

**Tab. IX.—Depressions under increased pressure.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barom. pressure inches</th>
<th>First Experiment</th>
<th>Second Experiment</th>
<th>Third Experiment</th>
<th>Fourth experiment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>86.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the last experiment the air was maintained for a long time at each pressure, whence its results are perhaps entitled to greater confidence than the rest. The direct theoretical depressions, \( d \times \frac{30}{p} \) would be 26°.8, 22°.3, and 19°.1, which corrected by the co-efficient before found, would become 26°.8, 25°.6, and 24°.7; these again would have to be diminished for the altered humidity to 26.8, 24.5, and 22.8; still, however, differing materially from the experiment, which I attribute to the difficulty of keeping up a sufficient draft at the high pressures, in consequence of which the humidity is not fairly estimated.

If we examine the first experiment we shall have,

- The direct geometrical depressions, .............. 23.5 19.6 16.8
- These modified by co-efficient, .27.............. 23.5 22.4 21.7
- Corrected to the incipient state of humidity will be, 23.5 20.0 18.1

The observed depressions in this case, ...... 23.5 21.5 19.5 nearly midway between the modified and the corrected numbers, and as much above the latter as they were below them in experiment 4,—so it will be not unreasonable to conclude that our formula would hold good for augmented depressions, if proper care were taken in conducting them.

We have now examined every case of depression that can be experienced in common air, and we may finally sum up this lengthy investigation by uniting the members of the formula, that it may comprehend both changes of humidity and changes of atmospheric pressure thus:

\[
d = 84.9 - f'' + .27 \left( \frac{d^{30}}{p} - d \right).
\]

The latter member of the equation may be converted into a table of multipliers for heights of the barometer other than 30, which will leave the table I have appended to the present paper applicable to all
circumstances that can occur. The rule for its use will be given in the proper place.

§ 5.—Depression of wet-bulb in other gaseous media.

It has been seen that the theory of the wet-bulb thermometer is entirely based on the relation of the specific heats, or capacities, of water, of vapour, and of air. It may be made therefore to furnish an unexceptionable and easy method of solving the much-contested question of the relative capacity of different gaseous fluids, by substituting any of the latter for common air in the experimental determination of the depression.

By Gay Lussac's formula we perceive that the depression varies precisely in the inverse ratio of the air's capacity, \( c \) (see p. 405.) A pien's formula is based on the same datum; thus the specific heat of vapour at 50° being \( 1129 (= 967 + 212 - 50) \); that of water being 1; and that of air \( c = 0.267 \); 'one part of air in cooling through \( d \) degrees will raise the temperature of 0.267 part water through the same number, and will consequently be adequate to vaporize a quantity of water represented by \( \frac{267}{1129} d \)." Now, as \( 267 \, d \, (= c \, d) \) is a constant quantity, any change in the value of \( c \) must affect \( d \) in an opposite or inverse sense, that is \( c' = \frac{c \, d}{d'} \), \( d' \) being the depression observed in other medium than common air.

As most likely to exhibit any difference of specific heat, and without reference to any prior determination of the question, I selected two gases, hydrogen and carbonic acid, as far at variance in essential points as could be wished, and proceeded with them exactly as had been done with ordinary air. On account of the mode of preparing the two gases by distillation through a water-trough, they entered the gasometer surcharged with moisture; and, as noticed below, even after being well dried by the acid in the chamber, they took up moisture from the discharge-pipe on their passage to the wet-bulb. I could only approximatively remedy this evil by immediately filling in common air, and finding how much moisture the latter also absorbed in its passage. The error was of course less, if at all, perceptible at the high temperatures, and in a fresh series of experiments it was obviated by the introduction of my tell-tale hair hygrometer.

Wishing to save the gas, it was made to pass into another gasometer instead of into the open air; on which account the current both of hydrogen and of carbonic acid passed more slowly through the steam-heated tube than the air had done, and their temperature only rose to 160 and 170, in lieu of 180 and even 190 as at first. Here follow
the readings which were considered as coincident, but, as before, there was difficulty in keeping the dry thermometer stationary,

**Tab. X.—Depressions with Hydrogen gas. First Series.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Therm. in air</th>
<th>Wet-bulb</th>
<th>Depres. Hygrometer</th>
<th>Tension contesimal</th>
<th>Tabular depression in dry air</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Through steam pipe, 92.0</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ditto, steam on, 160.0</td>
<td>83.2</td>
<td>76.8</td>
<td>nearly dry.</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ditto, ditto, 137.0</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>ditto.</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ditto, cold, 93.8</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>44?</td>
<td>.17?</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hydrogen of the gasometer in the first two experiments was supposed to be dry, but it was found that it acquired moisture in passing through the pipes, which had been moistened by the distillation of the hydrogen; the amount of error was estimated by filling common air in, and finding how much its depression differed from the full rate. The gas of 3, and 4 was passed out into a vessel containing the hair hygrometer; but still no great confidence was placed in the series, and on two subsequent days fresh gas was prepared.

**Second Series.**

| Ratio of 29°.1 to 25°.4 as | .87 |

This was still unsatisfactory, as there was no mode of testing the hygrometric state of the gas: I now therefore fitted the glass chamber enclosing the hair hygrometer, (as in fig. 1) and took the following readings after intervals of a day each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>t'</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>h</th>
<th>Calc. Maxim. Depres. in Hydrogen.</th>
<th>Atm. air.</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. Hydrogen, current, 87.8</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ditto, full draft, 88.0</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Ditto, ditto, 84.0</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Ditto, ditto, 88.5</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Common air, 87.0</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>4?</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Ditto, 83.1</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Still a fourth series was thought necessary; and in this all access of moisture to the tubes being prevented by passing the gas over sulphuric acid before it entered the gasometer, and leaving it for a week to dry thoroughly, the hair hygrometer marked extreme siccity: precaution was also taken to cool the wet-bulb with ice below the depression point, before inserting it in the tube.

**Fourth Series, Hydrogen gas.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>t'</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>h</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. Full draft, 86.7</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Ditto, 85.0</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Ditto, 82.8</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This fourth series, on which every care was bestowed to ensure accuracy, confirming as it does the ratio of the prior experiments, certainly tends to prove that hydrogen produces a less depression than common air in the proportion of 82 to 100; and consequently that the specific heat of this gas for equal volumes should be 1.22, that of atmospheric air being 1.

**TAB. XI.—Depressions with Carbonic Acid.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Current through steam pipe, ..</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>(acquired moisture .20 ?)</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Do. steam on,</td>
<td>161.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>Nearly dry ?</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Do. quicker draft,</td>
<td>160.0</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>78.5</td>
<td>ditto,</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Common air, ..</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The experiment with common air shews that the passages still imparted moisture to the amount of full .12, and therefore vitiated the result as with hydrogen. The trial was renewed with the precaution of employing the hair hygrometer. $h$ $d$ $\frac{d}{D}$

5. Short glass tube, 83.6 55.0 28.6 5 Corrected 30.1 32.6 .92
6. Ditto, 86.2 55.2 31.0 3 for dry 32.0 34.0 .94
7. Ditto, 83.7 53.6 30.0 3 air or 31.0 32.6 .95

8. Common air, .. 88.2 54.5 33.7 3 max. dep. 34.8 35.0

Here again the depression in carbonic acid gas is proved to be 94 hundredths of that in common air, whence the specific heat of this gas should turn out 1.06, air being 1.00. A third series was taken:

8. Well dried, .. 88.7 56.2 32.5 0 32.5 35.3 91
9. Ditto, ...... 81.8 55.1 29.7 0.5 29.9 33.2 90
10. Ditto, ...... 89.6 57.2 32.4 1 32.8 35.8 90

In the last three experiments which were made with the precautions I have described, in the hydrogen experiments, (13-15) a little of the latter gas was mixed (\(\frac{1}{4}\)th) with the carbonic acid; while in experiments 6, 7, common air may have been present to the same extent. We may therefore assume the maximum depression in dry carbonic acid to be about 92 per cent. of that in atmospheric air; and its spec. heat = 1.087.

Although these unexpected results are supported by their great uniformity, I still feel hesitation in inviting for them the implicit confidence of chemists, in opposition to the very opposite conclusions of other experimenters. Had the specific heat of one gas proved in defect and the other in excess, it would have been more consonant with the analogy of their specific gravity,—but that two gases so strongly contrasted, should both err, on the same side, I own to be plausible evidence against me. Still I hardly think that the 8 per cent. discrepancy in the carbonic acid experiments is within the limits of experimental error; and the 18 per cent. of the hydrogen is certainly more than I am willing to allow to be attributable to such a cause.
At any rate it must be conceded that the method itself possesses superior facility to the process of De la Roche and Berard*, also followed by Haycraft†, or to that more recently followed by my friends Messrs. F. Marcet and De la Rive of Geneva‡.

It may be as well to recite the conflicting values arrived at by these and other authors, including M. Dulong§, whose mode of investigation by the velocity of sonorous vibrations in the respective gases, was most ingenious in itself, and perhaps better entitled to respect than any other:

**Tab. XII.**—*Specific heat of gaseous bodies by volume, under constant pressure.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>By De la Roche and Berard</th>
<th>By Haycraft</th>
<th>By Marcet and De la Rive</th>
<th>By Dulong</th>
<th>By wet-bulb depression.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Atmospheric air,</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxygen</td>
<td>976</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitrogen</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbonic Acid.</td>
<td>1,258</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,175</td>
<td>1,087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carburett. Hyd.</td>
<td>1,553</td>
<td>1,060</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,531</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbonic oxide,</td>
<td>1,034</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitrous gas,</td>
<td>1,350</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,160</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notwithstanding the tendency of my own experiments, every one must feel a prejudice on a view of this table in favor of the conclusions of the English and the Genevese philosophers; namely, that all the gases have the same specific heat.

In such case however it will be necessary to assign some other cause for the indubitable results above given, or our judgment must be suspended, until a careful repetition of similar experiments may determine the conditions with other gases, and lead to some definite conclusions for the whole of this most interesting question.

§ 5.—*A few illustrations of the wet-bulb theory.*

My paper has expanded to such a formidable length, that I am loath to burthen it with many "last words:" yet I cannot refrain from pointing out an instance or two of practical application, and shewing that \(d\) and \(f\) are as important elements in the play of meteorological phenomena as the dew-point itself, and require equally to be studied by naturalists.

1. The Baron Hugel remarked, that ice was formed in Cashmir with the thermometer at 44° [3] at an elevation of 15,000 feet: whence he concluded that the freezing point rose as the boiling point fell. This startling paradox is now readily explained: the air of the plains is dry enough at all times in those latitudes:—it becomes relatively drier in expanding on the mountains, while the depression simultaneously

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* Annales de Chimie, lxxxv. 126.  
† Annales de Chimie, xxvi. 298.  
‡ Ditto 1829, xxxv. 5.  
§ Ditto, xxvi. 113.  
3 K 2
increases. When \( t = 44^\circ \), \( D = 15.5 \) which + .27 \( \frac{d 30}{16.8} - d \) for 15,000 feet, = 18.5, so that if the air were already charged with a third of its saturating quantity of vapour, the depression of 13 degrees would still cool a surface of water below the freezing point.

Gay Lussac points out a similar fact noted on Saussure's ascent of Mont Blanc. "En faisant tourner sur le Col du géant un thermomètre dont la boule était enveloppée d'une éponge, il a obtenu un refroidissement de 9°.3 C (16°.7 Farh.) au dessous de la température de l'air qui était de 10°.1 (50°. 2 F.) ainsi l'évaporation peut concourir avec le rayonnement pour déterminer la congélation de l'eau à la surface de la terre, dans un air dont la température serait de plusieurs degrés au-dessus de zéro*."

2. The formation of hail is readily explained on the same principle. The drops of water passing through a stratum of very attenuated dry air, perhaps even warmer than the saturated cloud they have quitted, are cooled to congelation—nay, most likely much below it, since they are not remelted in their onward progress to the earth, but are apparently enlarged by deposition of fresh moisture. Hail is seldom observed to fall in damp weather.

Thus also, frozen clouds (cirri) may be found at elevations in the air much lower than would belong by theory to a temperature of 32°, and their dissipation while still in a frozen state, is also accounted for.

3. The increase of rain drops as they approach the earth has been satisfactorily proved to originate in the deposit of atmospheric moisture on their surface, cooled below the dew-point temperature.

4. Why is not the air at sea always surcharged with moisture?
The actual tension of vapour in the air does not depend on \( t \) but \( t' \): now the bulk of the ocean maintains an uniform temperature, in general a few degrees below that of the air in the day time: \( f' \) therefore being then always less than \( f \), saturation cannot take place, however much water may be present. But there is another reason; salt-water has a lower tension than pure water; that is, were it heated to \( t \), its tension would not be \( f \). It boils at 213.5° (?) in lieu of 212°, which reduces its tension about one part in 40—and the same proportion will hold good, on Dalton's hypothesis, for lower temperatures. In clear nights the air on ship board must always be fully charged with moisture, and hence the heavy dew on deck.

5. An analogous explanation can be given of the curious fact observed by M. Clement in 1821†, that if a thermometer bulb coated with lint be dipped in a saturated solution of any salt (or the salt in powder) and be held in aqueous vapour of 212°, it will acquire itself

* Annales de Chimie, xxi. 92. † Ure's Chemical Dictionary, p. 234.
a higher temperature, equal to what would be the boiling point of a similar solution. Here the saline solution at 212° cannot support a tension of \( f' \) (= 30 in.) ; deposition therefore takes place with consequent disengagement of latent heat, until the tension of the salt at \( t + x \) finds itself in equilibrio, or = 30 inches*.

6. Perkins has observed, that when water is thrown upon a heated metal not visibly red, it flashes into steam suddenly: but when placed upon iron, silver or gold at a much higher heat, it takes a considerable time to evaporate. Here would seem to be an indication that at or about 1200 Farh. the evaporation point gradually rises to exactly 212°, and that beyond this it becomes negative, or, the depression becomes so great that it falls below the boiling point†.

This is surely a more rational explanation than Perkins's, who supposed the liquid to be prevented from evaporating from the enormous pressure on its surface:—how could such a false equilibrio hold with free space around for the vapour to expand into?

Many other illustrations might be brought forward, but I forbear from exhausting the patience of my readers, and will here conclude with the tables for the depression of the wet-bulb at temperatures from 30° to 180° under the constant pressure of 30 inches. For other states of the barometer the small table below will be found sufficient, until my friends in Nepál, Dehra Dun, or the Nilgiris may furnish better data for its correction.

Table of Multipliers, to convert the following Tabular Depressions at 30 inches (1·000) into the depressions at any other pressure of the atmosphere.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barometer inches</th>
<th>Density of Multiplier</th>
<th>Barometer inches</th>
<th>Density of Multiplier</th>
<th>Barometer inches</th>
<th>Density of Multiplier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. 1(+\frac{2}{7}e)</td>
<td></td>
<td>c. 1(+\frac{2}{7}e)</td>
<td></td>
<td>c. 1(+\frac{2}{7}e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29·5</td>
<td>1·016</td>
<td>24·5</td>
<td>1·224</td>
<td>19·5</td>
<td>1·538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29·0</td>
<td>1·034</td>
<td>24·0</td>
<td>1·250</td>
<td>19·0</td>
<td>1·579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28·5</td>
<td>1·055</td>
<td>23·5</td>
<td>1·277</td>
<td>18·5</td>
<td>1·621</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28·0</td>
<td>1·071</td>
<td>23·0</td>
<td>1·304</td>
<td>18·0</td>
<td>1·666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27·5</td>
<td>1·091</td>
<td>22·5</td>
<td>1·333</td>
<td>17·5</td>
<td>1·720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27·0</td>
<td>1·111</td>
<td>22·0</td>
<td>1·364</td>
<td>17·0</td>
<td>1·765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26·5</td>
<td>1·132</td>
<td>21·5</td>
<td>1·395</td>
<td>16·5</td>
<td>1·818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26·0</td>
<td>1·154</td>
<td>21·0</td>
<td>1·428</td>
<td>16·0</td>
<td>1·875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25·5</td>
<td>1·176</td>
<td>20·5</td>
<td>1·463</td>
<td>15·5</td>
<td>1·935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25·0</td>
<td>1·200</td>
<td>20·0</td>
<td>1·500</td>
<td>15·0</td>
<td>2·000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—When the depression in attenuated air has been observed, divide it by the multipliers here given, before entering the table following to find the aqueous tension.

* A new source of error in the wet-bulb is hence suggested, in the substance with which the bulb is coated:—flannel, linen, and cotton may have different hygroscopic affections. This is a fit subject for inquiry.

† The very slight modification required in the theoretical curve of depressions, to produce the effect alluded to in the text, is shown by a dotted line in Fig. 5 of Pl. XXI. Apjohn's temperature of evaporation only reaches 212° at 2800°, Leslie's at 2600°; beyond which it would continue to rise.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temperature (°C)</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1.0</th>
<th>2.0</th>
<th>3.0</th>
<th>4.0</th>
<th>5.0</th>
<th>6.0</th>
<th>7.0</th>
<th>8.0</th>
<th>9.0</th>
<th>95</th>
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## Experimental Researches on the Depressions, &c.

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VI.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, 3rd August, 1836.

The Honorable Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair.

Mr. W. Spiers, proposed at the last meeting, was balloted for, and duly elected a Member of the Society.

Mr. Conductor Dawe, of the Delhi Canal Establishment, proposed at the last meeting, was, upon the favorable report of the Committee of Papers, elected an associate member.

Mekhara Meng, uncle of the present King of Ava, acknowledged his election as an honorary member in a Bengali letter, of which the following is a literal translation:—

Mekhara Ra’ja to the learned Members of the Asiatic Society of Calcutta, commands.

I am informed of the contents of the letter from this learned body, and of the honor they have done to me. But so difficult is the attainment of knowledge, that I can by no means hold myself worthy of such a distinction. The progress of knowledge may be likened to the ascent of a lofty mountain,—he that attains the summit will gain the first glimpse of the rising sun, then he in the centre, while yet it is hidden from the crowd at the base. The sun is to them a thing entirely imperceptible. Afterwards, when the solar orb declines, it still remains visible and palpable to him who has surmounted the hill, while the others have a partial and fading remembrance of its glory. Thus are there gradations in the acquirement and appreciation of learning, and there is no limit to its increase, nor can any thing compare with its excellence.

The enjoyments of worldly life are finite, and afford little variety—riches bring satiety; but there is no satiety in knowledge. Every day brings novel food to the mind, and only whets the appetite for more. I do not then think myself learned, but it is a law of nature that the bulk of each species should remain on an equality, whether man, beast, reptile, tree, or land itself—and hold social commune with its fellows.

My name has been inserted in the list of the learned men—I am glad to hear it, for the mind that cannot traverse alone the field of knowledge; in company of judicious guides, may derive instruction and advantage at every step. I shall know what I have not known—hear what I have not heard. All my doubts may be explained, my conjectures certified:—therefore am I filled with joy, for I would have my ignorance enlightened.

Should the Society wish to know any thing relative to the Burmese literature of my country, I will do my utmost to supply every information.

As the learned members are acquainted with various languages, I have caused this letter to be written in the Pāli language* and in the Bengali character.

The Secretary read the following reply from Government to the application made, in conformity with the resolution of the last meeting, on the subject of the publication of the Cochin Chinese Dictionary.

To James Prinsep, Esq.

Secretary to the Asiatic Society.

Sir,

I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, dated the 11th instant, and in reply to state that the Right Honorable the Governor General of India in Council will be prepared to sanction an expense of 5,500 rupees to be incurred in printing a Cochin Chinese Dictionary by Lithography in the manner

* The letter contains an admixture of Pāli words, but the substance is in Bengali, and is evidently a very imperfect rendering of the author’s expressions by a Bengali writer.
proposed by the author; but his Lordship would prefer much, that in order to
make the work accessible to seafaring persons and traders as well as to the
learned, the explanation should be given in English as well as in Latin, and
that a Vocabulary rendering the common English words into Cochin Chinese
should be added to the volume.

2. His Lordship would hope that by compressing the writing in the page
which is rather wide in the specimens transmitted, these additions could be
brought nearly within the same compass so as to occasion very little additional
expense.

3. The specimen which accompanied your letter is herewith returned.

I am, &c.

H. T. PRINSEP,
Secretary to the Government of India, Genl. Dept.

Council Chamber, the 20th July, 1836.

In consequence of the above suggestions, the Secretary had, in consulta-
tion with the author, returned the following reply:—

To H. T. PRINSEP, Esq.
Secretary to the Government of India, Genl. Dept.

Sir,

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, dated the 20th
July last, communicating the acquiescence of the Right Honorable the Gov-
ernor General of India in Council to the proposition submitted by myself, on
the part of the Asiatic Society, and of the most Rev. the Bishop of Isanuropolis,
for the publication of a Cochin Chinese Dictionary in lithography at an
expense not exceeding 5,500 rupees.

I have accordingly placed myself in communication with the author, with a
view to arrange the preliminaries without loss of time, as well as to provide for
the modifications recommended by his Lordship in Council.

The Bishop is of opinion that the addition of a column of English meanings
to the Dictionary in its present form would involve a very serious increase of
labour in passing it through the press; it would also augment the bulk of the
work very considerably; while a very large portion of the words and explana-
tions connected with literary and abstract terms would be of no utility whatever
to the commercial class or to seafaring persons.

The object contemplated by his Lordship in Council may, he thinks, be sup-
plied with more facility by the addition of a Supplementary Vocabulary con-
taining all the most common words, which might also be published in a
detached form for the use of mariners and traders.

This Vocabulary the author undertakes to draw up in the English, French, and
Anamitan tongues, during the progress of the publication; and precaution has
been taken to include this additional matter in the estimates which have been
called for.

His Lordship's remarks on the appearance of the lithographed specimen, and
the obvious advantage, if possible, of securing to a standard work of this nature
the advantages and neatness of typography, induced me to communicate again
with the Proprietors of the Serampore Press, before any final arrangements
should be made.

The Bishop on his own part handsomely consented to relinquish 500 rupees
out of the 4,000 rupees of personal remuneration for which he had at first
stipulated. I was thus enabled to offer a clear sum of 2,000 rupees to Rev. Dr.
MARSHMAN for the execution of 500 copies of a quarto volume, containing nearly
500 pages, with the native words in the Cochin-Chinese character. This offer,
although much below the usual Calcutta printing rates for ordinary works, has
been in the most liberal manner accepted by the Rev. Dr. and Mr. J. MARSHMAN.

I now therefore only wait for the final sanction of Government to place the
MSS. &c. in their hands.

I am, &c.

Calcutta, 1st August, 1836.

(Signed)  JAMES PRINSEP,
Secretary.
To this letter the following reply had just been received:

To James Prinsep, Esq.
Secretary to the Asiatic Society.

Sir,

I am directed by the Right Honorable the Governor General of India in Council to acknowledge the receipt of your letter dated the 1st instant, and in reply to state that his Lordship entirely approves the arrangement made by you on the part of the Asiatic Society for the publication at the Serampore Press of the Anamitan Dictionary prepared by the Most Reverend the Bishop of Isuropolis, at the charge already sanctioned, of 5,500 rupees.

2. The modifications made in the original proposition seem to his Lordship in Council calculated very much to improve the work, and entirely meet the wishes expressed in my letter dated 20th ultimo.

3. The Governor General in Council has much satisfaction in acknowledging the disinterested and public-spirited offer made by the Right Reverend author, to forego a portion of the remuneration allotted to him in order to obtain the advantage of having the work published in type; and the terms accepted by Dr. Marshman of Serampore appear to his Lordship in Council to be not less liberal; for the rate at which they have agreed to print the work in the original character is such as can afford them little or no profit.

4. It is the wish of the Governor General in Council that additional copies should be printed of the Vocabulary proposed to be added; and if this should occasion an increase of expense, his Lordship in Council will have no objection to defray the amount that may be charged on this account, taking for Government an additional 100 copies of this part of the work.

I am, Sir, &c.

H. T. Prinsep,
Sec. to Govt.

Council Chamber, the 3rd Aug. 1836.

The liberality of the proprietors of the Serampore Press in undertaking to print the work without any hope of profit, or even at the risk of some sacrifice, was fully appreciated by the Society, and the best thanks of the meeting were conveyed to Dr. Marshman, who was present.

A bill from the Orphan Press for printing the 1st part of the twentieth volume of Researches, 248 pages, amounting to C.'s Rs. 1806 6 4, was presented and passed.

Oriental Publications.

The Secretary reported the completion of the Naishadha-Cheritra (1st part, 900 pages) one of the Sanscrit works transferred from the Committee of Public Instruction; of which copies were ready for distribution. By the terms of agreement with the Editor, Prema Chandra Pandita, of the Calcutta Sanscrit College, who had supplied the tiká or commentary, 100 copies were to be given to him in lieu of pecuniary remuneration, which was approved.

Library.

The following books were presented:—

Results of Astronomical Observations made at the Madras Observatory during the years 1834 and 1835—presented by the Madras Government, through Colonel Casement, Mid. Sec. Sup. Govt.

Jahr bucher der Literatur, No. 69, 70, 71, and 72—presented by the Baron Joseph Von Hammer.

Notizia di Diciotto Codici Persiani della Biblioteca della Regia Università di Torino—by the same.

Memoire sur deux Coffrets Gnostiques du moyen age—by the same.

Mamik und Afra, a German Poem, translated from the Persian—by the same.

Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, No. 4—by the Society.


The Sixth Annual Report of the Society of Natural History of the Mauritius—by M. Julien Des Jardins, Sec.

Madras Journal of Literature and Science, No 12, for April and July, 1836—by the Madras Literary Society.

The Indian Journal of Medical Science, No. 8, and Review of Works on Science—by F. Corbyns, Esq. the Editor.

Meteorological Register for June 1836—by the Surveyor General.

The following books were received from the booksellers:—

Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopaedia—Botany, 1 vol.

———, Foreign Statesmen, vol. 2nd.

Museum.

Read a letter from J. Bell, Esq. Secretary Agricultural and Horticultural Society, forwarding for the acceptance of the Society two blankets and two woollen cloths on behalf of Lieutenant H. Vench.

The blankets are made from the Simul tree; the woollen cloths are of Bhutan manufacture.

Literary Communications.

The Government of Madras referred for the consideration of the Society, through the Supreme Government, a proposition submitted by Cavelly Venkata Lacumia, Pandit, to re-establish the system of Historical Research so successfully pursued by the late Col. Colin Mackenzie in the Peninsula, by collecting inscriptions, manuscripts, grants, &c. as well as to translate and digest the mass of materials already collected, and now in the possession of the Royal Asiatic Society.

Cavelly Venkata had drawn up a report—progress of the researches, in which he states himself to be still engaged, classifying the different dynasties, ancient and modern, of South India, on which light has been thrown by the Mackenzie collection. This paper and the correspondence were referred to the Committee of Papers for their examination and report, previous to discussion of the question in the Society.

Mr. W. H. Macnaghten presented an elaborate Memoir by Lieut-Colonel Burney, Resident in Ava, entitled "An account of the wars between Burmah and China, together with the journals and routes of three different embassies sent to Pekin by the king of Ava, taken from Burmese documents.

[Referred to the Committee of Papers. This account has peculiar interest at the present moment, when the offer of Mr. Gutzlaff to penetrate through Chius to Ava or Assam has been much discussed.]

Mr. Trevelyan on behalf of M. C. Masson presented a third memoir on the coins discovered at Beghram.

This paper is a careful and laborious recapitulation of all that has been done in this curious branch of discovery, with the addition of the results of a third year's search. The acquisition of new coins and new names naturally becomes every day more rare; so that notwithstanding the addition of 2,294 coins to his
cabinet in the year 1835, the only real novelties are an unique coin of Arche-
lius, one of Diomedes (found in 1834) the confirmation of Adelphortos and
Ipalirisus. Three Eurbydemus', and one Antiochus have been gained; the
ratio of the more common Bactrian and Indo-Scythic names is much the same as
in former years. We shall hasten to publish such portions of M. Masson's
most industrious labours as have not hitherto appeared in our pages.

Mr. Aylward brought to the Society's attention a singular narrative, in
translation, of the interview between Arsaces, king of Armenia, and the
Persian Monarch Sapor (Alaknap.)

[We hope to find room for this curious morceau ere long.]

The Secretary read extract of a letter from the Counsellor Joseph Von
Hammer, of Vienna, (now Baron Purgstall,) forwarding a continuation
of his translation of the Mohit, an Arabic nautical work by Sidi Capudan,
of which the first chapter was printed in the third volume of the Journal.

The present chapter contains a catalogue of the islands along the shores of
the Red Sea, and directions for thirty different voyages from Loheia, Aden, &c.
to the various ports of India, Persia, and the Straits of Malacca. It is a fact
difficult to be accounted for, that the learned author offered to translate the whole
of this very scarce and curious work for the Oriental Translation Committee,
who have given to the world so many of less consideration; but he was not
honored with a reply.

Extracts were also read from other European Correspondence. Professor Wilson reports his having forwarded the Society's memorial
regarding Oriental publications to the Royal Asiatic Society, which, in
concurrency with the Oriental Translation Committee, had warmly
espoused the object of its prayer. The Foreign Societies had also sup-
ported it, as far as the voice of protestation and argument by a body of
the most distinguished oriental scholars can lend its influence.

Paris has set a further example which it would be unjust to the cause to omit
mentioning.

Colonel Troyer, having presented to the Société Asiatique a German transla-
tion of the first six books of the Rāj Tarangini, (one of the Sanscrit works
suspended by the Government order, and lately completed by the Society here,) was invited to undertake a French version of the same for publication with the Sanscrit text at the Society's expense, estimated at not less than 6,000 francs.
It may be hoped that the edition completed in India, of which specimens must
soon after have reached Paris, will spare a portion of this money for the many
other objects embraced by this active association.

M. Jacquet announces the contemplated institution of a new professorship of
the Oriental languages in the University of Ghent, which well desire to accu-
cumulate manuscripts and printed works from this country. The late discovery of
coins and inscriptions in India had excited the most intense interest on the
Continent, but General Ventura's collection had not yet reached Paris, on
account of the detention of General Allard by illness in the South of France.

With regard to the coins of the Kadphises group, M. Jacquet having seen
Honigberger's collection would read the name Mokadphises, which he sug-
gests to be Mahodricha of the Sanscrit. We await his papers on this subject in
the Journal Asiatique.

Physical.

A collection of specimens made by Captain Hannay in his recent
expedition up the Irawadi to the Amber mines, was presented by Colonel
Bunney.

The collection includes many varieties of white and gray marble—
serpentine, agates, jaspers, heliotrope and crystal, particularly a pale
green prase, much prized by the Chinese, and called by them Yu; it is found about 80 miles N. W. of Mogauung. Wrist rings are cut from it.

With the specimens was a substance called by the Burmese earth wax, which they say exudes from some high precipitous rocks above Ava. They add, that monkeys are particularly fond of this substance, and that those animals swarm about the rocks which yield it. The wax has all the appearance of common unbleached wax.

There was also a specimen of the tea prepared by the Singphos of Payendwen; and a poisonous plant used by the Mishmis, supposed by Dr. Wallich to be identical with the Bish of the Gurkhas, (Aconitum;) another herb myanthé, used by the Mishmis for the same purpose, had more the appearance of an Acanthaceous plant.

The fossil bones from Perim in the Cambay Gulph, presented by the Baron Hugoel, had arrived. Among them is a large and indispensible fragment of a buffalo's horn, which the Baron refers with probability to the Nerbudda fossil bos; two smaller horns imbedded in matrix, (a calcareous and ferruginous conglomerate.) Also shells from a similar conglomerate in Gogo, and specimens of the cornelian, natural and burned, from the Rotanpur quarries.

A geological series from Pulos Floer, Trotto, Ledah, Tingy, Pigeon Island, Birdnest Island, and Dehli point, in the Straits of Malacca, was presented by Dr. Bland, of H. M. S. Wolf, with a note of their locality, and some remarks on the genus of shells denominated Pterocyclos by Benson (Spiraculum by Pearson), found in abundance on the islet of Susson, opposite Queda Peak.

[Dr. Bland's notes shall have early insertion.]

Specimens of a calcareous and silicious Scoria, forming the substance of a small hill at Buidgunti near Courtney, about 11 miles west of Bellary, was presented by Lieut. Newbold.

[The accompanying note will be inserted.]

Mr. C. W. Smith having purchased a collection of specimens of Natural History from the Eastern Isles, presented the Mammalia, the duplicates of the Birds and the Reptiles, to the Museum, on condition of the remaining birds being mounted for him. The Mammalia and Reptiles consist of the following specimens:—The grey Roussette, (Pteropus Griseus;) two specimens; one of a species of Noctilionina, and one of Vespertilionina, probably new genera; one of a species of Marten, agreeing in specific characters very exactly with the Pine Marten, (Martes Vulgaris;) two young specimens of a species of Ictus; one of the Barang Otter, (Lutra Lutresla?) one of the slender Delundung, (Prionodon Gracilis;) one of the Sumatra Cat, (Felis Sumatrana;) one of the Madagascar Squirrel, (Sciurus Madagascariensis;) one of the Jeralang, (Sciurus Leschenaultii;) two of the two-banded Squirrel, (S. Binitatus;) and two specimens of the Java Musk Deer, (Moschus Javanicus.) The Reptiles are a specimen of the Eastern Box Terrapia, (Cistuda Amboinensis;) and one of the Clouded Monitor of Gray's Synopsis, (Monitor Nebulosus.)

A specimen of Bengal Vulture, (Vultur Bengalensis,) presented by Major Fane.
The specimens of birds presented at the last meeting were exhibited, having been mounted in the Museum.

Physical Communications.

A memoir on the Fossil Rhinoceros of the sub-Himálayas, was forwarded by Lieuts. Baker and Durand, of the Engineers.

[This, with the lithographs and engravings kindly prepared by the authors themselves for the Journal, will be published in the ensuing number.]

Mr. Hodgson, of Népál, continued his contributions of new species in two papers: 1, on the thick-billed finches; 2, on two genera of Columbidae. Twenty-two ornithological plates were also added to the magnificent series of illustrations now under dispatch home.

A note on nest of the Bengal Vulture was submitted by Lieutenant Hutton.

A Register of Rain at Delhi, by the Rev. R. Everest.

A living specimen of the new genus of venomous snakes denominated *Hamadryas* by Dr. Cantor, was exhibited to the Society; it measured nearly 10 feet in length, and was caught in the Sundarbans.

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VII.—Miscellanea.

*Madras Journal of Literature and Science.*—It has not been hitherto our custom to enter into criticism of the contents of contemporary journals, but we cannot refrain from noticing the number issued by our sister society of Madras in July, which has just reached us and has excited—not our envy, but—our astonishment and our joy.—To say that it rivals or eclipses our own humble production in what is called “the getting up,” would be, perhaps, considered little of a compliment. The fresh zeal and exertions of a new editor, (Dr. Cole,) are not less conspicuous in the judicious selections he has made from other works, and the valuable notes with which he has embellished them, than in the host of able contributors he has summoned to his aid;—some of whom, alas! we have hitherto boasted as our own*, but whose transfer of allegiance is but natural, when so legitimate a rival arises to claim it. The present number (four-monthly?) contains 240 pages, price only 3 rupees. Of its most rich contents we should be tempted to glean with unsparing hand, could we afford space. Dr. Benza has another excellent geological paper on the country between Madras and the Nilgriris. Mr. Cole has done a service to geology, by an accurate definition and description of the laterite formation.—Mr. Taylor’s view of the present state of astronomical science is highly interesting. It shews, that he is not one of those who merely keep up a supine routine of accustomed observations, but that all his observatory does is directed to useful ends—to the elucidation of those desiderata in the science for which its situation is best calculated. Nor is he a Flamsteed, jealous of giving his labours into other hands, and tardy in working out results himself; for his third volume of observations, reduced and classified in the most compendious manner, has just issued from the Madras press. We may be indeed jealous that our Presidency should boast no similar production, and that even the astronomical labours of the Grand Trigonometrical Survey in the northern mountains should be as inaccessible and unknown as all their other operations! Colonel Monteith, Engineers, whose survey of part of Persia we noticed some time since, is imparting the statistical contents of his note book, accumulated during 18 years’ residence in Persia. An account of the Thuggee system, by Lieutenant Reynolds—Observations on original and derived languages, by the Rev. B. Schmid, and on the language of the Battas of Sumatra, by Lieutenant Newbold, and the Rev. W. Taylor, are amongst the most interesting contents of this very creditable volume.

* Dr. Benza, Mr. T. G. Taylor, Lieut. Newbold.
Meteorological Register, kept at the Assay Office, Calcutta, for the Month of July, 1836.

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<td>15</td>
<td>Barometer read at 229.05</td>
<td>29.54</td>
<td>29.36</td>
<td>29.36</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Barometer read at 229.05</td>
<td>29.54</td>
<td>29.36</td>
<td>29.36</td>
<td>29.42</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Barometer read at 229.05</td>
<td>29.54</td>
<td>29.36</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>29.54</td>
<td>29.36</td>
<td>29.36</td>
<td>29.42</td>
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In the present month the old standard barometer has been read off with its compensation index. The hair hygrometer has been employed in other experiments; the sulphuric acid is of spec. grav. 1.48.

[Continued from vol. iii. p. 553.]

[We know not how to express sufficient gratitude to our illustrious correspondent for his courtesy in allowing these pages to be the medium of publication of this curious manuscript of Sidi Ali Capudan. The manner in which it was discovered by the Baron at Naples, after 30 years' fruitless inquiry, was described in the preamble of the former extract. The value set upon it by this eminent oriental scholar, induced him to offer to translate the whole for the Oriental Translation Committee; but through some accident, (we can ascribe it to no other cause,) an offer so generous has remained unacknowledged. "Without doubt," our correspondent writes, "the book would deserve much more the care of the Committee than many of minor interest published by it; but although to my volunteer I got no more answer than to my offer of an edition and translation of Wassor, agar ḥājat bashed, as the Persians say, and with the assistance and remarks of some Indian sea-faring gentlemen on the parts already translated, I hope to send chapter after chapter to your Indian Journal, and thus we shall be independent of the Committee."

On the last occasion we derived some little assistance from the Nahhadas of the Arabic vessels, in recognizing the places alluded to in the Section on the monsoons. The same plan we have been prevented, in a great measure, from following now, through the absence of these traders, who only arrive here towards the end of the south-west monsoon (August-September) and return with the setting in of the north-east wind in February-March. We have, however, been able to trace most of the principal names on the map, and have marked them in foot notes. The catalogue of the names of islands in the Red Sea would be—and may, we hope, still be—of great use to the officers of the Indian navy now engaged in its survey.
We have discovered many of the islands and capes mentioned by Sr'dr' in the large manuscript chart sent round for the use of the steamer Forbes in its passage up the Red Sea: but by far the greater number of islets remain unnamed; and to them, with a little local inquiry, Sr'dr's list might doubtless be easily applied. The book is also of great service in pointing out the maritime channels of Arab commerce, at the period perhaps of its highest prosperity, before the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the English had diverted the majority of the Europe supply to the newly discovered route by the Cape of Good Hope.

The Baron* is in hopes that the presence of sea-faring Arabs will also enable us to assist him in understanding the prior and more difficult chapters of the work, wherein is discussed the manner of "making the pole," (جارف) or taking the altitude of the polar star. Here, however, we have little chance of success. The present navigators have adopted the improved methods of Europe:—they take their latitude by the sun, and with the modern sextant; and the richer merchants even provide their vessels with chronometers:—not that the Arabs yet possess translated tables or ephemerides by which to work the course themselves; but they almost universally employ an English sailing master, to whose superior intelligence they implicitly confide.

Nothing then have we been able to learn of the instrument used by the early navigators in taking their latitude from the circumpolar stars; or of the measure of an arc called issabā (اصبع) inch, and its subdivision into eight zāms (لزم) We find however on inquiry that the latter term is still applied to terrestrial measurement, and is well known to nautical people of the present day as the fifth part of a geographical degree, (twelve nautical miles.) Though this measure does not at all accord with the sailing distances quoted by Sr'dr' Capudan, from well known places, it will be seen presently to correspond exactly with the value of the celestial inch or issabā as deduced from the internal evidence of the work itself.

The Baron Hammer in his private letter to us writes thus: "Concerning the measure of ز " the first section of the IIIrd. chapter explains as follows: 'The zām, ز, is either the practical one, طبيعى, or the rhetorical, طبالى; The practical is one of the eight parts in which day and night are divided: the rhetorical is the eighth part of an inch, صبع, in

* It seems we erred in giving that designation to Counsellor Von Hammer in 1833; but our announcement proved prophetic; the Emperor having conferred the title on him in December 1835, upon his succeeding to the little state of Hoinfeld, bequeathed to him and his male descendants by the late Countess Purgstall (Cranstoun). The present paper is a proof that this accession of honors will not detract from the zeal of his Oriental studies.—Ed.

† We are inclined to think that this word استرلبي is an error of the transcriber, and that it should be استرلبي، appertaining to the divisions of the astrolabe.—Ed.
the ascension, \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) and descension \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) of the stars. For example, if you go north and make the star \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) or \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \); it is elevated one inch; and if you go south, it is by eight \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \), one inch depressed. This is the whole section on the measure of the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) (plural, \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \)) an explanation which, however, helps me not a bit to understand the true measure of a \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \), in the reckoning of the ship’s course so frequently employed in the subsequent chapters. Nor have I been able to obtain any explanation from our astronomers."

We will now venture to offer the explanation which has occurred to ourselves from perusal of the present translated chapter of voyages, and the above extract conjointly.

1. The \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \), in practical or vulgar parlance, is said to be the eighth part of the day and night. This, doubtless, applies to the nautical division of the twenty-four hours into 8 watches, generally prevailing among oriental nations, and exactly corresponding with the 8 \text{\sffamily \textit{pahars}} of the Hindus*.

2. Again, the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) is seen above to be the eighth part of the ordinary inch or \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \); as the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{jo}} \), or \( \text{\sffamily \textit{yava}} \) of the Hindus, is the eighth of their \( \text{\sffamily \textit{ang\'ul}} \); and the line of Europeans is the eighth of their inch; it is, in fact, the vulgar subdivision by two and two, both of the unit of measure and of time. Perhaps, indeed, \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) may be a mere corruption of \( \text{\sffamily \textit{jo}} \).

It would seem, that to suit ordinary capacities, both the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \) and the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) had been transferred to the arc of the rude quadrant or astrolabe used by the Arab seamen, in lieu of the more scientific division into degrees and minutes. Or it is very possible that in still ruder times the altitude of the polar star above the horizon was actually measured by finger’s breadths, the hand being held out at the natural arms’ length in front of the face: for the measure of the arc thus subtended would nearly agree with the value of the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \) derived from other considerations.

The actual value of the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \) in degrees and minutes may be readily found from the latitudes, or polar altitudes, of known places extracted from `S\'\( \text{\sffamily \textit{m}} \)’s work. Thus the elevation of the pole Cape Guardafui is always quoted at \( 4^1_3 \) inches; while at Jedda it is called 10 inches; difference, \( 5^1_6 \) inches. The difference of latitude by our mode of reckoning is \( 2^1_2 - 1^2_3, 00' = 9^3_7 28' \); which gives nearly \( 1^2_3 37' \) for the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \) or inch. Now, as before stated, we were informed by an Arab \text{\sffamily \textit{M\'uallim}} that the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) was 12 of our minutes, or 5 \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \)s = 1 degree. Therefore, 8 \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \)s or 1 \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \) should be equal to 96'; or \( 1^3_4 36' \),—so close an accordance with the foregoing result, as to leave no doubt of the value of the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{issab\'a}} \) and \( \text{\sffamily \textit{z\'am}} \) being 96' and 12' respectively on the celestial arc.

It still remains to explain the divisions of the lower arc of their rude instrument, and the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{ki\dss{\textit{d}}}s} \), or point at which the readings of the upper and lower index coincide, as also the point whence the divisions commence on both quadrants, or what may be called their index error.

* The subdivision of the \( \text{\sffamily \textit{pahar}} \) as shown into eight \( \text{\sffamily \textit{gharis}} \) is like the "eight bells" into which our nautical watch is counted off.
In the description of the islands of the Arabic coast, it will be seen that as the readings of the upper limb increase, those of the lower quadrant decrease, their sum being constantly 14\frac{1}{2} issabād. 

Thus, at Saibān, (Loheia,) the upper reading is 6\frac{1}{2}, lower 7\frac{1}{2}, sum 14\frac{1}{2}. 

at Jedda, ditto 10 " 4\frac{1}{4} " 14\frac{1}{2}.

It is evident, therefore, that the kiūs occurs at 7\frac{1}{2} inch, or 7 issabād 1 zām, the half of 14\frac{1}{2}.

Again, for the zero point we have the following data:—

\begin{align*}
\text{true lat.} & \quad \text{issabād} & \quad \text{zero point} \\
\text{By the Jedda latitude, ......} & \quad 21° \quad 28' & \quad 10 \times 1° \quad 36' \quad (= 16° \quad 00') \quad = \quad 59 \quad 25' \\
\text{By the Guardafui, latitude ......} & \quad 12 \quad 00' & \quad 4\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \quad 36 \quad (= \quad 6 \quad 36) \quad = \quad 5 \quad 24 \\
\text{By Darwesh, or Dorish, ......} & \quad 15 \quad 30' & \quad 8 \times 1 \quad 36 \quad (= \quad 12 \quad 48) \quad = \quad 5 \quad 42 \\
\text{By Loheia or Suibān, ......} & \quad 15 \quad 41' & \quad 6\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \quad 36 \quad (= \quad 10 \quad 48) \quad = \quad 4 \quad 53 \\
\text{By Wasaliat, (Fossalilat,)} ...... & \quad 17 \quad 42' & \quad 7\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \quad 36 \quad (= \quad 12 \quad 24) \quad = \quad 5 \quad 18 \\
\text{By Dαnek, } & \quad 19 \quad 31' & \quad 8\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \quad 36 \quad (= \quad 13 \quad 32) \quad = \quad 5 \quad 59 \\
\text{By Haseck sineave, (Harik-sinār),} & \quad 19 \quad 50' & \quad 8\frac{1}{2} \times 1 \quad 36 \quad (= \quad 13 \quad 56) \quad = \quad 5 \quad 54 \\
\end{align*}

The average index error or zero point is thus found to be 5° 31', or in round terms 5\frac{1}{2} degrees, to be added to altitudes taken by the issabād scale. The only conjecture we can offer as to the origin of such an arbitrary arrangement is, that the zero has been fixed at the lowest elevation at which it is safe to trust to the measurement by the polar star; so that mariners, on finding polaris fall below 0 inches, would then know they should take their latitude by Farkadain, or β and γ Ursae minoris.

The zero point of the under quadrant may be easily deduced from the foregoing to be at 28° 18' below the horizontal line. This we may suppose was the highest elevation of the polar star observable by navigators in the Red Sea or in the Persian gulf. Indeed the latitude of Suez and of the mouths of the Euphrates, the most northerly ports visited by their ships, being 30°, the difference between this and 28° 18' is very nearly equal to the north polar distance of polaris (1° 42'): and in the period from January to July it would be only the inferior meridional passage that could be observed. It is generally supposed that the early astronomers regarded the polar star as stationary, and did not trouble themselves to attain even the accuracy we are giving them credit for; but an expression, which occurs in a following page, shows that this was not the case; since it directs, that if it be not time to take the polar star, then another star is to be substituted.

As a proof, however, that no great accuracy was attainable, it may be remarked that the two stars called by the Arabs Farkadain (β and γ Ursae minoris) are accounted to have the same altitude; whereas in reality there is a difference of no less than three degrees in their declination; but it is probable that the altitude was taken constantly by either the upper or the lower star, although we have no data here to decide this point.

The following table will be found very useful for the conversion of issabās into degrees and minutes. In it the quadrantal difference of the Farkadain is assumed at 6\frac{1}{2} issabād, or 11° + 5° 30', = NPD 16° 30', which is nearly the average north polar distance of the two stars.
With regard to the value of the zam in terrestrial measurement, 12' or 12 nautical miles* would perhaps be applicable to many of the instances in Stör's work; for example, where he directs that in running down the Malabar coast the navigators should keep five zam distant from the shore, or 72 miles, which is the common practice. But to suit other cases, the zam must be assumed at half a degree or upwards; and this is probably attributable to the very erroneous notions of the longitudinal distances of places prevalent before good charts were formed. With the aid of a map, however, and the bearings given by our author, it is easy to describe the track of his several voyages. We have thus derived the probable measurements given in the following notes, in which we have also given the names of the places on our charts where they were recognizable.—Ed.]

THE NINTH CHAPTER.

Containing an explanation of some Islands and Voyages, and precautions, the knowledge of which is requisite for Navigators in the Indian Seas.

FIRST SECTION.—The islands of the Arabic coast†.

The island Okbún\(^1\), north of which the island Katáma\(^2\), afterwards Sil Nobin\(^3\), the island Sína\(^4\), then the two islands Badhidin\(^5\), the environs of which are shallow; after them the islands Zútheláth\(^6\), the

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* Has the terrestrial zam any connection with the jeján or yojana of the Hindus, which is estimated at somewhat more than 10 miles?

† This enumeration of islands commences from near Loheia, lat. 15° 41' on the Arabic coast, in front of which lie the islands of Okbúne, Kotama, and Loban, with Camaran a little to the south. Most of the rest are not to be found by name on Capt. Elwon's new chart.—Ed.
island Hawai, the island Haula, which is situated behind Hawal; the islands Zu Kassár through which great ships cannot pass; behind Zu Kassár, the island Mokammar, and behind that the island Hodaife, on which are a few trees, and no passage between them on account of a great number of rocks; the island Hodaife is the last towards Bâkip on the seaside: the water is here very unclean. On the east side of them is a small island called Masad, but no passage between them; behind them the island Jihán el Kebir, and near it on the nether side the island Jihán ess-saghir: the sea between them is full of shallows, to east of them the island Sâsoh which is a great mountainous island: on the western side of it a shallow called amariya. Approaching from the seaside the island Sâsoh is in sight before the amariya: on this shoal the depth of the water is five fathoms (kûlîj). Between the two above said islands the great and little Jihán is also an amariya or shallow. Be it known that the cape of Jazar Farsán lies north between Sharja and Jazâ on the sea side are the two islands Zu Kharâb and Zu Salâb. Sâsoh is on the sea side of these two islands between south and west. On the sea side of Sâsoh are two islands, each of which is called Dohr jihán (back of the world.) Be it known that the island of Seil Mothan is the end of the Persian islands: on the sea side and north side there is no coast except that of the island of Irak Ozâb. The back of Jazar Farsán and the unclean places are on the side of Irak Ozâb; towards the east side lies the back of the island Rakâb; the most eastern of all is the island Jozidn, from thence Borrassli is in sight. There is a small

* Howali? on Abyssinian coast, 16° 30', can hardly be intended.
† Rashër? below Camaran; the R. may be miswritten for K. (See p. 449).
‡ Ras Majarmila? 14° 30'. there may be small islands so called from their proximity to these capes.
§ Zebayer islands, 15° 2': the Z is probably a miswriting of K.
¶ Gebel Zogar, or Zekhir of map, on the 14th parallel of latitude.
** There? 17° 12'. The word Farsân is applied farther on to the Abyssinian coast,—it is probably an error of transcription.
†† Gorab, 17° 10'.
‡‡ Matharhane, 17° 28'.
§§ Perhaps the Cape Jazar Farsán which is mentioned above.—H.
bank called Akmâf. After the island Seil al Motahan there is nothing but sea, but on the border of the sea at the left are two sandy islands called Fossailiat. At their lower extremity are the islands Jazira-i Somra† and Zahra‡. Be it known that on the sea side of Rakab§ is a shallow in which the ground is visible, but is eight fathoms deep. Some say that parts of it are impassable for ships; this amariya or shallow is called Ork Fossailid; after (south of?) the Fossailiat are three islands called JâmâςⅢ. On the sea side towards the north is a great island called ZokâkⅣ, and on the south side a long bank, on the outside of which are the breakersⅥ, called TihâlⅦ MerirⅧ, but the water has eight fathoms. This island and the above mentioned lie south on the sea side of mount SzabayaⅨ. From Tihâl Merir in the direction of the sea side and towards the last is a Mira (shallow) called Irki Isa (Jesus’s vein); the shallowest water is there two fathoms and a half, and the deepest eight fathoms. All these amariye (shallows not to be used) are in the Arabic sea. After Zokâk is a great island called Maassaba** on which are some trees; on its beginnings is a small ridge called Bodâr. After Maassaba are four great islands, called Bahr-ul-Kabîr, (the great sea;) the two most southerly are called Lam VII and Han Ⅷ; they are situated on the sea side of mount Szabaya; after them is the ridge Ⅸ AblajⅩ; on the south-west of it is a great bank Ⅺ called Shobi Yahya XII; on the north side of the island Ablaj is a mountainous bank, which is a long ridge, and extends till to the ridge of Kimâri XIII, and is next the island Faraye XIV. Between them is a Ritka XV; that is to say, a rock. On the sea side of the mountainous ridge is the island Darowski XVI; on the sea and north side is a bank XVII called Helya XVIII, and on the north side a great island called Shobain XVIII; after it the island Mûshka XX, and

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* Wussaleat, of Capt. Elwon’s map, in latitude 17° 42′.
† Simer, east of ditto.
‡ Shab el jurmah, 17° 34′.
§ Zoogah, 18° 5′.
|| Elalhaller? 18° 15′.
¶ A mountain on the coast? Gebel Tase Sharne?
** Massuba, 18° 14′.
†† Aboo Lelf (on the shore.)
‡‡ Dorish, 18° 31′.
||| Shabbane, 18° 44′.
||| Mooshka.
west to it lies the island *Shika*¹, which is also a great island; on the sea side a great bank² called *Shob Sowaidi*³; on the north and land side of the island *Shikan* is the island *Zu Shajih*.⁴ On the western side is a shallow⁵ called *Ir-k-ul-ooyro*⁶; next to it a segment⁷ called *Kitaei Zaidi*⁸. Afterwards on the sea and north side an island called *Tajeddad*⁹; and on the sea and north side of this a ridge¹⁰⁺ called *Zohrai Kassr*¹¹, and an island called *Takshef*¹²; on its sea side a ridge¹³ called *Zohrai Takshef*¹⁴; in the neighbourhood of this are great banks¹⁵ called *Dakhakhin*¹⁶. Be it known, that between the islands of *Daneq*|| and *Tajedda* both are in sight, if there is no hazy weather¹⁸. These (of *Dakhakhin*) run down to *Daneq* and *Tajedda* towards the west; from the *Dakhakhin* you see the island *Shobaz-zokar*²⁹ []; these islands lie from *Daneq* towards the coast of *Yaman*, that is to say, south, on one side of *Shobaz-zokar* is the island *Wussul Omm Dahresh*²⁰; on the land side of *Daneq* towards Syria, that is to say, north, are in some distance some segments (portions of rock¹¹ ?) called *Ibn Saaid*²². The islands called *Daneq* are three: the first to the south is called *Shobaz-zokar*, and the next northern one *Khabir*²³, on the sea side of it is a segment²⁴ called *Omm Moen*²⁵, north of which lies *Daneq*, the greatest of all; round it are four banks²⁶. On the land side is a passage between them and *Daneq*; they are called *Mahdhan*²⁷, *Makhref*²⁸, *Korb*²⁹, and *Kebla*³⁰. After *Daneq* there are four islands called *Bahrezziharl*³¹; the name of the first is *Matata*²⁹++, of the second *Jodair*²¹**, of the third *Marmad*²³**, and of the fourth *Zohrai Marmad*. On the land side of them towards N. N. E. is a segment³⁵ called *Zeinab*³⁶, and here N. the *Shob Salim*, a long bank; from here towards E. S. E. are three islands in sight. After *Zihar* follow two banks and two called *Homais*³⁷; north of them are no islands, but only some

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* *Shaker*, 18° 53'.  † *Doshagea*.  || *Dahnac*, 19° 32'.  \* *Mutatoo*, 19° 45'.  \‡ *Shab Asugga*, 19° 22'.
segments, the names of which are Rehāl, Majrādīb, and Hakan; the last lies to the land side and north to Majrādīb; on the western side of Hakan is a segment called Magharrinya above Kaidān; after it comes Tofya, after it the segment Ssorūm, and afterwards Shob Kamānī, which is in the height Montaj. Afterwards Khoshaat on the height of Ssāmīna, after it Irk-ghorāb, after it Mesmārī, which is on the height of the Black Cape, Rūsūl-awdāt. These islands are the last of the Arabian seas.

SECOND SECTION. Of the islands on the Persian coast.

The first are those of the islands Dhalak, studied south; the first of these islands is Mokaidah, afterwards Mahlatān, then the island Zūbbar, afterwards Zūkharsh Bent Aaddā: on the sea side of Zūbbar and Zūkharsh is a bank called Zālīfokāa. After Zūkharsh is the island Sifāla, afterwards Ballajā; on the sea side of it is the ridge Bent Tamarkass; after it comes great Hāteya and little Hāteya; afterwards Dozīna, afterwards Taraza, afterwards Dalikof, afterwards Delfaidal, afterwards Nahali, afterwards Ghobār, afterwards Jadlab, afterwards Kabīhā; between these two is Makhādha Bent Antar; afterwards Harmal; this is the last of the northern islands on the sea side; but there are some islands on the western side near the shore. After Harmal towards the land side, and N. the island Rūmārd, afterwards Auwālī Bent Hatem, afterwards Auwālī Shīra, afterwards Ssīl Katīn, afterwards Bent Alawā,}

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* Tutteffah, 21° 0. † Serome Cliff. ‡ Cobane. § Ul Cussar Shamier. || Simama. ‡‡ Ungo Gorab. ** Moosomeer. 

+++ By Persian it may be presumed Abyssinian must be intended. Perhaps is a miscopy for Ḥabshān or African. 

§§ Dhalac, near Massua. None of the islands of this groupe can be traced by the names here given, until we come to the northernmost. 

||| Two large islands north of Dhalac. 

††† Howalee Huttoob and Shoerah, 16° 30′.
afterwards the island of Dafna. This island situated on the land side and N. is the last of the islands Dahlek. If you proceed from Harmal N. E. one day and night, your course leads you to the islands of Tahyrát, which are seven islands, four of which are situated on the sea side and three on the land side; one of those situated on the land side is called Delkas, one Bent Hatem, one Tastahel, and one Rūka; the three on the land side are called Zūlkorāb; after the four islands situated on the sea side are on the north two islands, a great one called Mosāmara†, and a small one called Korā§. On the western side of Mosāmara, as far as the eye can reach, are two great islands and sandy shoals called Loka and Dilsakh; after them is on the north a great island called Zūlkefla, and farther on three islands are seen. Next to them and at some distance from the shore near Zūl’al aselal is an island called Torinboll§. After Zūlkefla on the sea and N. side is a small island called Tamarsah, there is a bank and on it a rock resembling a chair. After Tamarsah north is the island, little Bār-Mūsā, which is a little round island, on which are some tombs and trees and shrubs of tooth-pikes. To the N. of it, and at some distance, is the island Bār-Mūsā Kābir, a great island on which large trees are growing; afterwards, towards the land side, in the direction of W. N. W. is an island called Bārkat, and in the vicinity of it a bank which is called Shobi Rūmān. From Bārkat in the direction of true west is an island called Mūsā Māitbān. Be it known that if one of these two islands is seen, the other is hidden; but if you pass between them, both are seen. After Bār-Mūsā Kābir to the N. is the island Hindjodr; this is the last of the northern islands on the sea side. On the south side of these islands is a great bank called the long one, and after it a small one. If you steer from Hindjodr true west, you come to the port Masrika, which is at the height of Sawakin.§§.

* Dahrat Abbeed, &c. 18° 15'.
† Mussammoro, 18° 50'.
‡ Masrika.
§ Juttat Tromba. || Timershear, 16° 56'.
¶ Barnosa Segara.
** In lat. 19° 13'. †† Barkoot and its Shab.
†† Hindee Gedam.
§§ Suakin, one of the chief ports.
The Third Section.—Of Voyages and indications of the coasts being near.

First Voyage from Babolmandam to mount Zokar and Saibán; you go first in the direction N. W. by N. half a zam, then steering N. N. W. you come to cape Zokar, and mount Ará is in sight on the left side; if from Zokar you wish to proceed to Kamrané, and you steer N. by W. you come to Rakba. Here you see for the first time the island Zasha. The course from Zokar to Saibán goes in the direction N. W. by which you come first to Abuel, and then to Saibán, which are seen on the right. Be it known, that if you steer true west you come to Mokaidah, and if you take from Saibán the direction W. by N. you come to the two Hátia (the great and small one.) If from Saibán you follow the direction W. N. W. you come to Bent Antar and Harmal, which are islands of the Persian (African) coast; from Saibán going straight to the pole you come to Badhiain: from Saibán going N. by W. you come to the two islands Jehán (the great and small one), which are on the Arabian coast.

Second Voyage from Saibán (Loheia) to Jedda.

From Saibán to Jedda with an unfavorable wind, the voyage is performed from four inches to four inches by degrees in the following way. First from Saibán where the pole wants a quarter to seven inches, you steer four zam N. W. and afterwards N. W. by N. If the contrary wind is very strong, the course to be steered is E. by N. and true east, or near it; if the wind is a middle one, you steer N. E. or N. E. by N. If in your measurement the inferior quadrant gives an inch and a quarter, the ship is on a spot distant seven inches (measurement) from the pole. If in this place the northern wind ceases, you may lay to or tack. If it blows a hard northern wind, you look for the Arabic coast, and go to Badhiain or near it. On the sea side of Badhiain is a shoal (amaria); that is to say, a place where you see the ground of the sea; with a weak northerly wind you go to Mokanmar, or in the vicinity of it. The said islands are one near the other. If the pole is seven inches and a quarter, and the inferior quadrant seven inches, and a strong northern breeze, you go to Esman and Mesed; and if there is but

* Assaban of maps, off Loheia, 15° 41'; long. 42° 52'.
† Saddle island in the Zebayers?  † Rashr?  † Or Loheia.
†† Dhalac island.  †† See introductory remarks, = Lat. 16° 18'.
** This should be 7½ inches.  ‡ Lat 17° 6'.

3 N 2
little of a northern wind, you go to Jihán and Szail-ol-mathanat*. If the pole is made by seven inches and half, and the inferior quadrant wants a quarter to seven, and the wind blows strong from the north, you go from thence to Khobat², where some shoals are seen; with a little northern breeze you go to Fossailiat†; if the pole wants a quarter to eight, and the inferior quadrant shows six and a half, and the northern wind blows strong, you go to Fossailiat, where it is the best to remain, because on its sea and north side is infinite rubbish, that is to say, unclean places; with a weak northern wind you go to Maassabah‡ or to the island Lam. If the pole is made by eight inches$, and the inferior quadrant marks six and a half (§ ?), and the wind blows strong from the north, you go to Darwiske|| or near it; if there is but little northern wind you go to Zoo Shaifeh¶, where much precaution is required on account of the bank Sowaidit. If the pole is made by eight inches a quarter, and the inferior quadrant marks six inches, and the wind blows strong, you go to Dakha Khein' or to the island Takshet* or near it. With a small breeze you go to Danek. If the pole is made with eight inches and a half, and the inferior quadrant marks six inches** less a quarter, and the wind blows strong you go to Danek, and with a small northern wind to Hareik Semár*. If the pole wants one quarter to nine inches, and the inferior quadrant marks five and a half (Lat. 19° 30'), and the wind blows strong, you come to Hareik Semár, and with a small northern breeze to Baher-zehár¹⁰, with a small northern breeze you come to Homais¹¹, where you stop. If the pole is made by nine inches and a quarter, and the inferior quadrant shows five inches, you go to Homais, with a small northern breeze you go to Ráhel¹², or near it. If the pole is made by nine inches and a half, and the wind blows strong, you go to Majrádh¹³‡ or near it. With a small northern breeze you come to Ssorúm¹⁴ †† or near it; if the pole wants a quarter to ten, and the inferior quadrant shows four and a half, and the wind blows strong, you go to Ssorúm, and with a small northern wind you come to Jedda. If the pole is ten inches §§, and

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* Matharhane. † Wassaliat. ‡ Massubah. § 18° 18'. || Dorish. ¶ Doshagea. ** Lat. 19° 6'. Dahnak is in 19° 31'. Vid. sup. †† Maharabi of the map, 20° 14'. †† Serome, on the coast of Elwon, or Sarum island of Horsburgh, 21° 9'. §§ Lat. 21° 30'.
the inferior quadrant shows four inches and a quarter, you go right east four zâms towards Jedda, if God please. Be it known that in the sea of Jedda you find as you find corals in the western seas.

**Third Voyage from Saibán (Loheia) to Sawakèn*.**

The way in which you perform a voyage from Saibán to Sawakèn is the following. From the place where the pole is made with seven inches† you proceed in the same manner, that is to say: first, if the northern gale is strong, you steer E. S. E. and S. E. by E.; if there is but little wind, N. W. by W.; but the true way from Saibán to Sawakèn is by Jedda. If the northern wind blows strong you go to Mokuidah‡, and with a small breeze to Hawateb§ (the Hatyas) or near them. Be it known, that on the sea side of the islands of Dahlek\(^a\) is an amaria (shoal) and an ahja\(^b\), that is to say, topook\(^c\) or rocks which are not seen; the most remarkable of them is the Ahja Tamerkass\(^d\) on which the water is more or less than three fathoms deep; great precaution is necessary in all these places. If the pole is made by seven inches and a quarter, and the inferior quarter marks seven inches, and the northern wind blows strong, you go to the Hawateb, with a small northern breeze to Harmal and Bent Antar\(^e\), or near it. If the pole is made by seven inches and a half, and if the inferior quadrant shows seven inches less a quarter, and the wind blows strong, you go to Bent Antar; with a small northern wind to Harmal, or it is seen at the left hand. Be it known, that from Harmal to the pole or N. by W. two rhumbs and a half is a shoal Merai Aari\(^f\) called Harbobat\(^g\), of which great precaution is to be taken. Going along the coast and the pole wanting a quarter to eight, and the inferior quadrant showing six inches and a half, and the wind blowing strong, you turn to Torbet Khassús\(^h\) or to the north side of it: if the pole is eight inches and the inferior quadrant shows six inches and a quarter,\(\|$\) and the northerly wind blows strong, you go to Batn Hob ìb,\(^i\) with a small northern wind to Aantab\(^j\). If the pole is made by eight inches and a quarter, and the wind blows strong, you go to Mandel, and with a small northern breeze to Jean\(^k\) or near it. If the pole is made by eight inches and a quarter you go true west

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\(^{a}\) Suakin by Captain Elwon’s chart lies in Lat. 19° 4’, Long. 37° 30’.

\(^{b}\) Lat. 16° 42’.

\(^{c}\) Dhalac.

\(^{d}\) Lat. 17° 54’.

\(^{e}\) 18° 18’.
to Tahtiat' or it is seen on the right; if the north wind is but
weak you go to Tamarsheh* or Zulkafla; on the left hand at some
distance are seen some islands, as Mosamara and Lauka†. If the
pole wants a quarter to nine inches, and the inferior quadrant shows
five and a half, and the north wind blows strong, you go to Tamarsheh or
Zulkafla, and with a small breeze to Bür i Mūsa saaghir‡. If from
Bür i Mūsa ssgāhir you steer true west towards the continent, you
go from Sawāk or Bür i Mūsa Kalir to Matiyit §. If the pole
is nine inches, and the inferior quadrant shows five inches and a
quarter$, and the wind blows strong, you go to Bārkatt or near it;
from Hind Jodr|| true west you go to Maserka§; this port is on the
upper side of Sawāken. If the pole is nine inches and a quarter, and
the inferior quadrant shows five inches, you go with a strong wind
from Hind Jodr to Sawāken; with a small breeze to the superior
part of Sawāken: where is nothing but mountains. Mark that if in
these parts you go tacking with a north wind, the rule is to hold the
middle between the Arabian and Persian (African) coast, and that if you
side to one of them you never attain your object. On the south side
the bank Ris-eshabak** called Háwi is opposite the island Tamarsheh.
On the north side the end of Shabak is opposite Bür i Mūsa.

FOURTH VOYAGE from Jedda to Aden.

The way of the voyage from Jedda to Aden is the following. If
you start from Mesmári you go two rhumbs†† S. S. W., afterwards
two rhumbs S. by W., afterwards two rhumbs to the south pole, turn
then and steer S. E. by E. from thence you steer S. E. to Zokar‡‡.
From Zokar you run one rhumb S. by W. afterwards S. S. E. to
Babel Manda;n from thence one rhumb in the direction E. S. E.,
then E. by S. to A'ara¶, from thence you follow the direction E. by
N. to Adan in Yaman, which is a celebrated port, and is commonly
called the Pearl Aden¹⁰, though there are no pearls at Adan; but as it
is a great port, this name arises probably from its trade in pearls; in
the same way you call the cocoanuts, which come from Bengal Kabúl-
lian, because they come by the way of Kabúl. Cornelians of Yaman
are found at Aden in immense quantities.

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4. 19° 51'; Shab Barkoot is in 19° 14'. 5. || Hindee Geedam, 19° 21'.
6. †† Mersa Arakea, on the coast, 20° 13'.
7. ** Ul Shebek, 18° 44'.
8. ‡‡ Gebel Zoogar, 14° 0'.
FIFTH VOYAGE FROM SAWÁKEN TO ADEN.

The way Sawáken to Aden is the following: The voyage may be performed in two different ways. From the 180th day till about the 230th of the Yazdajerdian year*, (beginning with the Naurúz;) that is to say, from the 45th day till to the 95th day of the Jelúlian year, when the sea-faring shuts; the voyage begins from underneith Shabaka† and you follow the coast till cape Márát‡; from Márát two záms true east, then two záms E. by S., then two záms§ E. S. E.; from thence turning to S. E. you come to Saibán; if from Saibán you wish to make Kamrán, you go true east, till you see the islands of Kotúma and Okbán; from thence to Kamrán is the Ssáheb Darke Robbán⁶? If you sail from Rakba; one saum towards the south pole you come to the mountain of Zokarṣ, and from thence you proceed in the same manner as it has been mentioned before.

The second way of performing this voyage is with the monsoon which sets in with the 280th day of the Yazdajerdian year (12th Aug.) which is the 145th of the Jelúlian, or near it. Sailing from Rakba|| you steer right east, because in this season the south-western winds prevail. If you do not set out below Shabaka, set out from above it, going between the islands and Shabaka, till you are passed the sea islands, little Bār-Mūsa¶ and such ones, you follow the course of true east. As soon as the islands disappear you sail S. E. till the pole is marked seven inches and a quarter; you go then S. E. by E. to Saibán. This is the course with a favourable wind, but if it is not favourable it is quite different.

SIXTH VOYAGE FROM ZAILI‡‡ to KUJURAT.

The way of performing it is the following. After having left Aibán⁵ and after having passed the unclean places, you steer N.E. by E. till you see the mountains of Aden; from thence true east, till you lose sight of the mountains of Aden; from thence E. by N. three or four days; then E. N. E. If you do not see the mountains of Aden you go N. E. by E. till the pole marks five inches††; from thence in the manner above said. Be it known, that in Gujerit grow indigo, ginger, cocoanuts, tamarind, and the tree Tír, each bunch of which gives every day a pitcher of wine; there is also the Pawn¹¹, that is to say, tanbıl شبكه تاریک جنگل 9 زبان 10 9 نمی‌گذارند 9 کیا 2 مارات 3 زخم 6 عیدان 7 صاحب درکه 8 ربان

* 7th May to 25th June.
† Amarat, 18o 19'.
‡ Saddle island.
§ Zoogar, the záms must here be taken at one degree.
|| Trinkahat? 18o 45'; another name for Shabak. ¶ Barmoosa.
** Zehla, east of Babelmandal, to Gujerat. †† Lat 13o 30'. †† The toddy palm.
trees, and a great number of Tābāu trees (Tuja)*, from the branches
of which the bunches descend as roots; there are bats, the wings of
which measure more than a yard; there is also a great number of
Zokūm trees †, and an infinite number of parrots and apes, so that
you might call it the country of apes.

Seventh Voyage from Barbarat‡ to Gujerat.

If you start from Khorsaid§ you follow the direction N. N. E. till
you come to where the measure is equal¶, which has been explained in
the former chapters, and from thence you proceed in the way above
mentioned.

Eighth Voyage from Aden to Gujerat.

If you start from Aden, you go true east till you lose sight of the
mountains of Aden; you continue to hold the same route a day and
a night, then E. by N., till the southern wind sets in, then E. N. E. if
possible, and if not, you follow the above course and go then E. N. E.;
if there be little motion with the Awelama® (?) there is no harm in it;
if a closer course is pursued you side to E. by N. and return from
thence again to E. N. E., till the measure ‡ is equal; in this measure
Lyra¶ is five inches, or Sagitta§ six inches, or Canopus and Lyra are
equal to three inches and a half. Under this measure (height) you see in
the sea frequently sea snakes, which ought to be taken care of, as it is
a good sign; if you do not see them follow your way in the direction
right east till you see them, and then change again your course to
E. by N. till you see land. The best rule is to trust to the soundings
and not to the sea-snakes, which, if they prove true, show themselves
twice and thrice a day. Be it known, that sometimes in the monsoon
Damini the ship is thrown by the current towards the Persian shore
like mount Koholād Dabbaghāt®; at this time the ship finds itself in
the barbarian channel; there great precaution is necessary against
the whirlpools; besides this place there are such between Gujerat and
Sind in the gulph Jakad***, where the wind blows continually
from the sea, and the current comes from the shore, so that waves

* The Bur or Banian tree. † See or Euphorbia ligularia, Roxburgh.
‡ Lat. 10° 30', Long. 45° 10'. § The kidās or 16° 54'. ¶ Lat. 16° 54'.
¶ There must be some mistake in these stars, as Lyra would have a meridio-
nal altitude of 68° 30' and Sagitta much more. Canopus also could not be
above the horizon along with Lyra, as in the given latitude this star only rises
after Lyra sets; and it attains an elevation of 19° on the meridian.
*** Point Gigat, at the entrance of the gulph of Cutch.
and contrary currents are not wanting, and a ship falling in with them runs great risk to be lost, if it is not saved by the grace of God; so it is necessary to avoid these places. You must turn from the Persian shore to the Arabian, and steer N. N. E. and N. E. by N. till you are out of reach of this dangerous place, after which you steer again E. N. E. Know that the wind of Canopus (S. S. E.) is not to be trusted till the pole is made with six inches or six inches and a quarter; the flood runs then true E. The signs of a tempest are great distress, and the summer birds called in *Yaman, ijjam*, also the birds *bani safīfi* and *amm ul sanān*; these birds keep then to the shore, flying in the summer on the sea; sometimes you see them till where the pole is made with nine inches, (lat. 19° 54').

**Ninth Voyage, from Kashan**† to Gujerūt.  
If you set sail from *Leiben* you follow the direction E. S. E. and E. by S. during night time, when for the most part the northerly wind ceases. From S. S. E. there is a heavy swell; therefore it is advisable to keep the high sea; if during night time the wind diminishes and you find yourselves at sea, lay to till the wind becomes fresh again; but if it be fair, you go twelve *zāms* true east, return then to E. N. E. till *Sagitta* is six inches or *Lyra* five inches, or *Canopus* and *Lyra* come equally to three inches and a half. If in this height you see really sea-snakes, you follow the course of E. by N. till land is seen. If the sea-snakes are not seen, you steer true east till you see them, and return then to E. by N. The sign of the presence of the sea-snakes are great numbers of birds, as the *Sowaidi* and *korān*? In some years the sea-snakes and the birds *Sowaidi* are seen on the Arabian coast. If you are leaning towards the Arabian shore, and the pole is made with nine inches or near it, it is guessed that you are come near the Indian land; but this is not certain, because these birds do not deserve much credit, as some years they are seen, and in other years they are not seen; sometimes they are to be seen in great numbers, and sometimes but few.

**Tenth Voyage, from Khalafūt**§ to Gujerūt.  
If you start from *Khalafūt* you keep the sea till you come to cape *Fartash*||, from thence you run twelve *zāms* true east, then to E. N. E. or E. by N., as it has been mentioned before.

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* Kisseen on south coast of Arabia; Long. 51° 5'.  
† Wrog stars, (vide supra) Dr. *Dorn* calls *Lyra ulsa'bak*, not *salbar*.  
‡ About 20° N. Lat.  
§ Maculla?  
|| Cape Fartash, N. E. of Kisseen.
Eleventh Voyage, from Zofár* to Gujerát.

Setting sail from Zofár you go S. E. by S. or near it till you get into the open sea, into which cape Marbt1† stretches out a long way. From thence you go E. N. E. or E. by N. till you come to the kiás2 (Lat. 17°) (the measurement explained in former chapters). At Zofár grow also cocoanuts.

Twelfth Voyage, from Kálhát3 to Gujerát.

Setting sail from Kálhát; you follow a true eastern course till you see the sea-snakes, and if you see them, you return towards the coast, till Lyra1 is marked by four inches and a half; from thence you steer true east till you come to the shore; this is the course performed with the monsoon Azib: but at the time of other monsoons you follow the direction E. by S. till you are come to the kiás (measurement explained in the former chapters), from thence true east till to the end.

Thirteenth Voyage, from Maskát to Gujerát.

If from these ports you wish to make Concan5, you follow the direction of E. by S. and east; if you wish to go to Monembár§, you follow the direction S. E. by E., you come then to the mount Karata6, which is a famous mountain of Monembár.

Fourteenth Voyage, from Aden to Monembár§, (Malabar.)

The course is the same which has been already mentioned before from Aden to Gujerát; you go on till the pole marks six inches and a half or seven inches||; if from thence you can go tacking, you go in the direction of E. by S. or true east; if it is impossible to keep this course, your way is E. by N., till the pole is made by seven inches and half or eight inches; from thence you follow the direction E. by S. till the pole is made with six inches|||, then true east till land is in sight, which is A'zúdión8*** or a place near it; you steer then towards the shore; what is meant by the inches, assabá9, and the pole or polar star jahl10 has been explained in the former chapters.

Fifteenth Voyage, from Aden to Hormúz, (Ormus.)

Sailing from Aden in the direction true east you see the moun-
tains of Aden, and if you do not see them you steer in the direction of Dairat Bar11 which is E. N. E. till Fartak12; from thence five záms12††

* Dofar, a little further east of Fartak. † Cape Morebat; Lat. 16° 50', Long. 55°. ‡ Half way between Muscat and Cape Rasalgat. § Malabar. || About Lat. 17°. ¶ Lat. 150. ** Ajideeva near Ankola, lat. 14° 40'. †† The záms here must be about 35 miles.
N. E. by E.; then N. E. to Marbhth* and Mottuka†, (this last is called Janjari,) from thence you follow again the direction N. E. by E. taking care on your way of the island Hausakeya*, because on its sea-shore is a shallow; it is necessary to come forth between Fukara5 and the islands Kharö6 or Múria††. After having found Fukara sail five záms N. E. by E. then three záms N. E., from thence five N. E. by N. to Mousir‡‡; you may see it or not; if you see it, you follow the same way till the island is left behind: from thence four záms to N. E. from whence you return to N. by E. till Rasolhadd; from Rasolhadd you direct yourselves to the known Dairai Barr10 till Rús Mosandem11§, from thence to the pole to Hormuz. The pearls for which Hormuz is famous are fishes on the islands of Kais32 and Bahrain13. If you wish to go from Rasolhadd to Dúlsind14|| you steer E. N. E. till you come to Pasani15 or near it; from thence to Dairai Barr16, that is to say, E. by S. till Rús Karúsh17, where you come to an anchor, waiting for the fishing boats with which you enter the port. The ancient pilots used to sail from Cape Alhadd to that of Karúsh in the direction E. by N. but it is better to go with the higher wind.

**Sixteenth Voyage, from Diu to Meshkáss18††.**

The time for this voyage is from the tenth day after the Yazdajerdian Nawruz to the 60th day (7th Nov.—27th Dec.) which is to say, from the 240th day after the Jelalian Nawruz to the 290th. First you follow the direction W. by S. two Terfa19, that is to say, two inches, which make the poles eight inches‡‡; from thence to W. S. W. one Terfa; if it is the time to measure the pole (to take the height by the polar star) you take it: if not be the time for it§§ you take the height at the setting of Aquila20|| by the Lyra21 which gives

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* Hasek of maps. † Curia Muria. ‡ Mazeira island. § Cape Musandan, at the entrance of the Persian Gulph. ‖ Kishma? ¶ Mouths of Indus. ** Kurachee on the northernmost mouth. †† Maculla? or a place nearer Morebat? ‡‡ Lat. 18° 18′. §§ This sentence proves that the meridional passage of Polaris was usually observed.

||| The Arabic name of the star here translated Aquila by the Baron enables us to clear up the difficulty in former passages. In the description of the Arabic celestial globe by Dr. Dorn (Roy. As. Soc. Trans. II. 381, the star اَلفَالْبَلْدَنْ (the falling vulture) is shown to be alpha lyrae, or wega of the Alphonsine tables. The translation in the text, therefore, should be—* take the height of Polaris at the setting of wega (in lyrae), i. e. of alpha lyrae.
seven inches and a half, then you steer true east to Sájer, the mountains of Dain are visible on the right; at this time of the year it is better to see them than to see Fartak, because the wind coming from N. N. E. is to be feared, which at this time of the year (it being winter) is much to be feared, as it raises great dust and waves. If you cannot attain Sájer you pass Meshkáss; if the polar star is seven inches and the ship at sea with a strong wind, turn again its head to the sea one or two days, according to the strength or the weakness of the wind; after the winterly wind sets in the monsoon Azib, and in this case you go back as much as you are come. If you start from Diu on the 70th or 80th day of the Yazdajerdian year (6th—16th Jan.) your way lies then in the direction W. S. W. till you come opposite the Cape of Fartak, which is the 300th day from the Jelalian Nawrúz or the 310th. From opposite the cape Fartak you go true east; if the winterly wind blows, you haul down the sails and lay to, if possible; if not, you go with as little sail as possible to get the ship free of the waves. After the ceasing of the winterly wind the monsoon Azib sets in, in which case you measure back your steps as much as you have gone, and this season is better than the former. Some years the winterly winds blow till to the hundredth day of the Yazdajerdian year, which is the 330th day of the Jelalian (14th Feb.) particularly from Fartak to Zofár; the signs of land being near are the birds Dhoaiik and Koraiik, and of the sea beasts or fishes; the Tabbúka and Lezák, and of the maritime plants the Kirmith, and Kelhaf.

Seventeenth Voyage, from Diu to Shehr and Aden.

The course lies first W. S. W. till opposite Fartak, from thence true east till land is in sight; this voyage is performed within the tenth day of the Yazdajerdian year, and the sixtieth, that is to say, within the 240th and 290th of the Jelalian (7th Nov.—27th Dec.) if it is performed within the 80th or 90th day of the Yazdajerdian year, answering to the 310th or 320th of the Jelalian (16th Jan.—26th Jan.) the course to be held is W. S. W. till the pole is six inches and a quarter or six inches, then true west. If you set out from Diu on the 110th day of the Yazdajerdian year, which answers to the 340th day of the Jelalian year (15th Feb.), the course to Meshkass and Shehr is W. S. W. and S. W. by W. till the pole is marked by five inches and a quarter; from thence you run true west; at your right the island of Socotra is near in sight; as soon as you

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* Seger.  
† Doan near Fartak.
see it, if you are bound to Meshkass or Hiridji* you steer N. W. by W. and if you intend to go to Shehr you steer W. N. W. till you see land; the sign of your approaching Socotra is that you see of the sea-plants or an infinite number of trees of the species called Kirmith, but sometimes you see them and sometimes not; on the coast of Shehr men and animals live all on fish.

Eighteenth Voyage, from Mahaim† and Shiul to the Arabic coast.

The time for sailing from these ports is from the tenth to the sixteenth day of the Yazdajerdian year, which answers from the 240th to the 290th day of the Jelalian year; the course to be followed is W. by S. till the pole is marked by seven inches, from thence you steer true west. If you intend to go to Meshkass, Shehr, and Aden, the course to be followed is W. by S., till you come opposite to Fartak, from thence you go true west to Fartak, and from thence to which port you please: if you set out from the above mentioned ports at the end of the season, the direction to be followed is W. S. W. till the pole is four inches and a quarter or four inches and an eighth, from thence you steer true west to Kardafian‡. The ports Mahaim and Shiul belong to Deccan; from this country come the muslins called Candaharians, and those of Daulatabad, Beraputari, and Baimari.

Nineteenth Voyage, from Diu to the islands of Dib, (Maldives.)

Steer first S. S. E. the pole being made by five inches, side towards the land in the direction of E. S. E. and S. E. by E. till you see the mountains of Monibar; from thence to Daira Barra, till the pole is three inches; from thence to the south pole, till the farqad§ are eight inches and a quarter, then true W. to the island Foyuka, and the islands near it.

Twentieth Voyage, from Dauabul to the islands of Dib.

You follow first the direction W. S. W. till you lose the shore, from thence to Daira S. W. by W. till land is in sight; from thence S. S. E. till the pole comes to three inches, from thence to the south pole and S. S. W. till the Farkadain (β and γ in the little bear) are marked by eight inches and a half; from thence true west to Foyuka or its neighbourhood. Mark what has been said above: till land is in sight steering S. W. by W., that means, that the land is at hand.

* Maculla? and Hargiah near Aden. † Mahim, north, and Sheoud, south of Bombay. ‡ Guardafui, N. E. Cape of Africa, lat. 12°.
§ The farqadain, or β and γ ursæ minoris.
Be it known to you that in some of the islands of the Maldives the inhabitants hunt with dogs, bred to the purpose, the Orang-ootang (Nisnaus) and eat it. The Nisnaus is an animal resembling a monkey, but endowed with speech; but generally monkeys are also called Nisnaus. I have heard from the brother of Janím Hamza, the late Intendant of Egypt, that coming one day on commercial business at the extremity of Yanan, to a walled village, he alighted at a house where two boys lying on the ground were crying, and that out of commiseration he untied their fetters. The master of the house, returning, laughed at it, and said, these are Nisnaus, which we hunt. The next day the master of the house took his disbelieving guest with him, and he saw the Nisnaus hunted by dogs. Some Nisnaus emerge from the sea, their flesh is a great dainty; that they are endowed with the power of speech is even recorded in the books of philosophers.

Twenty-first Voyage, from Diú to Maskát and Hormúz.

The time of performing this voyage is from the 10th of the Yazdajerdian year to the 60th, (7th Nov.—27th Dec.) that is to say, from the 242nd day of the Jelalian year to the 290th; but you must continually go tacking, because the wind which is at this time of the year the monsoon Azíb, blows very strong; if it is impossible to pursue your course tacking, you must wait till the wind grows favourable, in which case you go till the Lyra1 (?) is made by three inches and a half, and the land is at hand; because the interior pole is near the Arabian mountains; from thence you proceed true west to Saatar12*, or its neighbourhood. If you set out on the 110th day of the Yazdajerdian year, which is the 340th of the Jelalian year, (7th Feb.) your way is W. N. W. till the pole is eleven inches; from thence true west till to Tib3, or its neighbourhood; but if you set out on the 150th or 160th day from the Yazdajerdian Navrúz, which is the 15th or 25th of the Jelalian year (26th March), then you proceed W. S. W. and S. W. by W. till you see the island of Socotra: direct your course then towards the north pole till Hausakiat1, from thence to Dáira (E. N. E.) towards the Arabian coast; if the wind grows strong before Socotra is in sight, the western wind Kús you proceed tacking to N. W. by N., or N. W. or N. N. W. as you can till you see Mottuk4, Khúr5, or Múria6. If these places are not seen, you must take care of Ghabbai-tín7. In order to avoid it, you put the head of the ship to the sea and go on. The sign that you

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* Swardi, near Muscat. † Hasek. ‡ Curia Muria. § Cape Isolette.
are near Ghebba is, that the water grows yellow; as soon as you see signs of land being near you must be in guard against it, till Madreka or Masstra*. If the pole is ten inches and a half, and land is not in sight, and no signs are seen; you have passed the Arabian shore, and then you have no chance but to steer for the Indian continent. You follow the direction E. by S. till the pole is ten inches to Mangalar† or Somnāt‡ or Shārowaur§ and Gūlinaur¶; but take care not to bring the pole to ten inches and a half, (22° 18') in which case you necessarily come to Jaked§ which is your damage and repentance too late. God be your guide! What is said of Indian whirlpools is all a tale, except the whirlpools in the gulph of Jaked, and in the Barbarian channel near Kardafūn, where ships falling in are unavoidably lost; the causes of it are the heavy waves, the strong winds, the currents and the breakers of the coast, so that it is impossible for the ship either to hold the sea or to land on the shore, if God does not grant his particular grace. If you guess that you may be drifting to Jaked you must take before hand your precautions and endeavour to reach from the coast of Makrán either the port of Kalmata§ or Kawāder, or Kapchi Makrán; Bandar Kawawyer||, is the place where cocoanuts grow; or you must try to go to Karaushi‡‡ or to enter Khārdiül Sind; that is to say, the port of Lahore, to get rid of the fear of Jaked. In Sind are a great number of liver-eaters, against whom you must be on your care; because if they meet a man who eats his dinner in public, they have the talent of eating up his liver with their eyes, and so kill him. This is not to be slighted.

Twenty-second Voyage, from Cambeya to Aden at the end of the season.

Cambeya is the district in the province of Gujerāt, comprehending the ports of Ahmedabad and Patan; from thence comes the cotton of Patan; and Bahāder and some Indian stuffs. In this country is a profusion of Babughāri¹⁰ and cornelians: but the best of the last are those coming from Yaman. If you set out from Cambeya and come to Diū or its district, you must sail at night, because at the end of the season the wind blows from the west during the day, but during the night from the shore; with this land breeze you go as far you can towards the south. In some years the wind is a strong north western in the place of the Maurara (sea-snakes), then your course is

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* Mazeira.
† Mungrole, 21° 30'.
‡ Somnāth, Choowaur, and Cooleynorky Pagoda.
§ Point Gigat, or Juggut, at the south-west corner of the Gulf of Kutch.
|| One of the three Bunders on the coast of Gujerāt.
S. W. by W. Your measure (height) be the pole and no other, till the pole marks five inches, then you go W. S. W. till the pole is four inches and a quarter or four inches and an eighth, then true west to Kardafan. The signs of Kardafan being near are the birds Karik¹ and Manji², but few are seen of the last, those which are the most frequent are the Daghat³ and Kaslo⁴; of sea animals you see the Tubbaka⁵ (tortoise?) and sometimes the sea-horse; as soon as land is again at a distance these signs vanish: it is also probable that the birds here seen are those of Socotra, Samaha⁶ and Dorzán⁷. God knows the rest. If at this time of your course Socotra is on the north, you direct yourselves to Hadiai Socotra⁸, and if you go to Kardafan, your course is along the Persian* continent. If you go from Hejrat¹† to Därzin¹‡ you steer W. N. W. and if you wish to go from Mit¹† to Aden you steer true west till Aden is in sight, then you follow the current, májri¹², till Báb Mándam.

**Twenty-third Voyage, from Dábúls to Aden¹³.**

If you leave Dábúl at the end of the season, you direct yourselves W. S. W. till the pole is four inches and an eighth, from thence true west to Kardafan.

**Twenty-fourth Voyage, from Kúwwai Sindabúr¹⁴†† to Aden.**

If you start from Kúwwai Sindabúr at the end of the season, take care not to fall on Cape Fáli¹⁵, because it is five inches and a quarter on the pole; steer therefore W. by S. till the pole is four inches and an eighth, from thence true west.

**Twenty-fifth Voyage, from Hennúr¹⁶|| and Báudaklaw¹⁷¶ to Aden.**

If you leave those two ports at the end of the season, go from Azdíli¹⁺⁺⁺ or Angúli¹⁹ side-wards, and then turn to the sea true west, if the wind be favourable; if not, direct yourselves W. by S. or W. by N. your utmost being S. W. by W. If you cannot attain any of these directions, turn and steer to the pole till the wind grows favourable, then turn again and steer W. by S. till the pole is made by four inches and an eighth, so you come then going true west to Kardafán: the vicinity of Cape Fawl is known by the quantity of birds and a

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¹ Karik: African.
² Manji: a type of African bird.
³ Daghat: a type of sea animal.
⁴ Kaslo: another type of sea animal.
⁵ Tubbaka: a tortoise species.
⁶ Samaha: a type of African bird.
⁷ Dorzán: a type of African bird.
⁸ Hadiai Socotra: a region in the Persian continent.
⁹ Persian*: a reference to the Persian Gulf.
¹⁰ Hejrat: a point along the coastline.
¹¹ Därzin: a point along the coastline.
¹² Májri: a type of current.
¹³ Dábúls: a place along the coastline.
¹⁴ Kúwwai Sindabúr: a place along the coastline.
¹⁵ Fáli: a point along the coastline.
¹⁶ Hennúr: a place along the coastline.
¹⁷ Báudaklaw: a place along the coastline.
¹⁺⁺⁺ Azdíli: a type of African bird.
¹⁹ Angúli: a type of African bird.
|| Honawer: a place along the coastline.
¶ Malabar: a region along the coastline.
* South of Bombay, lat. 17° 45'.
† Harjieh?: a place along the coastline.
‡ Mette, west of Guardafui.
⁺⁺⁺ Aujideeva, off Ankola, lat. 18°.
††Probably Cotuale Sonderbaut of Arrowsmith, north of Goa.
great quantity of Kalhūd, that is to say, sea foam and Kermet, or sea trees.

**Twenty-sixth Voyage, from Calicūt to Kardafūn.**

If you sail from Calicūt with a favourable wind, steer W. by S. and sometimes W. S. W. so you come to the island Kolfaini; if at this time, that is to say, on the 140th day of the Yazdajerdian year, which is the 5th of the Jelalian (March), the sea shuts, the flood runs at this time N. N. W. from thence you direct your course to the south pole, and go tacking if the flood runs to the south pole, but if the wind falls lower, then this course to S. W., S. W. by S. and S. S. W. you may follow it a day and a night without inconvenience. If it should fall yet lower, turn and steer to the north pole or near it, particularly if the pole is made by less than three inches (lat. 10°), because it is profitable to be then high north, and the wind grows favourable; if it be already so, you run from Calicūt till Kolfaini two zāms in the direction of W. by S., then eight or nine zāms W. S. W.† then you may rejoice, as you have got clear of the islands of Fūl, from thence W. by N. and W. N. W. till the pole is four inches and a quarter, and then true west to Kardafūn. Calicūt is famous for its pepper plantations: its Prince is the Sūmerū‡ who is at war with the Portuguese. On these coasts are a great number of elephants employed in dragging ships, launching them into the sea, and similar doings.

**Twenty-seventh Voyage, from Diu to Malacca.**

Leaving Diu you go first S. S. E. till the pole is five inches, and side then towards the land, till the distance between it and between the ship is six zāms; from thence you steer S. S. E., because in the neighbourhood of Ceylon, the sea runs high, the further you keep off the more quiet the sea grows; you must not side all at once but by degrees, first till the farkadain (β and γ in the little bear) are made by a quarter less than eight inches, from thence to S. E. till the farka
dain are seven inches and a quarter, from thence true east at a rate of 18 zāms, then you have passed Ceylon. The sign of Ceylon being near is continual lightning, be it accompanied by rain or without rain; so that the lightning, of Ceylon is grown proverbial for a liar. After having passed Ceylon you go E. N. E. and E. by N. till the pole is made by two inches, from thence true E. till to the island of Sarjalt which is one of the Nājbāri (Nicobarian) islands. After hav
ing left it behind you steer E. by S. till land is in sight, you go along it to the islands Falūsanbīlen§ which are nine islands; from thence to

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1. Calpeni, one of the Laccadives.
2. This course is the "nine degree channel" through the Laccadives.
3. SHAH AMIR? of the Bider or Ahmedabad dynasty, A. D. 1505—49.
4. Pulo Sambelan or the "nine islands" on the Malay coast, lat 4° 5'.

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the south pole. At your right some islands are seen at a distance, so you go towards the south pole till you come to the islands to Folod-jomra* which appear near, from thence E. S. E. where the sea is more than ten fathoms, if it be 11 or 12 never mind, because after 12 is the deep sea, and you are clear of the Shob Kafaussi. You go till mount Folupasalär², is opposite, N. E. till the soundings give 24 fathoms, because there is a bent shāb³ running out in the sea, which is to be taken care of—wherefore your course must be followed always in a depth of 24 fathoms till you see the mount Folupasalär N. N. E.; then you steer towards the land and Dairai-barræ (E.N.E.) till Malacca. The inhabitants of Shulï† (?). go from Fulásanbilen two záms to the south pole.

**Twenty-eighth Voyage, from Diá to Shátiyám‡, i.e. to Bengal.**

Sailing from Diá, your course, till you have left Ceylon behind you, is the same as the above mentioned, then you steer N. E. Ceylon remaining on the western side; then N. E. by N. till you come opposite to Rakanj³§, where the pole is made with a quarter wanting to nine, and the Aselli scarce with six inches; if in this course you see land it is well; if not, steer E. N. E. till the pole is nine inches and a half, so you come to the island of Dardiv⁴. If you see it at this time it is well, if not go right east till you see land, but take care of Fesht Hayumiun⁵‖, which is a desert rock, round which the water is twenty fathoms deep; take care also of Dardiv⁴‖ where the water is but five fathoms. If Rakanj is in sight, go N. W. with 25 fathoms of water. At this time Hayumiun remains on your right, of which great care is to be taken. After having passed it you approach the land till your soundings give 16 fathoms, and with this course you come to Dardiv; after having left it behind you go with 12 fathoms depth N. N. W., there you come to a great Khūr⁶ (?) called Bakal⁷**, and then five capes which are taken for islands by those who don’t know them; then comes a Ghobba⁸, that is to say, a gulph full of shallows, shoals and breakers; this place is called Kākar Diwā¹¹††, then you come to the island Zenjilì¹²‡‡ which is facing

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* The Arrosains. Mt. Parcelar is a well known land mark on the coast, lat. 2⁰ 50'. † The Sholas or Marhatta traders? ‡ Chittagong, once a place of great trade. § Arrakan, lat. 20⁰ 10'. † Probably Oyster island, a barren rock off Arracan, or St. Martin’s reef. ¶ Probably Nardiel or Narkol deep of Horsburgh, off the Tek Naaf entrance. ** Probably Mascall island. †† Cutub-deep, southof Chittagong. †‡ There are now no islands seaward of Chittagong coast to which the sailing directions of Sidi will apply: but Lieut. Lloyd, of the Indian Navy, who has surveyed this line, informs us that there is a long shoal called "the patch," parallel with the coast, which is nearly dry at low water, and may have formed the islands of Zenjilia three centuries ago; for there have evidently been great changes in these parts, even in the memory of our own navigators.
you, your way lies N. N. W. When you approach this island, side to
the sea, because its southern cape is rikk\(^1\), that is to say, a shallow, and
the colour of the water grows white; meanwhile, on the sea side it is
seen green. Hold that course, and you’ll find better soundings by degrees
till you come to 17 and 18 fathoms. Coming to this place you find the
water again whitish, these shallows are on the south side of Feshk Gúri-
án, which is a desert place: here the sea is noisy, don’t keep either too
near to the island of Zenjilia, nor too far from it, but steer a middle
course; if the soundings give 18 fathoms or near it, you have passed
Zenjilia; then you go in the direction of the north pole, and continue
to take soundings till you come to seven fathoms; from thence you steer
in the direction of the north pole, and to the rising place of the \(\beta\) and \(\gamma\)
of the little bear, till your soundings are six fathoms but not less. So
you come to cape Khúr\(^*\) which is Shátijám. Here you stop till
the rebbín\(^*\) (tide) come, with which you enter the port. Bengal is
abundant in ivory and ebony; the finest muslin turbans, the very
best jutár\(^{3*}\), and most precious Indian stuffs come from thence; the
finest muslin sashes are called malmal\(^1\), and the most precious of them
malmai-sháhít, which by confusion is generally named marmare-sháhít
(royal marble); there are also sea-bulls\(^6\), the best of them are found
between Bengal and Delhi in the interior lake; they are called sea
bulls, although they don’t live in the sea, but in the interior lakes on the
land; but the merchants call them so; for in the interior northern
lakes, in the mountains of the Afghán, are also found the rhinoceros
(Karkadán\(^8\), the name quite the same as the Krokkotos of Ctesias),
but their horns are but two palms long; it is related that those which are
found in Abyssinia have much longer horns. Girafes are found but
in Abyssinia and never in India.

Twenty-ninth Voyage, from Malacca to Aden.

Starting from Malacca you go first along the coast till to the moun-
tain Fólpásalur\(^7\); there you take care of the above-mentioned
bank\(^8\). This mountain is seen in the direction E. by S., and on some
distance you see Foñájmar\(^9\); after having left it behind you your
direction is that of the north pole till you come to the islands Falísan-
blent\(^\dagger\), from thence you steer for some time N. N. W. till you come
to the islands Firak\(^\ddagger\) and Yaflábotof\(^\ddagger\), from thence W. by N. till to
the island Nójban\(^1\), from thence W. by S. till the farkadáin (\(\beta\)

\(|\begin{array}{llllll}
| & | & | & | & | & |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| فلوباسالر | كورتشان | كوركتاس | مدل | جتر | زيان
| ناجبان | ناجبان | ناجبان | ناجبان | ناجبان |
| Pula Sambelan | Pula Sambelan | Pula Sambelan | Pula Sambelan | Pula Sambelan |
| (Nicobars) | (Nicobars) | (Nicobars) | (Nicobars) | (Nicobars) |
\end{array}|)

\(^*\) The word Khúr used here and elsewhere seems a corruption of the Bengáli
term khát, creek or estuary.
\(^\dagger\) Choutar, a fine cloth, so
called from its four threads.
\(^\ddagger\) Pulo Sambelan of the Straits.
\(^\ddagger\) Probably Pera on the Malay peninsula, or Penang?
3 2 2
and γ of the little bear) are made with a quarter less eight; from thence true west, Ceylon being in sight at the right; if you don’t see it, continue nevertheless your western course till to the Maldives, and from thence to W. N. W. siding a little to N. W. by W. till opposite Kardafún, and till the pole is made by four inches and an eighth, from thence true west till you reach the land.

**Thirtieth Voyage, from Shitijüm, (Chittagong,) that is to say, from Bengal to the Arabian coast.**

Sail at the end of the madd (flood), that is to say, when three quarters of it are passed, and go then with the ebb W. by S. two záms, the soundings being six, seven and eight fathoms; weigh the anchor as soon as the flood sets in and go to the wind, weak or strong, till the ebb begins again one zám W. S. W. then two záms N. W. The water grows then black, and you direct yourselves S. S. W. till the Farkadain are made with eight inches less a quarter, from thence true W. Ceylon being in sight on your right, you continue true W. till to the Maldives, and from thence to Kardafún in the way above mentioned. The measure of the stars (the taking of the height) and the distance of the inches has been explained already.

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**II.—Extracts translated from a Memoir on a Map of Pesháwar and the country comprised between the Indus and the Hydaspes, the Peucelaotis and Taxila of ancient geography, by M. A. Court, in the service of Mahá-rája Ranjit Singh.**

**I.—ON THE PROVINCE OF TAXILA.**

The space lying between the Indus and Hydaspes was first known to the Greeks under the name of Taxila: whether as its ancient local title, or one given by the soldiers of Alexander from the town of the same name, afterwards its capital, is uncertain*. Strabo says that the

* Col. Wilford identifies the town of Taxila with the Taesha-sila of Hindu ancient geography, of which the extensive ruins were supposed by Elphinstone to be traced at Manikyala. The Taesha Sāila or Syāla tribe are still numerous in the Panjáb. They state, the former name of their city to have been Uda-nāgari. (As. Res. VIII. 42.) There is deposited in the Asiatic Society’s collection a large manuscript map of the Panjáb compiled by Col. (then Lieut.) Wilford from the route and compass surveys of a native, Mirza Mogul Beg, expressly instructed by himself and employed from 1786 to 1796, in travelling and collecting materials to illustrate an account of Alexander’s progress; the account however does not seem ever to have been the light, and it is probable that the map has thus suffered oblivion. It is considerably fuller than M. Court’s Sketch, and as might be expected from the Compiler’s learning, more correct in the orthography of names. We regret not having collated the two before lithographing M. Court’s map.—Ed.
native kings assumed the name on mounting the throne; and we find in history Alexander obliging Omphis, who governed the country, to take the name of Taxiles. The appellation is quite unknown at the present day.

It appears that the Greeks confined Taxila proper to the central part of the region between the Indus and the Hydaspes; for when they passed it, the northern portion was ruled by chiefs independent of Omphis, while the south was in open opposition to both Alexander and his ally.

The geographical limits of Taxila are well defined on the map, by the two rivers and the chain of Pirpanjul on the north;—from this range to Koshâb on the south it measures 120 kos, with a breadth from Attok to the Jelim of 74 kos*.

It seems probable that the original inhabitants were Hindus of the Pandava race, and Chandra-vansís. With these were amalgamated Persians, Scythians, and even Greeks; for the Ghékers, of whom so much has lately been written, I take to be the descendants of the Macedonian colonists;—they themselves trace their ancestors to the Khaiani race of Persia, but the word seems but a corruption of Greek.

Taxila contains the traces of a number of ancient towns of which the origin is now unknown. Massive walls of stone masonry are seen, and in some places brick work of Babylonish dimensions. The inhabitants call them the ruins of temples of Deva Nagari† or Sita-Râma. The most curious, however, are the mausolea, cupolas, or topses. In the northern provinces are found colossal statues of plaster, marble, and stone, most of which have been mutilated by the bigotry of the Muhammedans. Smaller idols are also occasionally dug up of superior execution: some I have remarked with frizzled hair. The ancient religion of the country was Buddhistic. The worship of Bacchus, or the Sun, prevailed at the time of Alexander, and traces of it are visible in the names of towns, as Surya, Sita, and Causalyna; the sun, his daughter and mother (?)”

The present inhabitants, being of so mixed an origin, betray striking varieties of character and manners. The Musulmans who border the Hydaspes resemble perfectly the Hindus of the Panjâb,—while those on the east bank of the Indus have all the peculiarities of the Afgháns, whence they are descended—an elegant figure, pleasing features, and vivacity of expression. They are loquacious like the Persians;—and though living in servitude, they retain their national pride, and submit

* Col. Wilford's map states that the kos of this part of the country varies from 10 to 22 furlongs, probably 2 miles will be a fair average.—Ed.
† Doubtless the Uda-nûgari of Wilford; see note to page 468.—Ed.
only to the authority of their chiefs, with whom they live on terms of equality. "I have everywhere witnessed their courage and intrepidity, in their encounters with the Sikhs, on whose bayonets they rush sword in hand. Against the Hindus a fierce and implacable bigotry is kept up among them by their Mullahs, whom they regard with superstitious reverence. They retain many traits of hospitality: are blunt, coarse in manner, and devoid of the polish of the Persians. Their dress is a long shirt, blue turban and scarf, which serves the secondary purpose of a cloth to pray upon. Their women are allowed comparatively much liberty, but do not abuse it: they perform as usual the whole labour of the household, while the men are in the fields. Their houses are constructed of mud roofed with timber, and again covered with earth to keep off the rain. The tribes of the plains, having a fine fertile land, are in good circumstances; but those of the Putwór, Thenni, and Khibbi districts are sadly oppressed by the Sikhs. The mountain tribes along the west bank of the Hydaspes are in a half savage state. Most of them live only by plunder and robbery, and think as little of cutting a man's throat as a sheep's. Travelling alone amongst them is most hazardous.

"The language of Taxila proper is the Hindustání corrupted, which pervades the Panjáb: in the north, Cashmerian; and on the Indus the Pashtú dialect, peculiar to the Afghán tribes. The Persian is little used, except among the informed classes.

"The principal towns in the southern division are Rawel Pindi, Jélam, Pind-dádan Khán, Nillé, Fateganj, Khibbi, and Makhade:—in the central division, Attok, Khampur, Iskanderpur and Noachir:—in the northern, Muzafferábád, Birkh, Pakhkeli, and Kaka Bamba."

M. Court describes minutely the whole of these and other remarkable places, repeating under the head of Manikyála the account of his interesting operations upon the topes there, which was published in the Journal for 1834. We have lithographed his sketch of the principal tope opened by M. Ventura and his ground-plan of the place (Plate XXVI.) to shew the situation of the numerous ruins with which it is studded, and which he considers to be the sepulchres of ancient kings. The following explanation refers to the figures on the plate:—

1. Chief Cupola explored by General Ventura, (J. A. S. 1834.)
2. Cupola whence were obtained the coins and relics described by M. Court in the same Journal for 1834, p. 556.
3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Ruinous topes of which the foundations have been dug up.
8. Cupola in which M. Court found an urn enclosing a glass prism.
9. Cupola wherein was discovered a box containing a bit of ivory.
10. Small mound whence were dug up fragments of bronze images.
11. Cupola which contained an urn of baked clay.
12. Square buildings attached to many of the Cupolas.
13. Tombs.
14. Mound from which were extracted many medals of copper and of caracoly (a compound of gold, silver, and copper.)

Pl. XX. represents what M. Court denominates a "symbole," also found among the extensive ruins of this curious place. We do not find it particularly described, but, from the general appearance of the sculpture it may be regarded either as a Buddhist or a Mithraic monument—probably the frame of some picture or shrine of a temple: and it is peculiarly interesting from the collection of symbols in the upper horizontal line, almost all of which can be recognized as belonging to the series of ancient coins about which so much has been written. The jar, the swastica, the sun, the altar, and especially the penultimate object on the right hand, which is common on the Kadphises coins.

All the country commanded by the elevated summit of Manikyâla is much raised above the plain of the Panjáb. It appears to have been anciently a vast plateau, that in the course of ages, from the gradual action of periodical rains combined with occasional earthquakes, has been cut into deep ravines now difficult to traverse, which make it look like a heap of ruins. It is covered with villages, the inhabitants of which raise a thin and precarious crop on its very poor soil. The neighbourhood of the mountains is covered with a thorny and leafless jungle.

The whole district is called Potwâr; it was formerly very populous, as at least testify the numerous ruins of old habitations. The villages are said to have run into one another, forming a continuous line for 16 kos from Manikyâla to Tammiâk. The mulberry and other fruit trees used to thrive in its gardens.

The ruins of Ramma are at 13 kos S. S. W. from Manikyâla: they are attributed to Sitá Rami (?) Those of Parvala, traced to the time of the Pandavas, are on the north at 12 kos. At the latter place, in the gate of an old castle, is an inscription in an unknown character.

Traces of a very ancient town, Dangêlí, are met with 14 kos towards the east: the inhabitants ascribe its origin to the Diws. It flourished under the Ghiker sovereigns, who resided there. Makkyala near Kattas, Benda and Pakhi were also Ghiker towns. The modern town of Bégram is five kos lower down than Dangêlí. It is now inhabited by Chandra-vansis, who are descended from the former râjas of the country.

In the neighbourhood of Jelim (a modern town of the Peruzan zemindars) are the extensive ruins of another castle perched on the top of an artificial mound, where very old Hindu medals are found.
The inhabitants assert that a city surrounded it called Bidad-nagar, which through the wickedness and cruelty of the raja was destroyed by an earthquake,—a fact borne out by the appearance of the mound. This hillock had been in generations past dug up in search of coins and relics. The walls were of brick, very massive and large: there were two or three reservoirs and some wells within the enclosure, one built of stone. The Cashmerians for twenty-five years have been in the habit of digging here, nominally for bricks, but evidently from their eagerness they have fallen upon more valuable spoil: the chief of Jelim has several times confiscated pots of copper and silver coins thus dug up. The greater part of these have a horsemanship on one side and a bull on the other*. At one time a number of squared blocks of red granite were dug up, and some door posts which have been since converted into objects of worship by some Udásí faqirs on the banks of the Hydaspes. One of them is sketched in fig. 2 of Pl. XX, and is seen to be the door post of a Hindu temple†. The fellow of it is set up at Khallih, three kos N. N. W. of Jelim, by some Ben-baba faqirs. M. Court imagines this spot to have been the site of Bucephalia; and he would fix Nicea at Patti-kuti near Vessa, three kos E. of Jelim. In his opinion Jelim and Aurangábād‡ are the only positions in which two numerous armies could have encamped to dispute the passage of the river. Moreover, not a vestige of an ancient town is to be found on the west bank of the Hydaspes from Kala Mangala to Dárapur, except at Sultánpur, where the river debouches from the hills. In face of this spot is the fortress of Kala Mangala, attributed to Rája Sarwan. The opposite bank is too broken for Porus to have manoeuvred his chariots. Below Sultánpur, at the small hill of Bariti, the inhabitants assert a bridge of boats formerly existed. Two kos further down, at Menor, are seen the remains of a castle of very great antiquity: the river once washed its walls, but has now retired half a league. It is accounted the customary place of crossing the river in former days.

* This description is insufficient to determine whether they are of the Azos group, or whether of the Rajput series; but as they are called above, Hindu, we presume the latter must be the case; and this will account for the large quantity of these coins procured by Keramat Ali and Mohan Lal in the Panjáb. It may also account for the inscription Syolapati on one series of them—"lord of the Syolás," whom Col. Wilford fixes as the people of Taxila, (see above.)—Ed.

† Capt. Burnes describes a fluted pillar with a capital very like the Corinthian order shewn to him by M. Court. He says also, that the inscription on the slab was in the Arabic character. Travels, i. 58.—Ed.

‡ ERRONEOUSLY WRITTEN UZENGABAD ON THE MAP:—AND MORONGBAD OF WILFORD.—Ed.
M. Court recognizes the place of Alexander's passage at Khilipatan, where is still the principal ford. It is five kos from Jelim, the Bucephela of our informant: agreeing with the passage in history, "Alexander wishing to pass the Hydaspes, ascended four leagues higher up than where he had encamped, and there crossed his army at an island which facilitated the passage." This island is the one in face of Khilipatan, for at the village of Gitiali the river divides into two branches, one running towards Jelam, the other towards Sukhandpur. They enclose a large plain of cultivable ground. The western branch is only fordable in November, December, and January: it divides again into two branches at Khilipatan, thus forming several large islands, the largest being two leagues long by one broad:—the river beds are pebbly, and the current strong. The plain continues for four kos up to the ruins of Patti Koti; and here, doubtless, Alexander must have had his encounter with Porus' son, and with that prince himself, who came to his aid. All that Plutarch says of the passage and of the towns founded by Alexander, tallies well with the above explanation.

The celebrated fortress of Rotas, now unworthy of regard in a military view, presents little beyond Muhammadan tombs and mosques in its ruins. There are, however, Hindu medals found there, but the particular class is not mentioned.

Pind-dádan Khán, a modern commercial town, is the great mart for the rock salt of the mountains on the west, now monopolized by Ranjit Singh*. Other ruins of an ancient town, Gagirákhi, extend along the banks of the Hydaspes from near Jelalpur to Dárapur. On leaving the district of Pind-dádan Khán by the route which traverses the salt range, the site of an Indian annual pilgrimage occurs, called Kottas. Here again are the traces of an old town ascribed to the Pandavas, where are found small images of a red stone, holding in their hand the toppa of the Persians,—a species of iron club which would appear to have been a weapon of offence formerly in use. Alexander was wounded by one in his attack on the fort of the Malli.

The district of Thenni bordering upon that of Pind-dádan is famous for its breed of horses and mules. After passing Chekuváí, Nilli and Dula on the Suban river, a ruined castle is pointed out where the sovereigns of old used to keep their treasure. Medals are here found

* See the description by Burnes in his Travels, vol. i. 52, and in the Journ. As. Socy. ii. 365. — Ed.
in the ruins. The whole country is indeed remarkable for the number of antique ruins it presents: the most striking are those of Tatta and Ris: those of Kounda are attributed to raja Hoddi (?)

At Jend, 12 kos from Khébbi, towards Kushán-garh is a small gold-washing. Fatehganj, a very old town, is remarkable for its sulphureous springs: Hassan Abdull, for its picturesque situation and pure waters: the remains of a palace built by Akber here are still visible: it is on the high road from Attok to Lahór. Of these places it is unnecessary to speak, as they have been fully described by Burns and other travellers; nor have we space to extract M. Court’s notes on Khánpúr, Skanderpúr, Naucher, &c. Near the former place General Ventura opened several cupolas, and a large one at Páhler was explored by the native chief.

Of the district of Pákherí, called by Forster Pákhóli, this author would make Peucelaotis of the Greeks. This M. Court refutes, placing it (as noted in the memoir published last month) near Bajore (Bazira of the Greeks) on the west bank of the Indus.

We must also take but a very cursory view of M. Court’s remarks on the physical geography of Taxila, hoping to see the whole published ere long in the Paris Journal, with the advantage of the comments of savans acquainted with the ancient history of the province.

The mountainous tract to the north of the district boasts the boldest and most romantic scenery. It is the link between the Píránpájíl range and the Hindu-koh. In the winter months there are but two or three passes practicable for foot passengers, and that with much hazard. Parallel ranges of less elevation occupy the southern face of the principal mountain ridge for a space of 40 to 60 kos, forming between them the successive valleys of Kakábamba, Pákkherí, and Mozáfferábd. Detached and irregular mountains and ridges cross the main chains at various angles, or form insulated groups, as is shewn on the map. There seem to be two principal lines of upheavement, which it would be abundantly curious to examine geologically on the principle of contemporaneous origin of parallel ridges started by M. Élie de Beaumont. The most interesting lines are the metalliferous hills N. W. of the Hydaspes, in general low, savage and uncultivated, but rich in ores. Ferruginous, sulphureous and saline springs are plentiful, but are not now turned to more use than the mines, which were apparently worked in former times. The Hydaspes formerly paid tribute in the gold of its own tributary streams. The Pindo-dádan chain has abundance of iron. At Kárenjéli near Kattas are mines of antimony:— in the Garhí range, native sulphur: near Makhodi, native alum: and at Pindo-dádan, the salt mines before mentioned.
The vault of the large salt mine fell in shortly after the visit of M. Jacquemont. The section shews well the position of the salt, which is, in fact, a solid rocky mass: towards the upper part it divides into veins of white and red:—the latter are preferred; the former containing lime and gypsum.

The western mine is greater in depth, but less extensive than the other. 250 steps were counted before reaching its focus:—the shafts were only wide enough for one person to pass at a time, each carrying a flambeau. The excavation is divided into two vaults; one is now abandoned, being cut away to a dangerous precipice.

The lamps rendered the air and heat nearly insufferable when Messrs. Wade and Murray visited it in company with M. Court.

On the surface of this chain are scattered large blocks of gypsum, worn as if by the action of the sea. Some yellow slates are also seen. Vegetation is confined to saline plants and a few thorny bushes.

Of the Indus and Hydaspes sufficient is already known. Danville has fallen into an error in making the former pass by Hashnogar, which lies on a small tributary called the Jind.

The climate of Taxila embraces extremes, from the healthy bracing cold of the snowy mountain to the excessive heats of the southern plains. The soil of the southern portion for want of water, as well as from the presence of salt, is little adapted for cultivation, and the villages are consequently very scant. In the beautiful valleys to the north, however, plentiful springs and a rich soil produce the opposite effects of fertility and a dense population; but agriculture is neglected through the oppression of the Government. The perpetual verdure of the hills to the north affords abundant pasturage for cattle.

II.—ON THE PROVINCE OF PESHA'WAR*.

Pesháwar, the city, supposed by some geographers to be Peucelaotis, of the Greeks, is said by its inhabitants to be built upon the ruins of the ancient Baghram. In dimensions it certainly much surpasses Cábūl, but its suburbs and the number of gardens which extend southward, contribute towards this apparent magnitude. Its houses are slightly built of brick or mud, held together by wooden frame work. This mode of building has, perhaps, been adopted on account of the earthquakes, which are frequent, but seldom very serious. The houses are generally provided with Sard-khánas, a description of cellar or underground room, where the inhabitants spend the day, to avoid the

* In this part of the translation, which follows the original more closely than the foregoing, we are indebted to the same fair hand, to which we were beholden on a former occasion.—Ed.
intense and scorching heat of their summer. The streets are narrow and irregular, and present every where the most uncleanly aspect.

A large bazar runs across from east to west, commencing from the Serai Gaur katra, and terminating at the fortress of Balasir. A stream which draws its waters from the river of Bahréh, crosses the town from south to north, and would very much facilitate the establishing of fountains, if the Asiatics only knew the use and advantage of them. The population of Pesháwar may be rated at 80,000 souls, consisting of Afgháns, Kashmirians, and Indians. The latter appear to have been its primitive inhabitants; but although they are still very numerous, they live in dependence on the Mahomedans, and are oppressed by heavy taxation, (taxés d'avanies.) All the commerce of the country is in their hands. From Cabul, raw silk, worsted, cochenille, jalap, manna, asafaétda, saffron, resin, simples, and both fresh and dried fruits—all which are generally exported to India, from whence they receive in return, cambric, silks, indigo, sugar, and spices. To Cashmir the exports are gold sequins, gold and silver thread and lace, in transit from Bokhára; and the return, shawls, tea, and Persian manuscripts. They exchange the salt of the Kohát range with the rock crystal and the iron of Bijáwar; this last district, as also those of Sawáit and Bunér, offer a ready market for the sale of their tissues of cotton;—the trades and arts of the town are limited to mere necessaries of life, and are principally carried on by the Cashmerians.

The Hindustání is generally spoken, also the Pashtu; the use of the Persian language becomes nearly extinct on entering this province. Pesháwar musters about 40,000 horse, a thousand foot soldiers, and twelve pieces of cannon. The troops are very irregular, and are badly paid.

The climate of the province is not very healthy. Fevers are very prevalent from the summer solstice to the end of autumn, at which period they generally prove fatal. They are brought on by excess in the eating of fruits, or by the unwholesome exhalations and vapours, rising from the rivers of the Duáb. The irrigation necessary for the cultivation of the Turkish corn in May, may contribute to engender fever, the heat of the air being then very intense. The inhabitants, ignorant of the superior properties of quinine, make use of a very bitter plant which grows on the banks of their streams. In 1835 I was encamped in this country with the French brigade, 10,000 strong, when we lost by these fevers upwards of a thousand men. Great inconvenience is also here experienced from swarms of flies, which prevent any nourishment being taken during the day; for if
any of them be swallowed with the food, they occasion a vomiting, attended with very severe pain in the loins and in the chest. Snakes and scorpions are also in great abundance, and are often venomous.

The spring sets in early: by the end of February the peach trees blossom luxuriantly; by the end of April the weather becomes unpleasant; and the heat is scorching during the months of June, July, and August. In June the Šiawm prevails; it is sometimes pestilential, resembling the desert blast (Samial) of Arabia. When it blows, one would fancy that one stood at the entrance of a hot oven. "Heaven pity then," the poor traveller, who is overtaken by this wind at midday in the open country! When first attacked the body becomes covered with blue spots, and putrefaction is almost instantaneous. This wind generally blows from W. N. W., in the direction of Ṣelīlābd, where it is frequently fatal. The hot season ends in September. The rains are heavy in the winter, when the sky is frequently clouded for a week together. There are intervals of rain also in April, but rarely. In July and August, the rainy season in India, little falls in these parts, but storms are very frequent, and very severe, and are always preceded by whirlwinds of dust, obscuring the atmosphere for hours together; they are brought on by the S. W. winds, and are accompanied by claps of thunder in rapid succession. The lightning falls with fearful flashes.

The environs of Peshāwar exhibit little else but a vast space covered with ruins and tombs. I discovered and dug out several remains of Indian statues. These statues, some of which are in plaister, others in bronze, appear to be of very ancient date, for they are devoid of beauty and are ill executed. They principally represent Gauraknāthī faqir, or perhaps Jogī, who for a long time held the country west of the Indus. The image represented (in Plate XXVI.) was dug out of the village of Banamārī, which lies west of Peshāwar. At a greater distance are the ruins of Pirīgēl, where in the rains Indian and Bactrian medals are to be found. To the west of Peshāwar is a mount upon which an ancient castle appears, which may be the one that Hephes-tion besieged, and which was re-established by Timour Shah, and was subsequently sacked by the Sikhs. The Sikhs again rebuilt it in 1834, when this province fell into the hands of Ranjit Singh, in consequence of a victory gained over the Afghans by the division under my command. The gardens which stretch from the south to the west of the town present the appearance of a forest of orchards, where they cultivate the plum, the fig tree, the peach, the pear, the mulberry peculiar to this country, the pomegranate, and the quince; but these fruits, although beautiful to the eye, are very far
from having equal flavour with those produced in the south of France. The grape is only cultivated at the village of Shêkh Imâm Mehdi.

Peshâwar is situated in the middle of a vast plain, which stretches towards the N. E., and which is twenty-five kos in length from the east to the west, and fifteen in breadth from the south to the north. The mountains of the Kattiuks, and the Afrêdis bound it to the east, and those of Kohât on the south. To the west it is bounded by the mountains of the Kheibars, and to the north the river of Nagumân separates it from the districts of the Duâb and of the Yusufzais. This plain is crossed by the river Bahreh, which has its source on the southern side of the Koh-sufêd, crosses the Kheibars, enters this district at Alâm-gújar, and after a short passage empties itself into the Nagumân, seven kos east of Peshâwar. Without it the district would be nothing but a barren desert. From June to September the river is dried up by the many drains made to irrigate the cotton plantations and the barley fields. The principal water-courses strike off at the village of Serband, and are divided lower down into an infinity of lesser ones, which give astonishing fertility to the soil of this district, and promote the cultivation of rice, which is principally sown in the village of the Mâshûrzaiz, and is much prized by the inhabitants of Afghânistân, and the Panjâb. The river Nagumân, which I presume is no other than the Malamantus of the Greeks, formerly ran to the west of Peshâwar, and you may still trace its bed near the ruins of Rashekâ. It appears that some sovereign of the country must have changed its course, in order to fertilize the land of the Mumunds, which extends to the south of the town. This tribe, as well as that of the Kaleels who inhabit the west, have often bloody contentions for the water. The districts of the Dâudzais and of Kâlessa are watered by the canal of Budênî, led from the same river of Nagumân; its waters are so favorable to vegetation, that grass grows on its banks to the height of a full grown man. The territory of Peshâwar is, generally speaking, most fertile, rivalling the best in Europe if it were but well administered. The harvest is gathered in the summer, and again in autumn. That of the summer yields an abundance of barley and corn,—that of the autumn several kinds of maize, rice, oil seeds, and abundance of cotton, which provides the inhabitants with a species of manufacture suited to the climate. Wood is procured in great scarcity from the surrounding mountains, on which very little grows.

This country on every side presents to the view ruins of ancient towns, of the very origin of which the natives are ignorant. The most striking are those of Khohusser, more commonly known by the name of the Takkal, where are the vestiges of three massive
cupolas, of very ancient date. Not far from thence are the ruins of 
Rachekhi. Further off the remains of the town of Jamrud may be 
observed at the entrance of the defile of the Kheibar mountains. 
The route from Pesháwor to Míchíní betrays signs of old habitations at 
Pírbalá and Pessánk. The road to Kohút presents also the remains of 
Boulidona, which may possibly be Embolíma of Alexander. Quite 
close to this, Delíter may be seen; and further off, at the entrance of 
the defile of the Kohúts, are the ruins of Kargan, Akor, Zendán; and 
in the districts of the Múmunds may be also seen those of Aspínagar, 
Bassevanan, and Ormúl.

The province is divided into six districts; namely, the Kaleeels 
to the west, the Múmunds to the south, the Dvídzais, the Duáb 
to the north, the Kalissa to the east, and that of Hashtnagar to 
the north-east. These several districts yield a revenue of eight 
lakhs of rupees, without including the cantons of Kohút and 
Lachiteri, which bring near two additional lakhs. The district 
of Kohút is inhabited by the Bungeish, and is celebrated for the 
beautiful springs of limpid water which meet at the foot of the 
surrounding mountains. A coal mine exists in this territory, but 
the inhabitants derive but small profit from it. A mine of sulphur is 
also to be found there, but it is not worked; and some petroleum 
 wells or mineral tar, which the inhabitants use to light up their 
dwellings. Adjoining to this pergannah are the districts occupied 
by the Theris, and beyond this is the province of Banítok.

The district of the Duáb is so called, because it is enclosed between 
the two rivers of Nagumán and Jíndí. It is very fruitful in rice and 
sugar-cane, and abounds in beautiful and fertile meadows. It is 
inhabited by the tribe of the Gigiánees. In the district of the Abádzais 
are the ruins of Gound, but their origin is not known. Still further 
in the direction of Tengí is the isolated mountain of Azorneh, which 
might well be supposed to be the Aornus, the conquest of which 
was one of Alexander's most brilliant exploits. The fortress of 
Hissár is only ten kos to the N. E. of Pesháwar: it is situated three 
kos from the river of Nagumán, in an island formed by two branches 
of the river Jínd, which flows from the outskirts of Savát and Bajá-
war. This fortress is conspicuously raised on a small artificial hill. 
At its foot are extensive ruins of an ancient town, apparently 
founded by idolaters, and upon which is built the actual town of 
Hashtnagar, a name meaning the seven towns*. Our geographers

* Hashtnagar, meaning eight towns. The whole eight are named on 
Wilford's map.—Ed.
think that this town is the same as Massaga, the capital of the
Assaceni, but I am more inclined to think that it is the Nysa of the
Greeks. Its proximity to the Cophenes, and above all what Plu-
tarch states as said by Alexander to his Macedonians, when they
objected to fording the river on account of its depth, corroborate
my conjecture. The inhabitants of the Duh, and those of the
mountains of the Mournards, appear to me to be the Assaceni,
who were employed by Alexander in building the vessels, in which
they sailed down the Cophenes as far as Taxila. To the N. E. of
Hashtnagar is the mountain of Behhi standing alone on a vast plain,
and close to it are the ruins of an ancient castle which is attributed
to Rajya Varrah, and which, according to the traditions of the
inhabitants, was the dwelling of the ancient sovereigns of this
country. There are also some basso-relievos, and the traces of
an aqueduct by which the waters were carried to the river Jind.
This aqueduct commences at the ruins of Rajir, which are situated
nearly opposite Hashtnagar. Further off in the district of the Babá-
zais, on another mountain, are the massive ruins of another fortress,
which can only be reached by means of a path cut through the rock.
It goes by the name of Peli.

Three days' journey north of Hashtnagar are the districts of Sawát
and Bunir, where are the ruins of Gerira, Bousekhan, Zakút, and Chín-
kor. Near the latter are four massive cupolas of the same kind as
those of Manikyála. The small river Panjkori traverses the district,
and joins the Jindi. It is much to be regretted that travellers do not
visit with more minuteness this portion of the country, as they might,
were they to do so, gain positive information as to the march of
Alexander on the banks of the Indus. It is in these districts that
Birbel, the Vizier of Akber, perished with a whole army. The inhabi-
tants have, we are told, cut a road through the rugged rocks,
leading to the north, by means of which they communicate with the
Tartar tribes of Kashgar and others. All that tract of country lying
to the east of Hashtnagar is inhabited by the tribe of the Yusufzais.
The Indus forms the eastern boundary of this district, and Landeh on
the river Nagumín its southern. To the north are the mountains of
Punjitar and Shenla. According to some historians, the province of
the Yusufzais is the same as the Taxila of Alexander, where the
king Omphis reigned, whose fidelity and devotion facilitated to Alex-
ander the conquest of the Indus. But, according to other historians,
and more especially in the opinion of Plutarch, the real Taxila was
that country enclosed between the Indus and the Hydaspes.
The province of the *Yusufzais* is divided into eleven tappas—viz:

**Principal Towns.**

Two tappas... 

1. Sedu-zais, Hound.
2. Otuman-zais, Toppi.

Five tappas, Rezers...

1. Malek-zais, Yar-hosein.
3. Mani-zais, Toulandi.

Two tappas, Amazais.

1. Ismael-zais, Kapurdigari.
2. Daud-zais,

Two tappas, Kamalzais.

1. Kamal-zais, Otté.
2. Kamal-zais, Tóru.

All these districts are governed by independent chiefs, who live in the greatest dissension. There are no taxes established, and each inhabitant rents, cultivates, and reaps the produce of his grounds, paying only a small sum as tribute to the chief of the district. It is only since 1822 that the Mahárája of Lahore succeeded by the force of arms in levying five rupees on every house and a certain number of horses, with which they are obliged to furnish him annually. The tribe of the *Yusufzais* is one of the most powerful in *Afghánistán*. It has always been remarkable for the independence it has preserved, and for some time it resisted the attacks of the Mogul kings, and even Nadír Sháh himself, who never thoroughly succeeded in subjugating it. The people of this tribe are vigorous, active, turbulent, and have given proofs of extraordinary courage in the wars which they have had to sustain against the Sikhs. When public danger is threatened, all the districts suspend their own quarrels, and gather together to make common resistance. Each one provides himself with weapons at his own expense, and volunteers as a soldier under the banner of his chief. This soil is extremely fertile in every kind of grain, yielding a plentiful harvest of maize, beans, peas, cotton, oil seeds, and excellent tobacco. The mountains towards the north afford excellent pasture for all kinds of cattle. The province contains no town, properly so called, but it is embellished by large and populous villages: the principal one amongst them is *Kapardigari*, standing in the midst of the ruins of a very ancient town, which might very possibly be the Caspaturys of the Greeks, the capital of the Gandári, whom our geographers place to the east of the Assaceni on the western bank of the Indus. Quite close to this village I observed a rock on which there are inscriptions almost effaced by time, and out of which I could only decipher the following characters. (See Inscription 5, of Plate XXVII.) Further off, on the opposite side of the mountain of *Koh-ganga*, are
the ruins of an ancient town, which is attributed to a heathen race; and quite close to that is the village of Bazar, now inhabited by the Khamalzais. Not far from thence is another very extensive ruin, where several remains of statues have been found*. In the land of the Yusufzais also are the ruins of Motina near Yar-hosein; those of Gagri and Shirkand near Ismaila; Kirkand near Mayar, in the district of Otti; Kaleder near the stream of Kala-pañi; Mashari-Banda, on the river Landeh; and Pélussedán, opposite Messa. Besides these ruins the country is covered with an immense quantity of small artificial hills, on which there are remains of ancient dwellings, and where, in the rains, Indian, Bactrian, and Indo-Scythian medals may be found. Near Panjitar are the ruins of Nogiran, where there are inscriptions in the same character as those noticed above.

In the district of Shemla, which is further to the north, we remark those of Nágari, where basso-relievos may be seen. On the banks of the Indus are the ruins of Pèhour, Toppi, Hound, and Mahmedpur, of which I have already spoken. The river Landeh or Nagumán separates the Yusufzais from the province of Kattuks. This country is very mountainous, and contains mines of sulphur, salt, springs of naphtha, and many slate quarries. It is inhabited by the tribe of the Kattuks and the Aferidis, intrepid mountaineers, who often intercept the route from Attok to Peshawar. Their chief towns are Nizámpur and Sirrí in the interior, and Akhoreh on the right bank of the Nagumán. This last town may be presumed to be the Ora of Arrian. If this be the case, the inhabitants of the mountains of the Katiúks are descendants of the Assacení. The province of the Kattuks is divided from that of Kohút by the district of Lachitri.

III.—Facsimiles of Ancient Inscriptions, lithographed by Jas. Prinsep, Secy. &c.

[Continued from page 349.]

Pl. XXVI. 1.—Asirgarh inscription.

This inscription, for the knowledge of which I am indebted to the antiquarian zeal of Dr. J. Swiney, has been in the possession of Dr. Mellish since the year 1805, when, according to a memorandum on the original drawing, it was copied from a wax impression of a seal found at Asirgarh by Captain Colebrooke, of the Engineers. By the three notes in pencil at the top, (which I have

* We have lithographed in Pl. XXVI. a bronze head dug up probably at this place by M. Court. It bears a Sanscrit inscription.—Ed.
inserted), it would appear that the seal was surmounted by three series of figures, probably cast in bronze: viz. in the centre, Nandi the bull, with a state chatta over him, and supporters on either side, bearing, the one, a chatta and axe; the other a sceptre and axe.

The inscription, hitherto undecyphered, is at once seen to belong to the old form of Deva-nāgari, now grown familiar to us; and I am indebted to the Rev. Dr. Mill, for the subjoined transcript in the modern character, as well as for the translation of the text, and remarks on the same.

From the absence of a date it is not easy to assign a certain position to the five distinct successions which it embraces; though, from the locality of the inscription in a fort of Khandēṣk immediately south of Mālwā, as well as from the termination of the names in Varma, they may be assigned with some probability to the Ujjayani dynasty; where, in the twelfth century, we find Naravarma, Yāsuvarma, and three other Varmaś recorded as having reigned. No one of these names, however, accords with any of the present list; neither does the modern Nāgari of their inscriptions, of which Colonel Tod has published facsimiles, at all resemble the seal character, which is evidently of a much more ancient date. It is customary, also, in Hindu records of this nature, to commence with the reputed ancestor of the race; but we find no allusion to Vicramādiya or Bhoja in the present instance, and must either suppose our seal anterior to these illustrious personages— or unconnected with Ujjayani. It is certainly possible that a petty rāja might have maintained independence for a few reigns in his hill fort, claiming descent from the unknown Hari-Varma; but it is unlikely that he should have assumed the lofty title of Mahārājadhirajā.

The twice recorded matrimonial connection with the Gupta family is also worthy of remark, as it may possibly have reference to the Canouj dynasty, whose coins have lately excited so much interest. The style of alphabet affords strong evidence of their contemporaneity.

Transcript of the Asirgarh inscription in modern Deva-nāgari.

1 चन्द्रकस्तित्र निकन्तकीचिं प्रतापाधुरमनाधनयाद्रजः पण्डिमवश्या
2 मन्द्राजीं बक्षशुभनवयवस्मांशी चरित्रोत्साराजचित्रीवभृत्ती तसः
3 पुनःदिवलुक्त्यातिसिंहः श्रीमन्तेवर्धाराजरक्षायुवनः श्रीमदाराजादि
4 स्ववभीत्त सुवर्णचित्रिताष्ट्राळः गुरायावरितिहाययुष्मः श्रीचन्द्राष्ट्र
5 अंबरवशीत सुवर्णविशत्खाल्मरितामहायावरितिहाययुष्मः
6 मद्राजराजाधिराज जो.र.मिन्दिन्दीभः तसः पुनःदिवलुक्त्यातिसिंहः
7 श्री मारुकादिहयायुष्मः परमदीर्घरो त
8 दराजराजाधिराजश्रीखक्षिण्यलिंगः सदः

3 र 2
Translation.

"He whose glory was transcendent by reason of his four great goods*,—before whose splendour other kings bowed, sickened with envy,—who was ever occupied in the juridical decisions of learned Munies dwelling in leafy hermitages,—whose crooked ramparts were alike bright and impenetrable,—who was the spoiler of all such as were vexed with peace,—(such was) the great king Hari-varman. His son, whose excellent victories equalled those of his father, born of his noble† wife Anka-de'vi', was the great king A'ditya-varman. His son again, whose exceeding joys equalled those of his father, born of Arika’ri’‡, eldest daughter of the Gupta race, was the great king I'svara-varman. His son, whose magnificence equalled that of his father, born of Arika’ri’, eldest daughter of the Guptas, was the great king of kings R. Sinha-varman. His son, possessed of like exceeding joys with his father, born of Bh’a’ra Ka’ma-hari’, was the chief of the excellent lion-rulers, the great king of kings Kharva-varman, our worthy Lord."

It is observable—that the title of Raja-adhirája, or king of kings—is here, as in the Allahabad inscription, restricted to the two last of the line of succession—viz. Sinha-varman, and Kharva-varman. I do not understand the simple letter R. prefixed to the former name, (viz. a r with a dot preceding and following)—unless it be an abbreviation for Raja: nor am I quite sure of the three letters following the last name, which I have made रेखर: W. H. M.

Inscription on a bronze image from Peshawar.

The head depicted in Plate XXVI. is copied from a sketch in M. Court’s memoir and collection of drawings, from which extracts are published in the present and in the preceding Journal, (see p. 482.)

The characters are decidedly Deva-nágarí, but whether from their indistinctness, or from errors in the copying, or from the language being different, their combination does not form any intelligent Sanscrit sentence.

* i. e. Religious duty, भाग्य; wealth, अश्व; pleasure, काम; eternal salvation, सभ्य. Such are the four Bhadrás or goods according to the Hindus. Amera Cosha, ii. 7, § 3, sl. 57. If, however, for स्तूध्र we read स्तुध्र with Prema-chand Pandit, the translation will be, "He whose glory transcended the bounds of the four encircling oceans."—W. H. M.

† The ordinary honorific epithet Srimati is here, contrary to the usual rule, introduced into the compound in the feminine gender. Regularly it should either be the crude form Srimati, or the locative case feminine Srímatyām.—W. H. M.

‡ The recurrence of the same name and description is singular. It is impossible that they should be the same person, such incest being unknown even to the heroic age of India.—W. H. M.
The head has its hair gathered in a knot after the fashion of the Hindu devotees, and it is bound together by a triple-headed snake of the cobra species—an ornament not uncommon to Jain figures, but rarely seen in the simple head of Buddha. The ears seem to be lengthened and split, in the style of the Kânpâhâtí sect; but the drawing may also be viewed as of earrings in cars of the natural dimensions.

Pl. XXIX.—Inscriptions on Kemaon Tridents.

On the right hand side of Plate XXIX. is depicted the bronze trident at Barahât in Garhâwâl, reduced from the large native drawing presented to the Society by Mr. Commissioner Traill, last winter. The inscription on the shaft was published as No. 2 of Plate IX. with a translation and explanation by our Vice-President, Dr. Mill. The copper letters being in relief from the shaft were taken off in facsimile.

The same plan, Mr. Traill says, did not answer with the trident at Gopâswara, although the ancient letters on its shaft are soldered on in the same manner.—The copy taken by the eye of a native draughtsman is unfortunately too incorrect to be legible: but the form of many of the letters shews clearly that this inscription is of the same age as that of Barâhât.

On the upper part of the trident are three or four short inscriptions in the modern Devâ-nagari. These, Mr. Traill says, are cut into the metal. Three of them are illegible, or rather appear to be in some other language. One only is in Sanscrit; but in this also several errors have been committed by the transcriber. With the assistance of the Society’s pandit I am able to present it in a complete form:—it contains a name—the grand desideratum in such cases; though too often, as in the present instance, it turns out to be a name unknown to fame! The verse is in the accustomed Sârdâla Vikridita measure, so often mentioned by Dr. Mill. It opens with the invocation Aum Svasti.

उं सवस्ति ॥ कलव्र दिविभवं भ्रस्माण्यः महादेवायाभ्यं खामिनस्ते राज्यः।
| सौमद्रणेंकः स्त्रियधपति स्त्रिभ्रस्माद्रीत्व्रान् \| |
| पञ्चाश्रति तथा विजयश्राशुर त्रितिष्ठ ||
| महादुत्त खातपतीपरं वि महादात्ता युज्य निताष्टा पुषः \||

"The illustrious Prince Anik Mall, having extended his conquests on all sides, brought together (quere, humbled or made low) upon this

* The proper grammatical reading would be श्रीमद्भोक
holy spot sacred to Mahádeva, under the emblem of a pillar, the very sovereigns of the world whom his prowess had overcome;—

"And thus having re-established this same pillar of victory, he acquired reputation. It is a pious act to raise up a worthy foe when he has been humbled."

'Parcere subjectis et debellare superbos' seems to be the sentiment here inculcated; and it is probable that the allegory of overthrowing and restoring enemies, alludes to the taking down the pillar (which may have been done to cut the new inscription) and its restoration, by some raja who had penetrated thus far in a successful expedition.

The name of Mall occurs as a patronymic in more than one dynasty of Nipál. It is not impossible, therefore, that the name here written Anik Mall, may be the same as the Anya Mall of the Neverit race, who reigned in that valley about the year 1195 A. D., according to Kirkpatrick's Sketch. Anya, which is without meaning, should probably be written Anik.


[We should be wanting both in candour and courtesy, were we not to point out to the reader, that the plates accompanying the present paper were furnished by our zealous contributors, and their esteemed commandant Col. Colvin. In despair of the difficulty and ex pense of executing so many plates in Calcutta, it occurred to us that the same pens and pencils which could produce such neat original drawings, could, if provided with the requisite materials, furnish engravings and lithographs ready executed for our Journal. We accordingly dispatched some yellow paper, and a copper plate, by dak, to Dádupur; and these are the first fruits. If not quite perfect, it should be remembered that the transfers had to travel 1,000 miles in the height of the rains ere they could be secured on the stone—and that the copper-plate, with its waxed and etched surface, had to be bitten by the acid after its arrival in Calcutta. The wonder is, that they should have turned out so well! We anticipate much greater success hereafter.—Ed.]

**RHINOCEROS.**

The manner in which the organic remains of the Sub-Himalayás were at first deposited, and that in which they have been subsequently disinterred, have necessitated a system of search more favorable to the acquisition of specimens than to the accurate description of the localities in which they occurred. Hitherto the fossils were in general found widely scattered over the surface and throughout the ravines of the calcareous sandstone formation; a dispersion which rendered gleaning from the hill surfaces preferable to excavation at any one place, affording the certainty of a larger number and greater variety of spe-
From the wax-impression of a Seal found at Asir-garh, taken by Capt. Colebrooke in 1805; preserved by Dr. Mellish.

Man with Chatta and Axe - Nandi with State Chatta - Man with Sceptre and Axe

Elevation of the Manikyala Tope.

BRONZE HEAD dug up at Peshawar by M. A. Court.
Ancient inscription on the shape of the treasure stick, c.t.

Trident at Gopeshwar. 15 feet high.

Trident at Ladhank in Garhwal.
cimens than could be anticipated to result from any other mode of collection. Notwithstanding these circumstances, however, it was soon observed that the different parts of the head, the various fragments of one limb, picked up at considerable distances from each other, could with a little trouble be extracted from the heaps and assorted; the sharp edges and accurate junction of the fractured surfaces preventing any doubt or mistake. Such restorations proved that whole extremities, perhaps entire skeletons, must occasionally have been entombed in the sand, and that the upheavement of the strata causing the greater number of fossils to be traversed by cracks, divided them into a number of fragments, which, on the degradation of the strata, were swept away by the drainage water to various distances from their original sites. It became an object, if possible, to discover these sites; with this purpose in view, many of the abrupt cliffs and fresh slips, with which this tertiary formation abounds, were examined; but with such little success as to render it evident that the gradual wear of ages could alone have sufficed for the exposure and dissemination of so vast a quantity of these relics on the slopes and in the ravines of the hills. The scattered fragments were seldom found to give any clue to the original place of deposit: in fact it has but once occurred to us that a nearly entire extremity has been discovered in the calcareous sandstone. And in order to illustrate the foregoing remarks, we have appended a sketch of these remains*; the drawing represents them as they lay after the removal of the sand which at first concealed all but the lower fragment of the femur: pieces of tusk, bones, and the half of a lower jaw, were found in the immediate neighbourhood, and indicated that the other parts of the skeleton of this *mastodon elephantoides had originally been deposited at no great distance from the posterior extremity which forms the subject of the sketch. The whole may be considered a fair example both of the mode of deposition and of the subsequent dispersion which lodged separate, sharp-edged fragments on the hill sides and amongst the sandstone boulders of the water-courses. The rare occurrence of specimens under such favorable circumstances rendering excavation a very uncertain and ill requited labour, forced the native collectors to be satisfied with the crop which time had exposed.

* We regret exceedingly that the drawing on transfer paper of the fossil in situ was spoiled in passing it on to the stone. This was the case also with Plate XIX. a very beautiful drawing by Col. J. Colvin: but the latter officer having taken the precaution of forwarding its original, a tolerable attempt has been made to supply its place by M. Tassin. The initials W. E. B. to this plate have been inserted by mistake.—Ed.
Hence, too, the localities of fossils thus collected at places remote from each other did not admit of being accurately specified; a circumstance of less importance so long as the species, sometimes even the genera, exhibited characters distinct from the fossil and existing species hitherto described; but the species about to be noticed being an approach to an existing type, we consider ourselves fortunate in having witnessed the exhumation of many of the specimens referred to in this paper, and are only sorry that the limited time at our disposal was insufficient to enable us to take a plan and accurate sections of the ground.

The following general description may, however, give some idea of a locality which furnishes an exception to other places whence fossils have been obtained; in this instance they have not been met with in solitary fragments, but found massed together; and excavation has been resorted to with advantage. Though but an imperfect description, what follows may suffice to point out the site in question, and it has therefore been introduced.

The deposit is situated about a mile and a half to the N. W. of Magimund, a village on the left bank of the easternmost affluent to the Caggar, (or Gagur of some maps), immediately at the debouche of the channel from the hills. On leaving the village, crossing over to the right bank, and skirting for a short distance in a westerly direction the base of the hills, the bed of a tributary is reached, which, on being traced up, leads to the deposit. The formation here consists alternately of strata of calcareous sandstone and of strata of a loamy texture, composed of a mixture of sand and clay; the proportions of these ingredients of course vary continually, but in general they are nearly equal; the clay colours the strata, giving a brownish red shade. The calcareous matter which enters into these loamy strata is usually in small quantity, and they are so little indurated that some of the blocks, although sheltered from the force of the rain itself, fall to pieces when exposed to the damp atmosphere of a rainy day. The fossils extracted from this matrix are more fragile than those imbedded in the calcareous sand, and much care is requisite in dis-engaging them.

A hasty or distant view of the sections which here, as elsewhere, abound, might lead to the conclusion that the loamy strata predomi-
nate; for being, as above described, but little indurated and easily acted upon by damp and rain, they tinge the calcareous sand strata beneath them by covering their exposed sectional surfaces with red or ochre-coloured particles. The consequent effect is very deceptive; but on closely examining many sections, we invariably found the sand
to predominate. The part of the hills here alluded to is barren of wood. The strata evidently suffer very rapid degradation, in consequence of the facility with which the clayey beds yield to the abrading force of the drainage water; by means of the loose stratum, the more enduring sandstone is as it were peeled off, and covers the hill slopes with its debris. The dip of the stratification has a general N. E. direction.

The circumscribed space, more immediately under consideration, consists of about one hundred feet of ravine along a stratum of loamy texture. Within this confined space specimens of all the genera, contained in the synopsis of our collection, have been found: that is to say, the same bed which yielded so many remains of the fossil unicorn rhinoceros, likewise produced the half of the upper and lower jaws of a young sivatherium; many bones of the extremities of adult animals of that genus, or of a ruminant of as large a skeleton as that of the sivatherium; the anterior half of the head of an animal which presents analogies both to the palaotherium and anoplotherium; and, in short, exemplars of all the genera excepting the hippopotamus. The remains of fish and tortoises must also be added to the list of classes not hitherto discovered in this deposit: exceptions, however, which are probably accidental, as the plates of saurian animals have been obtained from thence.

The osteological remains, although strangely amassed together, are frequently perfect; in many instances whole extremities have been disinterred; there are cases of the greater part of whole skeletons being dug out, but these are rare; whole craniums of large animals have not hitherto been met with; a circumstance which, considering the number of their bones, would be unaccountable, had we not grounds for taxing the carelessness of the excavators as in part answerable for the anomaly. Perfect craniums of the smaller animals are of frequent occurrence; in one block we counted five craniums of antelopes, close together; not all equally perfect, as one of them possessed even the core of the horns complete, but with the molars and greater part of the head present, so that all error is excluded. Animals of the same species are not always thus heaped together: on the contrary, the relics of very different species may be frequently observed in contact. One block of moderate dimensions presented the assemblage of remains of the sivatherium, rhinoceros, sus, crocodile, of a large feline and a small carnivorous animal, of antelope, and of an undistinguished ruminant. Another block gave the head of a species of gulo, accompanied by the plate of a saurian animal. To the rhinoceros femur and tibia, (Pl. A) we found attached the astragalus of
an elephant and metatarsal of a rhinoceros: it would however be useless to mention at greater length the juxta-position of specimens in this stratum; suffice it to add, that sometimes, perhaps in general, the skulls and bones of the same species are found together; at others, however, as above described, the remains of very different species occur together.

There is one remarkable fact deserving of mention; which is, that by far the greater proportion of the craniums from this deposit are those of young animals; the adult bear a small proportion to them.

From the above site the fossils selected to form the subject of this paper have been obtained, with the exception of the following.

The cranium, Pl. XV. which was found about three miles from the Maginnud deposit.

The separate teeth, fig. 5, 6, 7, 8, Pl. XIX. which were brought at different times and without any account of the places at which they were obtained.

The fine fragment from a lower jaw, fig. 6, 7, Pl. XVI. which is in the possession of Conductor Dawe, of the Canal Department, to whom it was brought from the vicinity of the Haripur pass.

Cranium. We shall commence with the fossil, which being the most perfect, affords the best means of instituting a comparison with the skulls of described species. It forms the subject of Pl. XV. in which three views are given, which were taken with a camera lucida—the instrument and the distance of the cranium were so adjusted, that the reflected image was exactly one-sixth the size of the original. We are indebted to Colonel Colvin for the delineations in this plate.

The fossil cranium is imperfect in the following parts. The extremity of the nasal and intermaxillary bones are broken off; the zygomatonic arches are both fractured; the left occipital condyle is wanting; the following molars have either dropped out prior to the envelopment of the head by the matrix, or have been broken off subsequently to its fossilization, viz. the fifth of the right, the first and seventh of the left maxillary. In addition to these losses the cranium has undergone, when in the stratum, the common fate of sub-Himalayan relics, and is cracked in several directions: the crush, however, which produced these cracks has not materially altered the form of the head; the chief effect produced has been the forcing the left half palate at its anterior extremity a little above its proper level; this the longitudinal crack passing through the left orbit enabled it to accomplish; the displacement resulting may be best observed in the profile view of the skull, fig. 3. The transverse cracks are accompanied by a small hollow and a consequent neighbouring bulge, both so partial and
of such small relief, that in the profile their places can only be observed by paying attention to the jagged outline at the depression of the frontals. With the above exceptions the specimen is perfect.

A glance at Pl. XV. will be sufficient at once to determine the species with which this fossil rhinoceros must be compared. The depression of the frontals causing the deeply curved outline of the upper planes of the head; the slope of the occiput; the septum and its nasal arch—all separate this cranium from the existing and fossil bicorn species. The existing unicorn species is that, therefore, to which recourse must be had in order to establish a comparison.

In the unicorn rhinoceros of Java the height to which the crest of the occiput rises above the palatal plane, as also the thickness and prominence of the nasal arch supporting the horn, are less than in the Indian rhinoceros. A line drawn tangential to the crest of the occiput and the highest point of the nasal bones will, in the unicorn species of India, be more raised above the plane of the frontals than is the case in the Javanese rhinoceros. In the foregoing respects the fossil associates itself with the Indian, and differs from the Java species. The comparison may, therefore, in general be confined to the former.

With the view of bringing at once under the eye, the discordance which occurs between the relative values of analogous dimensions, the subjoined table is here inserted. The modulus chosen is the space occupied by the seven molars, because on this measurement the development of the bones of the head must, to a certain extent, be dependent. The measurements given in Cuvier's Os. Fos. have afforded the proportions of the existing species; and the table of dimensions which closes this paper has given the proportions of the fossil.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Space occupied by the seven molars</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of occiput from lowest edge of occipital foramen to summit of crest of occiput</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth of occiput</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least thickness of cranium across temporals</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across at post orbital apophysis of frontals</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from anterior of orbit to auditory foramen</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across the occipital condyles</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to the table of dimensions it will be observed, that the height of the occiput is in the fossil less by met. 0.021 than the corresponding measure of Cuvier's Indian rhinoceros; but the greatest breadth of the occiput is met. 0.036 in favor of the fossil: relatively to the space occupied by the seven molars, these two measurements attain a less development in the fossil than in the existing animal.
The difference in the occipital condyles amounting to met. 0.065 in excess of the Indian rhinoceros causes a marked discordance in the ratios of these dimensions; but, as the left condyle and the adjacent parts are wanting in the fossil, the measure was obtained by doubling what appeared to be the exact half dimension; this of course is not so satisfactory as if the condyles had been perfect; any inaccuracy consequent on this circumstance could not, however, amount to a quantity which would materially alter the deduced proportion. The occiput, figs. 8, 9, Pl. XVII. is fortunately very perfect; from its dimensions, which prove it to have belonged to a smaller animal than the cranium of Pl. XV. may also be concluded, that though inferior in size to Cuvier's specimen of the Indian rhinoceros, which in greatest breadth of occiput exceeds it by met. 0.039, yet the space occupied by the condyles is 0.010 in favor of the small fossil occiput. In both of the fossils the depressions near the summits of the occiputs on each side of the mesial projections are deeper than those of the existing species.

The zygomatic arches not being entire, and the matrix being uncleared from the portions which remain, no particular remarks can be passed on them.

The sutures cannot anywhere be traced; a circumstance which precludes the notice of particulars frequently of importance in the comparison of species.

The least thickness of the cranium is but met. 0.001 greater than that of the Indian rhinoceros; and therefore in proportion to the modulus, yields a less ratio than that species.

The breadth at the orbits is met. 0.024 greater than in the existing species; consequently the skull does not in this part present any material discordance of proportion.

The length between the auditory foramen and the anterior of the orbit is 0.043 met. greater in the fossil; this measurement affords a proportion only differing met. 0.002 from that obtained from the existing species.

The infra-orbital foramen is situated similarly to that of the Indian rhinoceros.

The nasal arch is massive and much developed; the spring of this arch is perpendicularly over the anterior of the second molar; that is a little more retired than in the Java or Indian rhinoceros skulls, given in Cuvier's Pl. 4.

The breadth of the palate has not been given in the table of dimensions, because the first and seventh molars not being perfect on both sides, measurements corresponding to those of Cuvier's could
not be obtained. It is comparatively less than in the existing species, but the great breadth of the teeth compensates for this difference.

Having detailed the essential differences and the points of resemblance observable in the fossil Indian rhinoceros when compared with Cuvier's dimensions of the existing Indian rhinoceros; we must be permitted to add, that additional measurements from skulls of the latter species are requisite before anything certain can be pronounced as to the amount of difference or correspondence between the two species. We are induce to make this remark, in consequence of having been favored with the examination of two craniums which presented considerable variation of proportions when compared with Cuvier's and with each other.

It appears to us desirable, therefore, to ascertain the limits within which individual variations range before any thing positive can be asserted. The foregoing remarks will have shown a great general resemblance, accompanied by a departure of proportions in some corresponding parts: the latter may be sufficient for the establishment of a new species,—at least for the present, until more data are obtainable whence to determine the bounds by which the individuals of one species are limited in their variations; for the sake of distinction, therefore, and present convenience, at the same time keeping in view the type to which it is a near approach, we have termed the species under consideration the R. Indicus fossilis.

Teeth. The remark has been already passed, that the greater number of fossils obtained from the Maginnud deposit are the remains of young animals: with the rhinoceros this has been particularly the case. We accordingly find ourselves better able to illustrate the early stage of dentition than that more advanced.

Fig. 1, Pl. XIX. represents the right half of an upper jaw, the left half being in this instance omitted, as also in figs. 3 and 4, in order that the series may be brought under the eye in one plate. Fig. 1 contains the four milk molars of the left maxillary; the fourth being but just cut is unworn; but the palate being broken away from the base of the tooth, more of it is seen than would otherwise be the case; in the right half of the specimen, where the palate is whole, the fourth molar is more concealed. The first molar is also unworn, but the second and third have suffered detrition. The two rows of teeth have their internal base lines parallel to each other, and the lines which would circumscribe their exterior much curved, in consequence of the difference of breadth which exists amongst the teeth. The upper part of an unworn tooth, measured exteriorly, is much longer than the lower; for the anterior of each molar projects beyond the posterior
extremity of the one immediately in its front by the gradual enlargement of the external line of enamel from the base to the summit. As the molars wear down, this outer development is reduced, the internal sides of the teeth come more into use, and breadth is gained in compensation for the diminished length of surface in wear.

Fig. 2, Pl. XIX. is a fragment from a right maxillary, containing the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd milk teeth, more worn than the corresponding molars of fig. 1. The 1st teeth in these two specimens are dissimilar; but that of fig. 1 not having completely disengaged itself from the jaw-bone, a strict comparison cannot be made between the two. The detrition which the remaining teeth have undergone does not prevent the trace of their enamel from being found to agree with that of the analogous molars of fig. 1.

A still further advanced state of wear is figured in fig. 3, which is taken from a cranium to which the occiput and anterior of the nasal bones are wanting. The 5th molar is here on the point of appearance; the four first are much worn, particularly the first and second; but there is no difficulty in tracing the correspondence between the molars of this and of the preceding specimens.

The above three exemplars of the deciduous dentition we assign to the fossil Indian rhinoceros, from the circumstance of their having been found in company with bones the forms of which clearly pointed out the species which they must have resembled. The disposition of the molars also corresponds with that observable in the cranium Pl. XV. where the same parallelism, of internal base line and arched external bounding line, exists. To which may be added, that the frontals of the cranium to which the molars of fig. 3 belong, evince no sign of having borne a horn.

Between the worn state of the deciduous molars exemplified by fig. 3, and the worn state of the permanent molars figured in Pl. XV. we have no connecting links, excepting such as may be obtained from a few detached teeth which appear to have belonged to this species—these are,

Fig. 5, Pl. XIX. The sixth molar from a left maxillary. The spur, which occupies no inconsiderable part of the hollow between the anterior and posterior transverse hillocks, is here less curved than that of the Indian rhinoceros; and there is wanting altogether the small salient of enamel, which in the Indian rhinoceros occurs between the starting point of the above mentioned spur and the point of junction of the exterior and anterior main lines of enamel. It may also be mentioned, that the exterior and posterior lines of enamel being less thick than the corresponding parts of the sixth molar of the Indian
rhinoceros, there is a greater space between the two. Such modifications of form are however fortuitous, differences of equal amount being observable in the teeth of animals of the same existing species.

This fossil measures in length, in. 2.50 met. 0.0645
in breadth, ,, 2.62 ,, 0.0675

Fig. 6. The 5th molar, derived from a left maxillary. The outline of its enamel accords with that of the similar tooth of the Indian rhinoceros, the only difference being in the dimensions and in the enamellated edge of the short beading at the anterior side of the tooth.

It measures in length, in. 2.08 met. 0.053
in breadth, ,, 3.27 ,, 0.0835

Fig. 7, is the 7th molar, and from a right maxillary; the point of the small spur is broken, as also the anterior extremity of the external line of enamel; but the tooth is sufficiently perfect to show a close resemblance to the analogous molar of the Indian rhinoceros.

It measures in length, in. 2.88 met. 0.0735
in breadth, ,, 2.53 ,, 0.065

Fig. 8, is the 7th molar of a left maxillary; the difference observable between this and the foregoing specimen consists in the great development which the small anterior spur here attains; in the former it is scarcely observable; in fig. 8 it is very prominent. Variations to an equal amount may, however, be observed in the minor saliants, &c. of enamel in teeth appertaining to skulls of the same existing species. No weight can therefore be attached to such unimportant modifications.

This fossil measures in length, in. 2.95 met. 0.075
in breadth, ,, 2.55 ,, 0.065

Fig. 5, offers a good example of the difference of length at the upper and lower parts of the tooth; the greatest length, which is that taken near the top, is given above; the least external length taken at the base would have been in. 2.04, or nearly half an inch less than the top measurement.

The cranium PI. XV. has its molar teeth so much worn down, that the configurations of the enamel cannot be traced; the table of dimensions gives the length and breadth of each tooth, and shows that although the lengths do not materially differ from those of the corresponding teeth of the existing species, the breadths exceed those of any hitherto described.

Without complete illustrations of the milk-teeth of existing species, it would be dangerous to attempt a comparison between them and the fossil Indian rhinoceros. We have therefore avoided the endeavour;
but we must be allowed to notice the upper jaw fig. 4, Pl. XIX. which offers peculiarities when compared with figs. 1, 2, and 3 (of the same plate) deserving of remark.

The right half of the specimen is figured in the plate, the left half having lost the 1st tooth. With respect to age, this jaw nearly corresponds with fig. 3, the fifth molar being in both on the point of appearance. The following departures from the tracing of enamel in figs. 1, 2, and 3, may, however, be observed. The second molar of fig. 4 has this peculiarity,—that instead of the anterior portion of the tooth being one continuous offset from the exterior line of enamel, it only assumes that appearance after considerable detrition, consisting at first of a short offset and an isolated pillar, as shown in the drawing. The two sides of the jaw have been very unequally worn, in consequence of which the opposite side to that delineated has the pillar and offset conjoined. The third molar also presents a marked difference, when placed in juxta-position with the corresponding teeth of the other three jaws; the two spurs which occupy the central hollow of the tooth are of a different shape from that which occurs in the other specimens. In other respects fig. 4 corresponds with them—its rows of molars are parallel to each other, and the dimensions offer but trifling variations. The modifications of form above alluded to, unless fortuitous, which is perhaps improbable, denote the existence of another species; a fact corroborated by the examination of the milk molars of the lower jaws in our possession. Upon the consideration of these we now enter, but are able to offer but few and unsatisfactory remarks.

Lower Jaws. With the exception of the fine fragment, fig. 6, Pl. XVI. submitted to our inspection by Conductor Dawe, and the fragment fig. 9, the specimens of lower jaws are all from the Maginnud deposit, and all the remains of young animals.

Fig. 1, Pl. XVI. represents a fossil which has lost the anterior of its symphysis, the second molar on the right, and the first molar on the left side of the jaw; as also both the rami, which are broken off. Four molars have appeared, the second and third of which are worn, but the first and fourth have their enamel intact; the sections of fracture expose germ teeth. The two lines of molars have a gentle convergence, which is effected, not by a curve in the rows of teeth, for these are set in a perfectly straight line, but by the gradual approach of the two rows, which make a small angle with the medial line of the jaw. The section shown by the break of the symphysis and the interval between the front molars, argues the existence of a prolonged symphysis. The fourth molar is characteristic, having an isolated point or low pillar in the centre of the chord of its posterior crescent.
Fig. 5 is a fragment containing two molars, apparently the third and fourth milk ones; the outer enamel of the latter is mutilated, but the interior is perfect, and presents the isolated pillar of the posterior crescent, noticed as remarkable in fig. 1.

Fig. 4 is the right half of the lower jaw of a young rhinoceros, but of one somewhat older than the animal to which fig. 1 belonged, for the fourth molar has in fig. 4 suffered detrition. Notwithstanding the difference of age being in the favor of this specimen, the space occupied by the four molars is less than that of the four in fig. 1. The fourth molar is here devoid of the low isolated pillar in the posterior crescent, and has the central enamel, or junction of the two crescents, larger than in fig. 1. There are no means of ascertaining whether or not the opposite rows of molars were parallel, but in position of symphysis and set of the teeth in a perfectly straight line, this specimen corresponds with the foregoing.

Fig. 3 is the exterior view of fig. 4.

Fig. 2 has its fourth molar just disclosed and rising into the line of molars: it is devoid of the isolated pillar; but in size corresponds with fig. 1, instead of fig. 3, to which latter it assimilates itself by the fourth and second molars.

It is difficult to ascertain the degree of importance to be attached to such points of difference: in no specimen from the jaw of an adult animal has any trace of the isolated pillar been hitherto found: occurring as this peculiarity does in a deciduous tooth, should nothing similar take place in the permanent tooth which replaces it, the only chance of determining the question will be the discovery of an entire head. We have noticed an upper jaw, fig. 4, Pl. XIX, which indicates the probability of the existence of two species. The examination of the above lower jaws rather confirms this supposition; but in the event of such slight modifications denoting specific distinctions, we are unable, in consequence of the paucity and incompleteness of specimens, to decide which are the milk-teeth of the fossil Indian rhinoceros. Nor are we fortunate with respect to the lower maxillary of the adult animal; figs. 6, 7, and figs. 8, 9, being all that we can bring forward. The sections of these two fragments differ in consequence of their being derived one from the posterior, the other from the anterior part of the jaw, which thickens as it approaches to the symphysis. These two specimens resemble the corresponding portions of the lower jaw of the Indian rhinoceros, but are too imperfect to afford any satisfactory measurements for grounds of comparison.

**Anterior Extremity.**

A scapula in our possession is not sufficiently perfect to give accu-
rate measurements, but it bears as great a general resemblance to that of the Indian rhinoceros as do the other parts of the skeleton.

The humerus, figs. 1, 2, Pl. XVII, having its radius and ulna attached, was discovered by ourselves very close to the place whence we excavated the femur and tibia forming the subject of Pl. XVIII. With the exception of the deltoid crest, this humerus is perfect, and has afforded the dimensions which enter into the first column of the table. For the purpose of comparison the following five columns are here added. The proportions of the Indian and Sumatra small species of rhinoceroses are deduced from Cuvier's table; those of the fossil specimens are of course from the table of dimensions. The length of the bone is assumed as the unit, and the measures of other parts referred to it in order to obtain their comparative values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length of humerus from tuberosity to external condyle,</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto internal ditto,</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest anter. post. diameter at top,</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across condyles,</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of articulating pulley,</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least diam. of the body of the humerus,</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of radius,</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth at top,</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto at bottom,</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length from articulating head to bottom of internal condyle,</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Sumatra rhinoceros (small species) concurs with the fossil Indian rhinoceros in having the length taken to the external condyle longer than that taken to the internal. The Javanese and the larger Sumatra species also accord with the fossil in this respect, but not so nearly as the small Sumatra species, which has consequently been introduced into the above table.

The length of the fossil humerus, figs. 1, 2, Pl. XVII, exceeds that of any of the existing species; its thickness is, in proportion to the length of the bone, intermediate between the Sumatra and Indian species. The articulating pulley also possesses a development intermediate in value to those of the two existing species. The breadth at the condyles is in the same proportion or nearly so as that of the Indian rhinoceroses. The radius is in length, considered with reference to length of femur, a little less than in the Indian and somewhat in excess of the small Sumatra species; the remaining two dimensions of this bone yield values intermediate to those of the two existing rhinoceroses. These remarks apply to the deductions for fig. 1; nor would it
be necessary much to alter them in speaking of fig. 5; but fig. 6 presents such a close approximation to the Indian rhinoceros, that it is much to be wished that the specimen had not been so broken as to prevent additional measurements from being derived from it. Excepting in the length from the articulating head to the bottom of the internal condyle, it does not much differ from fig. 5. The bone, however, being imperfect, must be omitted in drawing a comparison between the fossil and existing species.

Fig. 1, varies most from the Indian rhinoceros in the proportion of the length taken to the internal condyle; an anomaly difficult of explanation. We must here repeat, that there exists a necessity for a greater number of tables of dimensions taken from the skeletons of the Indian rhinoceros: the anterior extremity of a rhinoceros, with the examination of which we have been favored, yielded proportions so nearly corresponding with those deduced from the fossil humerus, figs. 1, 2, as to prevent our drawing more positive conclusions than those expressed at the close of the remarks on the cranium, Pl. XV.

Posterior Extremity.

The femur and tibia, Pl. XVIII, were dug up in such close proximity to the humerus and radius, fig. 1, Pl. XVII, that little doubt could be entertained of their having belonged to the same animal. Being perfect,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements</th>
<th>Cran.</th>
<th>Fossil 3rd</th>
<th>Fossil 3rd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ind.</td>
<td>Pl. 18</td>
<td>in table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dimensions.</td>
<td>dimensions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of femur from articulating head to bottom of internal condyle,</td>
<td>1'00</td>
<td>1'00</td>
<td>1'00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth from head to most salient part of great trochanter,</td>
<td>0'38</td>
<td>0'43</td>
<td>0'26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across condyles,</td>
<td>0'29</td>
<td>0'28</td>
<td>0'26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antero. post. diam. of internal condyle,</td>
<td>0'27</td>
<td>0'26</td>
<td>0'26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto of external ditto,</td>
<td>0'27</td>
<td>0'26</td>
<td>0'26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between bottom of 3rd trochanter and top of 1st,</td>
<td>0'59</td>
<td>0'61</td>
<td>0'61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto small trochanter and top of head of femur,</td>
<td>0'46</td>
<td>0'41</td>
<td>0'46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diam. of articulating head of femur,</td>
<td>0'18</td>
<td>0'19</td>
<td>0'16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From lower side 3rd trochanter to bottom of external condyle,</td>
<td>0'38</td>
<td>0'38</td>
<td>0'38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of femur from articulating head to bottom of 3rd trochanter,</td>
<td>0'72</td>
<td>0'71</td>
<td>0'64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of tibia from anter. tubero. to anter. edge of inferior articulating surface,</td>
<td>0'67</td>
<td>0'70</td>
<td>0'70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest transverse diam. at top,</td>
<td>0'25</td>
<td>0'25</td>
<td>0'25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antero. post. diam. from antero. post. tubero. to post. ext. of internal condyle,</td>
<td>0'29</td>
<td>0'31</td>
<td>0'31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transverse diam. at bottom,</td>
<td>0'21</td>
<td>0'20</td>
<td>0'20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diam. antero. post. of internal side,</td>
<td>0'14</td>
<td>0'13</td>
<td>0'13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of fibula,</td>
<td>0'62</td>
<td>0'65</td>
<td>0'65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth at bottom,</td>
<td>0'10</td>
<td>0'10</td>
<td>0'10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
except at the lower part of the great trochanter, the specimen affords ample means of comparison with the femur of the existing species.

On reverting to the table of dimensions it will be observed, that this fossil exceeds, as did also the humerus, any of those in Cuvier's table of existing species. The preceding columns show in what respects the proportions of the bone vary from those deduced from Cuvier's Indian rhinoceros. The length of the femur is here the modulus.

From a comparison of the two first columns in the above table there results, that the fossil has a greater development at its upper and a somewhat less development at its lower extremity than is the case in the Indian rhinoceros. The third trochanter is set lower down, and the inferior extremity of the small trochanter higher up than in the existing species; the articulating head is larger in proportion in the fossil than in the Indian rhinoceros. None of these modifications however are excessive; on the contrary, they are less than those which exist amongst the fossils themselves, which are all three undoubtedly of the same species.

From the manner in which the lower and exterior part of the great trochanter is broken, there is every probability that a descending point protruded from the fractured surface towards the third trochanter, the ascending point of which is very perfect.

The third trochanter, however, differs from that of the existing species as figured in Cuvier's Oss. Foss. in not possessing the double point; for it has a single well defined ascending process, without any sign of the bicuspid termination. The lower edge of this trochanter, instead of ascending with a gradual swell towards the point, as in the existing species, has a counter curvature to that of the upper edge. The chief dissimilarity between Cuvier's plate and the fossil occurs in this part of the bone, the third trochanter assuming a different shape, and offering a variation more distinctive than any other presented in either extremity. This circumstance, together with some of the proportions of the cranium, has led us for the present to distinguish these remains by appending the word fossil to the name of that species of which they are the prototype: but we dwell on the necessity of more extended research, and the collection of a greater series of tables of dimensions of the Indian rhinoceros, before any thing absolutely conclusive can be pronounced with regard to the fossil and existing species.

We have had no hesitation in ascribing the two limbs dug up in such close neighbourhood to the same animal; an additional confirmation of the correctness of the assumption may be derived from the proportion which exists between these two extremities, when compared with that which occurs in the Indian rhinoceros.
Ind. Rhin. femur and tibia, met. 0.960 humerus and radius, met. 0.868
Fossil Ind. Rhin. do. do. " 1.056 ditto do. " 0.947

In the first, the humerus and radius are to the femur and tibia in the ratio of 1: 1.10; in the fossil the ratio is 1: 1.11.

The analogy which exists between these fossil extremities and those of the Indian rhinoceros being no less striking than that which was observed between the cranium Pl. XV. and the skull of the existing species, we have considered such correspondence sufficient to prove, that the fossil anterior and posterior limbs appertained to an animal of the same species, and of about similar size to the one of which the cranium in question is a relic.

Even in the event of a much closer approximation of symmetrical proportions than that given in this paper being obtained, we are aware that identity of species could not be presumed. It could not be assumed that the skin, the external appearance of the animal, was precisely similar to that of the existing species. The fossil Indian rhinoceros must, however, have presented a figure bearing a strong general resemblance to the uncouth symmetry of its present representative.

Remarks on part of the specimens delineated in Plate XVII.

When describing the specimens of upper and lower jaws, the possibility of the existence of another species was noted. The fossil femur, of which figs. 3, 4 are representations, would be corroborative of the fact, were it not for a peculiarity which renders it somewhat doubtful whether or not it may be attributed to a species of rhinoceros. On comparing it with Pl. XVIII, the dissimilarity of the two bones will be at once apparent. The third trochanter is in fig. 3, placed about the centre of the femur, in which respect it resembles the unicorn of Java, thus described by Cuvier: "Le femur à son troisieme trochanter placé au milieu de son côte externe, large, recourbé en avant, ne remontant pas de sa pointe vers le grand trochanter lequel ne donne non plus aucune pointe pour venir à sa rencontre. L'échancrure entre eux n'est donc pas close en dehors; mais du reste elle est aussi grande que dans l'unicorne. La tête inferieure est plus enlargée en arrière." The latter remark, however, does not at all apply to the fossil, which has its inferior extremity much compressed instead of developed; so much so, indeed, that but for the other parts of the bone it could not for a moment be a matter of doubt whether or not it came from a rhinoceros.
Figs. 10, 11. Axis of a rhinoceros: the spinous process appears shorter and deeper than the one figured by Cuvier, and the main foramen more regularly circular.

Figs. 12, 13. A calcaneum which appears not to differ from that of the existing species.

Fig. 14. Tarsus and metatarsus. In this specimen the medial metatarsal bone is not so long as that of the Indian rhinoceros, but longer than that of any other species given by Cuvier. The general form corresponds with that in Cuvier's plate.

Fig. 15. Metacarpal bones: the medial one is rather longer than that of the Indian rhinoceros, but longer than that of any other species.

Figs. 16, 17, are the external metacarpal of the left side.

Fig. 18. An astragal, which differs much from those figured by Cuvier, being higher, narrower, and more compressed.

Fig. 19. Tarsal and metatarsal bones of a rhinoceros, with the lower portion of tibia attached.

Table of Dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements of the head</th>
<th>Cranium. Pl. XV.</th>
<th>Occiput. Pl. XVII.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Height of occiput from lowest edge of occipital foramen to top of crest,</td>
<td>0.269, 10.29</td>
<td>0.223, 8.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth of occiput, behind auditory foramen,</td>
<td>0.341, 13.44</td>
<td>0.269, 10.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least thickness of cranium at temporal bones,</td>
<td>0.196, 4.95</td>
<td>0.385, 12.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth between post orbital apophysis of frontals,</td>
<td>0.264, 10.00</td>
<td>0.324, 12.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from anterior of orbit to auditory foramen,</td>
<td>0.375, 12.80</td>
<td>0.324, 12.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space occupied by the seven molares,</td>
<td>0.324, 12.75</td>
<td>0.324, 12.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across occipital condyles,</td>
<td>0.195, 7.70</td>
<td>0.140, 5.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of occipital foramen,</td>
<td>0.375, 12.80</td>
<td>0.049, 1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of ditto ditto,</td>
<td>0.0735, 2.88</td>
<td>0.0735, 2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between internal extremities of glenoid facets of temporal,</td>
<td>0.368, 14.50</td>
<td>0.368, 14.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from lower edge of occipital foramen to medial post. extremity of palate,</td>
<td>0.539, 21.22</td>
<td>0.539, 21.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto to anterior of orbit,</td>
<td>0.449, 17.71</td>
<td>0.449, 17.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth from edge of maxillary at 5th molar to upper surface of frontals,</td>
<td>0.239, 9.43</td>
<td>0.174, 6.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest transverse width of nasals at horn site,</td>
<td>0.246, 9.72</td>
<td>0.246, 9.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto external breadth at 6th molar,</td>
<td>0.246, 9.72</td>
<td>0.246, 9.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thickness of cranium over the medial post. extremity of palate,</td>
<td>0.204, 8.06</td>
<td>0.204, 8.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of highest point of nasal arch above anterior of palate,</td>
<td>0.238, 9.38</td>
<td>0.238, 9.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpendicular from a line tangential to the summit of crest and vertex of nasal arch to the depression of frontals,</td>
<td>0.099, 3.91</td>
<td>0.099, 3.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measurements of Upper Molars.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cranium. Fig. 3 Pl. XIX.</th>
<th>Cranium. Fig. 1 Pl. XIX.</th>
<th>Fig. 2. Pl. XIX.</th>
<th>Fig. 4. Pl. XIX.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greatest length</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molar, 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>1.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.0475</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>2.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.0495</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.0755</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molar, 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>0.0385</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>3.151</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.0755</td>
<td>2.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>3.25</td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

Measurements of Lower Molars.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fig. 1. Pl. XVI.</th>
<th>Fig. 2. Pl. XVI.</th>
<th>Fig. 3. Pl. XVI.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greatest length of Molar, 1</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>2.09</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>1.82</td>
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<td></td>
<td>7</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth of Molar, 1</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>6</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Measurements of Anterior Extremity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fig. 1. Pl. XVII.</th>
<th>Fig. 5. Pl. XVII.</th>
<th>Fig. 6. Pl. XVII.</th>
<th>Fossil humerus not drawn.</th>
<th>Fossil humerus not drawn.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length of humerus from tub. to external condyle,</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>21.20</td>
<td>0.488</td>
<td>19.22</td>
<td>0.482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do. do. do. internal do.</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>19.38</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>18.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest anter. post. diam. at top,</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>8.60</td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td>8.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across condyles,</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth of the articulating pulley,</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least diam. of the body of the humerus,</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the radius,</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth at top,</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto at bottom,</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of humerus from art. head to internal condyle,</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td>17.40</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>0.420</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sub-Himalayan Fossil Remains

Measurements of Posterior Extremity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length of femur from ant. head to bottom of 3rd trochanter,</td>
<td>.449 17.70</td>
<td>.383 15.10</td>
<td>.328 12.94</td>
<td>.369 14.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of femur from ant. head to bottom of internal condyle,</td>
<td>.621 24.45</td>
<td>.539 21.25</td>
<td>.510 20.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth from head to most salient part of great trochanter,</td>
<td>.269 10.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across condyles,</td>
<td>.173 6.82</td>
<td>.143 5.63</td>
<td>.146 5.75</td>
<td>.146 5.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antero. post. diam. of internal condyle,</td>
<td>.214 8.45</td>
<td>.221 8.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto do. do. external condyle,</td>
<td>.161 6.35</td>
<td>.162 6.40</td>
<td></td>
<td>.139 5.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between bottom of 3rd trochanter and top of first,</td>
<td>.383 15.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between bottom of small trochanter and top of head of femur,</td>
<td>.259 10.20</td>
<td>.249 9.80</td>
<td>.215 8.50</td>
<td>.231 9.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diam. of articular head of femur,</td>
<td>.118 4.65</td>
<td>.086 3.40</td>
<td>.089 3.50</td>
<td>.083 3.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From lower side 3rd trochanter to bottom of external condyle,</td>
<td>.242 9.53</td>
<td>.177 7.00</td>
<td>.208 8.20</td>
<td>.266 10.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of tibia from anter. tubero. to anter. edge of infer. articul. surface,</td>
<td>.435 17.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest transverse diam. at top,</td>
<td>.156 6.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antero. post. diam. from anter. tub. to post. ext. of internal condyle,</td>
<td>.105 7.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transverse diam. at bottom,</td>
<td>.128 5.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diam. of antero. post. internal side,</td>
<td>.086 3.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of fibula,</td>
<td>.405 15.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth at bottom,</td>
<td>.064 2.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Index to the Plates referred to in this paper; showing also their orders of succession.

Pl. XV. Three views of fossil cranium, (on lithographed paper.)
Pl. XIX. Views of connected and detached molars upper jaw, (copper plate.)
Pl. XVI. Ditto fragments from lower jaws, (lithographed paper.)
Pl. XVIII. Three views of femur and tibia.
Pl. XVII. A folding plate on lithographed paper, sundry bones of the extremities.

[The letters appended to the plates for convenience of reference in the MS.; namely, A, B, C, D, E, F, have been changed in printing into Nos. XVIII, XVII, XV, XIX, and XVI. Plate F was, as before stated, spoiled in transferring it to the stone. By mistake the dimensions in Pl. XV, have been marked one-fourth in lieu of one-sixth; a material error, which it is as well to notice thus prominently.—Ed.]
Fossil remains from the Sub Himalayas Rhinoceros
Fossil Remains from the Sub-Himalayas. RHINOCEROS
Fossil Rhinoceros of the Sub-Himalayas.

Durand des et Soc.
V.—Note on the States of Pétrak, Srímenunti, and other States in the Malay Peninsula. By T. J. Newbold, Lieut., A. D. C. to Brigadier General Wilson, C. B.

Pe'arak.

Pétrak is separated on its northern frontier, from Qué'dah by the Krian river, which debouches into the Straits of Malacca, in about 5° 10' North. On the south it is divided from the piratical state of Salangore, by a river of inconsiderable magnitude called the Runkúp, which lies a little to the north of the Bernam river, in about 3° 59' north; interiorly, by the chain of primitive mountains, that run down the centre of the Malay peninsula to Point Romania near Singapore, from the states of Tringánú and Pahíng on the opposite coast. According to Captain Glass, the territory under the sway of the Pétrak chief extended about 50 leagues inland; its length along the coast is upwards of 120 miles.

The principal town is situated a considerable distance up the Pétrak river, which is one of the largest and most rapid of the streams of the peninsula that flow into the Straits of Malacca: according to Anderson, it will admit vessels drawing 12 feet. The channel, however, is tortuous and intricate. The banks are generally covered with jungle, having but a few villages at considerable distances. The places of most note are Kota Lámút, Bander, Pantong Panjang, and Páissir Gárám, about 30 miles up the river. The chief generally resides at Páissir Suyóng or Páissir Pulye; places about three or four days' pull from the mouth. It has been stated to me by natives, that there are several stockades commanding the approach by water to these places.

Produce.—The principal products of this state are tin, rice, and ratans. The present produce of tin is about 8,500 picals annually: this goes for the most part to the Pinang market; latterly some of it has found its way to Singapore. Mr. Anderson states, that the Rája Mu'da and Tuanku Hassin, sons of the late chief, Taj-uddin, established posts a few years ago, about 30 miles from the river's mouth, where they levied a duty on all tin exported. These posts have since been abandoned. The chief himself derives most of his revenue from a toll on the tin produced: so much, it is said, as from four to six dollars per bhar of 3 piculs. The Dutch enjoyed, for upwards of a century and a half, during their sway at Malacca, the monopoly of the tin. They had a factory at Tanjong Puttás on the river, and a small fort on the harbour between the Dinding Islands and the main. The cultivation of rice has, of late years, been on the increase. I was assured, by some respectable Pétrak traders, that more than sufficient for home consumption was now grown.

3 v
Population.—The population of Péarak is roughly calculated at 35,000 Malays, professing the Mahomedan religion, not including the aboriginal tribes; a few Chinese, Arab and Chutiah (Malabar?) settlers.

History and Government.—Péarak was formerly tributary to the Malayan sovereigns of Malacca, and afterwards to those of the kingdom of Achin. Since the decline of the latter, however, it has become in some measure independent; although Siam has, at various periods, asserted her claims to sovereignty, and demanded tribute. In consequence of the spirited resistance of the late chief, Taj-uddin, to these arrogant and groundless assumptions, Péarak was overrun in 1818 by the troops of the Raja of Qâedah, who had invaded it by order of the king of Siam. In 1822 the Siamese were expelled, and the rightful chief restored, by the powerful assistance of the late warlike chief of Sulangore, Râja Ibrahim.

The government is despotic. Péarak has been ruled during the last three centuries by a race of chiefs, under the title of Sultan, who were connected with the ruling dynasties in Johore and Achin. Under the Sultan are five officers of state, forming a deliberative council, viz.:—the Bandahara, Tumungong, Raja Muda, Mantri, and O'rang Kâya Besir. Besides these there are six Panghâtás over the six Bongsas (Vansas) or classes, into which the people are divided.

The succession to the throne is generally hereditary. Sultan Mansu'r Shâh II, who died in 1818, was succeeded by his son Taj-uddin, who died about four years ago. His nephew, the present chief, Raja Cho'lan, succeeded.

Political and Commercial relations with the British Government.—In 1818 a treaty of commercial alliance was concluded by the British Commissioner, Mr. Cracroft, on the part of the Company, with the then Raja of Péarak, Sultan Mansu'r Shâh, chiefly with the view of preventing the monopoly of the tin trade by the Dutch, who were, at that time, about to resume possession of Malacca. This treaty provided against the monopoly, and secured to British merchants the privilege of being allowed to trade on equally favorable terms with Péarak as any other nation.

By Major Burney’s treaty with Siam in 1826, it was agreed that the Raja of Péarak should govern his country according to his own will; should he desire to send the gold and silver flowers to Siam, as heretofore, the English would not prevent him. That if Chow Phya, of Ligore, desire to send down to Péarak, with friendly intentions, forty or fifty men, whether Siamese, Chinese or other Asiatic subjects of Siam, or if the Raja of Péarak desire to send any of his ministers or officers to seek Chow Phya of Ligore, the English should not forbid
them. That no force should be sent by either nation to go and molest, attack or disturb Pérák. The English engaged not to allow the state of Salangore to attack or disturb Pérák; and the Siamese, in turn, engaged not to go and attack or disturb Salangore.

The Siamese also stipulated in this treaty, that the present ex-king of Quedah should not be permitted to live at Prince of Wales' Island or Prye, or in Pérák, Salangore, or any Burmese country.

Sri'menánti.

Sri'menánti, though formerly considered as subordinate to Johóle, asserts her independence, and has tacitly assumed a place among the four elective states, though her claims are not distinctly recognized. The Panghúlús of Sri'menánti, not being descended from the nine to whom titles were given by the Sultan of Johóre, assumed by the sanction of the Panghúlú of Johóle, that of Sélia Mahirájá. Since this, seven Panghúlús have ruled in Sri menánti, the six last of whom were Naham, Jallam, Allam, Pompon, Tallân, and Tálîb.

Rája Radin, one of the sons of the fourth Menangkábówe prince, Singang Laut, assumed similar powers to those exercised by the Eang depertúán múda of Rumbówe i of this state, which he still retains, though now opposed by another candidate from Menangkábówe.

There are twelve Súkús over the twelve tribes in Sri menánti; their names with their titles are as follows:

Amin, Baginda Mahirájá, Olay, Senára Múda, Molay, Mahirájá; Manti, Padúka besér; Lattih, Orang kaia bongsu; Aríih, Sempúrna Mahirájá; Lésáh Senára kaia; Agyah, Sri Mahirájá; Eyût, Orang kaia kechil; Bandin, Senára Anqksa; Si Main, Mahirájá Lélah; and Rejab, Perdana.

The names of the twelve tribes are, Sri Lummah Pahang, Sri Lummah Menangkábówe, Battu Ampar, Tannah Dattar, Sa Melónan, Tiga battu, Payakumba, Muncul, Anak Achi, Battu Balang, Tiga Nenik, and Bódóanda Jacoon.

Sri menánti is the place of residence, burial, and contains the Astúna of the princes deputed from Menangkábówe.

It is bounded on the north by Jhompóle; towards the south by Ulú Miáar and Rumbówe, (from which it is separated by the mountains of Lepat Cajang and Gunong tujok;) to the east its boundary with Johóle is the hill of Bukít Pecla; and to the west the Paro stream and Terúclu divide it from Súngie-njong. The extent of Sri menánti is supposed to be about equal to that of Rumbówe; its population is estimated at 8,000. The principal villages are those of Sri menánti Pinang, Saribá Peela, Póndok Passer, and Terúchí; the
two latter places now claim their independence. Like Srímenánti itself, they were formerly subordinate to Johóle, and have been governed for seven generations past by their own Panghúlú. The name of the present chief of Teráchi is Sálong, and under him are six tribes. The Panghúlú of Póndok passér is named Ambong: it was with this chief the ex-Panghúlú of Naning sought and found a shelter after his defeat and expulsion in 1832. Part of Teráchi was formerly subject to Súngie-wjong; but during the late internal commotions and struggles for power, by which the Menangkábówe dynasty has been rooted out, leaving the interior in a state of anarchy and confusion, the minor chiefs seized on the opportunity to assert their independence, and in this unsettled condition they remain up to the present time.

The manners and customs of the inhabitants of Srímenánti, its revenue, internal administration, and law of inheritance, are much the same as those of the natives of the three states already described.

Its produce is tin, sapan wood, wax, ratans, and rice, most of which find their way down to Malacca.

A fresh tin-mine has been lately opened at a place called Plangaye, the produce of which during the last three months has been 30 bhars of metal.

States of Calang Jellabú, Ulu Pahang, Jellye, and Segámét.

Of the nine interior states, or Negri sambilan, formerly tributary to the Malayan dynasties of Malacca and Johóre, four already noticed, with their dependencies, acknowledged the sway of Menangkábówe, or rather of its deputed prince. The remaining five, viz., Ulu Pahang, Calang, Jellye, Jellabú, and Segámét, with their dependencies, adhered to Johóre: this kingdom, however, was too weak to retain them all. Calang was wrested from her by a colony of Búgis, who established an independent government at Salangore towards the beginning of last century, which has rendered itself formidable to its neighbours by the hardy, warlike, and piratical habits of its chiefs, but is now fast declining.

Jellabú has been taken possession of by the descendants of the Menangkábówe princes, and is now ruled by an Eang Depértúan, named Rója Sábu’ún, son of Rója Adil, the second chief from Menangkábówe. This chief is looked upon by the superstitious Malays as a living Krámét, from the circumstance of his having "white" or very light blue eyes, with jet black hair.

Jellabú was governed formerly by its Panghúlú and Ampat Sákú. These still retain considerable authority; the name of the present Panghúlú is Aedur Rahám; his title Akhir Zumán; the titles of the Ampat Sákú are Dattu Menniàng, Dattu Mantri, and Mahárájá Senára.
The tribes under them are those of Bodoanda, Tannah Dattar, Muncal, and Battu Ballang.

The forms of government, laws, &c. obtaining in Jellabú are much the same as those of the states already described. Its population, which is divided into seven múkims, is estimated at 3750, not including the aborigines.

The produce is gold, ivory, tin, (about 200 picals annually), aloe-wood, jaggery, ratans, &c.; these generally find their way to the Pahang market.

The boundary marks of Jellabú with Pahang are nine Meranti trees, (Meranti Sambilán,) growing on the right bank of the Jellábú river; with Sungie Ujong, a hill called Bukit Tangoh and Dhalu Karu Bandar Barugen; with Jompôle, the hill of Bukit Déjála; and with Calang, the hill of Guining Perhi.

Ulu Pahang and Jellye are now tributary to the Bandahára of Pahang, a chief nominally feudal to the kings of Johore. Jellye is immediately governed by a Panghílá styled Maharíjá Purba. It produces a considerable quantity of gold and tin, which go to Pahang. Both this state and Jellabú; on account of their remoteness from the British frontier, have had little political connexion with the several governments at Malacca.

VI.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 7th September, 1836.

The Honorable Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair.

The Proceedings of last meeting were read.

Lieutenant Newbold was proposed as a member by the Secretary, seconded by Dr. Mill.

Lieutenant S. Tickell, proposed by Dr. Pearson, seconded by Mr. Prinsep.

Mr. Vincent Tregear was proposed as an honorary member by Capt. A. Cunningham, seconded by the Secretary:—referred to the Committee of Papers.

Read, letters from Dr. R. Harlan and Professor Lea of Philadelphia, acknowledging their election as honorary members, and presenting various works which will be found under the head of "Library,"

Read, a letter from Mr. J. K. Kane, Secretary American Philosophical Society, Philadelphia, acknowledging receipt of Researches, Vol. XVIII. and Index, and Journal, Vol. III.; and presenting publications in return.

Also, letters from M. P. H. Fuss, Secretary of the Imperial Academy of St. Petersburgh; and from Mr. Gabriel Döbrentei, Secretary of the
Hungarian Society at Pest, (in the Hungarian, Latin, and English languages,) noticing the receipt of M. Csōma's Tibetan Dictionary and Grammar.

The following letter from the Honorable G. Turnour was read.

Kandy, July 8, 1836.

Sir,

Various circumstances have concurred to prevent my presenting the Asiatic Society with the accompanying pamphlet sooner. Its completion has been delayed, partly from want of leisure, and also in some degree from my having entered more fully into an account of Pāli Buddhistical literature, and published more of the Mahāvamsa in this volume, than I had designed when I addressed you on the 10th July, last year.

In presenting a copy of this publication to the Governor General and the Governors of the several Presidencies, I have mentioned that I had adopted this preparatory course, with the view of eliciting the criticism of oriental Societies and scholars on this portion of the Mahāvamsa, before the principal work issued from the press; and of thereby, at once, obtaining either a confirmation or refutation of the expectations I entertain as to its pointing out the road to a new and interesting field of research in Asia. It would be satisfactory, therefore, to me, if this pamphlet were referred to the Committee of Papers, for its judgment on it. At the risk of being considered affected, I repeat, that it is on the original work and on the general references thence deduced by me, that I court criticism. I cannot attach much importance to a translation, hastily made, of a work composed in a language which I have hitherto studied rather with the view of gathering information regarding the native institutions, than of familiarizing myself with its philological niceties.

The first volume of the Mahāvamsa has been printed. I have only to recast the introduction, and prepare a glossary, to admit of its publication.

If the contributions to your Journal offered in the introduction (p. 110) would be acceptable; as a preliminary step, I would suggest your transferring to its pages, from those of the Ceylon Almanac of 1836, Mr. Armour's translation of Kīṭatigama's Essay on Buddhism, as well as his prefatory letter. The author of that Essay was a Buddhist priest, of distinguished reputation for learning; and Mr. Armour is unquestionably the best European Singhalese scholar in the Island. The comprehensive form in which the system of Buddhism as recognized in Ceylon is presented in that Essay, and the definiitions there afforded of particular terms, will both save details of explanations in my analysis, and serve to render it more intelligible.

I have the honor to be, Sir, &c.

GEORGE TURNOUR.

To the Secretary Bengal Asiatic Society.

Mr. H. T. Prinsep in reference to the above stated, that the Governor General had empowered him also to solicit the opinion of the Society on the character of the Ceylonese Historical Annals, to guide his Lordship in Council as to the extent of patronage to be accorded to the work by the Government of India.

In compliance with the wishes of the Governor General and of the author himself, Mr. Turnour's Introductory Essay, Historical Epitome and translation, were referred to the Committee of Papers to examine and report their opinion of the authenticity and value of the Pali annals, which the author has undertaken to introduce to the knowledge of the learned world, as well as upon the fidelity of the translation, confronted, as it is, line by line with the Pali original in Roman character.

The Secretary read the following report from the Committee of Papers on the proposition of Cavelley Venkata Lachmīā, referred by Government to the Society at the last meeting.
Proposition of Cavelly Venkata Lachmija, Pandit, to the Madras Government.

To His Excellency Lieutenant-General the Right Honorable Sir Frederick Adam, K. C. B., Governor in Council, &c. &c. &c.

Fort St. George.

Right Honorable Sir,

Par. 1.—I have the honor to submit respectfully, the accompanying copy of a letter addressed to your Excellency from the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, for the consideration of your Excellency in Council, of which Society I am a corresponding Member, whereby it appears that that Society is very desirous to receive every literary information in this part of the world, with a view to complete the late Colonel Mackenzie's collection. I most submissively solicit, that your Excellency in Council will be pleased to sanction every support from the Government regarding those researches, particularly to authorize me to open a general correspondence with the gentlemen of literary endowments, under this Presidency, in the revenue, judicial and military branches of the service, to enable me to procure every information on the subject of the History, Antiquities, &c. of India.

2.—I beg leave to submit the enclosed copy of an abstract, comprising a brief idea of the nature of the work in which I am engaged. I leave it to your Excellency in Council to judge what may be estimated to be the expense and establishment required to bring it to a completion. It would, however, be presumptive in me, at the present stage of affairs, to suggest any specific amount. But the work consists of twenty-one different ancient alphabets and fourteen languages, ancient and modern, of various parts of the Peninsula; consequently, I would observe, that I will have occasion to employ in every zillah, on the smallest scale, two intelligent scholars, one versed in Sanscrit and the other must be proficient in oriental literature, whose office it will be to collect ancient inscriptions from religious structures and holy temples, which will prove the best guide to ascertain the accuracy of the chronology and history of the country. If the collectors undertake a part of this laborious task, I should imagine that it will prove less expensive: yet I am led to fear greatly, that they can hardly afford to give any attention to it, with the exception of some few of the most literary characters. For the materials thus collected, I would require an establishment of pandits, translators, &c. to arrange and bring down such information that may be collected and approved of.

3.—It never can be expected that the postage of the vast correspondence connected with this arduous task, which are necessarily required by the above Society, can be carried on at my own expense; I therefore most respectfully beg the favor of your Excellency in Council to pass all communications to and from me, as a corresponding member of the Royal Asiatic Society, free of postage, in the same manner as was passed in the late Colonel Mackenzie's time, relative to which the enclosed is a copy of a letter from the Post Master General of this Presidency, dated 8th March, 1809, for the information of your Excellency in Council, and in the same manner as the Madras Literary Society is still enjoying this privilege without any interruption, as stated to the President of the Madras Hindu Literary Society, in your Chief Secretary's letter under date 22nd February, 1834, which is about to be discontinued. But I would faithfully promise that no abuse or advantage shall be taken of the confidence that may be reposed in me on the subject.

I have the honor to be, Right Honorable Sir, Your Excellency's most obedient humble servant,

(Signed) Cavelly Venkata Lachmija,

Corresponding Member of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland.

(A true Copy),

Madras, 16th June, 1835. Chief Secretary.

The reference from the Madras Government, for an opinion on the merits of Venkata Lachmī'ā's pandit's proposition, however complimentary to our Society, might perhaps have been addressed with better effect to the Madras Literary Society, which must be far better acquainted than we can pretend to be, both with the character and attainments of the individual, and with those desiderata in the History of the Peninsula, which he undertakes to elucidate.

We, however, enjoy one advantage in the possession of Mr. now Professor, Wilson's Descriptive Catalogue of Col. Mackenzie's Collection, which, aided by other published works on the history of the Southern Hindu States, may enable us to form a tolerable opinion on the question.

It might be supposed from the entire silence of Venkata on the subject of Mr. Wilson's labours in the statement he has handed up to the Madras Government of the "Progress of the Researches" in which he is engaged, that he was a total stranger to the descriptive catalogue; although the brief notice he gives of each state and dynasty, appears based upon the summary contained in the introduction to that work, both as to arrangement and detail; and certainly it adds not one iota to the information made public by Professor Wilson in 1828.

The object of Sir Alexander Johnston, in persuading the Pandit to found a native literary society at Madras was, doubtless, that through the gratuitous aid of those best acquainted with the languages and traditions of the country, and having connections or friends dispersed over the Peninsula, the learned world might be put in possession of translations and digests of the mass of MSS. collected by Col. Mackenzie; at the same time that other materials of a similar nature might be sought out and accumulated. The Vice-President of the Royal Asiatic Society does not seem to have contemplated the organization of an extensive paid establishment of collectors, pandits and copyists; otherwise it is probable he would have addressed himself to the Government itself, either directly or through the natural channel of the Madras Auxiliary Society. For he would have anticipated that such an extensive scheme would need the control of a master head, accustomed to generalization, and capable of estimating the value and drift of inscription and legendary evidence. The qualifications of Cavelly Venkata for such an office, judging of them by his "abstract," or indeed of any native, could hardly be pronounced equal to such a task, however useful they may prove as auxiliaries in such a train of research. The pandit's original and arithmetical mode of weighing authorities, of which examples may be found in every item of his statement, is any thing but calculated to contradict this assumption. His remarks on the first, or ancient Nandavarman dynasty of Andhra, may be cited as an instance:

"As this is a very obscure dynasty, confidence can only be placed in the inscriptions. From the materials already possessed in the collection of Col. Mackenzie, I suppose one-eighth of the history of this dynasty is complete, and the remainder should be completed by further research."

The Mackenzie Manuscripts (embracing, as Cavelly Venkata says in his letter to Government, using the words of the late Colonel himself, no less than twenty-one different alphabets and fourteen different languages) have been for some time at Madras deposited in the College Library. We have no means of knowing whether during that period the pandit (himself a servant of the college) has published or undertaken the translation or analysis of any part of its contents. In the absence of any such testimony of his competence, contrasted with what will be presently urged, it seems impossible to recommend any large outlay of public money in the way he proposes.

Not that it is undesirable to complete the examination of the Mackenzie papers. On the contrary, all who have read Mr. Wilson's catalogue, will grant that to be an object of high, of national importance; especially when it is asserted that many of the volumes are going rapidly to decay, and may not be

† See Preface to Wilson's Des. Cat.
‡ See Taylor's Hist. of Man.
available a few years hence. The British Indian Government has spent a lakh of rupees in purchasing these ancient records: to refuse the requisite aid for their examination and conversion to public use when they are known to contain a vast store of curious and interesting matter, would be false economy, only equalled by the case of the Buchanan MSS. in Calcutta, which cost even a larger sum, and which the Government has recorded its unwillingness to print even free of expense, or to take a single copy of it printed by others*.

But happily, in regard to the Mackenzie collection, such neglect cannot now be feared. Independent of Mr. Wilson's able summary, we are aware† that Captain Harkness, Sec. of the Roy. As. Soc., has undertaken to translate and digest a portion of the manuscripts in London, and M. Jacquet of Paris has initiated that the mass of the Colonel's inscriptions, to which the Honourable Court of Directors have handsomely allowed him free access, are to be included in the "Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum," upon which he is now busily engaged; while in Madras itself has lately appeared an able and zealous expositor in the Reverend Mr. W. Taylor, whose previous study of, and publication on, the history of the Peninsula, added to his acquaintance with the Tamul and Telinga languages, eminently fit him for the task, and point him out as the properest, if not the only, individual capable of fulfilling the grand object proposed by Sir A. Johnston.

This gentleman has already gone deep into the subject. At a great expense and sacrifice of time, he has published a variety of "Oriental Historical Manuscripts" in the original character and in translation, with a connective commentary, shewing their bearing on the general history of the country.

The Editor of the Madras Journal, indeed, announces that Mr. Taylor has further undertaken a careful examination of the whole of the College MSS., and that he promises "a paper or series of papers on the subject," it would certainly be most desirable that such examination should not be cursory or incomplete, that it should not leave any thing to be done by others, who would have again to travel over the same ground of previous study to be capable of undertaking it. It would, in short, be most expedient to secure the services of Mr. Wm. Taylor publicly, for the thorough examination of the Mackenzie records; to allow him such assistance as he might require for the period, (with him necessarily so much shorter than could be allowed to any other,) which he might fix for the task; to unite Cavelly Venkata pandit with him, should he be desirous of assistance, (although from an expression at page 63 of his second volume, it may be imagined that he would not count much on the aid of the late Colonel's native establishment,) and to sanction the publication of those records, which he might select as the most valuable, either in elucidation of history or native science, philosophy, religion, customs, &c.

For the collection of new materials, the zeal of the numerous members of the English and native literary societies of Madras, (scattered through the various districts,) will need only the suggestions and direction of a leader so well qualified, to accumulate them, without any necessity for a paid establishment. The circulation of a scientific journal throughout the presidency will materially contribute and doubtless has contributed to excite curiosity to such objects among the "gentlemen of literary endowments," whose correspondence either with Mr. Taylor or with Cavelly Venkata, might advantageously be allowed the indulgence of exemption from postage.

Without first ascertaining Mr. Taylor's willingness to accept the office here chalked out, or consulting him on the extent of the aid he would require, it is impossible to estimate the probable outlay; but the Government records will furnish comparative data, in the sums paid for the "oriental translating establishment," entertained for a period under the late Secretary of the Asiatic Society.

* See Mr. Secretary Bushby's Correspondence with the Editor of the Gleanings in Science and Journal Asiatic Society.
† See Sir Alexander Johnston's address to the Royal Asiatic Society.
‡ Madras Literary Journal, No. 12, p. 173.
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

The volumes of Mackenzie papers in our library might advantageously be added to the other documents for the proposed scrutiny*, so that the whole might be published continuously; but these details will naturally come under consideration hereafter, should the Government agree in the view taken by the Asiatic Society, and resolve to entrust the undertaking to the individual pointed out, either directly or through the medium of the Society, (here or at Madras,) which might exercise its judgment as to the final publication, should Mr. Taylor consent to labour under its auspices.

(Signed) J. Prinsep, Sec.
For the Committee of Papers.

20th August, 1836.

Resolved, That the Society concur in the view taken by the Committee of Papers, particularly as to the expediency of engaging the eminent services of Mr. W. Taylor, for the examination of the Mackenzie MSS., and that the Secretary be empowered respectfully to communicate this opinion, in reply, to the Government.

Mr. Charles Brownlow submitted to the Society the following proposition, relative to a complete copy of the Alif Laila, or Arabic original of the 1001 nights entertainments, lately purchased by him from the estate of Major Macan, well known as the Editor of the Shah Nameh.

To James Prinsep, Esq., Secretary Asiatic Society, &c. &c.

SIR,

Having become the possessor of the original of the complete Arabian Nights Entertainments, formerly the property of Major Macan, apparently the first that has ever reached India; I am desirous of adding to oriental literature a work which has long been a desideratum with Eastern scholars, by its immediate publication. I trust that my views regarding the importance of this work are not unreasonable; at least I am not alone in my opinion, for no book extant has ever enjoyed such universal popularity as this, even in its translated form. Much of its narrative depicts, with miraculous fidelity, that most difficult class of incidents to describe with interest—the incidents of common life; and, beneath even its most grotesque and impossible circumstances, there is a moral beauty—a knowledge of humanity discoverable, which comes home to all, and throughout, a vivid power of description, which is unequalled in any other production, and addresses itself to the mind with an effect almost pictorial. It is the remark of an orientalist of high repute, speaking of this unique and extraordinary work, that "we here behold a genuine portrait of the spirit and character, the common life and domestic manners, of a once powerful nation, which excelled in arts as well as in arms, in three quarters of the globe; in these tales we see the Arabs, depicted by themselves, in the tents of the desert, and in the courts of the Caliphs. We mingle among their merchants, join them in their travelling caravans, visit them in their social circles, and even penetrate into their harems."

If the book appeal thus powerfully to the European reader, whose sympathies are weakened by distance and difference of habit, how much more emphatically must it address itself to the inhabitants of the East, in the overflowing and beautiful language in which it was originally written!

My chief object in this paper is to draw public attention to the document, and to give such evidence regarding its authenticity as I have been able to collect, under the very difficult and embarrassing condition of having no other complete copy to refer to. My attention has been directed, in the first instance, to the MS. alone, which contains the unbroken series of one thousand and one nights; next, to its quality, which is reported on by competent persons to be clear, and remarkably free from literal errors.

* See printed catalogue of the Library Asiatic Society.
My next step was to examine the MS. with the printed edition of the "Two Hundred Nights," published some years since in Calcutta, whence it appears that the latter is a set of excerpts merely, made, in many instances, without regard to the literary value of the selection, and in some, overlooking even the integrity of the tales. These fragments have been arbitrarily renumbered as the "first two hundred nights."

I have been fortunate enough to obtain a copy of that edition of the original now in the course of publication at Breslau, by Professor Habicht, an orientalist of high attainments; he has devoted his life (and it had need be a long one to enable him to fulfill his task), to the publication of a complete edition of this work; he has procured copies of the MS., perfect and imperfect, from Tunis, from Cairo, and from the library of the Baron Silvestre de Sacy, and is proceeding with the publication, subject to the critical collation of these MSS. I find, on comparing the MS. in my hands, with the edition of Habicht, as far as published, i.e. to upwards of three hundred and fifty nights, that no important discrepancies occur, though, in transcripts of this length, there will always be found considerable differences. This fact is curiously illustrated by the German Professor, who has carefully set forth the variations, omissions, redundancies, and inversions of order, found on comparison of his various MSS. It is likewise stated by M. Trebutien, in his preface to a recent French translation of this work, (published in 1829,) that he collated twelve manuscripts, and among them those of the King's Library at Paris, and the Bodleian copy, which presented continual discrepancies, both as to style and the order of the tales, which every copyist had arranged according to his own taste. These differences, though they would be important in a historical paper, are of little consequence in a series of fictions. They have manifestly resulted from the carelessness or caprice of the transcriber, and do not affect the value of the work. All that can be done, under these circumstances, is to adopt the reading most consistent with the context.

Beyond the print to which Habicht's edition extends, there exist here no means of continuous comparison. The evidence of genuineness is strengthened, however, by finding, that the portion of the original already known in the Calcutta edition, is found in the manuscript in my possession, except that the stories, in the latter, stand in their natural and proper connexion with the remainder of the text. The tales generally correspond in their order with those found in Scott's translation of 1801, taking into account those contained in the supplementary volume, (translated from Wortley Montague's MS.) and allowing for the omission of those which the translator has deemed it best, from motives which he assigns, to pass over.

A remark made by the Baron Purgstall (Von Hammer) on the subject of Galland's translation, is another strong proof of the authenticity of the manuscript before me. He says, "the MS. used by Galland was far from complete; and if he published no more stories, it was not because the remainder were less deserving of translation, but because he had no more in his possession. The imperfection of his manuscript compelled him also to invent, as he has done, a conclusion to that story of the Sultan of the Indies:—we shall find that Sheherzadi was saved from death, neither by her many amiable qualities, nor by her inexhaustible tales, but by her having, during the 'thousand and one nights,' borne the Sultan three children." Trebutien's translation, the result of the collation of twelve of the best manuscripts in Europe, confirms this; it is a literal translation of the one now under consideration; the passage occurs at the thousand and first night, and is unquestionably one of the most pathetic and beautiful in the whole work! To the above may be added the strong internal evidence deducible from the uniform character of the style throughout. The manuscript is open for general examination, and I shall gratefully appreciate the opinion and advice of competent orientalists.

With reference to my intention of publishing, we have great advantages in the mechanical facilities, which we can so readily command, in printing oriental

* Trebutien has since examined the MS. used by Galland, and finds that he possessed only two hundred and eighty-four nights.

3 x 2
works in this country; and a work of this kind, which would take many years in Europe, might be readily produced here in less than twelve months. We have our disadvantages too: for it is far from probable, that any editor could be procured here, possessing the high qualifications and the indefatigable industry of the Professor before named, united with the leisure necessary for the undertaking; one who would carry through the formidable labour of collation, of elaborate verbal criticism, and the compilation of a lexicon of words found in the original Arabic of this work, but in no other authority extant! We may despair of this; but it is not too much to say, that an edition, accurate in all essential particulars, may be brought through; and I will not conceal, that it would be a source of great gratification to me to be the means of giving to the classical literature of the East a book, which, while it has enjoyed throughout Asia and the civilized world a reputation equalled by none, has been, heretofore, in its complete and original form, but a name!

Calcutta, September 5, 1836.

C. BROWNLOW.

Resolved unanimously, That Mr. Brownlow is entitled to the warmest thanks of the Society, and of all interested in oriental literature, for his disinterested exertions in regard to the Alif Leila, and for his laudable wish to make public the valuable and complete edition he has become possessed of. As it seems possible, by further comparison of the manuscript with the recent translation of M. TRIBUTIEN, and with the Arabic printed version of Professor HABICHT, and the incomplete volumes published in Calcutta, to add in some degree to the guarantee of its authenticity, the Committee of Papers is requested to enter upon this examination, and report upon the extent of patronage to be accorded by the Society to Mr. Brownlow’s laudable enterprise.

A letter from M. EUGÈNE ORMULIT, Director of the French Journal entitled "Institut," addressed to the President, invited the Society to communicate copies of its proceedings and publications to this Journal, and to subscribe for a copy of the work. Referred to the Committee of Papers.

A letter was read from Dr. F. MOHL, one of the Secretaries of the Asiatic Society of Paris:—

Referring to a prior official communication (not yet received) offering to unite with the Bengal Society in the expense of completing the oriental publications abandoned by the late Government of India, and in furtherance thereof requesting a supply of the works already finished for sale on the Society’s account, it states that the five copies of the Mahabharat sent home under charge of our associate M. Richy, had been sold in one day, and it was calculated that there might be a demand for 100 copies of this work on the continent, and for half that number of other Sanscrit works. The money realized has been paid to the Society’s agent in London. Dr. Mohl concludes:—

"Nous ferons ici tout ce que nous pourrons pour repandre ces ouvrages en France et en Allemagne, car nous sentons tous vivement le service que la Société de Calcutta rend à la littérature orientale; et si il m’est permis de parler de moi je ne desire rien plus ardemment que de pouvoir lui être utile dans cette circonstance, ou elle a pris si energiquement et si honorablement les intérêts de la littérature orientale."

Library.

The following books were presented.

Transactions of the American Phil. Society—by the Society, through Mr. Ryan.
The American Almanack for 1836—by ditto.

Harlan's Medical and Physical Researches—by the Author.


Transactions of the Hungarian Society of Pest—by the Society.

Transactions of the London Society of Arts, vol. i. pt. 2—by the Society.

Marsden's Numismata Orientalia, 2 pts. in 1 vol. 4to—by the Author.

Notes on the Indica of Ctesias—by Professor Wilson, the Author.

Epitome of the History of Ceylon and Translation of the Mahâwanso—by the Hon'ble G. Turnour, the Author.

Second Report on the State of Education in Bengal—by Mr. W. Adam.

Bell's Comparative View of the External Commerce of Bengal, during the years 1834, 35, and 36—by the Author.

The India Journal of Medical Science and Scientific Review—by Dr. F. Corby, Editor.

The Meteorological Register for July 1836—by the Surveyor General.

The following book from the Booksellers.

Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopedia—Stebbing's Reformation, vol. i.

Museum of Antiquities, &c.

Read, a letter from J. Bell, Esq, presenting various articles of food and clothing, in use among the savage tribes inhabiting the coasts of Dampier's Straits, brought to Calcutta by the Ship Bombay Castle.

The Secretary presented in the name of Lieut. Colin Mackenzie, various weapons taken from the Malay pirates;—among others a long bambu tube, through which light poisoned darts are blown by the mouth. The slightest wound inflicted by them is esteemed fatal. Lieut. Mackenzie also presented the head of a pirate chief killed in the late expedition.

The Secretary called to the attention of the members present, a very curious piece of sculpture, sent down for the express inspection of his associates by Colonel Stacy, a Member of the Society.

This sculpture (of 2-3rds size)—cut in the spotted red sandstone of Agra and Mathura. It seems to represent Silenus or Bacchus, his brows crowned with vine leaves, and supported by bacchanal attendants. The dresses of the figures, of which there are several on both sides very well proportioned and grouped, is decidedly not Hindu but rather Grecian, having a tunic of plaited folds gathered round the waist by a band. The figures and foliage support a large circular bason, which may have been for holding sacred water, or connected with a fountain. We must endeavour to make a drawing of this very interesting groupe, and publish it, with the zealous proprietor's account of its discovery.

Literary Communications.

A memoir by the Hon'ble G. Turnour on the authenticity of the early Buddhistical Chronology, developed in the Pâli annals, as compared with the Râja Tarangini and other authorities, was submitted.

[This will be printed in an early number.]

A note on the Muar State, being the conclusion of his series of essays on the native divisions of the Malay Peninsula, and an outline of their
several political and commercial relations, was received from Lieut. T. J. Newbold, A. D. C. to Brig. Gen. Wilson, C. B.

Extract of a letter from Mr. V. Tregear was read, offering should the Society wish it, to forward to Calcutta the Bhittari lāth, containing the important inscription which the Vice-President Dr. Mill is now engaged in decyphering, as it is held in no reverence or consideration by the people of the neighbourhood.

Some conversation took place on Mr. Tregear's proposition, which his letter explained would not have been made, if it involved the removal or destruction of an object of local interest or veneration. The pillar was at present isolated, half buried in the ground, and in no way regarded by the people. By transferring it to the museum it would be preserved from further injury, and an inscription of great historical importance would be rendered permanently accessible to the antiquarian. It was the concurrent opinion of the members present, that if the removal could be effected at a moderate cost, Mr. Tregear's obliging offer should be accepted.

Adverting to the neglected condition of the pillar lying half buried in the ground in the fort at Allahabad, and the great interest which the inscriptions it contains had excited among orientalists in Europe, it was

Moved by Sir J. P. Grant, seconded by Dr. Corbyn, that a respectful representation should be made to the Government of India, on the expediency of taking measures to preserve the ancient monument at Allahabad from further decay, by setting it up, with a pedestal and railing, in such position within the fort or elsewhere as may appear most appropriate.

Physical Department.

A letter was read from the Secretary to the Medical and Physical Society of Bombay, forwarding a memoir by Dr. Lush, on the Fossils recently discovered in the Gulf of Cambay.

The fossils have been sent to Calcutta by the Chief Secretary Mr. Wathen, and may be daily expected, when the paper will be printed.

Mr. J. Trotter presented some specimens of the fossil bones recently discovered at the Cape of Good Hope.

Mr. Trotter's note informs the Society, that Mr. Pope, the modest discoverer of this new fossil deposit, had kindly promised to collect a more numerous series for the Society's museum, to be presented in the name of his lady, and that they may be soon expected. The specimens now presented consist of vertebrae and fragments of ribs of some large animal, which from their mutilated state cannot be identified; they are thoroughly fossilized and very hard. Mr. Pope says they are found chiefly in the bed of the Ganka river, whither they have been washed from the site of their inhumation in a "sandy and slate stone" soil: one specimen in his possession was found imbedded in this hard slaty matrix, from which it required a crowbar to extract it; it was as one solid rock. The vicinity of the district called the "Gouph" abounds with specimens; the country is stony and barren, and much intersected with dry ravines. It is situated between the Zwarteborg and the Nieuwbergen, the central part of the Cape Colony, Lat. 33° S. and 22°, 23° W. Long.
A memoir on the fossil remains of the smaller Carnivora of the Sub-Himalayans, by Lieutenants W. E. Baker and H. M. Durand, Engineers, with a lithograph, was submitted.

Description of some new species of the Strigine family; and indication of a new genus of the Picidae, by Mr. B. H. Hodgson.

A specimen of the sea-horse (*Hippocampus*) called by the *Mag* inhabitants of Ramri a young *Ngaga*, or "volcano serpent," was presented by Captain D. Williams, Senior Assistant Commissioner in Arracan.

Dr. McClelland exhibited to the Society the collections made by him, of Zoology and Geology, in the late expedition to the Tea province of Assam, and submitted two written notices, one of which he read in elucidation of the geology of the Kasia range.

Dr. McClelland stated, that the fossil shells were found in such numbers and variety at Chirra Punji, as to afford the most unquestionable evidence of the tertiary nature of the Kasia mountains; and further, that when the species shall be rigidly identified and compared with those of the London and Paris basins and the sub-Appenine beds, as well as with existing species in the Indian seas, it may be possible to find their place in the Eocene and Pliocene divisions of Lyell.

This he considered the first instance of any extensive deposit of fossil shells having been found in sub-Himalayan beds, calculated to throw sufficient light upon the period of upheavement.

Mr. Crocroft, and long before him Mr. Scott, had indeed made known the cerithia and turrilites of Chirra, and a variety of the nummulites of the Sylhet limestone, which is in fact made up of shells and nothing else; but to Dr. McClelland belongs the honor of having found 27 varieties of shells in the same limestone; also, of having found an extensive deposit of marine shells on the S. W. face of the mountains quite distinct from any limestone whatever, but imbedded in a superficial layer of partially consolidated sandy matter, which reposes on the surface of sandstone covered only by the soil, and of having exhibited 100 species nearly of these shells for the first time to the Society.

The great extent of the collection and the variety of objects of natural history particularly—embracing 120 fishes of the Brahmaputra; besides birds, quadrupeds, insects, shells, and a very numerous and regular series of rock specimens taken from the whole line of journey,—did great credit to the industry of Dr. McClelland. A vote of thanks was unanimously passed to him for the opportunity he had so kindly afforded the Society of inspecting his portion of the fruits of the late expedition to Assam. The descriptive catalogues of the whole are now in a state of forwardness, and will, it is presumed, be incorporated in a general report to Government by Dr. Wallich, who conducted the expedition, and it is hoped be eventually published for general information, either in a separate volume, or through the medium of the Society’s Researches.

[We shall hasten to insert the two notes as soon as space permits.]
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The remarks of last month apply to the barometers. The differences have been .002 and .48 at 10 A.M. and 4 P.M. respectively, agreeing with former observation. The Wet-Bulbs column has been omitted this month to use the room for a daily comparison (which will be continued) of the three methods of finding the percentage of humidity in the air. The first column is taken from the daily morning for the wet-bulb instrument in the room, at the noon table from Dalton's tables of a calm and calm, and the air in calm and calm at the sun. The data are displayed in the Royal Institution Journal and in the monthly journal of the British Meteorological Society.
I.—Examination of some points of Buddhist Chronology. By the Hon. George Turnour, Ceylon Civil Service.

While the question of the authenticity of Buddhistical chronology, developed in Pali annals, subsequent to the advent of Sa'kya Sinha, is under the consideration of the Committee of Papers of the Asiatic Society, I beg to offer a few observations on the Chronological Table appended to Professor Wilson's Essay on the Hindu History of Cashmir, called the Rája Tarangini, published in the XVth volume of the Asiatic Researches.

The first portion of this history, compiled by Kalha'na Pandit commences with the fabulous ages; it is represented to extend to A. D. 1024; and the author is reputed to have flourished about Saka 1070, or A. D. 1148.

Before tabularizing and adjusting the chronology comprised in that history*, Professor Wilson gives the following details regarding the reign of the monarch Aso'ka.

"The last of these princes (Sachinara) being childless, the crown of Cashmir reverted to the family of its former rulers, and devolved on Asóka, who was descended from the paternal great uncle of Khagendra. This prince, it is said in the Ayen Acheri, abolished the Brahmínical rites, and substituted those of Jina; from the original however it appears, that he by no means attempted the former of these heinous acts, and that, on the contrary, he was a pious worshipper of Siva, an ancient temple of whom in the character of Vijayésa he repaired. With respect to the second charge, there is better foundation for it, although it appears that the prince did not introduce, but invented or originated the Jina Sásana. He is said to have founded a city called Srinagar, a different place,

* Want of space must excuse our inserting these tables, which will be accessible to all our readers in our Chronological and Genealogical Appendix.—Ed.
however, from the present capital, which is attributed to a much later monarch. In the reign of Asoka, Kashmir was overrun by the Mlech'has, for whose expulsion the king obtained from Siva a pious and valiant son, as a reward for the austerities he had practised."

"Ja'loka, the son and successor of Asoka, was a prince of great prowess: he overcame the assertors of the Bauddha heresies, and quickly expelled the Mlech'has from the country, thence named Ujjhita dinma: he then carried his victorious arms to foreign regions, and amongst others to the north of Persia, which he subjugated in the reign of Darab, and then proceeding in an opposite direction, he subdued the country of Canoxj."

"The successor of this celebrated monarch was Damodara, of whose descent various opinions were entertained."

"Damodara was succeeded by three princes who divided the country, and severally founded capital cities named after themselves. These princes were called Hushka, Jushka, and Canishka, and these appellations are strongly corroborative of an assertion of our author, that they were of Turushka, that is, of Turk or Tartar extraction: they are considered as synchronous, but may possibly be all that are preserved of some series of Tartar princes, who, it is very likely, at various periods, established themselves at Cashmir. The chief event recorded of their reign is the foundation of the three several capitals, named after themselves, but another and more important consequence of their sovereignty is said to have been the almost entire change of the national faith, and the nearly exclusive prevalence of the doctrines of the Bauddhas under a Bodhisatwa or heirophanta named Na'garjuna. The period at which this took place is said to have been 150 years before the death of Sakte Sinha."

"The Tartar princes were succeeded by Abhimanya, a monarch evidently of a Hindu appellation, and a follower of the orthodox faith, which he re-established in Cashmir."

In elucidation of the date assigned to the age in which Na'garjuna lived, Professor Wilson adds the following appendix. The Sanscrit quotation, which (if I have correctly read it) is here represented in Roman, is there given in Deva-nagari characters.

* The faith of Asoka is a matter of very little moment, as the prince himself is possibly an ideal personage: as, however, the comparative antiquity of the Buddha and Brahminical creeds in Cashmir has been supposed to be affected by it, and the events subsequently recorded, it may be advisable to give the passages of the original, which shew that Asoka was a worshipper of Siva: it is not impossible, however, if we are to attach credit to any part of this portion of the Cashmirian history, that he permitted heretical, possibly Bauddha doctrines, to be introduced into the kingdom during his reign from his Tartar neighbours.

"Then the prince Asoka, the lover of the truth, obtained the earth; who sinning in subdued affections, produced the Jena Sastana." This may mean possibly something very different from the received idea, and may imply his neglect of affairs of state through excess of devotion, and his consequently omitting to prevent the intrusion of a foreign power, rather than a foreign faith, into the kingdom, the expulsion of which was the object of his son's birth.—[Note by Professor Wilson.]
Appendix No. 7, to Professor Wilson's Essay.

The passage in the text adverted to (page 23) requires a little consideration, both as to its meaning and the chronological views to which it has already given rise. The text of the original runs thus:

Té Turushkánawayadhitá pi puyásnyá nripáh Sushkakshétráú désepáhu ma-thachitýádá chakriré. Prájyé rájyaksháné teshán, práya Kasmiramardalaw bhóýama-ná masté sawaudhánam pravrajyorjita tésam. Tató Bhagwatah Sa'kyá Sinhasyá puraniyrité asmin saha lókhatau sárdham varshasatam hyágtá Bódhisatwascha désepámin nékhu bhunéswaró bhut, sacha Na'ga'rajunaḥ srimáh shaḍharhatwa na śangrayé.

There are in this passage some obvious inaccuracies, and some compounds of a purport absolutely unknown to the most learned Brahmans. Taking it as it stood, it appeared to involve the position that the Turushka princes preceded Sa'kyá Sinha by above a century and a half; and concluding the Gautama of the sixth century before the Christian era to be intended by the name Sa'kyá Sinha, which is always enumerated as a synonyme, the date of Gonerda III. was adjusted accordingly in the preceding pages, and placed 640 B.C. An opportunity having subsequently occurred of consulting a Burma priest, and a man of some learning, on the subject, there appeared good grounds for revising the passage, and altering the results, in consequence of which several pages previously printed off have been cancelled, and it is only in the marginal dates of the first dynasty that any traces of the error have been suffered to remain. These are of comparative unimportance, and will be readily rectified by adverting to the table. We have now then to offer a translation of the passage; premising, that the term Puraniyrité should be Pariniyrité, the sixth case of Pariniyriti, or in Pali, Parinibbuti, the ordinary term used by the Bauddhas, to express the final Nirvrité or emancipation of their Buddhás or saints in its fullest sense; Pari being added as an intensive prefix. The use of this and some other peculiar expressions, which are at present quite unintelligible to the ablest scholars among the brahmans of Hindustan, but are familiar to the Rahans of the Burman empire, proves that Kalhana, the author of the Cashmirian History, or at least his guides, were well acquainted with the language, and, probably, with the system, of the Bauddhas.

They (Hushka, &c.) of Turushka descent, were princes, asylums of virtue, and they founded colleges, and planted sacred trees, in Sushka and other places. During the period of their reign the whole of Cashmir was the enjoyment of Bauddhas, eminent for austerity. After them, when 150 years had elapsed from the emancipation of the Lord Sa'kyá Sinha in this essence of the world, a Bódhisatwa in the country named Na'ga'rajuna, was Bhunéswara, (Lord of the earth,) and he was the asylum of the six A'thātawas.'

As the prevalence of the Bauddhas and consequence of Na'ga'rajuna, if not subverted, were at least checked in the ensuing reign of Abhimanya; and as the passage expressly states that the circumstance occurred after the Turushka princes, the 150 years subsequent to Sa'kyá Sinha must fall within the limits of Abhimanya's reign: it is therefore necessary only to fix the date of Sa'kyá Sinha to determine that of the several reigns occurring in this portion of our history.

Assuming that this Sákyá Sinha was the Buddha of 542 B.C. he ventures to correct thereby Kalhana's more distant epoch:—

3 y 2
At the same time Kalha'na, well informed as he is in these respects, has evidently confounded the two periods, and hence assigned to Sa'kya Sinha a date corresponding to at least 1332 B.C. although apparently designating the person who flourished B.C. 542. We may therefore venture to correct his chronology with reference to this latter date; although until we can be satisfied that the Sa'kya Sinha of the North-west was one individual with the Gautama of Magadha, we cannot venture to attach any thing like certainty to this emendation. Some circumstances in favor of the date laid down are adverted to in the concluding observations; and we may here add, that there seems to be a strange connexion between the circumstances and dates of the Zerdashts of Persia and the Buddhas of India, which deserves a more particular investigation than we have hitherto had materials to undertake.

"The passage relating to the prevalence of the Buddha faith in Cashmir includes the mention of an individual, whose history is fully as obscure, if not as important, as that of Buddha.

Na'garjuna as a Budhisatwa, (see note in page 21,) may be either a religious or a secular character: he was probably the former, as a hierarch, the prototype of the modern Lama of Tibet; his other title, however, Bhumiswara* may mean a prince, and has probably induced Mr. Colebrooke to translate the text generally thus:

"Da'modara was succeeded by three kings of the race of Turushka, and they were followed by a Budhisatwa, who wrested the empire from them by the aid of Sa'kya Sinha, and introduced the religion of Buddha into Cashmir. He reigned a hundred years, and was followed by Abhimanya."

After carefully considering all the data accessible to him, Professor Wilson decides on adopting the above Buddhistical record of the age in which these three Turushka princes and Na'garjuna flourished, as the most authentic authority available for making the first adjustment in his chronological table; whereby he reduces, at the termination of his "first period," the date of Gonerda III.'s reign from B.C. 1182 to B.C. 388, showing an anachronism in the Raja Tarangini of 794 years.

This circumstance alone, even if no new light could be thrown on this interesting question, would afford a powerful argument in support of the opinions I entertain of the superior accuracy and authenticity of Buddhistical over Brahminical chronology. We should bear in mind, too, that the Raja Tarangini is admitted to be "the only Sanscrit composition yet discovered to which the title of history can

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* "Iswara," (Pali "Issaró,"') and "Sómikó," are often conferred on Buddhistical sacerdotal characters who have gained great ascendancy. Vide chap. v. of the Mahavamsa. "Addháyan sómanéró mé gharé hessati Sa'mikó." Chap. xiv. "Gahe'tá pakeá mihi: Dipé, hessanti Issara.'" "This sámanéró will this very day become the master of my palace." "The land will be usurped by these persons: they will become the lords of this island." (Note by Mr. T.)
with any propriety be applied." It is not a little remarkable, therefore, that Professor Wilson, after having thus recognized the correctness of the date assigned to Sākya Śinha's death, and availed himself of an event connected with Buddhistical history to correct the chronology of the Rāja Tarangini, should have entirely lost sight of these circumstances, and been led, in analyzing the Tibetan works, to say that "any thing like chronology is, if possible, more unknown in Buddhistical than Brahminical writings, and it is in vain to expect any satisfactory specification of the date at which Buddha Sākya flourished."

The object, however, which I have more immediately in view at present, is to point out, that the correction adopted by Professor Wilson in this table, which reduces the date of the reign of Gonerda III. from B. C. 1182 to B. C. 388, invites criticism and reconsideration, as being apparently inconsistent with the most approved data previously established, in both the Brahminical and Buddhistical chronologies; and also to endeavour to prove that the imperfection of the adjustment proceeds from the omission of a single letter in the passage of the Sanscrit text quoted in his appendix. Whether the omission of this single letter has arisen from Kalhana Pandit having misunderstood the Buddhistical authority, from which his information was derived; or from the inaccuracy of some transcriber of his work, will not, perhaps, ever be ascertained; unless, indeed, some copy of this history be hereafter found, exempt from this minute inaccuracy, the discovery of which would fix the erratum on the transcriber.

Before I explain the grounds on which I justify the addition of "d" to the numeral "Sārdhāna warsha sataṭ," it will be proper to notice, why the adjustment, made according to the present reading of that numeral, is inconsistent with "the present most approved data of both the Brahminical and Buddhistical chronologies."

According to the Brahminical chronology developed in the Puránas, as analyzed by Sir W. Jones, Colonel Wilford, and other oriental scholars, the date assigned to the reign of Chandragupta is B. C. 1502; and whether we regard him as the contemporary of Alexander the Great, or of Seleucus Nicator, the Brahminical date assigned to his reign will have to be reduced to about B. C. 325; making an adjustment of about 1177 years; in comparison with which the foregoing adjustment of 794 years at the reign of Gonerda III. is deficient to the extent of 383 years, and to that extent, therefore, it is at variance with the present cardinal point of Brahminical chronology, the age of Chandragupta. On a careful comparison
of Professor Wilson's Table with Sir W. Jones's Essay, it will, I think, be admitted that Kalhana Pundit did not depart materially from the fictitious scheme of Hindu chronology contained in the Puranas, until after the reign of Gonerda III.; and that it was subsequent to that date, that he attempted to correct progressively the Hindu anachronism. According to the Puranas, Chandragupta succeeded to the Magadha empire about B. C. 1502. Admitting (for reasons hereafter explained), that Asoka of Cashmir is identical with Asoka of Magadha, the grandson of Chandragupta, we shall then have a series of nine (three of Magadha and six of Cashmir) princes to fill up the term of 320 years intervening between Chandragupta B. C. 1502, and Gonerda III. B. C. 1182, giving a somewhat high average, certainly, of 35 years and seven months, but still not greatly out of proportion with the term actually assigned in Buddhistical history to the reigns of the three Magadha kings, (viz.) :

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Chandragupta} & : 
34 \\
\text{Bindusara} & : 
28 \\
\text{Asoka} & : 
37 \\
\text{Total} & : 
99 + 3 = 33 \text{ years for the average}
\end{align*}
\]

At all events, it must be conceded that a series of only nine reigns, comprised within so limited a term as 320 years, can by no admissible process of adjustment be extended to 703 by the addition thereto of 383 years short deducted at the age of Gonerda III. Such an addition would make it necessary either to throw back the reign of Chandragupta to (B. C. 1182 + 703 =) B. C. 1885, which would disturb the whole scheme of Hindu chronology, or to bring the reign of Gonerda III. (B. C. 1502—703) to B. C. 799, which Kalhana had not done.

It appears to be requisite, therefore, that the adjustment made in the date of the reign of Gonerda III. should be nearer 1177 than 794 years; and, indeed, I conceive I am justified in asserting, that this position admits of almost arithmetical verification, from the inequalities of the averages produced in the reigns of the three subsequent "dynasties" in the Chronological Table of the Raja Tarangini.

It will be seen in that Table, that Professor Wilson does not escape from his chronological embarrassments till the close of his "third dynasty;" as the averages assigned to two of those dynasties are, by his own acknowledgment, inadmissible. According to his corrected chronology he has
In the first dynasty, 21 Princes in 378 years, average 18 years.
In the second dynasty, 6 ditto in 192 ditto, ditto 22 ditto, 8 months.
In the third dynasty, 16 ditto in 433 ditto, ditto 43 ditto, 3½ ditto.

37 1003 general average 27 years, 1 month.

If, instead of resting these adjustments on conjectural grounds, we substitute the precise correction ascertained to be necessary in Hindu chronology at the reign of Chandragupta, being about 1177 years, we shall then bring the reign of Gonerda III. from B. C. 1182, down to B. C. 5. The general average of the reigns of the 37 Kashmirian princes from Gonerda III. in B. C. 5 to the end of the reign of Baladitya in A. D. 615, will then give the satisfactory result of 16 years and 9 months. The necessity of all further adjustments of the Cashmirian table, subsequent to the age of Gonerda III. will be thereby got rid of. The clumsy expedient of Kalha'na Pandit for making those adjustments, by assigning preposterously protracted terms,—in one instance of 300 years,—to the reigns of the princes of the three subsequent "dynasties," may at once be rejected. His chronology down to the reign of Gonerda III. will be rendered consistent with the Purānas; and our adjustments will be in accordance with the anachronism ascertained to exist in the age of Chandragupta.

As regards the Buddhistical chronology, I have it in my power to adduce direct evidence, independent of hypothetical reasoning, in support of the proposition which I have advanced.

It can hardly be necessary for me to bring forward proofs, beyond those exhibited in the foregoing extracts from Professor Wilson's Essay, to establish, that Aso'ka, "to whom the crown of Cashmir reverted on the demise of Sachinara without issue, was the Magadha prince of that name, the grandson of Chandragupta and son of Bindusa'ra, who became the great patron of Buddhism after his accession to the supreme sovereignty of India. It is found in the Attakathā on the Pitakataya (the commentaries on the Buddhistical Scriptures) as well as in the Mahā Wanso*, that this prince administered the government of Ujjēni, by the appointment of his father Bindusa'ro, the emperor of India; that he succeeded to the empire

* Vide Ch. V. As Aso'ka's son, Mahindo, was born while his father "administered the government of Ujjēni," and as Mahindo is stated to have attained his twentieth year in the seventh year of Aso'ka's rule in Magadha, Aso'ka must have governed Ujjēni, for his father Bindusa'ro, at least fourteen years. It is immaterial, as regards the foregoing computation, whether his accession to Cashmir preceded or followed his accession to the Magadha empire, as my calculations are based on the date of the "Third Convocation" in B. C. 307.
in the year 218, after the death of Sa'kya, or B. C. 325; that he became a convert to Buddhism four years after his accession, and that the mission for the conversion of Cashmir was deputed by him, in the 18th year of his reign, after the termination of the third convocation, in A. B. 236 or B. C. 307. The particulars given of the rule of this prince in Cashmir, concise and imperfect as they are, entirely accord, as far as they go, with the foregoing sketch. According to that sketch, Aso'ka is not the direct descendant of his predecessors who reigned in Cashmir; "he was originally a pious worshipper of Siva, but subsequently invented or originated the Jina Sásana" (religion of Jina or Sákya); and, according to the Ayin Acberi, "abolished the Brahminical rites and substituted those of Jina." With these marked features of resemblance, of peculiar and prominent importance in the tableau of Indian History, which are not recognizable in, or applicable to, any other Asiatic monarch, it appears to be impossible to withhold the admission that the Aso'ka of Cashmir, and the Aso'ka of Magadha, subsequently called Dhammásóka, the emperor of India, are identically one and the same individual.

If on this hypothetical reasoning, the point of identity may be considered to be established, (and I observe by your Genealogical Tables that it is there admitted,) we have to add 20 years for the residue of the reign of Aso'ka, from the date of the Buddhist mission to Cashmir in A. B. 235, or B. C. 307, to complete his reign of 37 years in Magadha, which brings us to B. C. 287, leaving a term of 282 years between that date and B. C. 5, to which the reign of Gonerda III. was brought, according to the foregoing adjustment (made on Brahminical chronological data) to be divided amongst the six princes who intervened between Aso'ka and Gonerda III.

These numbers will give an average of 47 years for each reign, which is certainly inadmissible. This discrepancy, however, only serves to give me greater confidence in the views I entertain; and, indeed, if such a result was not produced, in this particular portion of Buddhistical chronology, the whole of the reasoning entered into in the introduction to my pamphlet, on which I have attempted to prove "that an intentional perversion to the extent of about 60 years has been adopted, to answer some national or religious object, which is not readily discoverable, between the date of Sa'kya Sinha's death and that of the accession of Chandra Gupta," would be nullified. By deducting these 60 years, about 222 years will be left to be divided among those six princes, which gives an average of 37 years, which also is far from being a satisfactory result. But a single protracted reign, in so limited a number as six monarchs, would be sufficient
to reduce the average of the other five reigns to an admissible term, and would, at the same time, adjust the date of Aso'ka's reign in the Ṛdāja Tārangini to the date assigned to it in Buddhistical chronology, as well as produce the same result with that arrived at by the foregoing adjustment of the Brahminical chronology,—viz. fix the age of Gonerda III. to about B. C. 5.

In the translation of the foregoing Sanscrit quotation, on the authority of which Professor Wilson's adjustment of the age of Gonerda III. from B. C. 1182 to B. C. 338 is founded, I have ventured to make a few verbal alterations, unconnected with the date, in conformity with the meaning which Buddhistical phraseology would suggest. From the context with the other portions of the work, it may be perfectly just to apply the term "pravrajyarjita" to "Baudhhas" exclusively; and M. Csoma de Körös corroborates, from Tibetan authorities, the inference that these Tartar princes were of the Buddhistical faith. But that term in Buddhistical literature signifies, in the most general sense, "ascetic," without distinction of any particular religion. The impression conveyed to my mind by this passage is rather to the effect that "Cashmir was under the spiritual control of (Brahminical) ascetic sages, eminent for their rigid piety," than that "Cashmir was the enjoyment of Baudhhas eminent for austerity" during the reigns of the three Turushka princes.

The correction made by Professor Wilson from "Puranirvrittē" to "Parinirvrite" is indispensable; and had the Burma priest, whom he consulted, called to his recollection that Majjhantiko thēro did not repair to Cashmir for the purpose of converting it to Buddhism, until 236 years after the death of Sa'kya Sinha, he would doubtless have also pointed out that, according to Buddhistical authorities, there was as great an irrelevancy and inadmissibility involved in the specified date of 150 years, as in computing that date "anterior" instead of "posterior" to the death of Buddha.

This manifest inaccuracy is to be rectified by prefixing "d" to the "sārdhan varsha satan," and converting it into "dasārdhan varsha satan*. In making the addition of this single letter, it must not be

* I should here note that I have never met in my Pāli reading, nor has any native scholar been able to refer me to, the numeral "Saddhan-sata" for "one hundred and fifty;" although, according to grammatical rules, the contraction of "Saha-addhān-sata" into "Saddhan-sata" appears to be perfectly admissible. Whereas the numeral "Dasaddhasata" contracted from "Dasa-addhān-sata" for "half a thousand," is in continual use. It is repeatedly met with in the Mahāwansa, Ch. I. "Sāmudde Nāgabhāwanē dasaddhasata yōjanē." "In
regarded as an arbitrary alteration on my part. It is a correction, the adoption of which cannot be resisted without impugning the authority of authentic Buddhistic history, in which "Na'ga'rijuna" (as Professor Wilson himself surmises) under the name of "Na'ga Se'na" enjoys a distinguished celebrity. He does not appear ever to have visited Ceylon, and as the Atta\'kathá extant here only comprise a continuous record of Indian events up to the period when the third convocation was held in A. B. 233 or B. C. 307, while he himself flourished in A. B. 500 or B. C. 43, the only record of Na'ga' Se'na in this island, (as far as I am aware,) excepting some unconnected allusions to him in Buddhaghósós Atta\'kathá, is the Milindapanno (commonly called Milinapprasnho), a work which derives its title from his dialectic controversy with Milindu the rája of Ságalá. In that work, from which I shall presently make some extracts, it is specifically stated that he appeared (in fulfilment, of course, of an assumed prediction of Sa'kya Sinha) five hundred years after the death of Buddha; and that work, moreover, contains the names of the six Arhatwas, (Páli Ārhatatá,) who, most fortunately for the illustration and substantiation of my case, are referred to in the four apparently insignificant words with which this Sanscrit quotation concludes. In Professor Wilson's translation of these four words, the negative "na" has been overlooked, and he has rendered them into "he was the asylum of the six Arhatwas," instead of translating them "he did not recognize," i. e. he denounced, "the six Arhatwas."

With these explanatory remarks, I venture to offer the following translation of this valuable Sanscrit quotation.

"They (Hushka, Jurska, Canishka) of Turushca descent, were princes asylums of virtue, who founded colleges and chetiyas in Suscha and other countries. During the entire period of their rule, the whole of Cashmir was under the spiritual control of ascetic sages, eminent for their rigid piety. Thereafter, when (half a thousand) five hundred years had elapsed in this (land), as well as the whole world, from the period that the sanctified Sa'kya Sinha attained Parinirvritti, the pre-eminentily endowed Bódhisatwá, Na'ga'rijuna, became the (spiritual) lord of this and many other lands, and did not recognize (i. e. denounced) the six Arhatwas (who were his contemporaries)."

a Nága kingdom, half a thousand (five hundred) yójanas in extent, bounded by the ocean." Ch. V. "Pariséna dasaddhéhi satéhi parivirito?" "attended by retinue of five hundred men." I am not aware whether this remark be applicable to the Sanscrit language also; nor does it appear to me to be material, as Kalfa'na probably quotes from a Páli Buddhistical work.
The general history of Na'ga Se'na, to which the Milindapanno refers, although it could throw no light on the history of Buddhism in Ceylon, in as much as Buddhism was established in this island 264 years before the period of his ministry, and as he himself never appears to have visited it, is nevertheless a work, the value of which, as regards the Buddhistical history of India, cannot well be overruled, and for the recovery of which, if still extant in the regions mentioned by Colonel Tod and Lieutenant Webb*, no pains should be spared. It is reasonable to infer, from the tenor of the Milindapanno, that his triumph over Milinda raja was either his principal achievement, or that which most contributed to his renown; but the mention made of him in the Raja Tarangini presents conclusive evidence of the sphere of his influence and ministry not having been confined to that triumph; and the circumstance of the Milindapanno commencing with a quotation from a more general work, affords equally conclusive proof that such a history of his life had once been extant. The Milinda-panno being incomplete, neither the date at which, nor the individual by whom, it was compiled from pre-existing works, is specified in it. The following is a literal translation of its commencement.

"Adoration to him, who is the sanctified, the deified, the omniscient, supreme Buddha!

"In the capital city, Sāgalī, Milinda approached Na'ga Se'na, as a river approaches the ocean. That monarch having selected him who was endowed with the power of enlightening the darkness of ignorance, as if he were a meteor-bearer, proposed certain profound questions (to him) involving the great principles of right and wrong."

"There (in reference to that quotation) do ye (my hearers) devoting your undivided attention to, and preparing your minds to be favorably impressed with the subject, listen to these profound and doubt-dispelling dissertations, which, as well from the questions suggested as from the solutions rendered, their deep import, and connected consistency, their influence over the passions and charm to the ear, (are) unprecedented, and make the hair stand on end (with amazement); portraying them, from the similitudes and parables used by Na'ga Se'na, as if immersed in the (waters of) the 'Abhidhamma' and 'Vinaya,' secured (at the same time) in the meshes of the net of the 'Suttans.'

"The subject may be thus set forth in due order."

After describing the magnificence of Sāgalī, and giving an account of both Na'ga Se'na and Milinda in a previous existence, the former as a Samanero, and the latter as an Upasampada, the narrative thus proceeds.

* Alluding to the existence of an extensive Buddha library in Jesalmir. The rāja of this country is, we hear, passionately addicted to turning, and might barter all his books for a good lathe!—Ed.

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“Thereafter, in whatever manner the appearance of the 3rd* Maggaliputtatisso was foreseen by our Bhagawā, in the same manner (the appearance of) these two personages also was foreseen by him, for he had thus predicted: ‘Five hundred years after my Parinibbānan they will be born. Whatever discourse there may be propounded by me, which, from its conciseness may appear entangled and confused, these persons will, from the mode in which they will conduct their interrogation and illustration, thoroughly unravel it. Of these persons, the Samānērā will be born in the character of Milinda rāja in Sāgalinagara in Jambudīpa, accomplished in learning, skilful in conduct, gifted with judgment, powerful abroad; who, both in the conception and execution of his designs, whether regarding the past, the future or the present, will exert a sound and deliberate judgment. To him many endowments will be attainable, viz: the ‘Sāte,’ ‘Sammatī,’ ‘Sankhya,’ ‘Yoga,’ ‘Niti,’ ‘Widēsika,’ ‘Gana ka,’ ‘Gandamba,’ ‘Tikechchha,’ ‘Chatubēda,’ ‘Purāna,’ ‘Itihāsa,’ ‘Joti,’ ‘Māyā,’ ‘Hētu,’ ‘Mantāna,’ ‘Uddhā,’ ‘Chhanda,’ ‘Samuddha.’ He will be capable of confusing sages versed in the nineteen vēdas, invincible from his own gifts, and held in universal estimation, even of those of antagonist creeds. In the whole of Jambudīpa, there will be no one comparable to Milinda rāja, in the aforesaid particulars of power, energy, enterprise, and wisdom. He will be endowed with riches and worldly prosperity; and guarded by military power in a state of the utmost efficiency.’

“On a certain occasion, Milinda rāja, desirous of inspecting his military array, composed of every branch of the four constituent hosts of an army, proceeding out of the capital, and having caused them to be counted; this monarch, a profound disputant, and versed in the phraseology and science of those learned in the ‘Sakāyata,’ looking at (the position of) the sun, thus addressed his attendant officers of state: ‘There is a long day before us yet: how shall we pass it? Were I to return instantly to the town, is there any sage, whether sacerdotal or brāhmaṇ, the head of a great sect, having a fraternity of his own, and being a preceptor himself, who maintains that he is arahat and an omniscient Buddha, who would be willing to enter into a disputation with me, for the purpose of solving doubts.’

“On having thus expressed himself, his five hundred Yonakā (chiefs) replied to Milinda rāja in these words: Mahārāja! there are six (such) viz: +Purānarakkassapa, Mokkhalīgīśula, Nigunto-nāthaputto, Sanjāgo bēlatti putto, Ajitakēsaṃkamī, and Pukudokakechchāyano, who are heads of great sects, having fraternities of their own, and are preceptors themselves, of great celebrity, having numerous congregations, sectarians in

* Vide Chapter V. Mahāwamsa for this prediction.
† These are also the designations of certain contemporary disciples of Goutama.
principle, the elect of a great portion of the human race. Mahárája! seek them; enter into a controversy (with them) and solve doubts."

The narrative proceeds to describe the disputation of Milindu, first, with Puróna-kassypo, and then, with Makkhaligósiilo, and represents that as the monarch confuted them and similarly overcame every other disputant, all the arahat priests absented themselves for twelve years from Sógálo, and retired to the vicinity of the Rakkhitatalo mountain in the Himawanta regions. At the intercession of Assagatta thério, in behalf of the Buddhistical priesthood generally, Sakka, the supreme of déwas, is represented to have invoked Na'óga Se'na, who was in the Kitumati heavens, and called Mahá Se'na, to be born in the human world, for the purpose of confuting Milindu; to which Na'óga Se'na ultimately consented. Accordingly "he is conceived in the womb of the wife of the bráhman named So'ntsara, an inhabitant of the village Kajangalla on the borders of the Himawanta mountains," and becomes highly accomplished and perfect master of the three védas. Doubts are then engendered in his mind as to the correctness of the doctrines contained in those védas. While in this frame of mind, Rohana thério, as predestined, enters into a controversy with him, converts him, and removes him to Rakkhitatala. There he is admitted into the "Samanéra" order of the Buddhistical priesthood, and acquires the Abhidhammapitaka; and is ordained an "Upasampada" priest at the age of 20 years. He is next placed under the tuition of Assagutta thério, apparently in the same village, for three months, where he first attains the sanctification of "Sótiápati." At the termination of this period, he is sent to place himself under the charge of Dhammarakkhita thério of the Asókárámo temple* in Pataliputtra, which is stated to be distant "one hundred yójanas" from Kajangalla, the birth-place of Na'óga Se'na. On the road he meets with a Setthi, who was travelling also to Pataliputto, with a train of five hundred carts. This Setthi maintains him on the road, and hears his discourses propounded from the Abidhamma. At Asókáráma vihára, in the course of three months, he acquires the Pitakattaya by heart, and in three more, masters their import, and attains "Arahát." He is then summoned to appear before the Arahát priests, who had retired to Rakkhitatala mountain in Himawanta; and he repairs thither. He is there enjoined by these Arahát priests to proceed to Sógálo and cope with Milindu rája, whose triumph over all other théros had driven them to the Himawanta.
wanta. He consents to undertake the enterprize, confident of over-
coming him, and all other opponents; and advises the rest of the 
Arahat to precede him thither, without fear. They do so, and 
Ságála is represented to "glitter with yellow robes again." Milindu 
then enters into a disputation with Ayupáta thero of Sankhýa pari-
véna, on the question as to whether the priesthood possess any spi-
ritual advantage over lay ascetics, resulting from their ordination. It 
does not clearly appear whether Ayupála is one of the priests who 
came from Himawanta or not, but he is also confuted by the raja. 
The royal suite, composed of the aforesaid five hundred Yonáká 
nobles, do not participate, however, in the monarch's exultation, and 
attribute the discomfiture of the thero to his individual incapacity. 
At this particular juncture, Naga Se'na makes his appearance in 
Ságála, and establishes himself at the Sankýaparivéna with a sacer-
dotal retinue, which is exaggerated into 80,000. The Milindapanno 
then proceeds to describe the preparation for, and the actual interview 
between Milindu and Nága Se'na, quoting occasionally from the 
work before referred to. Milindu, on this occasion, loses his former 
confidence in himself, both from the fame of Nága Se'na's reputation, 
which had already reached him, and the composure with which he 
received him. It is finally agreed upon, that the disputation shall be 
carried on in the king's palace, in the presence of ten selected théros. 
The disputations are then entered into accordingly. The Milinda-
panno extant in Ceylon contains 262 dissertations, as well as the 
designations of the dissertations that are missing, being 42. In the 
Singhalese version of the Milindapanno, from information stated to be 
derived from a Tiká brought from Siam, which I have not met with, 
it is mentioned that these dialectics terminated in Milindu becoming 
a convert to Buddhism, then a priest, and ultimately an Arahat. 

These extracts and abstracts, whether viewed in connection with 
the events recorded in the Cashmirian history, which also bear testi-
mony to the partial subsidence of the influence of Buddhism in Nor-
thern India, and of the congregation of the heads of that faith in the 
neighbourhood of the Himálayan mountains about the third century 
B.C., and the subsequent revival of that influence in the days of 
Nágájuna and the Turushka princes, who are likewise represented 
to have resorted to Cashmir from the same quarter; or whether we 
regard them in connection with the incidents contained in the 
history of Buddhaghósó in the fifth century of our era, as illustrated 
in my pamphlet, together with the data contained in Tibetan annals 
as noticed by Mr. Csoma, are replete with historical importance 
and engrossing interest. I shall not, however, venture to speculate
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on data, which are as yet but imperfectly analyzed, and on the authenticity of which oriental scholars have still to form a judgment.

Reverting, therefore, to the consideration of the Cashmirian Chronological Table, I have to observe, that according to the Milindapanna, Nāga Sk'na flourished about 500 years after the death of Sākya Sinha, or B. C. 43. If his visit or mission to Cashmir took place towards the close of the reign of the three Turushka princes, the rule of their immediate successor, Abhimanya, who restored Brahminism in Cashmir, must also have commenced about the same date. By your Genealogical Tables, that monarch reigned 35 years, which term deducted from B. C. 43 leaves B. C. 8; being nearly the same date as those to which I arrived, by the two foregoing computations, in which I have attempted to reconcile my adjustment "to the most approved data as yet established in both the Brahminical and Buddhistical chronologies."

The next and last source of evidence of which I have to avail myself, is derived chiefly from your valuable researches in numismatology. At the end of the second volume of Lieutenant Burnes' travels into Bokhara, some observations are furnished by Professor Wilson and yourself, on one of the Bactrian coins found by that enterprising traveller, and portrayed in the engravings attached to his work*.

The points you seek to establish in regard to this coin are, that it belongs to Kanishka, one of the three Turushka princes above named; and that he reigned "near the end of the second century B. C." and these points are apparently corroborated by the foregoing date assigned for the age in which Nāga Sk'na lived, viz. about B. C. 43. By your Genealogical Tables these princes are represented to have reigned, synchronously about 60 years: that computation, also, will bring the commencement of their rule to B. C. 43 + 60 = 103 B. C. or "near the end of the second century B. C."

* See the second volume of the Journal, page 314. Most of our readers are aware that the date assigned in our notice of Lieut. Burnes' coin, was afterwards in a measure abandoned, on the ground of its being found in association with Sasanian coins of a much later period.—The reading of the letter P in Kanhipkos was also confirmed by a multitude of specimens. No argument, therefore, can safely be built on the evidence of this coin as to the period of Na'ga' Junna's mission, but there remains ample authority without it in the written history of the Buddhist church.—The typographical error in Mr. Wilson's Chronology of Cashmir I could not fail to perceive when drawing up my own tables; but for the reason above given, I did not think it worth while to notice it.—Ed.
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I cannot, in this place, forbear noticing that, misled by a slight derangement of type in the impression of the Professor's Chronological Table, you have also in this note been betrayed into making an undeservedly disparaging remark in respect to Buddhistical as compared with Brâhminical chronology. Under the impression that the date assigned in the Râja Tarangini to the termination of Abhimanyâ's reign was B. C. 118, you consider the accuracy of that chronology to be erroneously impugned by being thrown back to B. C. 388, by Professor Wilson, in deference to Buddhistical authority. The date assigned for that reign, however, is not B. C. 118, but B. C. 1182, in the Râja Tarangini; and by that adjustment, made on Buddhistical authority, though the correction, from the circumstances explained, is insufficient, still an important and valuable correction is effected to the extent of 794 years!

I have thus, from four sources of information, totally unconnected, arrived at one and the same conclusion, corroborative of the authority of the Milindapanno, on which I have added the single letter "d" to the numeral "Sûrdhan-satan." The chronology of the Râja Tarangini is brought, by the first, to coincide with the adjusted Hindu chronology in the Purânas—by the second with the Attakahâ of the Pittakatoya and the Mahâwanso—by the third with the age of Nâgârjuna, or Nâga Se'na, as given in the Milindapanno, and the revised Sanscrit quotation from the Râja Tarangini: and by the fourth, with the age of the coin of Kanishka; with Tibetan authorities adduced by Mr. Csoma; and with the epoch of the overthrow of the Bactrian dynasty, as given by Schlegel and other authorities.

In computations of this nature, exact precision is not to be attained, or expected. In specifying the age of Nâgârjuna, in such round numbers as 500 years after the death of Sâkya, it is manifestly an approximating rather than a specific date. If from the general tenor of the Râja Tarangini, and the Tibetan authorities referred to by M. Csoma, it be clearly shown that the Turushka princes were Buddhists, and that Nâgârjuna appeared in Cashmir during their dynasty, the only alteration rendered necessary in the foregoing computations, would be that his visit to Cashmir should be considered to have taken place about 460 instead of 500 years after the death of Sâkya. Mr. Csoma's unpublished life of Sa'kya, to which you refer as containing data connected with Buddhistical history, derived from both Sanscrit and Tibetan works of the age of Kanishka, furnishes another important and encouraging evidence of authentic annals of Buddhistical history having extended in Continental Asia beyond the age of Aso'ka.
Two notices on the site of Beghrâm, and of the nature of the coins found at it, have already been made public in the pages of the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. The collection of its antique treasures having been continued for three successive seasons, the results may be worthy of being presented in one view, both for exhibiting the exact state of discovery up to this time, and for providing data on which to found inferences or to hazard conjectures on the curious and intricate subject of Bactrian history and antiquities.

It is not the object of this memoir to convey a full account of the present state of knowledge on these and other points, upon which, in truth, light is only beginning to dawn; but simply to narrate the fruits of our own labors, happy if they prove useful to those, who, with superior advantages, and when sufficient materials are collected, will, no doubt, favor the world with some important work. We have, therefore, only to descend upon the coins found at Beghrâm, and such, allied or connected with them, which may have been procured by ourselves in Afghânistán, and refrain in the same spirit from the delineation of any coins not actually found by us; and if such are alluded to, it is from necessity, and to direct attention to them.

The site of Beghrâm, whatever its original name may have been, and whoever may have been its founder, yields evidence from the coins found at it, of its existence as a city, which must, at least, have flourished from the epoch of Euthydemus, the king of Bactria, to that of the Mahommedan Caliphs—or for a period of 900 years. We have speculated on the probability of its pointing out the situation of Alexandria ad Caucasum, or ad calcem Caucasii, and see no reason to change the opinion, viz. that the honor of being considered such, must be assigned to it, or to Nilàb of Ghorbund. The detection of a coin of one of the Antiochi, may prove that it flourished prior to the age of Euthydemus, as it undoubtedly will have done,—and certain Hindu Brahmical coins* described as Class Brahmical, may perhaps verify that it existed subsequently to the Mahommedan Caliphs, or to the duration of their sway in Afghânistán:—at all events, it would appear to have been destroyed, in whatever manner, before the era, when coins with Persian legends became current in these regions; as our aggregate collection of nearly 7,000 coins from its site, has not been contami-

* Of the Rajput, or bull and horseman groupe.—Ed.
nated with a single Persian coin—unless fig. 9. of the just noted Hindu series have a Persian legend, which may seem to intimate that the city’s extinction was about the period of the introduction of the language, which may have been contemporaneous with the rise of the Mahommedan sovereignty of Ghazni. The coins of its princes have Persian legends, to prove which, we have inserted a silver coin of the celebrated Sultan Mahmud: none of his coins or of his father, Sabektegin Kha’n, have been found at Beghrém, where those of the Caliphs so numerously occur.

Although Beghrém, inferring from the presence of topes or sepulchral monuments on its site and in its vicinity, may be supposed at some period to have been a capital, which its name testifies, it will generally have been only a provincial capital—and this is worthy of note, because there may be reason to suspect that many of the former rulers in these countries, particularly the Greek-Bactrian princes, had distinct provincial coinages.—Certain coins of Apollodotus, Antilakides, Ermaios and Eucratides seem to countenance the suspicion.

It is presumed that coins constantly found and in number on any known spot, afford proofs of their having once been current there, and that the princes whom they commemorate, whether as paramount or tributary sovereigns, held also authority at that spot. The numbers in which coins may be found, may perhaps furnish a criterion upon which we may calculate, first generally, the duration of the dynasties denoted by the various types of coins, and next particularly that of the reign of each individual prince. A collection of one year would not furnish this criterion, a collection of many years might,—a statement is therefore annexed, of the numbers in which the several descriptions of coins found at Beghrém have, during three years, been obtained;—and if it be seen, that they are found annually in due numerical proportion, it may be of service in our speculations, assisted by the coins themselves. Indeed of the recorded kings of Bactria, the coins are found in just the numbers we might expect, and confirm what we know as to the length of their reigns; and in some other instances of unrecorded princes, their coins and the frequency or rarity of their occurrence corroborate the conjectures as to the extent of their reigns, which other accidental discoveries seem to authorize.

The coins of Beghrém fortunately admit of ready classification, and may be reduced to five grand classes: 1st, Greek-Bactrian; 2nd, Indo-Scythic or Mithraic; 3rd, Ancient Persian, whether Parthian or Sassanian; 4th, Hindu or Brahminical; 5th, Kufic or Mahommedan—the last class may chronologically be entitled to stand before its predecessor the Brahminical one.
These classes at once point out the general nature of the succession of sovereignty in this country, from the age of Euthydemus to the Mahommedan era. To define particular alternations and revolutions in authority, which will inevitably have happened, more knowledge is requisite than we possess, or are likely to acquire. Yet some of these may be conjectured from the faint lights discovered coins impart, and many more may become obvious, as research advances, and as we progress in acquaintance with the subject.

From the historical records of the west we learn so much as, that an independent monarchy under Greek princes was established at Bactra, or the modern Balkh, about 250 years before Christ; and from them we are led to infer that it ceased to exist about 130 years before Christ, having thus flourished about 120 years. From the same records we also learn the names of seven of its princes, Theodotus I. the founder, his son and successor Theodotus II. the usurper Euthydemus of Megnesia, his son Demetrius, Apollodotus, and Menander, famed for exploits in India, and mentioned conjointly with Eu克拉ides, surnamed the Great.

The actual coins, incontestible evidences, recently discovered of a multitude of Greek princes, respecting whom history is silent, not only seem to intimate that the Bactrian empire may have had longer duration than supposed, but farther to establish the fact, that a variety of independent Greek principalities were erected about that time in Central Asia, some of which, judging from the coins of the princes, rivalled the Bactrian in power and splendor. These principalities, or some of them, we infer to have endured up to the first century of the Christian era,—probably to the middle or close of the second century, about which period Greek authority would appear to have been displaced by the race of princes hitherto designated Indo-Scythic, of whom Kadphises and Kanerkos are pre-eminent and have the precedence. Their successors appear to have ruled for a very long period, according to circumstances, independent or tributary to paramount governments in Persia or India,—perhaps very close to the Mahommedan era. We say very close, because before the last mentioned era, a Sassanian dynasty or dynasties must be introduced, and possibly may have ruled at that epoch. This speculation may be confirmed or otherwise, by consultation of the Arabian historians, some of whose works will doubtless inform us from whom the armies of the Caliphs wrested these countries. Beghrām has not yielded one coin of the Arsacides, or one coin that we dare positively to affirm to be Parthian. Coins with the Sassanian symbols on the reverse, or the distinguishing fire altar, are very numerous; but it may be questioned whether they are
coins of the Sassanides of Persia, and whether they may not rather refer to distinct princes, that we believe Persian authentic history attests to have flourished in these countries, as at Zabulistán, &c.

The characters of the inscriptions on the Beghhrám coins, some of which command attention from their peculiarity, may be also useful in determining the periods at which particular dialects ceased and became used in Afghánistán. The earlier Greek-Bactrian sovereigns, as Euthydæmus, being guided by coins hitherto found, placed on their monies only Greek inscriptions; some of their successors, as Eucratides, have coins bearing in the same manner only Greek legends, and others exhibiting both Greek and native legends; while others, and the majority of them, as Apollodotus, Menander, &c., have on their coins invariably both Greek and native legends; no one coin of these sovereigns having been met with bearing simply a Greek inscription. The opinion might be advanced, that native legends were first adopted by those princes who extended their empire by the acquisition of distant provinces, and their absence on the coins of Euthydæmus' will not controvert it, as it is nearly certain that he could have carried his arms across the Caucasus or Hindu Koosh, only towards the close of his reign. Another question will then arise, whether the characters of these native legends refer to a language common in Bactria or the countries north of Caucasus, or prevailing only in the Indian provinces south of it:—the latter may be suggested, by those who suppose Menander to have ruled in India before he conquered Bactria; for if he did, so did Apollodotus; and on the coins of these princes, these characters will then be first noted. It is not, however, positive that Menander preceded Eucratides; for although generally believed, the scant historical data left us are as much against the belief as for it. The language itself, that of this part of Asia, two centuries before Christ, will not have become obsolete until the period or nearly so of the Mahomedan era; for although the coins of Kadphises, whose epoch we would fain believe was about 200 A. D. are the latest apparently which exhibit them,—excavations near Jelálábád, in the burial grounds of the ancient Nagara, have elicited inscriptions in the same character, which may safely be assumed to have been deposited at some period within the century preceding the Mahomedan era. Indeed, if the famous Manikyála tope be an erection subsequent to this era, as we suspect to be proved by some of the coins extracted from it, the language may have continued in use to a much more recent period; and all these circumstances may be adduced to support the opinion, that it is of Indian rather than of Bactrian origin. Mr. Prinsep has admirably commenced the investigation of
this novel language, and to assist in the attainment of an object, from which so much advantage is likely to be obtained, we have, following that gentleman's plan, given the names, titles and epithets of the Bactrian kings, &c. as we find them on coins before us. This might have been more satisfactorily done, had we, for the purpose, taken full advantage of all the coins which have passed through our hands: but as they have been transferred only to receive superior attention, the matter occasions no regret, and is noticed to excuse individual neglect in this instance and in another, viz., the passing slightly the characters on our Sassanian coins, which, while they exhibit some varieties, appear singular and different from the ordinary forms of Pehlevi.

The coins of Agathocles and Pantaleon have native legends in another peculiar character, essentially distinct from that found on the coins of the other Bactrian princes, and both of them on every account must stand high in the royal lists of these countries. The character, Mr. Prinsep suggests, is that of the inscriptions found on the columns of Delhi and of other places in India,—a character also that of the coins of the early Canouje princes, and singular it is that a connection may be traced between these coins and those of Agathocles and Pantaleon.

About the period, or a little anterior thereto, of the Mahommedan invasion, we find the first traces of Nágari, but on coins which we are not positive were current at Beghrám. The Caliphs introduced Kufic, shewn by their coins, and on the inscriptions of the columns at Ghazni, the seat of their government. To them succeeded in authority the Brahminical sovereigns, as we suppose, whose coins have again Nágari legends, and these were expelled by the Mahommedan princes of Ghazni, when modern Persian became the general and written language of the country, as it remains to this day.

It may be proper to note, how tenaciously the Greek language was preserved on the coins of this country, up to a period within a century or two of the Mahommedan era, and employed by the whole series of Indo-Scythic kings excepting Kadphises, to the exclusion of the native dialect. While there is sufficient testimony that the Greek language was studied and well known by the fashionable and higher orders in India during the first and second histories of the Christian era, the latter coins of the Indo-Scythic princes seem to testify, by the very corrupted characters they bear, that at the period of their coinage the knowledge of it was very trifling, or limited to the power of determining the value of its letters,—Greek artists would then have been out of the question; and without some such knowledge it is diffi-
cult to conceive how Indian artists could have arranged in Greek characters such words as ΑΕΠΟ, ΜΙΟΠΟ, ΦΑΠΟ, ΟΚΡΟ, &c. The respect so obviously shewn to the Greek language may suggest the opinion, that coinage was considered eminently a Grecian art, and corroborates the notion that the Macedonians introduced it into these parts of Asia.

The several devices of the Bactrian coins, whether Greek or Indo-Scythic, are interesting from their variety, and instructive from the information they convey as to many points, particularly the religion of the times. Of the Greek, some display the deities of the classical Grecian mythology, as Jupiter, Minerva, Apollo, Hercules, &c. represented in the attitudes, costumes, and with the attributes commonly assigned to them in the West;—some have animals, as elephants, horses, bulls, camels, &c., from which may be implied localities of rule; others have warlike devices, as horsemen at charge, seeming to indicate the personal character of the prince, and others appear to commemorate some remarkable incident in his career, as victory presenting a chaplet, or a figure trampling upon a vanquished foe. The Indo-Scythic coins have universally devices, whose accompanying inscriptions, as fully and satisfactorily shewn by Mr. Prinsep, prove to be personifications of the sun and moon. It may excite surprise that the peculiar religion to which such personifications refer, should have been so exemplified on the coins of princes, whom we have considered of the Buddhist faith. It was, nevertheless, the religion of old standing in these countries, the supremacy over which, if acquired by Buddhist or Indo-Scythic princes, will have been acquired, as supremacy ever is, by conquest. Of this ancient religion, besides the evidences furnished by coins, we have that afforded by the temples and places of sepulture. That the Buddhist faith also prevailed, while agreeable to historical record, is not contrary to hypothesis; and the conquerors of that persuasion may, from policy, have placed on their coins the emblems of the national religion of the vanquished. As Buddhism will also have gained ground by a correspondent decline of strength in the religion which preceded it, it is natural that superstitions and observances of both should be blended.

The regions spreading from the source of the Oxus have claims to be considered the birth-place of that peculiar form of the Mithriac religion, which was at one time adopted in all the countries between the Indus and the Bosphorus—and of which vestiges are still seen in the temples and sepultures of its votaries. Persia presents the superb proofs of it in the wonderful ruins of Persepolis, and Afganistán displays them at Bamián. Numerous are the places of minor considera-
tion in Afgahnistán, Turkistán, and Badakshán, which were alike sacred, but in a less degree, which yet plainly indicate the strongholds of the faith they commemorate. The distinguishing feature of these sacred places is the samach, or cave, always found with them, and which decides the identity in character of the honey-combed hills of Bamián in Afgahnistán, and those of Tilmissus in Asia Minor. It is affirmed in the Ayin Akberi, that there are 12,000 of these samaches in the hills of Afgahnistán—the number is not overrated. There is no reason to suppose that they were ever the residences of a multifarious community, engaged in the ordinary occupations of life;—it is obvious, that they were the abodes of priests and ascetics connected with the temples of religion and sepulchral monuments. So plain is this fact in Afgahnistán, that, if a solitary samach or cave be discovered, it is merely necessary to employ the privilege of sight to detect the mound or tumulus relating to it; and vice versa, if a tumulus be first described, the sight directed to the nearest eminence will not fail to discover the cave or caves belonging to it. It is always the case, that these monuments and caves are found at the skirts of hills, shewing that they were remote from the inhabited villages, then as now, and in conformity to the spirit of asceticism, enjoined by the religion of the day. It need not, therefore, be deemed that the caves of Afgahnistán were the dwellings of a rude Trogloditic nation;—on the contrary, they are works of art, the results of vast labour and expenditure, and must have been formed under favorable circumstances of national prosperity. Let no one imagine he beholds in them the retreats of the Mardi. The most prominent of the sepulchral monuments of Afgahnistán are unquestionably its topes or royal cenotaphs with their tumuli: the latter so perfectly agree in form with the Buddhist dehgpà that it would be difficult not to allow them to be the same thing. The most ancient of the cenotaphs hitherto examined in Afgahnistán does not appear to attain the antiquity of the Christian era,—most of them certainly fall much short of it: it is true that every tope has its caves, but there are caves, as in the conspicuous instance of Bamián, which have not topes: Bamián*, like every other spot

* There is an error in our account of the site of Alexandria ad calcem Casci, contained in our memoir of 1834 relative to the river of Bamián, which it is necessary should be noted. We have made that river pass by Ghorband, which we supposed it did, contrary to the reports of the natives—they are correct, and the river flowing northerly falls into the stream of Kundáz. Ptolemy, we believe, has an upper and a lower Nilábi, when noting the country about Alexandria; and they can scarcely be other rivers than those of Ghorband, and Puryshir.—May, 1836.
in Afghánistán, has its mounds or ancient burial places. The cave
temples may therefore be considered, in some instances, more ancient
than the topes, whose age is within the reach of verification; and
while it may point to the period of the introduction of Buddhist so-
vereignty in Afghánistán, that of the cave temples must be carried to
the period when the religion, in whose service they were constructed,
had its rise or was pre-eminent. Of this religion the Guebres are,
at this day, evidences, as are possibly the inhabitants of Cafferistán.
Asceticism, of which every case presents a memento; while a dis-
tinguishing feature of primitive Buddhism would be also a condition
of the more ancient Mithriac faith; for

"La religion a toujours produit des solitaires."

Reverting from this digression to the coins to which the term Indo-
Scythic was once considered so aptly applied, and whose sovereigns
we had considered, in deference to historical evidence, to have been of
the Buddhist religion, if it should be ultimately found that they were
of another faith, yet the Buddhist religion will have been widely dis-
seminated in Afghánistán, the images of Buddha and other idols to be
found in abundance being accepted as proof. The apparent traces
of the faiths of Mithra and Buddha observable in the antiquities of the
country, are only natural consequences;—in like manner, at Moscow
before its destruction, might be seen the mosques of Mahommedans
surmounted by the cross, as at the present day at Constantinople may
be witnessed the temples of Christianity surmounted by the Crescent.
The terms applied to designate the sun and moon on these Indo-Scythic
or Mithraic coins, may suggest some reflections, some of them appear-
ing to have been derived from the West, as HAIOC, NANAIA, ΦAPO, &c.
and others from the east, as MAO, OKPO, &c.

We had hoped to have obtained a sufficient quantity of coins from
some known spot north of the Caucasus, which could not fail of throw-
ing additional light on Bactrian numismatology; but not having been
able personally to attend to the point, dependence upon others has hi-
therto frustrated our object. Even at Beghrám we have not met with
all the coins that probability would lead us to expect; at least we dare
not appropriate any of them to the Pandava dynasty, which go-
verned in the Paropamisus at the period of the invasion of Antiochus
the Great. It is but reasonable to suppose that after the Macedonian
invasion, all the native princes had distinct coinages, and, of course,
this dynasty among the rest. Greek historians have preserved the
name of Sophagasesenus, who established himself in the Paropamisus;
and Sanscrit records, as Colonel Tod informs us, gives the name of
his son Gaj, both valuable; Gaj accounting for the etymology of Gaj-
ni, or as now called Ghazni; and Sophagensenus, shewing the name both of the prince and of his nation. The former, Colonel Tod tells us, was Subhav or Subhag; and as for the latter, we learn from Pliny that the Aseni peopled three cities, their capital being Bucephalia; the ruins of this city may still be seen on the Jelum river, in the Panjab, and the Yadu or Yidu hills, from which Subhav issued on his career of conquest, still preserve their ancient name in Jid or Yid. This branch of the Pandava family being cotemporaneous with Euthydemos of Bactria, who is supposed to have deprived it of sovereignty in the person of Raja Gaj; it is evident, that the sway of the two first Bactrian kings, Théodotus I. and Théodotus II. did not extend south of the Caucasus;—it also is manifest that Euthydemos could have established his sway over the Paropamisus only towards the close of his reign; for at the time of the expedition of Antiochus, Sophagensenus, as the Greeks have it, the father of Gaj, was living. Pliny in mentioning the Aseni, is speaking of the nations which inhabited the modern Panjab, but it is probable that he gives the information he derived from authors who flourished two or three centuries before him; and this remark may correctly apply to all he advances upon India. His observations on Bactriana, Marginia, &c. he avows to have collected from Demonax; his testimony is not the less valuable on this account, and this slight notice of the Aseni, leads us to the knowledge, that the kingdoms of Porus and Taxiles had been subverted or had passed into other hands, that the Pandavas had possessed themselves of the hilly regions, west of and contiguous to the Acesines; and that Bucephalia had risen into importance, and had become the capital of a dynasty.

We had nearly omitted to refer to the monograms of the Beghrám coins. The Greek-Bactrian have chiefly alphabetical ones, which conceal much information, never likely to be ascertained. As the same monograms occur sometimes on the coins of more than one prince, they may be presumed monograms of locality, and may be useful to establish a connection, when other indications are wanting. The Indo-Scythic coins have also monograms, but not alphabetical ones, being apparently emblems of authority and religion.

We refrain in these preliminary observations from many speculations to which the subjects referred to might lead,—because it is possible that future discoveries may tend greatly to clear up the difficulties which attend our present investigations into the antiquities of Bactria, and which may induce very different conclusions from those we now arrive at by conjecture. In the memoir of last year we indulged too freely in such speculations, which occasions regret. Nevertheless, in
the subsequent analysis, we have ventured to point out the ideas that have suggested themselves upon reviewing each particular species of coin, not that they may be implicitly adopted, but under the hope, that while liable to correction, they may conduce to promote inquiry and elucidation, and this perhaps is all that can be done until our knowledge is more matured*.

Kabul, December 31, 1835.

Note.—After writing these observations, a copper coin of one of the Arsakian princes apparently, has been picked up, in which the obverse legend is in the exact corrupted characters of the Greek legend of the Kadphises coin, the basileus and the first letters of basileōn being distinct: while the reverse legend presents the characters we call Bactrian, but not so clear from the coin being worn, as to allow their transcription with any advantage. Of the characters there is no doubt:

* Mr. Masson confesses in this memoir that he has been too ready on former occasions to draw inferences which subsequent researches have either failed to confirm or have overthrown. The more he avoids such speculations, the more confidence will be placed in his results, because they will be freed from the suspicion of any bias. We could not, however, have ventured to prune his essays without danger of cutting off what was really valuable, or of robbing him perhaps of some happy conjecture which might hereafter prove well founded. On the same grounds we have formerly allowed names to stand on his list, (like Aussios, &c.) which were evidently wrong, and which his further search has led him to correct. His present elaborate memoir is hardly free from the same objection, for it is yet too early to generalize: nevertheless we do not like to keep back a line of his introduction, replete as it is with valuable information. The list of coins to which it is a prelude includes the whole of his former collection, with the additional light thrown upon them by other essays published in the Journal. It would be an useless and expensive repetition to republish these drawings at length, especially when we have not the coins themselves to engrave from.

We trust, therefore, the author will excuse our limiting an insertion of figures and descriptions to those that are new in name or in type. At the same time we shall take the opportunity of adding a few coins from M. Court's excellent drawings, as well as, with permission, some of Kerā'mat Ali's second dispatch (lately purchased by Dr. Swiney) which have not yet appeared: always keeping in view the arrangement of our engraved plates for a general compilation on Indian Numismatology hereafter. Mr. Masson's coins have, we presume, long since been despatched to the Hon. Court of Directors through Col. Potteringer, and we have little doubt that accurate engravings of the whole will there be made by the new ruling machine. We must not omit to make public, that Col. Potteringer most courteously offered to send them all for our inspection en route to England, but we felt it unfair thus to detain them on their journey, while we had Mr. Masson's ample investigation before us.—Ed.
**Third Memoir of Ancient Coins.**

**Enumeration of Coins collected from Beghrán during the years 1833, 1834, and 1835.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Greek Syrio-Bactrian.</strong></th>
<th>1833</th>
<th>1834</th>
<th>1835</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antiochus</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Recorded Greek Bactrian.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>1833</th>
<th>1834</th>
<th>1835</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Euthydemus</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollodotus</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menander</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eucratides</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Unrecorded Greek Bactrian.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>1833</th>
<th>1834</th>
<th>1835</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pantaleon</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agathocles</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lysius</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antilakides</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ermias the Elder</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ermias the Younger (?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ermias</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dicasio, (?)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lion and Elephant coins</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol coins</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uaadpheros</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**BAEIÆVC BACIAEElN CUTHP MEGAC.**

Analogous coins, fig. 104 to fig. 106. 171 267 257

Ditto fig. 107 to fig. 110. 8 24 20

Ditto fig. 111. 1 1 0

**Ermaios of Nysa, and his family.**

136 179 278

Archelius                   0 0 1
Diomedes                    0 1 0
Ipalirisus                  1 1 1
Antimachus                  0 1 1
Adelphortos. (Spalyrius, J. P.) 1 0 1
Azilus                      0 0 1
Azos*                      0 0 0

**Indo-Scythic or Mithriac.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>1833</th>
<th>1834</th>
<th>1835</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kadphises</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanerkos</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanerki family</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series 3. Obverse, figure seated in native fashion</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series 4. Couch-lounger, one foot up</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series 5. Elephant rider</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series 6. Reverse, bull and priest-okro</td>
<td>254</td>
<td></td>
<td>492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series 7. Very rude—reverse, female with cornucopia.</td>
<td>113</td>
<td></td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Parthian ? and Sassanian.**

As. fig. 1 to fig. 16. 1 Small, head and fire-altar 161 278

As. fig. 44 to fig. 51. 1 and large, of all types. 122 171

Kufic and Brahminical...

* It is a very remarkable circumstance that none of the coins of Azos, which were so numerous in the Ventura collection from the Panjáb, should have been met with at Beghrán.—Ed.
III.—*New Varieties of Bactrian Coins*, engraved as Plate XXXV. from Mr. Masson’s drawings and other sources. By James PRINSEP, Sec.

Instead of pursuing Mr. Masson’s recapitulation of all the coins hitherto found by himself at Beghrām, we have preferred selecting those only which were new in name or type for illustration; on the present occasion confining ourselves to those bearing Greek inscriptions of the earlier class, and leaving the Mithriac, of which our author produces some highly interesting novelties, for a subsequent plate.

*Fig. 1.* A silver coin of ARCHELIUS, similar in character to the coins of MENANDER and APOLLODOTUS*.

**Obverse.** Bust of king; head bound with fillet or diadem, legend ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΔΙΟΥ ΝΙΚΗΩΡΟΥ ΑΡΧΕΛΙΟΥ.

**Reverse.** Jupiter tonans, seated, holding sceptre in left hand. Compound monogram: the legend in the Bactro-pehlevi character is ΠΩΑΟΡΟ. The name is faint in the drawing, but is read with confidence by Mr. Masson from the coin itself. It may be read Ἀλακίγο (or jo); but, if the second and third letters can be made Ἐ, the word will represent very tolerably the pronunciation of the Greek name Ἀλακίγο. The equivalent for Nicephorou is an old acquaintance, Ajalado; but the middle letter is altered in form. The remaining epithet Ἐπὶ ζοὐ which I have supposed to be represented in the Greek by δικαίον, is in fact found standing for this title “the just,” in a coin of the Ventura collection figured as No. 9, of Plate XXI. Vol. IV. A more perfect and legible specimen will be noticed below in Mr. Masson’s series (fig. 6,) in which the second syllabic letter ψ, (mi) decides the identity: but the initial is more like ε, η; and the penultimate is 9 instead of 习惯了; but as the vowel 9 (a) according to our former observation, never occurs in the middle of a word, it should probably be read 7 (d) and we should thus have additional evidence of 习惯了 being the same letter affected with some vowel mark.

Mr. Masson remarks on this coin: “This silver drachma is an unique specimen found at Beghrām in 1835. It is evident that king ARCHELIUS must stand high in the list, but there is difficulty in locating his empire: if it be extended to Beghrām, why do we not meet with his copper coins?”

The same epithet, as Mr. Masson points out, may be observed on one of the Azos group of coins having the horseman obverse (fig. 22

* Col. STACY writes, while we are correcting this proof, that he has just added another name to this group, ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΝΙΚΑΤΟΡΟΣ ΑΜΗΝ... but of this we are promised casts in a day or two: it is too late for the present plate.
of Pl. XXIII. vol. IV.) In our coin the legend was indistinct at the top, but in his drawing it is clearly

In this the thirteenth letter should probably be Π, unless by some rule of orthography the epithet "just" is combined by a permutation of its final, and duplicated with the commencing consonant of the following word, which may be recognized without difficulty as the representative of Megalou, the great. We are indebted to Mr. Masson for the restoration of the inscription, which we have introduced in this place, because no other opportunity may occur of noticing this Azos coin.

Fig. 2. A silver drachma of Antilakides, discovered by Mr. Masson in 1835.

Obverse. Head of the monarch, with the peculiar hat or helmet common on coins of Eucratides, Philoxenus, Menander, &c. but rather flatter: mustachios on the upper lip (?); legend as in the copper coins of the same prince,

BΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΝΙΚΗΦΟΡΟΥ ΑΝΤΙΛΑΚΙΔΟΥ.

Reverse. Jupiter seated, holding a small victory in his right hand: in his left a sceptre or trident: monogram compounded of the Greek letters Π and Κ: native legend .... ΡΙΜΑΡΗ Τ .... ΡΙΝΩ as on the copper coins.

Dr. Swiney possesses in the collection lately purchased by him from Keramat Ali, a duplicate of this coin, which shews the completed Pehlevi legend to agree with that given in my former notice. The device on the reverse of the square copper pieces of this prince, two beehives and palm branches, denoting, as Mr. Masson conjectures, plenty and peace, has been met with on a similar coin of Eucratides: in whose neighbourhood, therefore, it is probable the unknown Antilakides should be classed.

Fig. 3. An unique coin of Diomedes, found by Mr. Masson in 1834, and described by him in the present volume, page 24. In the memoir now before us he applies our system to the reading of the native name, which he makes out ΡΙΜΑΡΗ ajamido, and argues thence that the Sanscrit equivalent for Diomed may be Aja-medha, a prince of the lunar race, who reigned at Canya-cubja. "This remark," he writes, "is elicited from an observation in Dr. Mill's historical note on the Allahabad pillar, (July 1834,) that the Chronicles of Marwar represent Nayana Pal as having conquered Canouje in the year 470 A. D. from king Aji-fala, a descendant of Aja-medha. We here find a dynasty bearing the common name of Aja (identical with the Greek Azos), and suspected by Colonel Tod to have been of Scythic origin."
We may remark, however, in opposition to this ingenious conjecture, that the Sanscrit name *Ajā* is but a corruption of *Ajaya*, the unconquered, and therefore might more appropriately represent the Greek *anikētos* than *Azos*, which latter I have indeed elsewhere conjectured might be found in the *Yavana-asō* of Hindu tradition*. Moreover, the first letter of the present legend may probably be Λ, which would give the reading ΠΔΛΑΔ daya-mido, in exact accordance, as to pronunciation, with the Greek.

*Fig. 4* is taken from a drawing by M. Court, who has been fortunate in finding a new type of this curious copper coin, the reverse of which usually presents the figure of a naked horse. (See Vol. IV. page 343.)

The present reverse exhibits the prince holding an olive branch and spear, implying peace or war, in either hand. From the collation of many specimens of the horse variety, and one small one like the above, Mr. Masson makes out the full inscription to be ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΒΑΣΙΛΕΥΣ ΔΙΚΑΙΟΤ the Η apparent at the commencement of the lower line being the missing Ζ of the word ΒΑΣΙΛΕΥΣ. This reading is confirmed by more than a dozen examples, but it still leaves us with a most unpronounceable appellation. It may possibly be only a perversion of the epithet ΔΙΚΑΙΟΤ. In Masson's small coin the monogram Μ appears to be the triple blade of a trident reversed, which the figure is holding.

*Fig. 5.* An unique, is also extracted from M. Court's collection. It assimilates with the numerous class of *Azos* coins, having on the obverse a horseman with extended arm. The inscription has much the appearance of Pehlevi, but this may proceed from the indistinctness of the Greek letters. The monogram is very peculiar and curious, from the circumstance of its constant occurrence on the degenerate gold coins of the *Kadphises* group.

The reverse is quite in the Roman taste. Two soldiers seem to be crowning their successful chief, who rests on a kind of club. The name in the legend below is happily most distinct, ΠΔΛΑΔΛΑ; the fourth letter is doubtful, but if read Λ the combination may be hesitatingly transcribed *Yatilariko*.

Of *fig. 6*, three examples are known: one in the *Ventura* collection was depicted in Vol. IV. Pl. XXI. It was copied hastily, and I

*In the Cashmir list of the Rōjitarangin, there is a prince named *Axa* (transcribed *Aj* in the Persian of the *Ayun Akber*) whose date by Wilson is 100 B. C. but when corrected for the epoch of *Asoka*, about A. D. 180. He, too, may be one of our *Azos* family:—but if we go by resemblance of name only, we shall be liable to lay hands on the great *Asoka* himself as the founder of the line!
have now reason to think I must have omitted a letter, having then engraved the name $\Delta_{\text{EL}}\Phi\text{RO}$. The two new drawings, one by M. Court, the other by Masson, (both agreeing perfectly,) from which the present engraving has been taken, leave no doubt of the correct reading being $\Sigma\Pi\Lambda\Pi\text{RI}O\Delta_{\text{IKAI}O}T\text{ AE}L\phi\text{RO}T$ TOT $\text{BAZI}E\text{AE}X$. 'Spalyrius the just, brother of the king.' The first letter may possibly be an Ε, or it may be superfluous, and the name be read Palyrius, but the τ on the right hand of the coin is too distinct to permit Mr. Masson's reading of the name $\Delta_{\text{EL}}\Phi\text{RO}T\text{OY}$, or my former reading $\text{BAZI}E\text{XE}X$ $\text{NIKAT}O\text{POY}$ $\Delta_{\text{EL}}\Phi\text{RO}$. It is a very curious circumstance that the prerogative of coining should thus have been delegated to a brother, and we have unfortunately no further means of ascertaining who this indulgent sovereign may have been, further than he probably belonged to the numerous dynasty of Azos and the "great king."

On the reverse we have either Hercules with his club, or more probably, from the attitude, a musician playing on a kind of guitar. The Pehlevi is very distinct on three sides, and in conformity with the Greek on their parallels, the word for "king" is wanting. It would doubtless have been found in the lower compartment. The remainder, borrowing two first letters from Masson, reads $\text{PUL}-\text{PUL}$ $\text{PUL}$ $\text{PR}$ $\text{ER}$ ($\text{?}$). All that can be certainly extracted hence is that $\text{PUL}$ $\text{PUL}$, as before noticed, is equivalent to $\text{DIKAI}$O. The name is unintelligible, and the word for brother, Ulaufarmo, approaches to no fraternal etymon with which we are acquainted, unless the first letter be ί, d, with a vowel mark, which would express something like the Greek itself, delpharmo!

Fig. 7. Here again our author's labours of 1835 have enabled him to clear up one of our doubtful names (Pl. XXI. fig. 6,) and to correct his own reading of last year, (see page 25,) where he supposed it to be $\text{PAHLPKOT}$. From the native legend I had supposed the word might be read Ulidison. The real name and title is now made out from six very distinct samples sent to Mr. Masson from Munderaur of Lughmán, which were in excellent preservation, having still upon them the lime cement which had been used in depositing them in some tomb. It runs thus; $\text{BACI}E\text{EUIN}$ $\text{BACI}E\text{ELW}$ $\text{MEGA}$ $\text{AICIT}$ $\text{PAHLPKOT}$, a name which betrays a kind of patronymic affinity to the last mentioned Spalyrius; while in the style of coin there is also a remarkable similarity. The divinity on the reverse is, however, a Jupiter in his celestial chair. The native legend is easily brought to agree with the Greek, through the facile mutation of letters of acknowledged similarity; thus the $\text{g}, \text{u}$, must be a $\text{n}$, $\text{p}$: and the $\text{di}$ must
be ʿri, and thus the context will become Πράγμα Πρόβατο Προβατό, malakão malakko palirijó, the epithet megalou seems to be omitted.

Figs. 8 and 9. These two coins, made known in Mr. Masson's first memoir, I have now had an opportunity of engraving from specimens in Dr. Swinley's purchased cabinet. The Pantaleon of fig. 8 is quite legible, and the curious and unknown letters of the reverse are distinct, and perfectly accordant with Masson's original drawing. The word ΑΓΑΘΟΚΛΕΟΣ however, is only partially visible on fig. 9, and is completed on his authority. In other respects the two coins are identical, having a dog or panther on the obverse, and a cloathed female on the reverse, with a flower in the right hand. The similarity of the native character to the alphabet of the Indian laths has been before noticed, as well as the frequent occurrence of the symbols ρ and θ on coins of this group (see Pl. XXXV. of Vol. IV.)

Fig. 10 is introduced from Masson's plates as a more perfect specimen of the Hercules-reverse type than any in my former Plate (XXIV. of Vol. IV.) as regards at least the Greek legend, which is here evidently ΒΑΠΙΛΕΩΣ ΣΥΓΗΡΙΟΣ ΞΥ ΒΡΑΙOΝ. This Ermaeus differs from his namesake by the reverse, and by the great corruption of the Greek; but it is possible that the piece may have been contemporaneously struck at a provincial mint; and in such case, if cities may be recognized, as among the Greek coins, by their tutelary deities, we shall find a clue to the appearance of Ermaeus' name on the following coin, fig. 11, which bears the reverse of the naked horse. It might perhaps be allowable to assign this horse as the armorial symbol of Bucephalia, while the Hercules might be attributed to some town conspicuous for his worship: victory to Nicea; and Jupiter to one of the Alexandrias (being the general reverse of the Alexandrine coins.)

The native legend on fig. 11 is the genuine Pehlevi one of Ermaeus; but that on figure 10 is of the modified character so puzzling to the decyphrer. It passes unaltered through a succession of princes, and may perhaps therefore embrace only their titles.

Fig. 12. It was from dubious authority that I added the name of ΚΑΛΙΑΕΩΣ to this group. Mr. Masson's Researches have now given authentic evidence that I did so justly. He has, this year, fallen upon two coins in which the name is quite distinct. It is remarkable, however, that the title of ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ is here for the first time omitted, and the foreign expression ΧΟΠΑΝΟΥ introduced. This, it will be remembered, is precisely the transition that is traced in the Indo-Scythic or Mithriac series of Kanerkos; and thus we have pretty
strong grounds for inferring that the change was simultaneously
effected in various provinces of the empire of the foreign, (or domes-
tic,) usurpers who supplanted the dynasty of Bactrian descent.

There is, however, another very curious circumstance to be noted
in regard to fig. 12. The Greek legend is ΚΑΔΑΦΙΣΩΥ ΚΑΔΑΦΙΩΥ
καταγωγή. Now, as good luck will have it, Mr. Neave, of the Civil
Service, has just favored me with a few old coins picked up in the
mofussil, among which is one in excellent preservation and well
executed of the ΚΑΔΑΦΙΣΩΥ... kind described in my former paper
(Vol. IV. Pl. XXIV.) The name on this coin (which I have engraved
as fig. 14,) is very clearly ΚΟΖΟΛΑ ΚΑΔΑΦ... which is just such a
deviation from the orthography of Masson's coin, ΚΟΖΟΤΛΟ ΚΑΔΑΦΙΟΥ
as a provincial dialect, added to the difficulty of expressing native
names in a foreign alphabet, would justify and explain. The name on
two of the coins of Plate XXIV. Vol. IV. may be also read ΚΟΖΟΛΑ.

Among several coins of the same class in the collections of Capt.
Cunningham and Dr. Swinney, as well as in Masson's plates, other
variations of the spelling occur, ΚΟΣΥΛΟ-ΚΟΖΟΥΛΟ, &c. until at last
the word becomes utterly illegible.

In a private letter from M. Jacquet, of the Paris Asiatic Society,
that gentleman expresses his conviction, after seeing Dr. Martin
Honigberger's coin, that the name we have called ΚΑΔΑΦΙΣΩΥ should
be written ΜΟΚΑΔΑΦΙΣΩΥ, which he supposes equivalent to the Sanscrit
Mahatrisi; but I think we have abundant evidence against such a
conclusion, since we can now produce at least three individuals of the
family name of Kadphises. Thus—

Fig. 13, copied from a drawing in M. Court's memoir, has the
legend ΖΑΟΥΤ ΚΑΔΑΦΙΣΩΥ (ou) ΧΩΡΑΝΟΥ; while on the gold coins, we
have already adduced numerous instances of ΜΟ, ΟΟΗΜΟ, or ΟΟΚΜΟ,
attached to the same. We shall take some future occasion to place
all these varieties under review together; meantime the French ships
of the season will, it is hoped, enable us to profit by the disquisitions
of the learned of Paris, on this highly interesting question.

Figs. 15, 16. Small coins found by Mr. Masson in 1835, at
Beghram. The execution is neat and evidently Bactrian, but the
names are defaced. The caduceus of fig. 15 is to be met with on
the coins of Menander, and particularly on those of Mayos.

It must not be supposed that Mr. Masson's labours during the
past year have been productive of no other novel results than those
above mentioned. He has brought to light many new types of the
Mithriac series, which I shall reserve for a future plate; besides a very
numerous series of what he has correctly designated Indo-Sassanian

4 c
coins, to which hitherto we have paid too little attention. To make their study useful would involve the necessity of reviewing carefully the well known Sassanian coins of Persia proper; a task, unfortunately rendered almost hopeless by the great indistinctness and perplexity of the Sassanian alphabet. I must not, however, on this account, keep back the new and curious coins with Nāgari characters of which the Beghrdām collection boasts.

In conclusion, I must once more offer the tribute of admiration for the indefatigable and successful exertions of the collector of these Bactrian relics, and express a hope that his extensive collection, now consisting of upwards of 7000 coins, may be deposited in our national museum by the East India Company, to whom it is presumed they have been annually consigned.

IV.—*Facsimiles of Ancient Inscriptions, lithographed by Jas. Prinsep, Secy. &c. &c.*

Inscriptions from Trincomalee, in Ceylon.

Dr. W. Bland, of H. M. ship Wolf, to whom I am indebted for copies of the three fragments forming figs. 1, 2, 3 of Plate XXVI., has favored me with the following note of their discovery and present situation:

"The three inscriptions are at present in Fort Ostenburgh, which stands on a high rocky tongue of land, forming the south side of the entrance to Trincomalee harbour; these three separate stones have been laid down to form part of the platforms for the guns of the fort. Anciently on the site of this fort stood a venerable temple of the Buddhists, which was destroyed by the Portuguese, and its remains used in the construction of a place of defence. No. 1 is 16\(\frac{1}{2}\) inches long and 11 inches broad, the letters 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) inch long, with a groove between each line two inches apart. No. 2, the same size, and its composition the same, and although found in a different bastion, has all the appearance of having at one time been united. No. 3, 14 inches long, and 12 broad, letters one inch long, all distinctly cut in the stone, but appears to have been formerly much larger. Great care has been taken to give an exact facsimile of the inscriptions. The slightly marked letters near the end were more worn, and made so in copying. As this may meet the eye of some one conversant with ancient Sanscrit or its cognate dialects, you will oblige those interested on such matters by publishing these inscriptions."
INSCRIPTIONS at Fort Ostenburgh, Ceylon.

1, on a stone slab 14 inches by 12. letters 1 in. long.

TWO SLABS of Breccia 16 by 11 inches, at Fort Ostenburgh, Ceylon.

4. INSCRIPTION at HABURENNI

5. Letters of an Inscription, nearly obliterated, on a rock near Kapurdivarhi, Peshawer.
Facsimiles of Ancient Inscriptions.

The origin of the fragments of inscriptions found at Trincomalee is similarly explained in Sir A. Johnston's note upon a much longer and more perfect inscription from the same place, published in the first volume of the Roy. As. Soc. Trans. page 537.

The whole of the ancient pagodas or temples of Trincomalee were destroyed as above remarked by the Portuguese in the 16th century, and their materials were used in the construction of the modern fortifications. The late Chief Justice of Ceylon adds:

"The race of people who at present inhabit the province are completely ignorant of the character in which the inscription is written: they, however, believe from the traditions preserved among them, that it is the character which was in use throughout the whole of the northern and eastern parts of the island in the age of the two kings of Solamandelam, Manumethy Candesolam, and his son Kalocata Maharasa, who are stated, upon what authority I cannot ascertain, in all the ancient histories of Trincomalee (of which I have in my possession both the Tamul originals and the English translations) to have reigned over the southern peninsula of India and the greater part of the island of Ceylon about the 512th year of the Kaliyug, or 4400 years ago, and during his reign to have constructed not only these magnificent temples, but also the equally celebrated tanks or artificial lakes called Kattucarré, Padvicolam, Minerie, and Kandellé, the remains of which may be considered as some of the most venerable and splendid monuments ever discovered."

There are three traditions respecting the contents of the long inscription. 1, that it contains an account of the taxes which the priests of the temples of Trincomalee had a right to levy, and of the expenses incurred in the buildings: 2, that it contains an account of the construction of the great tank: and 3, that it contains the heads of the civil and criminal laws of the country.

However this may be, it is not likely that we shall very speedily be able to benefit by the preservation of this curious document, unless an actual facsimile be substituted for the manual copy published in the Transactions. It is evident from the form of many of the letters in that, and in Dr. Bland's fragments Nos. 2 and 3, which have a strong resemblance to it in the lines drawn between each row of letters, that these are in a form of Nágari not very different from that of our early ṇāth inscriptions, and there is little doubt that an accurate transcript would prove legible. Dr. Bland's No. 1 is apparently much more

* The names above given are doubtless Tiramadi Canda Sholan and Caricala of the Sholan dynasty of Karnätá, of Buchanan. According to Turnour, the Sholan conquest of Ceylon took place in the year 104 B. C.—Ed.
modern—it is so like Tamul in many letters that I think a Madras pandit would find little difficulty in deciphering it.

Other inscriptions from Ceylon, Pl. XXVI. XXVIII.

The preceding note has called to my recollection a number of other fragments of inscriptions in nearly the same character which were sent to the Society in 1833* by His Excellency Sir R. W. Horton. They were collected from various spots in the Matele district by Captain Forbes, as marked on the accompanying plate: and, His Excellency says, thousands of the same nature exist on the island.

The inscription from Haburenni offers the best chance to the decipherer from its very perfect state:—In the 4th line I read with ease the words paramara Mahárája....Sri mad....Vijaya Patisara puta deva. The same word विजया occurs very frequently in the course of the inscription. It is a name of great celebrity in the Ceylonese history, as the founder of the earliest dynasty. The opening letters of the inscription are precisely such as appear on our first Canouj coins:—they run Madhörenama...

I am not aware whether the inscriptions so successfully deciphered by Mr. Armour, and published in the Ceylon Almanac, include any of this class—but I presume not, as they generally refer to periods much more recent, as the reign of Sahasa Malla, in the 12th century, when we know by the coins discovered at Dambodinía, that the Nágari hardly differed from the present form. Moreover, they are stated to be in the Cingalese language.

Inscriptions from the Caves of Ajanta, Pl. XXVIII.

When I inserted in a former Plate (IX. see page 348) the rude facsimile of an inscription taken for me by Messrs. Ralph and Gresley, I forgot that I had in my possession several of a similar nature collected by the same parties during a visit to these caves some years ago, which were in vain shewn to the pandits of Benares and to the Secretary of the College there.

Not being aware that the measurements and drawings made by Dr. Bird for Sir John Malcolm have ever seen the light, while the brief notice and rude sketch published by Lieutenant Alexander in the second volume of the Roy. As. Soc. Trans. is any thing but satisfactory, I think it but tardy justice to put on record the materials so kindly communicated to myself.

One inscription (fig. 11) was taken with red paint on cloth from the base of a large statue of Buddha, and, curious enough, we here again trace the three initial letters "ye dharma" of the Buddhist formula; but

* See Proceedings As. Soc. 30th Oct. 1833.
Inscriptions from Ceylon, continued.

6. SIGIRI

7. from DÂMBOOL

8. from ALUE VIHARI.

9. Lower part of an Inscription in the Zodiac or Shield Cave at Ajanta.

10. Another from the same Cave (supposed to be more modern).

11. Another Inscription, taken in facsimile from the stone.

Ralph W. Gresley des.  J. Prinsep delt.

the remainder is unintelligible, although the value of many individual letters can be readily assigned.

The fragment (fig. 10) in the parallelogram-headed character, (of which an alphabet will be furnished under a subsequent heading,) is all that remains of what was once a long inscription in the zodiac cave. It is therefore useless to transcribe it in modern character, which might easily be done for the major part of the fragment.

But it will enliven the dry recapitulation of such particulars to introduce the reader to the romantic scene whence these antique relics were derived, in the very language of Mr. Ralph's most animated and scenic correspondence—written as he clambered up the precipitous and crumbling entrance, and threaded his way through the recesses of the hollowed hill by the light of the brahman's torch.

"On the 6th of the month I left Aurungabad, and went seven marches eastward that I might join Captain Gresley, and induce him to come hither with me. When I found him on the 13th, we were near 50 miles from this place, to which we came in two breakneck marches, galloping over stony roads and rocky torrents at the rate of ten miles an hour. We then rested one day, and on the 18th arrived here at 9 A.M. During the two last days Gresley has been with me, and his exclamations of admiration and regret, the mere variations of wonder,—would fill three pages. The paintings, which are fast fading and falling away, demand consideration. There is nothing in India like them. They give us glimpses of a former world—but, alas! how industriously these valuable and beautiful remains have been by violence destroyed! I shall now rapidly throw together my companion's observations, among which are all mine, in which he agreed. You know I have no knowledge of painting or design—only a perception of what is beautiful; but you must have remarked his skill in drawing and good taste in every thing.

"These caves are becoming daily more difficult of access. You pass along narrow goat paths with a chasm of 50 or 80 feet below, the footing not nine inches broad, with scarce any thing to cling to. The rains yearly making the passages worse. G. and I admired the fires on the hill above us: grass and leaves burning all night. What followed? Why, last night every hour and oftener, stones and burning rubbish, large logs half consumed, rolled down close to the tent, and this morning the ascent proved more difficult. One cave is inaccessible, and several are approached at the risk of life.

'What a wonderful people these must have been! Remark the head dresses. Now, is this a wig or curly hair? All the statues, the curved figures of Buddha have them. How can I say? First wigs were made to represent hair, and then hair dressed to look like wigs. 'Tis the shape of your Welsh wig, and rows of curls all over. Then the head dresses and ornaments are different from every thing we now see. These are chiefly domestic scenes—seraglio scenes; here are females and males every where, then processions and portraits of princes which are always larger than the rest. The subjects are closely intermixed;—a medallion is twelve or fifteen inches in height; below and above, closely touching, are other subjects. I have seen nothing monstrous. No, certainly, there is nothing monstrous except where we see some figure evidently designed
for ornament, as in the compartments of the ceiling. The ceiling—aye, every thing but the floor and larger statues and small figures—everything has been painted. It is done while the plaster is wet—it is fresco painting. I have seen the operation while going about in Rome. It has been dug off, scraped and knocked off with iron instruments. See how the stone itself has been broken!

Now, Ralph, look here: can you see this figure? No. Bring the torch nearer. Give me the torch. You can see it better now—hardly! Let us light dry grass. Bring grass now: place it here. Now watch while the light is strongest: you may now see the whole figure. This is a prince or some chief. It is a portrait. Observe how well fore-shortened that limb is—yes, I can see it now; but throw water on it—now the colours are more vivid. Here is a lovely face—a Madonna face. What eyes! She looks towards the man. Observe, these are all Hindu faces—nothing foreign. All the sweet countenances are of one complexion. R., now remark. Here are evidently three beauties in this apartment—one an African, one copper-coloured, one of a European complexion. Yes; and how frequently we see these intermixed. See this, R. is a fair man—yes, I think he is a caucasian. Another:—he has his hand round her waist, and she one hand on his shoulder. Observe; many love scenes, but little gross or grossly indecent: no nudities—nothing like the shocking sculptures on the outside of the temples in Telangana. This must be the inside of a mahal. Here is a woman on a charpue or some stage with legs: See, they are bathing her: do you observe the ghara of water in the woman's hand above? How well executed that figure is; the fore-shortening of the arms; the waist—are not her waists too full? No. Go farther off, and you will see the figure in a better light: it is correct. This beauty has delicate drapery—nearly falling to the knee: it is transparent, like sky-coloured gauze. Observe that Abyssinian black prince seated on a bed;—remark his ornaments. Now the woman seated on his left knee whom he embraces is as fair as you or I. Did these fellows get Georgian slaves? He has two boys or pages to fan him. I wish I could make out this story—there certainly is a story. Here is a fair man of full age, dressed in a robe and a cap like some monk or abbot. Here is next to him a half naked brahman copper-coloured, with shaven crown and the single lock on his head. Here is a man presenting him with a scroll on which something is written. He is in a crowded court—he has come to an audience. What can all this be? This is a procession:—the elephants are passing under the windows, and women are looking out. I think they evidently express alarm. That one has her hand up, as making some exclamation.

How often we see people of three complexions in the same pannel! Now this is the most extraordinary thing we have found. Here are three placid portraits—they are Chinese. Nothing can be plainer:—observe the style of the hair;—the women have locks brought down in ringlets over the ears falling on to the neck, like some of the Hampton Court beauties. Observe the head dresses: there is something like a bandeau—yes, a muslin band, or the imitation of a turban by English women. The cap worn by the chiefs or nobles or princes is a tiara loaded with pearls mostly conical. Round the waist is a cloth, but it is not so full as a dhobi. A sort of jhangia worn by the women, coming nearly to the knees, and this drapery often transparent. Are these paintings as well done as Europeans could have executed? In the expression of the countenances certainly they are. The perspective is not good, and the pieces are crowded:—yet here is a small building, the perspective of which is quite correct.
Small buildings, such as are open to a garden with light pillars, are the principal domestic scenes: few or no trees. In two pieces are parties in a boat—the prow and stern both very high. Here is a hunt;—here is a horsem.an and dogs. I do not like the horses we see—rather poor. These are elephant-fighting;—that head is sublime.

Now, R. remark this saddle;—here is a led horse, and the saddle exactly such as we see in England with a cloth below it—nothing larger—and the bridle too. This is a war scene—here are many spears.

This zodiac, as they call it, is very elaborate. Why they call it zodiac I know not. There is in one part a bull, and in another scales. We must get a ladder to see it clearly. It might have been called the shield of Achilles as well as a zodiac. There have been eight grand compartments and sixteen smaller ones—how full of little figures! I think this is the best example in the whole series, and evidently done by the same painters who worked in what we call 'par excellence' the painted caves. These medallions in the roof are very handsome. I think they resemble compartments in a Turkey carpet, or what we see in a kaleidoscope—wreaths and coloured radiated patterns. Here are five women with their feet all towards the centre of the circle:—their heads alone perfect. Are they angels? There are no winged and no two-headed figures anywhere.

The zodiac is incomplete. I think about a third of it is wanting, and the lower part of the circle could never have been complete, for it must have been over this door of the cell. G. Perhaps they covered the top of the doorway with something in order to complete the circle. R. You admire it so much: you are willing to suppose it must have been complete.

What a lovely female! Yes, the last one we discover seems always the sweetest. Here is another heavenly face. This man is her lover:—a handsome fellow. You have his profile looking to the left. How eager—how full of ardent desire! The woman has just turned her face towards him, and looks with timid satisfaction and self-approving coquetry. It is excellent. But here is another beauty:—she is entreating: her head is turned towards some one above. Is she supplicating or in prayer? Shame to the villains who have destroyed these paintings!

These must have been convents, and these decorations to attract the multitude at festivals and to bring pilgrims from afar. This cave was never half finished. I can fancy that the site of a cave was granted to a society of monks with lands for their support. These, according to their ability, made it large or small, filled it with paintings when able to incur the expense.—The fewer theories you form, the fewer blunders and dreams you will make.

R. We must form theories—we cannot remain awake and not do so.
G. Some nation of conquerors who landed at Elephant, coming from Egypt, first began there, and then got 2 or 300 miles to the eastward. There is nothing like these in Telengana or to the south.
R. No—only some very small caves with sculpture, rude and old,—the cave being as big as one of these ten cells. But the fewer theories you make, &c.

Now, Ralph, look at this! Why, you are half dead—no, not half dead, but knocked up. When you have 25 years added to your present age, and have completed 30 years in India, will you labour so well or have so much zeal? 'Tis five to one against my being alive.—But do get up and come hither. This man is going to ravish this woman;—he has a sword, too, in his hand. Here
are other armed men. Is it the sacking of a city? See how the water brings out the colours,—but I have given Rainesp more than two hours. Have they brought the oil? and the ladder,—they are all here.

21st.—A Dr. Bird from Sattarah, the Residency Surgeon, come with a design to draw up some account of the caves, dismounts from his horse at 8 A. M. Mutual greetings. In three minutes my new acquaintance praises Mr. Erskine of Bombay; quotes him and swears by him, and tells me, 'These are Jain cave temples, and, like most others in this part of India, are dug in basalt. This is amygdaloid basalt: you see it incloses masses of quartz.'

Dr. B. says he has brought a learned pandit to examine the inscriptions; that he is about to draw up an account for the London Asiatic Society, and carry away some of the paintings by taking from the wall. Can you draw, Sir? 'No—I am sorry I cannot.' Those who come here with that qualification are disheartened by the difficulty, or have other occupations which demand their attention, (as G.)—As for carrying away the paintings, you can do so in powder. I have ascertained that they will not quit the walls in laminae, but crumble under the touch.

'I am sorry for that. I think a native painter might succeed in copying them.' Certainly he might—but you must attend on your native painter, to give him confidence. This is a wild secluded spot, within a mile or two of the frontier; barren rocks and chains of hills E. and W. The nearest inhabited place is a poor hamlet three miles off. We find marks of recent fires in the caves and caverns, and know that small parties of migratory predatory Blues who lift in these parts, haunt the caves, which are very seldom visited.

DR. BIRD'S so-called pandit proves to be a Marhatta brahman:—can make nothing of the inscriptions—supposes them written by the Jains.

G. For my part, I think it is the character I have seen on the pillar at Allahabad, and on the column at Delhi, which no one can decipher. On the left of the portico to the zodiac cave has been an inscription four feet high and one and a half broad—the left and lower part utterly effaced by the weather. What remains, may afford a few whole words to one who has the key; (see Plate XXVIII. No. 10). Under the foot of a colossal statue, there is part of an inscription, perhaps half a name:—outside another cave. In the zodiac there is some writing—and in the same cave one figure holds out a scroll on which the writing may be legible.

Mallet's figures in the Asiatic Researches would lead a stranger to expect statues—but the figures are entirely in alto relievo. Almost the only novelty is the thing I call an altar: it is nine feet high. There are four altar caves, or, as folks call them, carpenter's† caves. The first has the figure just mentioned at the back. In the second the altar differs in having an intermediate circle or section of a cone—another globular mass.

[* Capt. Ovans visited in March 1827; Mr. Laing saw two in July; Capt. O., Mr. G. Giberne and Gresley were here in February 1828; Mr. and Mrs. R. on the 8th of that month; G. and R. 18th and 19th of the current month; and, lastly, Dr. Bird, an intelligent young Medical man from Bombay. Lieut. Alexander of the Lancers visited them in 1824.]

† From the tradition regarding Visvakarma's having constructed them in a night. See Sir William Mallet's description of Ellora, As. Res. VI., 389.
In the third small cave, 45 or 50 feet by 20 to 24, is a more elaborate altar (dehgopa), having three globes superposed, and each stage ornamented with four pillars—on the top four figures, now much worn, supported a canopy, (evidently the ordinary Buddhist Chaitya.) But all these desultory descriptions and fragments of conversation can be of no use but to stimulate you to come hither, &c. &c."

In the same graphic style our visitor describes the kund or reservoir at the foot of cliffs 250 feet in height—and the Dehgopa or Buddha cave. Dr. Bird found no less than 25 chambers, some in an unfinished state, and now covered with earth. Notwithstanding protestations about defacing monuments, this visitor contrived to peel off four painted figures from the zodiac or shield! To have copied the whole, even had he been an artist, would have taken twenty days. Of the fresco figures, in three divisions of the shield, were extant in 1828, 73 figures varying from 5 to 7 inches high. It is a great pity that none of our European tourists, whose pencils every year produce such exquisite bijoux, can be persuaded to make a visit to Ajanta, before the remainder of these treasures of antiquity moulder away with the damp, or fall a prey to the hand of the spoiler.

V.—Sketch of the State of Muar, Malay Peninsula. By T. J. Newbold, Lieut., A. D. C. to Brigadier General Wilson, C. B.

The information contained in this paper was obtained partly from personal observation, and partly from inquiries made while on a visit to the chief of the country at Gressik, on the Muar river, in 1835.

The state of Muar lies to the south of the Malacca territory, from which it is divided, towards the coast, by the Cossang river, and interiorly by a suppositional line drawn between Bankon, Chondong and Mount Ophir. The Serting river separates it from Pahang,—Parrit Siput from the tract of Datu Kaya Padang—and the Murbowe Sa-ratus from Johole.

Population.—The interior of Muar is generally termed Segâmet. The united population is stated not to exceed 2,400. This appears extremely scant compared with the extent of territory; and arises from the misgovernment and apathy of the feudal sovereign, the Sultan of Johore—whence perpetual broils among the petty chiefs, causing insecurity of person and property, and eventually desertion of the soil by most of the cultivating and trading classes of the community. The honest peasant, in many instances, is compelled from sheer necessity to turn robber; and the coasts, instead of being crowded
with fishermen, swarm with pirates. These remarks may be applied
generally to the whole of the peninsula under native sway, though to
Mūar more particularly; the whole of which country appears to be
one almost uninterrupted mass of jungle and swamp, if we can except
a few straggling villages and clearings. Cultivated rice grounds
have degenerated into barren marshes—an enormous forest, abounding
with wild elephants, overshadows a soil naturally rich and prolific;
while the gaunt rhinoceros and uncouth tapir stalk unmolested over
spots which, if tradition belies them not, were once the sites of large
and populous towns.

Such is the melancholy picture of the effects of misrule which this unhappy country presents to the eye of the traveller, who cannot avoid being sensibly touched by this forcible, though silent, appeal for me-
loration.

The principal villages are Bokko, Langkat, Gressik, Ring, Segámet, Pogoh and Pangkālāng Kōta, the residence of the chief, on the river.

Produce and Revenue.—The produce of the country consists of a little rice, sago, ivory, ebony, gold dust, tin, wax, aloë-wood, gum benzoin, camphor (small in quantity and of inferior quality), ratans of the kinds Battu and Jagga, Dammer Battu, Dammer Miniak, jaggery, Lakko wood, and Guligas, stones extracted generally from the heads of porcupines, and in much repute among Malays for medicinal purposes.

The chief has been empowered by the late Sultan of Johóre to levy
an impost upon every bhar of tin exported, of 1½ Spanish dollars.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One hundred bundles of ratans</td>
<td>1 do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One bhar of ebony</td>
<td>1½ do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One koyan rice imported</td>
<td>2 do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One koyan salt ditto</td>
<td>1 do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One katti of opium ditto</td>
<td>20 do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On smaller articles he levies a duty of 5 per cent. He has the power of exacting the gratuitous labour of his subjects, and derives some emolument from the fines he inflicts on them at pleasure.

Government.—Mūar is under the sway of a chief bearing the title of Tumúngong, who is a vassal of Johóre. Under the Tamúngong are eight Panghūlās, four of whom are styled Ampat de Ilir—the remain-
der, Ampat de Ulu. The former are the Panghūlās of Gressik, Bukit, Rdya, Liang Battu, and Ring;—the latter, those entitled Besar, Tan-
jong, Daggang, and Muncal. There is nominally a mosque under each Panghūlā, but in that of Umbum alone is the Juma-ahad held. This is in the jurisdiction of the Panghūlā besar. The customs enjoined by the code termed Undang Undang Masóyu; and the Mahommedan law
of succession obtains, to the exclusion of the Trómba Pusáka prevailing in the four Menangkábówe states.

History.—Múar, like the rest of the Malay peninsula, was formerly inhabited by savage aboriginal tribes, among whom the Jacoons seem to claim the superiority. With regard to its origin, it is stated in the Sejára Maláyu that Sri Iscaner Shah, the monarch of Singhápára, on his city being taken by the Bitára of Majapahit, fled to Múar. This event took place about the middle of the 13th century; and it is asserted that he left one of his Manris in the interior of Múar.

No more mention is made of this state until near the middle of the 14th century, when the kingdom of the Sultan of Malacca, Mozaffér Shah, was invaded by the Siamese under T'hawi Chácri. The Sultan on this occasion directed a levy of the population of Múar to be made, and the inhabitants to be assembled at Malacca. According to the Malay annals, the war between Siam and Malacca "continued for a long time, and great numbers of the Siamese perished; but Malacca was not reduced. At last the whole Siamese army retreated, and as they took their departure they threw down large quantities of their baggage ratans in the district of Múar, where they all took root; and that is the origin of the name Rotan Siam. Their stocks, which were formed of fig-tree wood, likewise took root in a place in the vicinity of Múar, where it still exists. The rests for the Siamese cooking places also took root and grew up, and are to be seen at this day at the place named Tumang Siam." I was unable to find out the locality of the places here mentioned by the author of the Sejára Maláyu, though every inquiry was made near the spots where these scenes are said to have occurred. The tradition, however, of the defeat of the Siamese was universally current. In 1511, Ahmed, Sultan of Malacca, on his city being taken by the Portuguese, retreated up the Múar river to a place called Pagoh, about 15 or 16 miles from Gressik, now under the Punghülá besar, Inchi Muit. Sultan Mahmu'd remained at Battu Hampar, and founded a fort at Bentayen. According to the Sejára Maláyu, the Portuguese pursued Ahmed up the river, attacked and took Pagoh. Ahmed fled further up to Panarigan, near Jompôle, and thence, accompanied by Mahmu'd, repaired to Pahang. The latter subsequently established himself at Johóre. Many of their adherents remained in Múar and Segmét, and in course of time erected a primitive form of government, directed by four elders, styled Tuah Campongs, who ruled under the Sultans of Johóre until 1119 A. H. The four campongs were those of Pagoh, Sungie Ring, Sungie Terap, and Gressik.

A. H. 1119. A Mantri of high birth in Johóre, named Samade Rája, obtained a grant of the territory of Múar from the then Sultan

4 D 2
of Johore, Abdal Jalil Shah III. He settled at a place called Pantai Layang on the banks of the river, and ruled till 1145 A. H., when he died succeeded by his son Padu'ka Tuan; who, on his proceeding to the court of Johore, on the occasion of his father's demise, was invest-ed by the Sultan Abdal Jalil with the title of Tumungong Paduka Tuan. He died A. H. 1175, succeeded by his son Burok or Ahok, who was confirmed by Sultan Abdal Jalil Shah IV., then resident at Rhio, whither he had removed from Johore. Burok died at Bunga Tanjong on the Muar river in 1214 A. H. leaving two sons, Konik and Ibrahim. The former went to Lingga to present himself to Sultan Mahmu'd III. by whom he was acknowledged as third Tumungong of Muar.

Konik died in 1246, A. H. leaving a son named Syed, the present chief, who succeeded him; also left a daughter. Syed proceeded to Singapore, where he was confirmed by the late Sultan, Hussain Shah I., whom the English had recently placed on the throne of his ancestors. From him he obtained the title Tumungong Dattu Syed.

It would appear from what has been advanced above, and by the subsequent Boundary treaties, that Muar has always been feudal to the Sultan of Johore since the time of their ancestors, the ancient sovereigns of Singapore and Malacca. The Dutch, however, when in possession of Malacca, appear to have claimed Muar, as in the map of Valentyn the boundary line of the Dutch territory is made to extend so far beyond the Muar river as the Rio Formoso.

The Tumungong's sway is confined to the villages immediately on the banks of the Muar river and on those of the stream of Segamet, which empties itself into the Muar about 12 miles above Pankdlang Kota. He appears to be popular from his easy temper, and the inhabitants feel alarmed at the idea of any change being made in the government by the Sultan of Johore. We had an interview with this Malay chief at a village, about 18 miles up the river, called Gressik. He acknowledges himself a vassal of Johore, and sends annually to the Sultan the amount of a duty levied on the houses of the settlers at Padang (one dollar per house) and 200 gumpits of rice.

Malayan Albino.—On landing at Gressik I was struck by the singular appearance of a Malay lad, an Albino, standing under the shade of a tree on the river bank. His skin was of a reddish white, with blotches here and there, and thinly covered with short white hairs. The eyes were small and contracted; the iris of a very light vascular blue; the lids red, and fringed with short white lashes; the eyebrows scant and of the same colour; the pupil much contracted from the light. On calling him to come near he appeared to be ashamed.
He evinced an extreme sensibility to the stimulus of light, from which he almost constantly kept his eyes guarded by shading them with his hands. He told me he could see better than his neighbours in imperfect darkness, and best by moonlight, like the "moon-eyed" Albino of the Isthmus of Darien.

He is morbidly sensitive to heat: for this reason and on account of the superstitious respect with which the Malays regard him, he is seldom employed by his friends in outdoor labour, although by no means deficient in physical strength. The credulous Malays imagine that the Genii have some furtive share in the production of such curiosities, though this they tell as a great secret. To this day the tomb of his grandfather, who was also an Albino, is held sacred by the natives, and vows (niyats) made at it. Both his parents were of the usual colour. His sister is an Albino like himself.

Albinos, I believe, are not common on the peninsula, nor are there any tribes of them as, according to Voltaire, exist in the midst of Africa. In the only two instances I recollect observing, the eyes were, in both, of a very light blue; the cuticle roughish and of a rosy blush, very different from that of the two African Albinos seen and described by Voltaire, and quoted by Lawrence; "Leur blancheur n'est pas la nôtre; rien d'incarnat, nul mélangé de blanc et de brun, c'est une couleur de linge, ou plutôt de cire blanchie; leurs cheveux, leurs sourcils sont de la plus belle et de la plus douce soie; leurs yeux ne ressemblent en rien à ceux des autres hommes, mais ils approchent beaucoup des yeux de perdrix." Essai sur les Maurs.

Whitelaw Ainslie, in his description of the Albinos of continental India, ascribes to them the same delicacy of constitution and shyness observable in the Malayan Albino, and that they are seldom known to live to an advanced age. The females, he remarks, rarely bear children; but when they do, their offspring is of the natural colour of the cast to which they belong.

Observations on the Mâar river.—The Mâar river at the mouth has an apparent width of about 600 yards, and at Gressik 18 miles up the stream is about 100 yards broad and 7 fathoms deep. The soundings at the bar varied from $\frac{3}{4}$ to 4 fathoms low water. The current ran at the rate of 2½ miles an hour. It has its rise, according to the natives, among the mountains of Jellaboo, and falls into the sea about 30 miles south-east of Malacca. From these mountains the Serting river, which disemboogues itself into the China sea at Pahang, and the Catang river, which flows into the Straits of Malacca near Salangore, have also their rise. The general direction of the Mâar river from the
mouth to Gressik we found to be N.E.—its course tortuous, the banks for the most part low, muddy, and covered, with the exception of the vicinity of villages and a few Ladang clearings, with dense jungle. Among the trees near the river's margin we observed the mangrove, the Nipah palm, (the Nypa fruticans of THUNBERG,) the Nibong, (the Areca Tigliaria of Dr. JACK,) the Api-API, (Pyrrhanthus Littoreus,) the Pedada, the Neridi, and the Bata-Bata.

The water of the river was more turbid than that of the Lingie, which might be owing to the freshes from the hills. The paucity of cultivation, thinness of population, and the almost total absence of trading boats and even fishing canoes on the river, could not fail to strike the most careless observer. By this river there is a communication, almost all the way by water, with the eastern coast of the peninsula, frequently adopted by the Pahang traders. The navigation was formerly under the control of a Bugis chief named Unku' KLANA, who settled at the mouth of the river; and, after him, under his son RAYA ISSA: but on the return of the latter to RHIO in 1826, it reverted to the Tumungong.

In former days the mouth of the river was a noted place of rendezvous for the fleets of the Siamese, and in later times of the Malay princes, in their attacks on Malacca during the Portuguese and Dutch administrations. The last instance occurred in 1784, when RAYA HAJJ, the MUDA of RHIO, anchored there with a fleet of 170 prows on his way to invade Malacca; an enterprize in which he lost his life.

**Gold Mines of Bukit Raya.**—Gold dust is found a short distance from the left bank of the river at Bukit Raya, a low hill covered with forest, which was pointed out to us by the guides. There were, we were told, formerly gold mines on and at the foot of this hill worked by Malays, who were compelled to quit them through the exactions of the petty chiefs. The Tumungong had brought down with him in his own boat to Gressik, two Chinese miners, with the view of ascertaining whether any mining speculations there would be likely to turn out profitably or otherwise. I have not heard the result. Tin is also found near Bukit Raya.

From Gressik we saw a range of hills at a great distance running down the peninsula in a south-easterly direction, one of the highest of which is called Siang-battu, the Cave of the Rock. From this mountain, the natives affirm, flow the rivers of Battu Pahat, (the Rio Formoso of the Portuguese,) Pontian, Undowe, Roompin, Bennoon, and Johore; the last of which streams empties itself into the sea at the extremity of the peninsula: on its left bank stood the capital of the
Statue of Silenus discovered by Col. Stacy.
Malay empire of Johore. This range of mountains seems to be a
continuation, if I may so term it, of the broken chain running down
the peninsula through the States of Quédah, Perak, Salangore, Sünjig-
unjong, Rumbówe, Jellaboo, and Srimenanti, terminating near Point
Romania, and probably having their origin in the lofty ranges which
overlook the vast steppes of Northern Asia.

VI.—Note on the discovery of a relic of Grecian Sculpture in Upper
India. By Lieut.-Col. L. R. Stacy. Plate XXXI.

[In a letter to the Editor, dated Aligarh, 29th February, 1836.]

I have the pleasure to enclose two sketches exhibiting the obverse and
reverse of what appears to me a Grecian perirranterion (Περιρραντηριον) (1)
in stone (Italian, tazza*). The block, which is three feet in width,
three feet ten inches high, and one foot four inches thick at the base,
is of the hard red sandstone with white spots, which is found so
plentifully in the Agra district, particularly in the neighbourhood of
Fattehpúr Sikrí, and of which the greater number of the ancient build-
ings at Agra are constructed.

This relic was given to me by a friend at Mathura: it is in a very
mutilated state, but fortunately sufficient development of it remains
to determine, I think, its original character and use.

The obverse represents Silenus inebriated; he is reclining on a
low seat or throne, supported on either side by a young male and
female Grecian. Two minor figures support the knees: the attitude
of Silenus, the drooping of the head, the lips, and powerless state of
the limbs, give an extremely accurate representation of a drunken
man. The figures of the youth and maiden are also in appropriate
keeping. The whole is evidently the work of an able artist, who could
not possibly, in my opinion, have been a native of Hindustan.

The reverse appears to have been executed by a less skilful person,
and the figures carry an Indian style about them. The back-ground
represents a grove, and the trees are loaded with fruit. Four figures
are conspicuous in front: on the left hand a Grecian girl, with short
tunic and loose drapery falling to the ground; her sandals are orna-
mented; her right hand is grasped by the right hand of the figure
next to her, a young man, whose apparel is confined to a jhangi: he
has a kerchief round the neck with a tie in front as worn by sailors.
Next to this is another female in a Grecian dress: she would seem to
right, who is in the act of putting on woman's attire. The bracelets

* Vide Mosz's Antique Vases, Pl. 95.
be highly amused with the person (a young man) immediately on her of this female reach half way to the elbow, and are most elaborately and beautifully executed, but the appearance of this figure is less elegant than that on the extreme left. At the feet of the group are goblets. The heads of the figures are bound with vine leaves.

The figures on the obverse are on a larger scale than those on the reverse: the deficiency on the reverse is supplied by trees, forming a grove. The whole supports a circular bason or font measuring sixteen inches in diameter, and which must have been originally about eight inches in depth. As already noticed, this relic is sadly mutilated, and it is probable the bigotry of Muhammadans, (who perhaps considered the work connected with Hindu idolatry,) occasioned the injury done to the faces and breasts of all the figures and a great part of the bowl. Enough, however, remains to identify it as representing a scene in the Bacchanalian festivals.

For the present I will simply add, that should this piece of sculpture prove to be what I conjecture it to be, the correctness of Wilton and Jones’ (2) opinions will be strongly evidenced, when they asserted a similarity of the gods of the Greeks and Indians, and that this led to intermarriages, and thus the former merged into and were ultimately lost sight of in the Indian community. (3)

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Note.—The discovery of a piece of sculpture bearing evident reference to Greek mythology, if not boasting as unequivocally of the beauty and perfection of Grecian sculpture, might excite less surprize after the elaborate display we have lately had of coins found in Upper India and in the Panjab with Grecian legends, and a combination of Hindu and Greek deities. Yet, in fact, the latter offer no explanation to the former—on the contrary, they relate exclusively to a period comparatively modern, when the worship of Mithra spread through the world with the rapidity of the element of which he was the type, and superseded in a great measure the more ancient superstitions; whereas the worship of Bacchus—or of Silenus, his wine-inspired counsellor, must belong to a much more remote period—nor can we trace any clue to it in the present mythology of the Hindus. True there have been traditions preserved in the West, of Bacchus’ expedition to India, and of the easy conquest every where following the steps of the hero who could make rivers run with wine—and fought with an army of laughing Bacchantes and satyrs.

(2) Vol. i. p. 221, Asiatic Researches.

(3) This opinion of Wilton’s is quoted in Conder’s History of India. I cannot immediately say in which vol. of the As. Researches it is to be found.
The Dionysiacs of Nonnus have been quoted by Colonel Wilford, and analysed by Professor Wilson in our Researches—but without hinting at their hero having been grafted on the pantheistic system of India. Nishapur, Déva-Nahushanagar, and other towns, have been pointed out as the site of Nysa, Nicea, or Dionysiopolis, where the extravagant rites of Dionysos' worship were celebrated with the greatest pomp:—where, according to some authorities, he was born—where, according to others, he founded a city in honor of a damsel, Nicea, whom he encountered in his expedition through Persia and Bactria:—but all is vague and uncertain on the subject. The Indian origin indeed of the religion of Bacchus, long ago asserted and believed, has lately come to be suspected from the want of any arguments in its favor but a few slight resemblances of names and ceremonies. Professor A. W. Schlegel expressly denies in his Indian Library, that the Greeks had, previous to the conquests of Alexander, any idea of an expedition of Bacchus to or from India*. The author on whose authority this opinion is repeated, Mr. T. Keightley, thus traces the origin of the confusion:—

"When Alexander and his army had penetrated to the modern Câbul, they found ivy and wild vines on the side of Mount Merus and on the banks of the Hydaspes: they also met processions, accompanied by the sound of drums and parti-colored dresses, like those worn in the Bacchic orgies of Greece and Lesser Asia. The flatterers of the conqueror took thence occasion to fable that Dionysius had, like Hercules and their own great king, marched as a conqueror throughout the east: had planted there the ivy and the vine, had built the city of Nysa, and named the fountain Merus from the circumstance of his birth from the thigh of Zeus. At length, during the time of the Graeco-Bactric kingdom, some Greek writers, on whom it is probable the Brahmans imposed, as they have since done on the English†, gave out that Dionysus was a native Indian, who having taught the art of wine-making in that country, made a conquering expedition through the world to instruct mankind in the culture of the vine and other useful arts. And thus the culture of the vine came to Greece from a land which does not produce that plant! This last is the absurd hypothesis which we have seen renewed in our own days, and supported by all the efforts of ingenious etymology!"*

Colonel Stacy's group may throw a new light on this curious question. There can be no doubt as to the personage represented by the principal figure—his portly carcass, drunken lassitude, and

* Keightley's Mythology of Greece, 170. † Alluding to Col. Wilford.
wine-wreathed forehead, stamp the individual: while the drapery of his attendants pronounces them at least to be foreign to India, whatever may be thought of Silenus' own costume, which is certainly highly orthodox and Brahmanical. If the sculptor were a Greek, his taste had been somewhat tainted by the Indian beau ideal of female beauty—in other respects his proportions and attitudes are good—nay, superior to any specimen of pure Hindu sculpture we possess: and considering the object of the group—to support a sacrificial vase (probably of the juice of the grape)—it is excellent. It would be time well bestowed to survey all the temples and antiquities of Mathura, in search for other specimens of Grecian art. Colonel Stacy can have no greater inducement to undertake this pleasing task, than the possession of the highly interesting relic which we have made a faint attempt to introduce to the eye of our readers in the accompanying lithograph.—Ed.

VII.—Description of some Grasses which form part of the Vegetation in the Jheels of the district of Sylhet. By William Griffiths, Esq. Assistant Surgeon, Madras Establishment.


Gramen in aquosis proveniens, culmis gracilibus basi longe repentibus, articulis cylindraceis pubescentibus, caeterum laevibus.

Spicae paucae, distantes, subsecundae, in paniculam nutantem alternatim dispositae.

Spiculae solitariae, in apice cyathiformi pedicelli curvati articulatae, subsessiles, uniflorae.

Glumae nullae, nisi cupulam membranaceam apicis pedicelli glumam existimes.

Paleae 2, chartaceo-coriaceae, compresso-carinatae, muticæ, obtuse mucronatae, brevissime stipitatae, stipite crasso rotundato; exterior 5-venia, venâ mediâ (carinâ) duabusque marginalibus denticulato-ciliatis, duabus intermediis subglabris, interveniis scabris; interior 3-venia, paullo brevier, carinâ denticulato-ciliata, intervenio scabro, caeterum laeviuscula.

Lodiculae 2 carnose, acinaciformes, integrae, glabrae.
Stamina 6, antheris longe exsertis.
Ovarium ovato-oblongum, glabrum. Styli 2. Stigmata plumosa, divisionibus ramosis, ratione stylorum longa.

Caryopsis ....


With regard to this grass, we have Mr. Brown's authority (Prodr. Fl. Nov. Holl. ed. Nees 1. p. 67, sub *Leptaspide* J for its being totally distinct from *Pharus*, to which it was originally referred by Retzius. Mr. Brown likewise points out (loc. cit.) that this and the succeeding, if not retainable in *Zizania*, will constitute a distinct genus. It will be seen that I have ventured to go farther, and I am only deterred from characterizing this as itself distinct, by the difficulty I find in distinguishing it from *Leersia*, with which genus I am only acquainted through M. Kunth's *Agrostographia*. Its obvious affinity is with *Oryza*, from the awnless varieties of which it only differs in the total absence of glumes; the presence of the membranous cup terminating the pedicel in *Oryza* proving, that it is not to be considered as a modification of these envelopes.

**Potamochloa. Griff.**


Caryopsis.....

Gramen fluitans ope vaginarum cellulosarum, dense cæspitosum. Folia lata; ligula obsoleta. Panicula effusa erecta; pedicelli infra medium constricti.

**Potamochloa Retzii. Griff.**


*Pharus aristatus.* Retz. Obs. 5, 23, ex Kunth.


Culmi emersi vix pedales, glabri. Immersi longissimi, hinc illinc radiculas capillaceo-divisas emittentes.

Vaginæ immersæ vel semi-immersæ quam maxime cellulosæ, incrassatae et quasi inflatae; emersæ longiores cylindraceæ, minus cellulosæ.
Description of some Gramineous Plants.

Folia in exemplaribus spontaneis semper emersa et erecta*, lanceolata, basi cordata, obtusa, apice sub-cucullata, rigida, suprâ tactu scabra.

Panicula erecta, axi ad ejus originem subito angustata; rami infimi subverticillati, divercati, superiores alternantes, ascendentes.

Spiculae rami adpressae, subsecundae, inferiores geminate, inaequaliter pedicellate, superiores solitariae longius pedicellate.

Pedicelli clavati, infra medium constricti, ibidemque annulo rubro insigniti, spicularum inferiorum curvati.

Paleae sessiles, apicum pedicellorum continuæ! vix compressa; exterior major 5-venia, venis denticulato-ciliatis, caeterum parce hirta; arista continua, recta, scabra, paleam excedens; interior mutica, acuminata, 3-venia, carinâ denticulato-scabrâ, venis lateribus latibus, pallidis.

Lodiculae 2, subacinaciformes, magnae, extrorsum gibbosae et carnosae, introrsum sub-membranaceae, glabrae vel apice ciliatae.


Ovarium oblongum, glabrum.

Stigmata ratione stylorum longiuscula.

Caryopsis non visa; stipitata?

It is this genus that appears to me allied to Zizania. It differs, I conceive, materially from the preceding in habit, in the shape and consistence of the paleæ, which are open during the period of inflo- rescence, and in the outer one being awned.

Vossia. Wall. et Griff. Mss.

Syst. Linn. Triandria Digynia.


Flosculus inferior masculus, bivalvis, bivenius!

Gramen procerum, fluitans, caespitosum.

Culmi 3—4-stachyi. Folia longissima, acuminatissima, plana, venă centrali crassâ albâ. Ligula indivisa, dense ciliata. Diximus in memoriam b. Johannis Georgii Vossii, poëtae Germanorum dulcissimi, eru-

* In exemplaribus in horto botanico Calcutæ cultus natantia, oblongiora et teneriora.
Vossia procera. Wall. et Griff. Mss.


Folia lineari, ensiformia, basi subcordata, longissime subulato-acuminata, 2, 2½ pedalia, supra parce pubescentia, infra glabra, venæ centrali crassâ, albâ, supra planâ, subtus prominulâ, marginibus cartilagineis antrorsum denticulatis.


Interior navicularis, carinâ obliquâ a medio suprà scabra, breviter mucronata, irregulariter venosa, venæ centrali nunc incompleta, intermedii incompletis et saepius, præsertim spiculae sessilis, cum venæ centrali arcuatim confluentibus.

Paleæ flosculi exterioris masculi membranaceaes, complanatae, biveniae ! exterior apiculo brevi pubescente: marginibus mutuo involutis sub- ciliatis.


Stigmata ratione stylorum longa, ramis denticulatis. Caryopsis...

Spiculae stipitatae flosculi minores, et superior interior rarius hermaphroditus.

Obs. Genus habitu quodammodo Tripsaci, Hemarthrie accedens, sed discrepans preciptue pedicellis flosculorum exteriorum glumisque interioribus spicularum sessilium solutis, nec axi adnatis, flosculisque exterioribus bipalaeceis masculis, nec unipalaeceis neutris. Ab Ischæmo differt preciptue paleâ exterioiore flosculi hermaphroditi (superioris) muticâ.

**Panicum Brunonianum. Wall. et Griff. Mss.**

Panicula effusa, spiculis 1 vel 2 infimis sessilibus et in axis excavationibus seminidulantibus, reliquis egressis sèpissime solitariis, rachillâ in aristam spiculum duplo superantem productâ, foliis linearibus 3-veniis vaginisque glabris, ligulis 3-dentatis.

Hab. In aquis leniter currentibus profundis plagarum Bheels dictarum prope Goalnagar; florens Septembre.


This species belongs to the last section of this extensive genus, as given in Mr. Brown's Prodromus; it is interesting, as it seems to be the only species of the section hitherto found out of New Holland.
In the disposition of the sexes it agrees with Isachne, but differs from it in habit, in the relative size of its glumes, and in the consistency of its paleæ. From Chamæraphis this section differs only, we are told by Mr. Brown, in the number of its styles. The curious prolongation of the rachilla beyond the terminal spicula likewise occurs in some genuine Panica.

REFERENCES.

Plate XXIII. Vossia procera. Figs. 1, 2. Portions of a spike viewed on different faces. 3, Spicula detached. 4, Exterior glume viewed on its inner face. 5, Outer palea of the inner hermaphrodite flower three-veined (by a fault in the transfer the central vein in the original drawing has been left out.) 6, Inner palea of ditto two-veined. 7, Outer palea of exterior male flower, two-veined. 8, Inner ditto, two-veined. 9, Inner glume, viewed laterally and on its inner face. 10, Pollen. 11, Ovarium, or rather Pistillum, with the two lodicule and the three filaments in situ. 12, Outer view of lodicula. 13, Inner view of ditto, the lateral stamina separate with these. 14, Portion of a branch of the stigma.

Plate XXIV. Left half. Zizania? ciliaris. Fig. 1, Spicula. 2, Apex of pedicel, much enlarged. 3, Ditto with lower portion of the outer palea. 4, Lateral view of inner palea. 5, Lateral view of lodicule, stamia and pistillum; paleæ removed. 6, Pollen. 7, Pistillum. 8, Portion of a branch of the stigma. 9, Genitalia, relative situation, from a young spicula; authors removed, and the lodicule displaced.

The same plate, right half. Potamochloa Retzii. Fig. 1, Spicula with its pedicel, that of the second pedicel removed at the time of expansion. 2, Portion of the pedicel, shewing the construction. 3, Outer palea, dorsal face. 4, Inner ditto ditto. 5, Ovarium, stamia and lodicule, the two former in situ, the latter displaced. 6, Pollen. 7, Ovarium, styles and stigmata with the lodicule in situ. 8, One of the divisions of the stigma. 9, Lodicula, inner face.

VIII.—Notes on Delhi Point, Pulo-Tinghie, &c. and on some Pelagic Fossil remains, found in the rocks of Pulo-Ledah. By Wm. Bland, Esq. Surgeon H. M. S. Wolf.

[Accompanying specimens presented to the As. Soc. 4th July, and deposited in the Museum, next to those presented by Dr. Ward from Penang and Queda.]

Where the Malay peninsula terminates in the China sea, there is a tongue of land, called by the natives Delhi Point, somewhere about 104° E. longitude, for it is not very correctly laid down. Reefs are found here, running to the southward and eastward, upwards of a mile at low water. Along shore, for the space of two or three miles, is strewed with large masses of scoriae many feet thick, hard, and emitting a metallic sound. Specimens Nos. 1 and 4 will show the kind of vesicular masses mentioned; long lines of perpendicular strata are found stretching generally parallel to the shore, from three to
eighteen inches in thickness, of which No. 6 is a specimen. Indurated clayslate, No. 9, is likewise seen in layers running parallel, and in juxta-position to Nos. 1 and 2, of a few inches in breadth. Quartz was found, No. 5, in layers from one to two inches in thickness, accompanying the others and occasionally crossing them, and again continuing its course: imbedded masses of siliceous matter occurred both in the scoriæ and in the strata. A nucleus, five or six feet in diameter, was examined, which presented the appearance as if lava in a liquid form had been forced up from below, with a gyrating motion; circular layers having different shades of colour becoming wider and more extended, and were found edging away into straight lines parallel to the other strata. Of the tube marked No. 2, many were found from half an inch to two inches diameter; whilst No. 3 was got at the outer edge of the stratification. Of the remarkable specimen No. 10, abundance were seen, always standing up an edge: above the general level, and occasionally many feet in length, a piece might be found large enough to furnish forth the reticulations of a good-sized Gothic window.

At the N.E. point of the reef, within a few yards of the sandy beach, and dry at low water, was found a fossil tree, of which No. 11 is a specimen, standing at least 15 feet high and of considerable diameter, attached to a mass of rock of the same kind, and so good was the resemblance to a decayed tree, that some of the seamen called out, 'Come and see a tree grilled into stone by the heat.' The fossil in question must have been in a decayed state previous to its exposure to the mineralizing process, and it is the more remarkable, as it now stands, to all appearance, as it originally stood when alive:—it is the same as No. 9, composed of argillaceous schist. A specimen of coral No. 7, which has been exposed to the same general igneous agency as the masses scattered around, and found in the masses themselves, Madrepore No. 8, but the whole of the reef has coral of recent growth scattered over it, in all states and ages. Our stay on this point only extended to a few hours: little opportunity was given for minute observation, but it is a field well worthy the attention of future travellers in that quarter.

Pulo-Tinghie will be found in the charts to the northward and easterd of Delhi Point: this island rises to a considerable altitude, and terminates in a graceful truncated cone, with a lower cone seen to the southward of the former. The general surface presents irregular ridges radiating from the cone as a centre, running down to the circumference, i.e. the water's edge, which disposition of surface often obtains in volcanic islands. Be this, however, as it may; we found Pulo-
Tonghie densely covered with jungle, most difficult to penetrate, without more time than our public duties permitted; hence the specimens are not numerous, and were found along shore, generally from masses lying about. No stratum was seen. The island terminates to the eastward in a high reddish coloured cliff, but at which we had no opportunity of landing.

Nine specimens marked Pigeon island, from a moderately high and cliffy islet some miles to the southward of Pulo-Tonghie, obtaining its name from the abundance of a fine cream-coloured pigeon, having the wings and tail tipped with black; the same bird which is found on the small islands on the Tenasserim coast. No. 25, from a large mass partly beneath the surface of the sea. 21, high cliffs around, as well as No. 22.

Returning from the eastward, we had an opportunity of examining a group of small islands called Pulo-Romania. These islets, about two miles to the southward of Point Romania on the Malay peninsula, are partially covered with wood, and appear to be formed chiefly of granite of two kinds, which was seen chequered by fissures in all directions, and intersected by Nos. 34 and 35, found standing above the general level in narrow ridges, the granite being more easily disintegrated than the intersections themselves. No. 31 found in layers of various thickness, and No. 29 in large irregular masses some 15 feet in length, on shore or partly immersed in the sea.

Enclosed are thirty specimens, from a remarkable group of islands, lying between Jan Salang, (Junk Ceylon) and Pulo-Pinang, parallel to the kingdom of Quédah and in sight of the mainland. Passing over many islands visited, all of which will be found worthy the attention of the geologist, and the ornithologist, as well as the conchologist, I shall only mention Pulo-Ledah, as one of considerable importance, from the circumstance of pelagic fossil remains being found in the rocks.

Pulo-Ledah dedarat, literally in the Malay language, 'Tongue island in shore,' to distinguish this from another Pulo-Ledah de laut, or 'Tongue island at sea.' This island is about a mile and a half in circumference, and rises to the height of 4 or 500 feet, crowned by a castellated looking rock with perpendicular strata: the whole appears composed of limestone, having a considerable proportion of siliceous matter deposited in it, with veins of quartz a few inches in breadth occasionally intersecting it. The general rock was found stratified from one to three or four feet in thickness, lying at an angle about 45° dipping to the eastward; all the surface, wherever exposed, is rough and uneven, of which Nos. 15 and 24 are specimens. Numerous caverns were found whose roofs not being so exposed were more smooth,
which caves have been evidently formed by the action of the waves impinging against the rocks; which action is still going on in certain situations. Some caverns were situated higher up, and not now exposed to the same agency, but it was noticed in a few of them that the entrances were smooth, similar to those in various parts of the world, which have been used, and smoothed down by the ingress and egress of wild animals: it turned out, however, in this case, that the agent that had worn these entrances was man himself, for these caves furnish him with troglodytic abodes during the season for collecting the nests of the Hirundo esculenta.

Your attention may be more particularly called to the north side of Pulo-Ledah, where will be found large masses of the same rock, from 20 to 30 feet in length and breadth, and 10 feet in thickness, lying in juxta-position, and no doubt originally deposited en masse, but having been raised unequally, have been broken into their present form and appearance. These masses were found rich in fossil remains; quantities of testaceous deposits were seen in all directions, partly above the general surface, undergoing disintegration along with the matrix in which they were imbedded. Of the fossil nautilus, No. 16, many were seen, as well as some others, concerning which some doubt may remain whether or not they are ammonites. As to the nautilus no doubt can exist, for the plain concave septæ dividing the chambers of the shell are well marked, with the siphuncle in the middle. Had time and better tools permitted, better specimens would have been procured; but the matrix was found very indurated, and it requires time to take such specimens out of hard stone, in a perfect state. The labourer, always worthy of his hire, would here be richly repaid for his time and trouble.

I add the rough sketch of a shell as it was found lying in the matrix, and of the natural size, which gives a tolerable idea of its general appearance. Siliceous cylinders No. 22, occur frequently, and a back bone was found in a fossilized state: from the round cup-like appearance of the vertebra, it is most probably that of a fish.

Pulo-Ledah is one of the Lancavies, as well as Pulo-Trotto, (Giant's island,) an island, high, mountainous, and worthy of being better known; and Pulo-Tloer (Egg island) is a small one; but the whole of the islands in question will be found interesting, as on this subject of fossil remains many of your correspondents in India are devoting their time and attention with great success. I am sorry our time among the islands mentioned was so limited, but it is enough that I have pointed them out as a field worthy of future research, as well as the main land opposite.
IX.—Fossil Remains of the smaller Carnivora from the Sub-Himálayas.


The specimens which are the subject of the following note form a part of the Dadúpír Collection, and comprise varieties of the genera, Felis, Canis, and Gulo.

The comparison of such, with their existing representatives, must necessarily be less satisfactory than that of the large Pachydermatous genera, which being local in their habitats either contain few species, as the Elephant, Hippopotamus, and Tapir, or when, as in the Rhinoceros, the varieties are more numerous, the size of the animals, and the striking peculiarities of their osteology have claimed for them a minute description and comparison from Cuvier. On the other hand, the smaller carnivorous tribes have a far wider distribution, and their species are as numerous and as varied as the climates under which they are found; their distinctions are chiefly drawn from the external characters of the animals. Minute differences in their osteology, if they exist at all, escape the attention of the naturalists who describe them, and would, in fact, possess little interest except for the fossilist.

We should not be warranted in pronouncing any particular fossil to belong to an extinct species, without having previously compared it with all the known varieties of its genus; and even were such extensive means of comparison in our power, its result could not be decisive*, so long as there remained unexplored regions, whence new varieties might be derived. We shall, therefore, content ourselves with negative conclusions drawn from comparison of our fossils, with the skulls of those species only of their existing congeners now inhabiting the neighbouring districts, none other being at our command. Such conclusions, we hope, will not be without geological interest; as, if we succeed in establishing one or two points of marked difference, they will be sufficient proof that the animals now inhabiting these provinces are not the lineal descendants of those whose remains are entombed in the strata of their soil, and thence may be inferred the occurrence of some great geological change during the lapse of ages, which have intervened between the periods of their several existence.

Felis.

Of this genus there are traces of several varieties among our fossils, but as the larger ones, with the Hyena and Canis, may form the subject

* For instance, in the 52nd No. of the Journal As. Soc. Mr. Hodgson describes two new species of Gulo and one of Felis.
of a future paper, we will confine our present notice to the Cat. The cranium represented in fig. 1, Pl. XXVII. though somewhat mutilated, is sufficiently perfect for comparison. The most serious injury which it has sustained (as being the only one affecting the measurements) is a slight crush or compression, which has apparently flattened, and perhaps widened the cranium. The proportions between the fossil and the skull of a common-sized wild or jungle cat are as follows:—the length from posterior of occipital condyle to anterior of canine tooth being taken as the unit or modulus, and those dimensions only being collated, in which the greatest differences exist. The two skulls may be understood to correspond in other respects.

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<tr>
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<th>Recent</th>
<th>Fossil</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length from post. of occipital condyle to ant. of canine tooth, assumed at</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth of cranium opposite mastoid processes,</td>
<td>1,508</td>
<td>1,581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of occiput from lower margin of foramen magnum to top of transverse ridge,</td>
<td>1,291</td>
<td>1,333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across the occipital condyles,</td>
<td>1,267</td>
<td>1,346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto measured externally across most prominent part of line of molars,</td>
<td>1,427</td>
<td>1,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of orbit perpendicular, but measured in plane of orbit's margin,</td>
<td>1,289</td>
<td>1,257</td>
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The differences of proportion exhibited by the foregoing comparison are, as will be seen, very trivial. Setting aside the excess in breadth of the fossil's cranium, which if not caused is at least exaggerated by the crush before alluded to, there will remain no remarkable points of difference except in the diameter of the orbit, and in the width across the occipital condyles. The other variations probably exceed not what may be detected in the skulls of cats belonging to one species. There are, however, other differences of form not shewn by the measurements. In the fossil, the post. orbitary apophysis is more developed, and the plane of its projection more continuous with that of the frontal bone. The depression of the cranium in rear of this apophysis is more marked, giving a greater width to the temporal fossæ;—the bullæ of the mastoid processes have a more elongated shape, and are generally larger; and the transverse ridge of the occipital bone is higher, sharper, and more prominent. All, or nearly all, these differences, tend to shew a greater development of the predacious faculties in the fossil,—a circumstance further confirmed by the teeth, which, though precisely corresponding in form with those of the cat, are somewhat larger and stronger.

The lower jaw occupying the central place in fig. 2, must have
Sub-Himalayan Fossil Remains of the Smaller Carnivora.
belonged to a smaller animal than that which owned the cranium: it presents no difference worthy of note, from the lower jaw of the wild cat. The humerus, tibia, and metatarsal bones, forming part of this interesting little group, appear to have belonged to the same individual as the lower jaw, and it is curious enough that their present bond of connection is the plate of a small crocodile. The carpal, metacarpal and phalangal bones represented in fig. 3, obtained from the same locality, though at different times, may possibly be assigned to the same or a similar animal.

**Gulo.**

Of this genus we possess the fossil skulls of two individuals, one of which, represented in fig. 4, is nearly perfect: the lower jaws have been separated at their symphysis and otherwise somewhat mutilated, but as they were not found attached to the cranium, we may consider ourselves fortunate in having obtained them at all. The second cranium, fig. 7, has suffered considerable mutilation, and is without the lower jaws: we have, however, inserted it in the plate, because though otherwise less perfect, it has escaped a crush, which appears to have flattened fig. 4. Some differences of proportion between the two fossils would be accounted for under this supposition.

The recent skulls with which we have compared the above mentioned fossils belong to an animal known by the Hindustani name *Biju* บรุ มิเดด, identical, or nearly so, with the Cape *Ratel*, (*Gulo Copensis*, Desm.)

In classing the *Biju* and *Ratel* under genus *Gulo*, we follow the common system of arrangement; though, as remarked by Cuvier*, both the number and character of their teeth would rather place them with the *Mustela Putorius*. They appear, in fact, to be indebted to their plantigrade motion alone for a place among the *Gluttons*. The fossils now under consideration correspond in dentition with the *Ratel* and *Biju*, and the following table will shew that their resemblance to the latter in most other respects is very strong.

* Il convient d'autant mieux de comparer le *Ratel* au *Glouton*, que ces deux quadrupèdes sont à peu près de même taille; mais outre que le *Glouton* a six molaires de plus que le *Ratel*, le crâne de celui-ci est plus large en arrière, son front moins élevé, son orbite moins cerné, ses arêtes zygomatiques moins hautes, et l'apophyse coronoïde de sa mâchoire inférieure beaucoup moins haute, plus large, et plus obtuse. Les rapports du *Ratel* avec le puitois, d'après ses dents et sa tête, sont certainement plus importans que les différences de marche. Ossae mens fossiles.—Tom. IV. Chap. VI.
Fossil remains of the smaller Carnivora

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Recent Biju</th>
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<td>Fig. 4.—Fig. 7.</td>
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| Extreme length from posterior of occipital condyles to anterior of incisors, taken as the modulus, and assumed at 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Breadth measured across mastoid processes | 0.581 | 0.592 | 0.610 |
| Greatest breadth of cranium opposite mastoid processes | 0.457 | 0.443 | 0.474 |
| Least ditto ditto at temporal fossae | 0.226 | 0.258 | 0.262 |
| Height of occiput from inf. margin of foramen magnum to sup. of occipital ridge | 0.318 | 0.307 | 0.343 |
| Breadth of ditto from point to point of styloid processes | 0.335 | 0.361 | 0.394 |
| Ditto across the occipital condyles | 0.243 | 0.241 | 0.249 |
| Ditto of frontal from point to point of post. orbitary apophyses | 0.296 | 0.327 | 0.313 |
| Ditto greatest across zygomatic arches | 0.546 | 0.543 | 0.561 |
| Ditto exteriorly across the superior canine teeth | 0.220 | 0.238 | 0.236 |
| Perpendicular diameter of occipital foramen | 0.088 | 0.091 | 0.108 |
| Length from anterior of canine teeth to post. of tuberculous teeth, measured externally | 0.292 | 0.287 | 0.287 |
| Breadth of upper jaw measured across carnivorous molars | 0.347 | 0.339 | 0.325 |
| Greatest antero-posterior diameter of canine teeth | 0.038 | 0.071 | 0.067 |
| Width of tuberculous molars | 0.081 | 0.073 | 0.069 |

The two fossils, though differing considerably from each other, agree in the following points of dissimilarity from the recent skull. Their canine teeth are larger and stronger, and their tuberculous molars smaller; the two lines of molars converge towards the muzzle considerably less in the fossil than in the recent, and the individual false molars are set less obliquely to the line of maxillary. The frontal is wider between the orbits; the post. orbitary aloposes more prominent, and the depression of the cranium in rear of them less deep; the exterior portion of the mastoid processes has a far greater development (fig. 8); the transverse occipital ridge is thicker, more rugged and more prominent, and projects considerably beyond the plane of the occiput in the prolongation of that of the parietal bones (fig. 5). Measurements of the recent and fossil lower jaws exhibit no differences save in the canine teeth, which severally correspond with the same teeth in the upper jaw. There is, however, in the fossil (fig. 6) a deep depression in the ramus, which in the recent species is nearly flat. In our specimen this depression is as marked as in the tiger and other feline animals. The differences above noted, as before remarked with regard to the cat, tend to prove that the ancient species was even more powerful and savage than its present representative, the Biju itself, by no means deficient in these qualities. The three recent skulls examined on this occasion had all suffered more or less from the violence to which the vigorous self-defence of the animals had obliged their captors to resort.

Canis Vulpes.

The specimen represented in figs. 9 and 10, though fortunate in possessing both lines of molars complete, has suffered much from a
crush by which the whole posterior portion of the head has been flattened and disfigured. The dimensions selected for comparison in the following table are those least likely to be affected by the accident. Our recent specimen belongs to an adult male fox, of a species common in the N. W. provinces of India. Its size, the colour of its fur, and other external characters, appear to correspond with the description of C. Corsac (Pallas), which Cuvier is inclined to identify with C. Bengalensis of Pennant—figured also in "Hardwicke's Illustrations," Pl. II. Parts XV. and XVI.

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Recent.</th>
<th>Fossil.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length from occipital condyle to anterior of canine, taken as modulus, and assumed at</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth measured across mastoid processes,</td>
<td>1,390</td>
<td>1,433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least breadth of cranium at the temporal fossa,</td>
<td>2,056</td>
<td>2,065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth from point to point of styloid processes,</td>
<td>2,253</td>
<td>2,298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto across occipital condyles,</td>
<td>2,020</td>
<td>2,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of frontal from point to point of post. orbital apophyses,</td>
<td>2,257</td>
<td>2,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth measured externally across both lines of molars,</td>
<td>2,338</td>
<td>2,319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal diameter of occipital foramen,</td>
<td>1,130</td>
<td>1,133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length occupied by line of molars and canine taken together,</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>4,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto molars alone,</td>
<td>4,110</td>
<td>4,150</td>
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The chief differences here exhibited are those of greater breadth in the posterior portion of the fossil's head, and must, though they appear natural, be liable to the suspicion of having been caused more or less by the crush before alluded to; but there are some points of dissimilarity which must be considered free from this objection. The transverse occipital ridge is thicker and higher in the fossil; the post. orbital apophyses are altogether broader and more prominent; the hollow or depression in their upper surface, forming a valley between the outer edge of the apophysis and the swell of the frontal, (constituting one of the distinctions between the fox and the other varieties of canis) is in the fossil more marked. From the rear of these apophyses start two ridges, which at first converge towards the occiput in a curvilinear direction, until the distance between them is reduced to about half an inch, after which they run nearly parallel for some distance, and then converge again, till they unite near the occiput and become blended with the parietal crest. We have been particular in describing this formation, as a very similar one was observed by Cuvier in the skull of the "Renard Tricolor," C. cinereo-argenteus, Linn. It will be observed from the table of measurements, that the length occupied by the molars and canine teeth together is less in the fossil, while that occupied by the molars alone is proportionally greater. This difference is only apparent, and is caused by the ad-
Fossil remains from the Sub-Himalayas. [SEPT.

vanced position of the first false molar close to the root of the canine; the tooth is probably a deciduous one, not yet replaced by the permanent molar; the unworn state of the other teeth also attesting the youth of the fossil, at the period of its demise. The lower jaws, figs. 11 and 12, are not sufficiently perfect to afford any satisfactory measurements. Fig. 11 is the external view of the left; and fig. 12 the internal of the right lower jaw.

To the foregoing observations we have nothing further to add than that, in our opinion, they point out sufficient proof of specific differences between the several objects compared; but, for the reasons before adduced, we must limit our conclusions to this, and cannot therefore venture upon giving new names to our fossil species.

Measurement of Fossil Skulls, &c. represented in Plate XXVIII. figs. 1 to 10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Detail of Measurement</th>
<th>Felis fig. 1.</th>
<th>Felis fig. 2.</th>
<th>Gulo figs. 4 &amp; 5 &amp; 6</th>
<th>Gulo fig. 7.</th>
<th>C. Vol. 9 &amp; 10.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extreme length from post. of occipital condyles to anterior of incisor teeth,</td>
<td>3,50 ins.</td>
<td>5,51 ins.</td>
<td>5,08 inches</td>
<td>4,09 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto ditto canine ditto,</td>
<td>3,27 ins.</td>
<td>5,13 ins.</td>
<td>4,86 inches</td>
<td>3,83 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth measured across mastoid processes,</td>
<td>1,67 ins.</td>
<td>3,26 ins.</td>
<td>3,10 inches</td>
<td>1,66 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth of cranium opposite mastoid processes,</td>
<td>1,93 ins.</td>
<td>2,44 ins.</td>
<td>2,13 inches</td>
<td>1,71 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Least ditto ditto at temporal fossei,</td>
<td>1,23 ins.</td>
<td>1,42 ins.</td>
<td>1,33 inches</td>
<td>0,79 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of occiput from lower margin of occipital foramen to top of transverse ridge,</td>
<td>1,00 ins.</td>
<td>1,69 ins.</td>
<td>1,74 inches</td>
<td>0,90 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth from point to point of styloid processes,</td>
<td>1,00 ins.</td>
<td>1,99 ins.</td>
<td>2,00 inches</td>
<td>1,14 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto across the occipital condyles,</td>
<td>1,13 ins.</td>
<td>1,33 ins.</td>
<td>1,26 inches</td>
<td>0,95 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of frontal from point to point of post. orbital apophyses,</td>
<td>2,72 ins.</td>
<td>2,99 ins.</td>
<td>2,85 inches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth across zygomatic arches,</td>
<td>1,80 ins.</td>
<td>1,59 ins.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth measured externally across superior canine teeth,</td>
<td>1,00 ins.</td>
<td>1,31 ins.</td>
<td>1,20 inches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto most prominent points of line of molars,</td>
<td>1,60 ins.</td>
<td>1,87 ins.</td>
<td>1,65 inches</td>
<td>1,22 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpendicular diameter of occipital foramen,</td>
<td>0,45 ins.</td>
<td>0,50 ins.</td>
<td>0,55 inches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal ditto ditto,</td>
<td>0,55 ins.</td>
<td>0,62 ins.</td>
<td>0,60 inches</td>
<td>0,51 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length from exterior of incisors to anterior of palatal sinus,</td>
<td>1,52 ins.</td>
<td>2,40 ins.</td>
<td>2,00 inches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from anterior of palatal sinus to lower margin of occipital foramen,</td>
<td>1,68 ins.</td>
<td>2,56 ins.</td>
<td>2,70 inches</td>
<td>2,05 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto occupied by molars and canine teeth, taken together,</td>
<td>1,24 ins.</td>
<td>1,58 ins.</td>
<td>1,46 inches</td>
<td>1,80 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diameter of orbit perpendicular, but measured in plane of orbit's margin,</td>
<td>0,81 ins.</td>
<td>0,62 ins.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,58 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from point of post. orbital apophysis to ant. margin of orbit,</td>
<td>0,79 ins.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,74 inches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest antero-posterior diameter of canine tooth,</td>
<td>0,19 ins.</td>
<td>0,39 ins.</td>
<td>0,54 inches</td>
<td>0,18 inches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Width of tuberculous tooth, (in Felis and Gulo,)</td>
<td>0,14 ins.</td>
<td>0,40 ins.</td>
<td>0,35 inches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lower Jaw.—Length from posterior of condyle to anterior of canine, | 2,13 ins. | 3,20 ins. | 3,20 inches |             |                 |
| Ditto from ditto ditto posterior of molars, | 0,98 ins. | 1,48 ins. |             |             |                 |
| Ditto occupied by molars and canine teeth, taken together, | 1,19 ins. | 1,74 ins. |             |             |                 |
| Ditto ditto molars alone, | 0,78 ins. | 1,37 ins. |             |             |                 |
| Depth of lower jaw taken in front of carnivorous tooth, | 0,44 ins. | 0,67 ins. | 0,45 inches |             |                 |
| Greatest antero-posterior diameter of canine tooth, | 0,20 ins. | 0,38 ins. | 0,13 inches |             |                 |

In a comparison of the heights of the Barometer with the position of the moon in declination, (See Journal, May, 1835,) I stated that it appeared, that though the greatest depressions coincided, or nearly so, with the times of the moon's maximum declination, yet that many of the greatest elevations held a similar situation. To ascertain whether this idea was well-founded, the daily barometric heights were taken from the 4 p.m. column of the Meteorological Registers of the Journal; then the differences either in excess or defect from the monthly mean, were noted and placed in different columns according to the state of the moon in declination, as given in the Nautical Almanacks for noon of the same day. Then the average of each column was taken for the year, and continuing the process for the 13 years of which the Meteorological Registers are extant, a general average was finally taken of the whole, which came out as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moon's Decl.</th>
<th>25°</th>
<th>20°</th>
<th>15°</th>
<th>10°</th>
<th>5°</th>
<th>0°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average amt. of variation from the monthly mean,</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
<td>-0.54</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If it be objected that this difference, between the two extremes of the line, of -0.08, be small, we may answer that small as it is, it is nearly 1/10 of the whole amount. The heights of the barometer at London for a period of 24 years were then examined in a similar manner, only that instead of classing the differences in columns according to the number of degrees of the moon's declination on the same day, they were classed according to the distance of the day on which the observation was taken, from the day of maximum declination. Thus, the number of days from maximum north to maximum south declination being nearly 14, the differences were arranged in 14 columns, numbered in this way:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14

and as a whole revolution from one time of maximum declination to its succeeding one is something less than 28 days, a column was occasionally left blank to keep the maxima always in the 1st and 14th. This method is rather less troublesome than the former one adopted, but it does not answer so well for a long series of years, as the moon's maximum declination is very different in different years:—for example, in 1820, it was between 28° and 29°, and in 1829, between 18° and 19°. The average, therefore, was taken for the six years in which the declination was greatest, viz. 1818, 1819, 1820, 1821, 1822, 1823. The maximum declination was then always above 25°,
Continuation of a Paper on Heights of Barometer, &c. [Sept.

so that the first column would correspond with the left-hand column of the former classification. North and south declination were then put together, and the results came out thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average amount of variation from the mean,</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average was next taken for nine years, in which the declination was at a medium, say between 21° and 21°, so that the first column would nearly correspond with the second column of the former classification; the seventh column being, as before, that on which the declination was least. The years were 1814, 1815, 1816, 1817, 1824, 1825, 1826, 1833, 1834, and the results were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average amount of variation from the mean,</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average was again taken for nine years, in which the declination was least, viz. between 21° and 18°; that is to say, 1810, 1811, 1812, 1813, 1828, 1829, 1830, 1831, 1832. The first column, in this case, would nearly correspond with the third in the classification of the Calcutta barometer. The results were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average amount of variation from the mean,</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this last case no increase of variation is perceptible towards the maximum, but then the maximum did not usually exceed 20°, or at the most 21°.

I have as yet said nothing about the perigee, because it has been proved in Europe that the perigee produces some effect on the weather. With a view to ascertain whether the effect produced was the same as that occasioned by the increase of declination, I took the same variations of the London barometer, as before, for 24 years, and arranged them in different columns according to the state of the moon's semi-diameter on the days on which they were taken. The general average came out thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D's ½ diam.</th>
<th>1000°</th>
<th>990°</th>
<th>980°</th>
<th>970°</th>
<th>960°</th>
<th>950°</th>
<th>940°</th>
<th>930°</th>
<th>920°</th>
<th>910°</th>
<th>900°</th>
<th>890°</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Here there appears a tendency to an increase of variation with an increase of semi-diameter; but on examining the differences of the Calcutta barometer, no such increase could be made apparent. It remains, therefore, in doubt whether, in this climate, such an increase does exist—or whether, owing to some mistake, yet undetected, it has not been made apparent. I am inclined to the latter supposition—from this consideration—1st, If no increase exists, no results could be traced from it; 2ndly, If an increase exists, though not, at
present, apparent, some remote results would probably be observed, which might be ascribed to it, as their cause.

Thus, with an increase in the variation of the heights of the barometer, an increase both of dryness and moisture would follow. As an increase of variation also attends an increase in declination, it is probable that the greatest effect would be perceived when the two causes were in co-operation together. Now as there are certain years in which the moon's perigee fell on the same day with her maximum declination, either north or south, it is probable that, in those years, the extremes of weather, both of dryness and moisture, would be experienced. Is this then the case? Are those years in which the day of perigee is the same as the day of maximum declination, also those in which the extremes both of drought and moisture occur! By such results let these speculations be tried. For our present purpose, which is only to obtain some useful indications, the difference between an absolute error and a barren verity is not worth mentioning.

XI.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 5th October, 1836.

The Rev. Dr. Mill, Vice-President, in the chair.

Lieutenants Newbold and S. Tickell, proposed at the last meeting, were balloted for, and duly elected Members of the Society.

Mr. Vincent Tregear, proposed at the last meeting, was, upon the favourable report of the Committee of Papers, unanimously elected an honorary member.

Mr. G. F. MacClintock was proposed by Mr. Macnaghten, seconded by Dr. Mill.

The Secretary then read the Report of the Committee of Papers on Mr. C. Brownlow's proposition relative to the publication of the Ali'f Leilà.

[See above.]

Resolved—that the Society approve and adopt the Report of the Committee:—that it feels honored by Mr. Brownlow's desire to publish the work under its auspices; and that in addition to its own subscription, the prospectus shall be circulated among individual members, and the patronage of the Government shall be respectfully solicited to Mr. Brownlow's undertaking.

Library.

The following books were presented:—

A Discourse concerning the influence of America on the mind, being the Annual Oration delivered before the American Philosophical Society on the 18th October, 1823, by C. J. Ingersoll, Esq.—by the Society.

Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Nouveaux Choix des Poésies Originales des Troubadours; by M. Raynouard—by the Author.

Opinions on various subjects, dedicated to the Industrious Producers; by Wm. MacBere, Esq.—by the Author.

The Indian Journal of Medical and Physical Science—by F. Corblyn, Esq. Editor.

Gay's Fables translated into Bengali Poetry, by Mahárája Kali Kissén Behand—by the Translator.

Conclusion of the Guldestah, or Nosegay of Pleasure, by Múnshí Mannu' La'l—by the Author.

Map of the Indus River and of the neighbouring countries, from the recent surveys, compiled in the Surveyor General's Office—by Mr. Tassin.

Royle's Himalayan Botany, 9th part—from the booksellers.

Read a letter from the treasurer of the Academy at Bordeaux, Mr. Dutrouilles, forwarding by the hands of Dri. Lavergne a packet of seeds for the Botanic Garden of Calcutta, and requesting in return such seeds from Tibet or other colder parts of India as are likely to thrive in France.

The seeds have been made over to Dr. Wallowich, who will kindly reply on the subject to Bordeaux.

Literary and Antiquarian.

An account of some of the Petty States lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces, drawn up from the journals and reports of Dr. Richardson, was submitted by Mr. E. A. Blundell, Commissioner of these new provinces; also a sketch of the history of Labong, by the same.

Capt. A. Cunningham, Engineers, A. D. C., presented to the Society the very extensive collection of statues and other specimens of Buddha sculpture discovered by him in his exploration of the well known monument or tope in the road between Ghazipur and Benares. The following note on these interesting relics was read.

"The stone figures, bas-reliefs, and inscriptions were all found near Sárnáth, a Buddhist monument about eight miles from Benares. The greater number were dug up within a small space of 10 feet square, and nearly all in an upright position side by side. Along with them were 40 or 50 others now lying near Sárnáth, and which were left behind from their being of the same description as those now presented to the Society, and from their being in a less perfect state, and from their wanting inscriptions.

I learned from a village that when Jagat Singh the Dewan of Chéth Singh, Rája of Benares, was digging near Sárnáth for building materials for the ganj which now bears his name, his workmen lighted on a small temple the walls of which they carried away—and it was within that temple that these figures were then seen; but owing to some superstitious feelings on the part of the workmen, no steps were taken at the time for their removal.

The three seated female figures, one bearing an inscription, were found in the ruins of a small temple consisting of only two rooms, and the long bas-relief containing the alligator's heads was discovered in a stone tank 13 feet nine inches square, upon clearing away the rubbish from the pukka terrace which surrounded it.

I am induced to offer these figures to the Society, in the hope that the inscriptions upon their pedestals may be translated, and help to throw some light upon the Buddhist religion, as well as upon Sárnáth and the ruins of the different buildings in its neighbourhood."

The special thanks of the Society were voted to Capt. Cunningham for this valuable contribution to the Museum.

Physical.

The Secretary presented on the part of Mr. Dean, Assoc. Mem., some fine fossil specimens lately obtained by him from the bed or banks of the Jumna river.
Mr. DEAN had maintained for some time an envoy to explore such parts of the river as he had not been able himself to examine. Out of the produce of this adventure he had selected the specimens now transmitted, because they served to settle the question of the existence of three animals in a fossil state, which had hitherto been doubtful,—or rather which had been for the first time advanced with hesitation from his former collections in the Jumna;—the camel, the buffalo, and the antelope.

They consist of the femur and cranium of the fossil buffalo, about one-sixth larger than the present race;—fragment of the femur of a camel; cores of the horns of an antelope, and waterworn portions of the horn of the axis.

To make the recognition of these fossils as clear as possible, Mr. DEAN had placed side by side of each the corresponding recent bone, so that no doubt could remain of their identity. The splendid discoveries in the Sivalik range have meantime removed all uncertainty on the subject, and have even pointed out two distinct species in the fossil camel, on which a paper has just been printed in the Researches.

A paper by Messrs. FALCONER and CAUTLEY was submitted on the fossil bear of the Sivalik range, with drawings pointing out variations from the existing species.

The knowledge of this animal is derived from two fine fragments of the head. The chief peculiarities are observable in the teeth, which are constructed more after the type of the higher carnivora than any other described species of the genus.

A paper entitled "Some remarks on the development of Pollen," was submitted by Dr. W. GRIFFITH, Mad. Est.

Indications of a new genus of insessorial birds—by Mr. B. H. HODGSON.

A Table of the breadth, current, and depth of the river Satlej, from Hari kē patan to its junction with the Indus at Mithankot, was communicated by Capt. C. M. WADE.

Also a note on the spring of Lohand Khāz—by the same officer.

Two large cases containing a fine collection of butterflies, moths and other insects from Silhet, was presented by Mr. GEORGE LOCH, C. S.

Observations concerning certain interesting phenomena manifested in individuals born blind, on their restoration to sight, were communicated by Dr. F. H. BRETT.


The Committee having deputed the examination of Major MACAN's manuscript to those of its Members most eminent for their knowledge of the Arabic language and literature, think it will be more satisfactory to submit the separate minutes of those gentlemen to the Society than to embody them in a general report.

They are unanimous in their opinion of the genuineness, general correctness, and value of the manuscript, as well as in advocating the support of Mr. BROWNLOW's undertaking: and they think the patronage of the Government should also be respectfully solicited. For the correction of the press, they believe Mr. BROWNLOW to have made the best arrangement;—nevertheless, as he has solicited permission to publish the work under the auspices of the Society, it may be proper that a file of the sheets as printed should be furnished to the Secretary to be occasionally submitted to Members of the Committee and other competent judges of their accuracy. They consider the price fixed by Mr. BROWNLOW, 48 Company's rupees, for four royal octavo volumes of 600 pages, to be very moderate, and they trust he will experience the advantage of it in a full list of subscribers.

For the Committee,

J. PRINSEP, Secy.
Minute by Mr. W. H. Macnaghten.

Of the genuineness of Mr. Brownlow's manuscript, there cannot, I think, be the slightest doubt. I have compared the third volume of the "Contes Inédits," by M. Trebutien, with the fourth volume of the manuscript, and, as far as I can judge from reading three or four of the commencing and concluding pages, and looking over some of the intermediate pages of each of the six last tales, I believe that they correspond almost exactly.

I have also carefully looked through the third volume of the MSS. The anecdotes which are at the end of the third volume of the French translation, are contained in this volume; but they do not, in the Arabic MSS. appear to be so numerous. They are chiefly introduced between the stories styled "Histoire d'Adjib et de Gherib," (the last story of the first volume of Trebutien,) and that styled "Des ruses de Dalilah et de la fille Zeinub," (the first story of the second volume of Trebutien.)

I have not had time to compare all the "Anecdotes." They are not entered in the same order as in the French version, owing to which the comparison would necessarily be a work of time—but I have been able to compare the anecdotes styled "Divorce et second mariage de Hind fille de Naaman," page 464, and that styled "Conduite du Vizier Ibn Amir," page 487, and I find that they minutely correspond with the Arabic MSS.

On comparing the story styled "Histoire d' Abdallah l' habitant de la Mer et d' Abdallah l' habitant de la Terre," I was much struck with the mutilated state of the story as contained in the French version. I subjoin a version in English of the French and of the Arabic stories. It will be seen at once, how much the former has been shorn of its fair proportions.

**Story of Abdallah the inhabitant of the Sea, and of Abdallah the inhabitant of the Land.**

There was once a fisherman, called Abdallah, who was father of a numerous family. All his riches consisted in his nets, with which he went every day to the sea shore to supply the wants of his family; he lived in this way from day to day. His wife was confined for the tenth time of a boy: that very day there was nothing at all in their house. The wife told her husband to take his nets, and to throw to the good luck of the newborn. The fisherman took his nets, and threw them in with prayers for the happiness of his son. When he drew them out the first time, they were filled with sand, gravel, reeds, and mud, and he did not find even one single fish. It was the same also the second and third time. In vain did the poor fisherman try another place: the night overtook him before he had caught the least thing.

"Great God!" cried he, "is this the luck of my new born! has thou created him that there may be no happiness for him! It cannot be so: he who has opened his lips to form a mouth, has taken care of his existence." Overcome with sadness, he threw his nets upon his shoulders and slowly took the way to his dwelling, thinking what he could say to his starving children and his lying-in wife. He passed before the shop of a baker where he was wont to buy bread. Seduced by the smell of the hot bread, poor Abdallah stopped before the shop, and cast looks of starvation on the bread just brought from the oven. "Do you wish for bread?" asked the baker of him. "I would willingly have some for my poor children," replied the fisherman, "but I have no money to pay for it, for I have not caught a single fish to-day: nevertheless, if you are willing, I will leave my nets in pledge." "How," replied the baker, "could you earn money to pay me, if you leave me your nets in pledge? Still, here are ten loaves, what you are accustomed to take, and, moreover, ten pieces of money which I lend you. If...
you are successful in your fishing to-morrow, you will pay me, and if not I will give you credit." "God will reward you," said the fisherman, taking the ten loaves: and he went to the market to buy some vegetables. The next morning he went out very early, and threw his nets all the day without catching anything. In returning home that evening he did not dare to approach the baker's shop; but the latter having seen him, called him and gave him, as he had done the night before, ten loaves and ten pieces of money. Things went on in this way for forty days, and the fisherman was in despair to see his debts thus increasing without any means of discharging them. The forty-first day he said to his wife, "I am going to tear my nets in pieces; because I see that I ought no longer to reckon on gaining my livelihood in that manner. I am ashamed of being such a burden to the baker, and I must do some other business to pay what I owe." "God is great," replied the wife; "and since he has given us such a generous benefactor, he will grant us also the means of clearing ourselves to him. Do not despair then, continue to throw your nets and put confidence in God." The fisherman followed the advice of his wife; he threw his nets in the name of God, and said, "Be favourable to my fishing, O thou who dispensest the gift of destiny! If I catch a single fish I will carry it to my benefactor." The nets this time were of an extraordinary weight. Abdallah worked with all his strength to bring them to the shore, but the poor fisherman, to his great despair, found nothing but a dead ass, which exhaled a pestilential smell. "There is neither might nor power, but in God," cried Abdallah, in clearing his nets of the carcass. "It is my accursed wife," added he, "who gave me this fine advice; I told her that I was going to give up the business of fisherman, but no, God is great; do not despair, continue to throw your nets." See what it is to follow women's advice! Nevertheless, I am going to tempt fortune again to-day for the last time.

The fisherman sought another place to avoid the stench of the ass, and threw his nets: they were still heavier this time than the first, and Abdallah found in them a being of a being in human form. At first he thought it was one of those genii that Solomon had cast into the depth of the sea, after having shut them up in brazen vessels. He, therefore, cried "Pardon! pardon! O Genii of Solomon!" "Fear nothing," replied the figure in the net, "I am a human being like thee; the only difference which exists between us, is that I live in the depth of the sea, and you inhabit the earth." "Then," replied the fisherman, reassured by these words, "you are neither a genii nor a demon?" "Not more the one than the other," replied the inhabitant of the sea; "I believe in God and his Prophet." "But who threw thee into the waves?" I am, by nature, an inhabitant of the sea, and I serve God. When I was caught in the nets, I was trying to be useful to thee, and I allowed myself to be taken; because it would not have been difficult for me to break your nets, if I had wished to escape; but I recognized the finger of God in this event, and I see that we have both been created to be brothers and friends. The earth produces grapes, melons, peaches and pomegranates: the sea abounds in coral, in pearls, in emeralds, and in rubies. Bring me fruit, and I will fill your basket with the precious stones which are found in the sea." "This proposition suits me marvellously, my brother," said the fisherman; "swear to me that you will keep your promise, and recite the first chapter of the Koran." When the first chapter was recited, the fisherman laid down his nets, and asked his companion his name. "I am called Abdallah of the sea; and thou, what is thy name?" "It is truly extraordinary," said the fisherman; "my name is also Abdallah, and to distinguish us one from the other, I will call myself Abdallah of the land." "Very well," replied Abdallah of the sea; "we have been created one for the other;—wait for me here an instant, I am going to search for something which I wish to make you a present of!" At these words he plunged into the sea to the great grief of the fisherman, who regretted having given him his liberty. "If I had kept him, thought he to himself, I could have shown him money as a curiosity, and in that manner I might have gained my livelihood."

An instant after the inhabitant of the sea reappeared, with his hands filled with rubies, pearls, and emeralds. "Do not take it ill," said he to the fisherman, "that I have not brought you more of them; I had nothing to put them in, but I will
give you as many to-morrow again, and every day, if you will come here at sun-rise," Transported with joy, the fisherman went to the baker's, to whom he gave all his pearls and precious stones, thanking him for all the favors which he had hitherto heaped on him. After that loaded with as much bread as he could carry, and after having bought with the money which the baker had given him, meat, fruit, and vegetables, the good Abdallah ran home to inform his wife of the happy adventure which had happened to him.

"Keep well your secret," said his wife to him; "it is a thing that ought not to be related to every one." "If I must conceal it from every one," replied the fisherman, "I cannot at least make a mystery of it to the baker my benefactor."

The next day, having got up very early, the fisherman went with a basket of fruit to the sea shore, which he reached before sun-rise. He cried there: "Where art thou, Abdallah of the sea?" "What will you?" replied a voice from the depth of the waves; and at the same instant the new friend of the fisherman came out of the sea with a load of emeralds, rubies, and pearls. After having breakfasted together, they retired each going his own way. The fisherman gave, in passing, two more necklaces of pearls to the baker, and carried the rest home. He went afterwards to the bazar, and showed all the pearls and precious stones to the syndic of the jewellers. "Stop him," cried the latter; "he is the thief who has stolen the queen's pearls!" Abdallah allowed himself to be loaded with bonds, and to be conducted before the king without saying a word. They presented to the queen the pearls which they took for hers, but she declared that the pearls were much handsomer than those which had been stolen from her; that they did not belong to her, and that she would buy them at any price. "Retire, infamous informers," said the king; "as if God could not give riches to the unfortunate also! Retire." When the jewellers had departed, the king turned towards Abdallah: "Now inform me from whence did you get this treasure. I am a king, and I do not possess such precious stones." Then Abdallah related to him his connection with Abdallah of the sea. "Venerable man," said the king, "riches ought to be joined to power;—as long as I reign you need not fear violence; but I would not be answerable that after my death my successor will not cause you to be put to death to seize on your treasures. I wish, therefore, to give you my daughter in marriage and to make you my vizier, so that after me envy may not assail you." After that the king ordered Abdallah to be conducted to the bath, and caused him to be dressed in magnificent clothes. They sent letters for his wife and children, who were loaded with marks of honour. The contract of marriage was drawn up according to all the forms. Abdallah of the land gave as portion to the princess all the treasures which he had received from Abdallah of the sea. The next day the king having observed the vizier betake himself with a basket of fruit on his head to the sea shore, asked him what he meant by so doing. Abdallah replied that he was carrying breakfast to Abdallah of the sea. The answer displeased the king. "This conduct, my son-in-law," said he to Abdallah, "is not suitable for a vizier. Take your choice to remain in the palace, or to drop instantly your load."

Up to this point the French and Arabic versions correspond with great minuteness. The French version, however, terminates in a very abrupt and unsatisfactory manner. It conveys no moral, and leaves Abdallah the inhabitant of the land to enjoy his good fortune, notwithstanding his ingratitude towards his benefactor. The French version proceeds—"Abdallah liking better to preserve his place and the favour of the king, returned no more to the sea shore and lived happily to the end of his days."

The Arabic version is altogether different, and if it possesses no other merit, it has at least the advantage of conveying a moral and teaching a cheerful resignation to the will of Providence: it proceeds thus:—

"Abdallah said, I fear to break the promise which I have made to him. I shall then be accounted a liar, and the world will accuse me of falsehood." The king replied, "You are right. Go, and God be with you." He then went into the city, and the people recognized him. He overheard them saying, "This is the
king's relative: he is going to exchange fruits for jewels;" but they who were ignorant and were not acquainted with him said, "O fortunate man, stay a little, and let me form acquaintance with you." He paid no attention, however, to any one, and proceeded onwards till he rejoined Abdallah of the sea, and presented him with the fruit and exchanged them for jewels. Having so done, he returned to the baker's shop, which he found closed, and learnt that this had been the case for ten days. He then proceeded to consummate his marriage with the daughter of the king, with whom he lived on terms of affection. He went daily to the man of the sea and returned by the baker's shop, but found it always locked. He was at a loss to conceive where the baker had gone, and asked the neighbours where he had gone, and what had happened to him. They told him in reply, that the baker had fallen sick and could not leave his house. Having inquired where his house was situated, Abdallah sought him out. His friend seeing him out of the window bearing a full basket, on his head, descended and opened the door, and throwing himself upon him, embraced him and cried. Upon this, Abdallah said to him, "Where have you been, my friend, this long time; I have come daily to your shop, but have found it shut, and have been unable to find you. Are you in distress?" The baker replied, "No, but I heard that the king had seized you and charged you with being a thief, whereupon I became afraid, and shut up my shop and concealed myself." Abdallah answered, This is true; and then recited his adventures with the jewellers and the king, and how he had married the king's daughter, and had been made his vizier. He further desired him to take as his portion what was in the basket, and not to be afraid. Saying this, he left him in a happy mood, and returned to the king with his basket empty. The king said to him, "O! kinsman, I fancy that you could not have met your friend Abdallah of the sea to-day." He replied, "I did meet with him, but what I obtained from him I gave to my friend the baker, to whom I am under an obligation." The king asked who is this person—to which he replied, he is a baker by profession, and behaved to me in such and such a manner during the period of my distress, and never neglected me. The king asked his name. Abdallah, said he, is called Abdallah the baker—my name is Abdallah of the land, and the name of my companion is Abdallah of the sea. The king rejoined, My name also is Abdallah*, and the servants of God are brothers; send and bring him, we will make him our second vizier. Then were sent for him the vizier and the nobles, who caused him to be clothed in the habiliments of a vizier, and brought him into the presence of the king. He was then made the second vizier, Abdallah continuing the first.

Abdallah of the land, the first vizier of the king, continued after this fashion a whole year, and never omitted for a single day to go with a basket of fruits and to return with a basket of jewels and precious stones, and when fresh fruits were not procurable he used to carry raisins, almonds, walnuts, figs, and such like. Whatever he took was cheerfully accepted, and in return his basket was filled with jewels according to custom. One day it happened that he took a basket of sweetmeats. Abdallah of the sea accepted it, and took his seat upon the land by the sea shore. They entered into conversation and mutually told stories, when the following dialogue occurred. "Is it true, my brother, that the prophet (on whom rest the peace and blessing of God!) is buried among you on dry land, and do you know where he is buried? I do, replied he of the land. In what place? In a city called Yusrub. Do the inhabitants of the land go to visit his tomb? Yes. Happy then, exclaimed Abdallah of the sea, are you denizens of the earth, that you are enabled to visit the tomb of this gracious, clement and merciful prophet who intercedes for all those who perform the pilgrimage! Have you, my brother, ever visited his tomb? No, I was a poor man and had not enough to pay my expenses on the road, but since I became acquainted with you and you have bestowed upon me this exceeding prosperity, it is a duty incumbent upon me to do so. I have a strong desire to visit the holy city, and nothing but the affection I have for you prevents my doing so. I cannot, however, bear to part with you for a single day. Do you, said he of the sea, prefer my friendship to that of the prophet (on whom be the blessing and peace of God), who will

* Servant of God.
plead for you with the Almighty on the day of resurrection? Who will save you from the fire, and give you admission into heaven by his mediation? Do you abandon the pilgrimage to the shrine of the Prophet Mahomed, (on whom be peace and blessing of God) through love of the world? To this he of the land replied, "No; I swear that I should prefer the pilgrimage to all things; I only require your permission to perform it this very year." "I have granted you permission," rejoined he of the sea; "but when you arrive at the shrine, submit my salutation. I have an offering to present. Enter with me into the ocean, so that I may take you to my city and admit you to my house—that I may entertain you and entrust to you my offering, in order that you may present it at the shrine of the holy Prophet, saying, This is an offering from Abdallah of the sea, who conveys his salutation, and intreats your intercession to save him from hell fire."

The story proceeds to state that the fears of Abdallah of the land having been removed by the assurances of his companion, and his body having been rubbed over with a certain ointment which gave him the power of living in the water, he entered the ocean with his marine friend. Then follows a long description of the wonders of the deep; Abdallah having seen "wedges of gold, great anchors, heaps of pearl, inestimable stones, unrivalled jewels—all scattered in the bottom of the sea"—and many other things undreamt of even by CLARENCE. The story concludes thus:—

Having taken leave of the king of the ocean loaded with jewels, Abdallah of the sea took his companion back towards his city. On the road he put into his hand a packet, saying, Take this, and present it as my offering at the shrine of the holy Prophet. Abdallah of the land took charge of the packet without knowing what it contained. Abdallah of the sea then proceeded to convey him to the shore, but on the road there appeared an assembly of persons rejoicing and singing, and eating and making merry. Upon witnessing this, Abdallah of the land said to his companion, "For what are these people rejoicing? Is there a marriage among them?" His companion answered, "No—but some one among them has died." "What?" said he of the land, "do you eat, drink, and make merry on the occasion of a death?" "To be sure we do," said the inhabitant of the sea: "do not you do the same on land?" "Not we indeed," said his companion; "on such occasions we cry and weep, and the women beat their faces and tear their clothes, and make all sorts of lamentation." On hearing these words, Abdallah of the sea exclaimed, "Deliver up my offering." This he did with fear, and having got upon dry land, Abdallah of the sea said, "I have parted with your friendship—you shall never see me again, nor shall I ever again behold you." "On what account is this?" asked his companion. "It seems then," replied Abdallah of the sea, "that you dwellers upon earth, whose life is a mere deposit by your Creator, cannot endure its being taken back, but you must weep thereat. What then would be the case with my deposit for the Prophet? When a child is born you rejoice that God Almighty has endowed it with life as a deposit, but when that is taken away again you feel it as a grievance, and you cry, grieve, and lament. I have no occasion for such company." Saying this he vanished.

Abdallah of the land having put on his clothes and taken his jewels, proceeded to the king, who received him with much joy and gladness, and asked him how he was and what had befallen him. Abdallah then recounted his adventures, and mentioned all the wonders of the deep which he had seen. The king was astonished, but upon hearing what Abdallah of the land had said to him of the sea, the king observed that the former had erred in making the communication which he had done. For a long time afterwards Abdallah continued in the habit of going to the sea shore and calling upon his former companion, but he never re-appeared.

The king and his friend lived happily until the destroyer of delights—the spoiler of all things came, and they both died. Then praise be to God who never dies, who is the living God, Lord of kings and angels, and who has power over all things!

At the conclusion of the tale which immediately precedes the above, and which is styled "Histoire D'Aboukir et D'Aboussir," M. TREBUTIEN'S
version, is, "Aboussir le fit inhumé et lui éleva un monument sur lequel on grava une inscription qui renfermait un sens très moral." In the Arabic MS, the inscription is given at full length. I here subjoin a translation of the Elegy, which is not without elegance in the original, but which seems rather intended to inculcate the advantage of prudence, and to convey the moral that "honesty is the best policy," than as a suitable epitaph on the tomb of the treacherous friend over whom it was erected. After a series of efforts to ruin his friend and benefactor, the treacherous man came to an untimely and ignominious end, while he whom he designed to ruin, and who buried his corpse (which was found tied up in a bag on the sea shore) attained the summit of prosperity.

"By his deeds a man is known among his equals.

"The qualities of a free-born and noble person resemble his origin.

"He does not revile, though he be reviled;

"For how often what a man says recoils upon himself.

"Abstain from evil words and use them not, whether engaged in serious or trifling matters.

"How many a great man has been subjected to abuse,

"From one whose value is not equal to a fragment of his shoe!

"What is triumphant exultation? even the lion is taken in the toil through ignorance.

"The sea bears on its surface the rotten carcass. But the pearl lies resplendent in its lowermost sands.

"I never saw a sparrow oppose a hawk, but I thought of its insignificance and want of understanding.

"It is written on a lofty pillar in Hindustan, Whoever cultivates virtue shall be recompensed in the like.

"Abstain from the attempt to make sugar of coloquintada;

"For every thing must partake of the nature of its origin."

Scott, in the Preface to his translation of the Arabian Nights Entertainments, has observed, "The stanzas, elegies, and other poetical quotations which so frequently occur in the original, M. Galland has indeed omitted, but such omission (at least in the humble opinion of the Editor) is not to be regretted, for he thinks that to the European reader their insertion would have been an intolerable interruption to the narrative."

M. Trebutien does not seem to have been generally of this opinion, for he has on most occasions faithfully rendered the verse as well as the prose. Where he has not done so, the fault, I suspect, was in the original—not in the translation.

I have compared the MS. of Mr. Brownlow with the printed edition of Habicht and the lithographed work edited in Calcutta, as well as with Scott's and Galland's translations. The comparison was made with one of the old tales, and I took at random the first voyage of Sindbad the Sailor. This examination has afforded additional proof of the genuineness of Mr. Brownlow's MS. M. Habicht's edition comes next to it in fulness and accuracy. The Calcutta edition is very faulty and defective.

I cannot help thinking that an entire and correct translation into English of these beautiful stories is still a desideratum, and that no better original could probably be procured than that belonging to Mr. Brownlow. Scott's, which is the best translation, seems very inaccurate. Take for instance the following passage in the story of Sindbad the Sailor.

Reflecting on the time he had lost and the profusion of his past life, he says that he called to mind the saying of Solomon, that three things are better than three things: "The day of death than the day of birth—a living dog than a dead lion—the grave than a palace."

This has been translated by Scott, "I remembered the saying of the great Solomon, which I had frequently heard from my father, that death is preferable to poverty."
I leave to other Members of the Committee the task of examining the first two volumes of the MSS.; if indeed any further examination be thought necessary to establish the genuineness of the work. I am quite satisfied as to that point, from the examination which I have made of the third and fourth volumes. The stories of Sindbad the Sailor are introduced at the commencement of the 3rd vol. of the MSS.; consequently it may be assumed that the "Contes Inedits" which I have not compared are to be found in the first and second volumes of the MSS. and a comparison of them with the Arabic might be still more satisfactory.

Upon the whole, I have no hesitation in stating my opinion, that the MS. copy of the Alif Laila now submitted to the Society is a most valuable addition to the literature of the East, and worthy of every encouragement. I have little doubt that the work would find a ready sale both in Asia and in Europe. I do not believe that Mr. Brownlow requires any pecuniary aid from us. As a Society, we might subscribe for a certain number of copies, and individually I should hope we shall not withhold our aid from this highly public-spirited and meritorious undertaking. To Government, I think, we should make an earnest appeal for support, founded on the credit which must accrue to our nation, from presenting to the Mussulman population of India, in a complete and correct form and in their own classical and beautiful language, these enchanting tales, which even in the estimation of Europe enjoy almost unrivalled celebrity.

Our Maulavī, if competent, might be desired to assist in correcting the press, and I for one should be very happy to aid in this duty, as far as my limited abilities and leisure might permit.

Sept. 20, 1836.

W. H. Macnaghten.

Minute by Mr. H. T. Prinsep.

I have examined the four volumes of the Alif Laila as far as my time would permit, and am able to confirm entirely the testimony given by Mr. Macnaghten in favor of the accuracy and completeness of the copy. So far as my examination has gone, the tales and anecdotes given in the list at the commencement of the first volume of the "Contes Inedits" are all to be found in the Arabic, and those that have been translated are more full and complete in our copy than in the French version. I did not find the numbering of the nights exactly to correspond. Thus the anecdote of Zobeide in the bath is between the 382nd and 383rd nights, and the secret entrusted to the wife at the end of the 384th; whereas, according to the French list, these ought to have been found first in the 384—355th, and the other in the 387—388th night.

The French version of the "Contes Inedits" is not, it is to be observed, a very close translation; nor does it give in regular order the tales omitted by previous translators. It is still merely a selection, and made not exclusively with reference to merit or the interest of the tales. It is evident, however, that the original must have corresponded very closely with the copy brought to India, by Major Macan, and was probably from the same. Whether it was as complete in all respects, and as carefully made, may well be doubted; for the getting up of this manuscript is of a very superior description. I do not find that the German edition in the original Arabic corresponds exactly in the arrangement of the tales with our copy, but the text does not materially differ of the same tales, which is an additional confirmation of the accuracy and genuineness of the very complete set of these tales now laid before us.

I join heartily in the wish expressed by Mr. Macnaghten, that a complete edition of this work in the original Arabic may be printed in this country from Major Macan's copy, and I doubt not that many subscribers
may be found to contribute towards the expense of carrying it through the press, if this should be deemed necessary. The offer of Mr. Macnaghten to correct the press with the aid of the Maulavis of the Persian office, is one that will be appreciated by all who wish well to the literature of the East, and it ought to determine those who hitherto have felt hesitation at the idea of attempting so great a work.

I am afraid that no capable person has leisure here in India to undertake the translation of these four volumes into English. But certainly it would tend equally to the credit of our literature were it possible to put this also in hand. Were I myself an idle man, I should like no better amusement than to take up such an occupation.

Sept. 23, 1836.

H. T. Prinsep.

Minute by the Rev. Dr. Mill.

I entirely agree with Mr. Macnaghten and Mr. H. T. Prinsep as to the undoubted genuineness of Mr. Brownlow’s MS. The style of these tales is very strongly impressed on the memory of every one who has read any large portion of them in the original: and on comparing the detached portions I have read from this MS. during the three days it has been with me, with the recollections of the Voyages of Sindbad which I have repeatedly perused from M. Langl’ès’ edition (Paris, 12mo. 1814)—there is the same delightful ease and simplicity of style, with the total absence of the rhetorical effort so general in other works of imagination in the same language,—the same purity of Arabic idiom, with the free introduction of foreign nouns, which (even independently of the external evidence) bears witness to the common origin of all. This MS. is apparently much closer in its order and readings to Baron Von Hammer’s Cairo MS. (bought at Constantinople) from which M. Trebutien’s “Contes Inédits” are published, than to the Tunis MS. from which M. Hacq’s complete edition of the original is now publishing at Breslau: and for this reason, amongst others, I do not think that work need preclude the publication of this.

The part which I have taken almost at hazard for critical examination, is the part shortly preceding that which has been so ably examined by Mr. Macnaghten. It is the curious adventure (near the beginning of the 2nd volume) of Isaac of Mousul the musician, and the consequent introduction of the Khalip Mâman to his future bride, the daughter of his Vizier Hasan ben Sehl. This occupies from the middle of Night 277 to 280 in the MS., but from 279 to 282 in Trebutien, (this slight difference arising rather from a different division than from any deficiency in this MS. as the collation of the preceding tales shows.) A comparison of this story with the same in Trebutien’s third vol. (p. 289—295,) has convinced me that the text of Magan’s and Hammer’s MSS. is as nearly identical as those of any two ordinary MSS. of an oriental work, and that whatever discrepancies appear between the Arabic and the French in this part at least, arise from the translator rather than from his text. An example or two will best prove this.

MS. (literally translated.)

There appeared something hanging from the adjoining houses, and lo! a large basket decked with silk at the four handles. I said to myself, ‘Surely there is a cause for this,’ and I remained amazed at my adventure. But intoxication Trebutien.

Je regardai ce que ce pouvait être, et, à ma grande surprise je vis une sorte de corbeille garnie de soie. Comme le vin que j’avais bu dans la soirée m’avait un peu troublé le cerveau, je me plaçai dans cette corbeille...
so far transported me, that my mind said to me, "Sit down in it." Accordingly I sat down, and when those who let down the basket to me felt I was within, they drew it up to the top of the well: and behold four damsels who said, "Alight freely and without restraint." And one of them walked before me with a taper till I entered into a house: and there were sitting rooms strewed out such as I had never seen even* in the Khaliph's palace.

To the method so apparent in the above extract, of seizing only the points of the narrative, and neglecting the orientalisms of style and manner by which they are introduced, I should ascribe even the places where the two copies appear discordant; as, where in Trebutien (after the long interview with the lady described in substance exactly as in the MS.) Isaac is made to go down by the basket as he came:—"On me descendis dans la corbeille;" whereas the Arabic MS. distinctly says in that place, "A damsel went down stairs with me and opened [the door] to me, and I went out and walked to my house." (Night 279): where it seems to me at least as probable that the translator hastening with the story after his manner, left out the circumstances of descent and added "dans la corbeille" afterwards, on revising his French, than that he found the basket in his original. The conclusion of the story furnishes another striking example of his manner, and of the disadvantage which these tales suffer by being so translated.

* The discrepancy from the French may here very probably arise from the omission of the word \( \frac{1}{j} \) by the copyist—but the mistake may just as probably lie on the other side.

**trebutien.**

Nous sortis de la maison, Le Khalife m'ordonna de ne pas parler de ce qui venait de se passer; et j'en ai gardé le secret jusqu'au sa mort. Ces trois nuits, dit Ishak de Mossoul, je les mettrai toujours au rang des plus agréables que j'aie jamais passées dans la plus aimable société.
On the other hand, the first of the unpublished Tales in both the Egyptian MSS.—where it occupies from Night 34—38 (MS. vol. 1 and Treb. p. xli.) occupies all from the 139th to the 218th in Habicht (iii. 66—166). It is not, however, actually longer in the latter than in the former: and as this tale, viz. the History of the two Viziers of Mohammed Ibn Soleman Alzíni [in Habicht “Alrasi”] has never been translated either by Galland or Trebutien, I selected it for the collation of the two Arabic texts. Here, though I found the printed and MS. text to tally in the main from beginning to end, not only as to the succession of incidents, but in the poetical passages interspersed throughout, the variations were very considerable both in the prose and the verse: whole clauses appeared in the one which were not in the other; the advantage of fullness being sometimes on the side of Mr. Brownlow’s MS., but more frequently on that of the Breslau edition.

On the whole, I should strongly recommend the publication of this text without any reference to that of M. Habicht—even in the parts which might be compared with advantage. (Mr. Macnaghten’s offer of assisting in the correction of the press is one which should be most thankfully embraced, however learned may be the Maulavi engaged for the purpose.) When both texts shall have been published, (belonging, as they do, apparently to two very different editions or recensions of these celebrated tales, one long current in Egypt and Arabia, the other among the Maghrebin Arabs of Barbary and Spain,) they may enable the critics of Europe to form perhaps a judgment as to the true original text of both. The work of a translator is one of greater difficulty: and we have none probably in India, possessed at the same time of ability and leisure for a work of this description. The ease and vivacity of M. Galland’s translation, so deservedly popular among Western readers, would be a good model for imitation—avoiding, however, his liberties with his original, except, indeed, in the too frequent cases where decency requires curtailment or omission. M. Trebutien is far more faithful in giving the whole of his original: but in the mode of representing it, a due medium between his too occidental style of paraphrase, and a servilely literal version of the Arabic text, would be, in my opinion, at the same time more accurate and more pleasing.

W. H. Mill.

Minute by Mr. J. R. Colvin.

I have no pretensions to the name of an Arabic scholar, and shall not presume to offer any opinion of my own on the genuineness of these volumes. But I can bear testimony to the late Major Macan’s opinion of their genuineness. He was a highly competent judge, and had made inquiries which satisfied him on the point before he bought the manuscripts in England.

I cordially join in the wish to give encouragement to the publication of a complete edition.

J. R. Colvin.

Minute by Mr. C. E. Trevelyan.

Neither have I the least pretension to be called an Arabic scholar, but it is not necessary to be one in order to appreciate in some degree the beauty of the Arabian Nights. I think it very desirable that a correct version of the original Arabic should be published, and still more so that it should be well translated into English. Such a translation, if it were well executed, would be a most valuable accession to English literature, and I believe that for one person who would read the book in Arabic, five hundred would read it in English. Nobody, in my opinion, is so eminently qualified for this task as Mr. Macnaghten, and if he could be persuaded to undertake it, he would lay every person who reads English under an obligation to him.

C. E. Trevelyan.
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The new barometer was applied to other experiments from the 21st for calculated humidity.
Names of places in D'Richardson's 3 tours in the Tenasserim provinces.


(The blanks are as in the original)

Mr. Masson's Sketch of the sculpture at Bamián.

in the niche of the second idol.

Coin found at Bagram.
I.—An account of some of the Petty States lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces; drawn up from the Journals and Reports of D. Richardson, Esq., Surgeon to the Commissioner of the Tenasserim Provinces. By E. A. Blundell, Esq. Commissioner.

[The small figures refer to the accompanying Plate, where the native words are correctly written in the Burman character.]

Of the numerous petty states north of the Tenasserim provinces, those only of Zimmay, Labong and Lagon, on the east bank of the Salween and the slip of country on the west bank inhabited by a wild, barbarous, but independent tribe of mountaineers called Red Kayens, have hitherto been visited by Europeans. Of the vast extent of country between the Salween and Cambodian rivers, we know little or nothing, though it is hoped the expected opening of an overland trade between the frontiers of China and the Tenasserim provinces will extend our knowledge of the intermediate country.

The town of Zimmay (or Changnai) is situated in Lat. 20 N. and Long. about 99 E. That of Labong is distant from Zimmay only 10 miles S. E.; Lagon about 50 S. E. from the same. The several states are named after these towns, but their respective boundaries are not well defined, and, together with those of Moung-pay and Moung-nam, appear to be the patrimony of one family. About fifty years ago, when the whole of this country was under the dominion of Ava, seven brothers succeeded, with the assistance of Siam, in throwing off the Burmese yoke, ejected them from the above named towns, and having been confirmed in the government of them by Siam, have continued tributary to that kingdom, and successfully resisted all the attempts of Ava to regain possession. The elder brother was invested with the title of Chow-tchee-Weet, or "Lord
of Life," with the supreme authority over the others, and the title has descended to each brother successively alive till it reached the youngest, whom Dr. Richardson found on his first and second visits, but who died at the advanced age of 73 years, during his third visit. It is now in abeyance in the family, and awaits the decision of the court of Siam.

Of the original inhabitants of this country but a very small portion now obtains,—perhaps not above one-third of the whole, owing to the great number that were carried off by the kings of Ava when they overran and subjected the country. The remainder consists chiefly of Burmese\(^1\), Peguans\(^2\) and Shans\(^3\), from the different states tributary to Ava; either refugees or slaves; for slavery exists in this country in its worst features. The unfortunate wretches are kidnapped and seized by the hill tribes on the west bank of the Salween, of whom some account will be given, and eagerly purchased from them at very low rates, by the people of this country. Dr. Richardson was unable to form an opinion as to the amount of the population. He was told that the towns of Zimmay, Lagon, Moung-pay and Moung-nam contain each about 20,000 and Labong 14,000, but he thinks these numbers exaggerated.

In person the Shans bear a great resemblance to their Burmese and Siamese neighbours, though somewhat fairer. They are muscular, well formed, and healthy in their appearance: eyes moderately linear; nose small rather than flat; the mouth large, and disfigured by black teeth and gums, which they cherish as a beauty; the hair is long, straight, lank, and almost always black. They tattoo the lower limbs, but to less extent than the Burmese. Their dress consists of a cotton putso or cloth round the loins, generally blue, a blue cotton jacket reaching well over the hips, and a coarse red cotton turban; though many go uncovered. The dress of the chiefs is of the same description, but the materials are more costly,—Chinese crepe or satin jackets, with gold or silver lace, the putso of silk. The women are fair and good-looking, and their dress more becoming than that of Burmese or Siamese,—not open in front as with the former, nor tucked up between the legs as with the latter. It is, however, fastened in the same way round the body without pin or string. Old and young have the bosoms bare, or but partially covered by a small scarf thrown round the shoulders. Many of the women are disfigured with goitre, but it seldom attains a large size. The people are a quiet, mild, good-humoured race, and not addicted to many vices. Opium smoking and gambling are scarcely known, and drunkenness is uncommon. The religion is that
of Buddh, and consequently their ceremonies and festivals differ in no material manner from those of the Burmese, which are now well known: indeed there is little other difference between the two races than that of dress and language; which latter is a dialect of the Siamese with a distinct alphabet, bearing in the formation of the letters a great resemblance to the Burmese character. Of the resources of a country so thinly populated and so constantly subjugated to the devastating inroads of both Siamese and Burmese, according as one or the other of these powers held the sovereignty, it is not practicable to form an estimate. Speaking of the soil and cultivation, Dr. Richardson says—"The soil in the low paddy and garden lands is a rich black loam apparently inexhaustible, in which the crops follow each other in uninterrupted succession. Cultivation is conducted with a good deal of care by irrigation and transplanting, and the return on good lands is about 120 and on inferior about 75 fold. The general seed-time is in July and August, and the harvest in December and January, though some descriptions of paddy are perfected in three months. Their plough closely resembles those used in the south of Scotland without the culture or ploughshare, and is often drawn by one buffalo. The principal articles of cultivation are the cauth-brier, or glutinous rice, cotton, maize, sugar-cane, tobacco, ground nut, chillies, several kinds of pulse, radishes, and turnips. Of grain, wheat, and other corn they have none. Pepper, cloves, and all the finer species of spices are unknown." Both the soil and climate seem well suited to the cultivation of Pernambuco cotton, which is now being introduced into the Tenasserim provinces; and it is much to be regretted that the seed with which Dr. Richardson was furnished on his last visit proved bad, as the people evinced great desire to cultivate so valuable an article. If the cultivation of South American cotton is found to answer in the Tenasserim provinces, of which great hopes are entertained, every exertion will be made to introduce it into the neighbouring countries.

Tin, iron, and lead ores appear to be abundant in the country, and some of them very rich, though it does not appear that the extraction of the metal is engaged in to any extent. Dr. R. was informed that the tin ore yields 80 per cent., and some iron ore that was shown him seemed equally rich. There are extensive teak forests in that part of the country immediately adjoining our provinces, but owing to the difficulty of bringing the timber down the Salween river in consequence of rocks and rapids, it is doubtful whether we shall be enabled to avail ourselves of that supply to any extent. The country abounds in cattle, to procure which originally, and subsequently to
ensure the supply, has been the object of Dr. R.'s several visits. An immense saving has been effected to Government in obtaining from thence sufficient cattle for provisioning the European troops on the coast, in lieu of procuring them from either Bengal or Madras.

The trade of the country is unimportant. An annual caravan visits it from the frontier provinces of China, bringing silks, satins, velvet and woollens, (the latter chiefly English,) cooking vessels, musk, and trifling articles of Chinese manufacture; and carrying away chiefly raw cotton, the produce of the country. It is expected that a portion of this caravan will this year extend their journey to Maulamyne, and hopes are entertained that this will lead to annual visits in increasing numbers, and the opening of an important overland trade between China and our possessions on the Tenasserim coast. From Maulamyne are received British piece goods, chintzes, muslins, hardware, &c. in return for cattle, ivory, and a small quantity of stick-lack. With the hill tribe on the west bank of the Salween they exchange cattle, grain and betelnut (the latter from Maulamyne and Bankok), for slaves, tin, lead, and stick-lac.

It is evident from all that Dr. R. observed and reports, that both the chiefs and people of this country are not only desirous of continuing on the most friendly and intimate footing with us, but that they are really grateful for the immense benefit which our presence in their neighbourhood has conferred upon their country; and there is no doubt that should any future danger menace them, they would gladly place themselves under our protection, and see their country under our rule. Our occupation of the provinces has spread peace and happiness over a wide extent of country entirely independent of our authority, by putting an end to that ruthless and devastating system of warfare that had been for ages carried on between the Burmese and Siamese, whose object was not conquest, but solely to plunder and to carry off the defenceless people into irremediable slavery. On many occasions, as Dr. R. passed through the country, the common people and cultivators expressed to him how different was now their state to what it was in former years, when they scarce dared leave the walls of their towns to cultivate their lands; were obliged to be armed and constantly on the alert, and to leave their wives and families in the town; whereas now the country is in every respect equally secure, and they are enabled to follow their avocations without apprehensions of any kind.

The fact may be observed here, that our occupation of the Tenasserim provinces has also proved of incalculable benefit to a large portion of the population of Burmah themselves, as it is well known that the
Route Map
of Dr. Richardson's Journeys
into the interior of the Tenasserim Provinces

Map showing routes and locations such as Monsong, Labon, Lagon, and others.

Oriental Ish Press Calcutta.
authorities in that country in our immediate neighbourhood,—Rangoon for instance,—have found themselves obliged to modify their exactions and oppressions, and to govern in a better spirit of justice and humanity, being well aware that the people have a refuge to fly to should they be driven to desperation.

The following extracts from Dr. Richardson's Journal will show the route travelled by him, and give an account of his reception by the chiefs whom he visited.

Dr. R. left Maulamyn on 11th December, 1829, and proceeded in boats up the Salween river for about 100 miles, and landed on the 14th on the east bank at the junction of a small stream called the Yemyne. From hence he started on the 16th.

Journal.

"16th. Direction North, 70 East. Time, 3 hours; distance, 7 miles, 4 furlongs.

"8. 30. Proceeded along a good path practicable for bullocks, elephants, &c.

"9. 35. At the bottom of a short and rather deep descent crossed the Yemyne river, about 70 feet broad, running South, 45 East.—11. 40. Halted for the night on the banks of a small grassy lake: the path has been good and gently ascending; the jungle of bamboos and common jungle trees, thick and impenetrable, owing to the creepers; the march, though only seven miles, was made with difficulty, owing to the thickness of the jungle.

"17th. Direction North, 80 East. Time, 3 hours; distance, 8 miles.

"7. 30. Proceeded for some way along a path of the same character as yesterday.

"8. 15. Along a swampy path at the foot of a nearly perpendicular rock, but covered with verdure to the top.—8. 35. Another rock like the former, (called by the Careens Lein Koso;) path better.—8. 45. Crossed a small stream with steep banks at the site of a village deserted last year by the Careens (who remove annually to a new position). It is now overgrown with tall jungle.

"9. 30. Crossed the Yemyne river, wide 30, deep 3 or four feet; clear, rocky bed, swarming with fish. Halt for an hour.—10, 30. Path soft, along a valley winding amongst the hills with long grass and dwarf bamboos, much intersected by tracks of elephants, rhinoceros, and wild hog.

"10. 10. Again crossed the Yemyne river, wide 40 feet; course South, 20 East.

"11. 30. Halted on the eastern bank (course S., 65 East), where it is joined by a small stream called the Mean Keun, running S. 50° west; the path nearly as yesterday; continued to ascend. Here we were joined by the Careens from the second villages, and dismissed those who accompanied us the last two marches.

"18th. Course North, 80 East; distance, 10 miles 4 furlongs.

"7. 30. Crossed the Mean Keun four times in 20 minutes, and proceeded along a rocky path through thick jungle.—8. 20. Crossed Yea-ta-goone Keun 20 feet wide; clear rocky bed.

"9. Came again to the banks of the Yemyne river.

"9. 10. Crossed a small stream falling into the last.
"9. 30. Path soft through long grass surrounded by hills.
"9. 40. Along the rocky bed of the Yea-ta-googn-keun, (waterfall stream.)
"10. 30. Halted for half an hour.—11. Ascended with some difficulty the face of a broken rock 3 or 400 feet in height, over which the water of the Yea-ta-goong during the rains falls.—11. 30. Halted at the top of the waterfall, within sound of another which we heard tumbling from the hills above us to the eastward. The path to-day continued ascending and very bad, either soft with long grass, or rocky and uneven and extremely tortuous; but the Careens say it is the only pass through this part of the hills; that elephants, horses and bullocks formerly travelled it with loads, and that it was the route of the Burman army in 1790. Passed some of the large bamboos peculiar to this country, some catechu, and some of the tree with the sap of which the Careens poison their arrows. The rest of the jungle consisted of common jungle trees, immense creepers, and the common bamboos; tracks of elephants and wild hogs were numerous, but no marks of the rhinoceros, which is confined to the more level part of the country where grass is abundant.
"19th. Direction North, 55 West. Time, 3 hours, 15 minutes; distance, 8 miles.
"7. 30. Path along the stony bed of a stream.
"7. 55. Skirt a ravine to the eastward.
"8. 30. Crossed the Keung Cank, or crooked stream, eight or ten times running in various directions.
"9. Path a little better, but repeatedly crossed by the Keung Cank.
"9. 45. Halted on the banks of the Ween Wee, a small stream 15 or 20 feet wide, which falls into the Thaung-Ein to the north-eastward. The path to-day was wet and bad; the jungle thick. No marks of inhabitants. Were joined in the evening by four Musalmans, who, together with seven who accompanied us, and five sepoys, make the party amount to forty-two persons. Those who joined us to-day came by the Gyne road in nine days from Maulamyne, five by water to Doggue, and four by land. They represented the road as bad, and hilly, only accessible to people unincumbered, but inhabited by Careens, five or six of whose villages they had passed.
"20th. Direction North, 35 East. Time, 2 hours; distance, 4 miles.
"7. 30. Crossed the Ween Wee, and ascended a rather steep hill and proceeded along an ascending path, which appears as if cut along the face of the hill on the bank of a ravine 300 or 350 feet deep, but clothed with small trees and verdure, as are all the hills, even those which are nearly perpendicular.
"8. Descending along a similar path through a jungle of the large bamboos; paths particularly good.
"9. 45. Descended along the rather steep bed of a stream, water ancle deep; path extremely bad.—9. 55. Came to the bank of the Thaing-Ein (called by the Shans May-phoie) river, wide 160 or 180 feet; moved a short way down the western bank, north 20 east, in the direction of its course, and crossed over to the eastern side by assistance of a boat and some bamboo rafts. I had been led by the guide to believe that we should be met here by some chiefs of the Zimmay country with elephants, &c. to assist us in transporting the baggage and presents, and to accelerate our movements towards their capital; they had, however, decamped eight or nine days before our arrival, and we took pos-
session of their sheds, which were the first human habitations we had seen since leaving the boats. The Thaing-Ein river is the old boundary between the Burman and Siamese countries, and is now the British boundary in this direction with the latter nation. It arises in this range of hills about eight or ten days' march in a south-easterly direction from this, about one day's march from the course of the Gyne river, and falls into the Mein-lun-ghee (called by the Shans Mun-neum) two days west from this. The united streams fall into the Thairuru some distance above a cataract in the latter river, which entirely cuts off all water communication with the country above it, and in which even timber is shattered to pieces that happens to get into it.

"21st. Felt the first effects of being in the Siamese country, in being obliged to halt till the road was cleared by the Careens. There was an evident desire on the part of the Careens, who met us here, to detain us for a day or two: they indeed privately declared their orders from Crow Ho Kto, the chief who was to have met us here, to do so. I, however, intimated my intention to proceed on the following day. We were here furnished with a pig, rice, and fowls.

"22nd. Direction North, 20 East. Time, 2 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 6 miles, 2 furlongs.

"7 A.M. Proceeded along a good path through a patch of cultivated ground, where the Careens grow the hill rice, which is fine and small in the grain.

"7. 15. Ascended.—8. Crossed the May-tha-woe river, wide 60 feet, clear stony bed; abundance of fish.—8. 45. Path along the side of a hill of the same character as last march. On the top of a steep rocky hill above the road is perched the first Careen village we saw. The houses are entirely composed of bamboos; the roof, with a very little slope, is made of two rows of split bamboos; the first row with the concave side up, and their edges touching the second, with the convex side up, and their edges in the trough of the first, embracing the two contiguous edges. There were only three houses in the village, the inhabitants of which, old and young, might amount to forty or fifty people; abundance of pigs, poultry, rice, &c. The people are dirty in their persons, and the skins of the men generally rough and scaly from exposure;—they were much alarmed at our first approach, but we gradually gained their confidence.

12. 30. Continued our march, and at 1 halted on the side of the May-tha-woe (which we frequently crossed in the course of to-day's march) in thick jungle, within sound of a heavy fall of water.

"23rd. Direction North, 20 West. Time, 2 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 5 miles, 6 furlongs.

"10 A.M. Having sent the coolies on three hours before, on account of the steepness of the hills: proceeded along a pretty good elephant path up the steepest hill we had yet ascended.—10. 45. A plantation of small seed cotton.

"11. 50. Reached the top of the ascent, from which we could count seven ridges of hills which we had crossed, running north, 20 east, to south, 20 west, but very irregular and broken in the descent.

"12. 5. Crossed the Tsieu-dzo (Elephant's tusk) rivulet, wide 15 or 20 feet.—12. 30. Halted on the banks of the stream at the foot of an extensive hill, covered with paddy stubble; the Careens say they reap 30 or 40 folds; and the rice is the finest I have ever seen, almost transparent, and when boiled beautifully white. The Careens of the hills have no cooking or eating apparatus;
the rice and a sort of vegetable stew are boiled in a joint of the bamboo, and the latter served up in another split in form of a trough, round which they squat with their rice on any leaf they can find large enough; there is one shell spoon in the stew which serves the whole party. This day’s march was one of much labour to the coolies: many of them were seven hours on the road.

"24th. Direction North, 20 West. Time, 3 hours, 15 minutes; distance, 7 miles.

"7. 30. Proceeded along a worse path than usual, over a succession of hills, many of them covered with paddy to the tops, which would indicate a very considerable Careen population. The greater part of the hills this day were of primitive sandstone.—11. 10. Halted by a small stream at the foot of a hill.

"25th. Direction North, 60 East. Time, 4 hours; distance 9 miles.

"7. 30. Ascended a rather steep hill along a path much the same as we had travelled for the last few days.—9. 25. Marched along the bed of a stream about knee deep; the bottom rocky and broken, the water extremely cold, and the sun hot and beating on our heads till 11. 30, when we halted on the banks of the Moy-Gnow river, (wide 150 or 160 feet) running to the northward and falling into the Mein-lungli about one day above where the Thaung-Ein falls into the same river. No marks of cultivation throughout this day’s march. Passed a number of teak and thet-tse trees: of the former there is an extensive forest on the eastern bank of the Moy-Gnow, but the falls of the Thautil render it extremely difficult to transport it to the coast. The famous thet-tse varnish is merely the juice of the tree, which exudes from notches made in the bark into vessels placed to receive it, and is fit for use without further preparation. The tree has somewhat the appearance of the bastard teak. Saw also several small carroway trees in the jungle.—One o’clock. After a flourish of gongs in the jungle on the other side of the river, several Shans made their appearance, and a Burman of the party pushed over to our side of the river on a bamboo raft, and after ascertaining that I was not accompanied by an army, as had been reported by the Careens, communicated the fact to those on the other side: four petty chiefs, the heads of the party, then came over; they said they had been sent by the chief of Zammay to welcome me, and offered us their assistance for the rest of the march. They dispatched a letter to Zammay to announce our arrival, and begged us to remain one day on the present ground, assuring me that they had five elephants for my use. These elephants were a very seasonable relief, as the people were much knocked up, and the nature of the paths over steep hills or stony beds of small streams, had precluded the possibility of my riding for a single march.

"26th. Halted till some bamboo rafts were made to transport part of the baggage, which could not be carried on the elephants down the Moy-Gnow. I found that the chiefs who met me were part of the licensed robbers of Labong, and one of them (a Burman formerly captured in one of their predatory expeditions) was exceedingly anxious to excuse them for carrying off some of our people last year, as they were mistaken for Burmans. The Careens brought three pigs, some fowls, and rice, enough for the whole party: the Shans would not allow me to pay for them; hitherto every thing had been paid for that was brought to us.

"27th. Direction North, 30 West. Time, 5 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 15 miles.
"9. 30 A. M. Marched through a beautiful forest of teak and thenghan trees, on both banks of the river, which we crossed no less than nineteen times, occasionally following a path, more frequently without any, and the river in many places just fordable by the elephants; the whole of the baggage and most of the people were conveyed either on the elephants or on the bamboo rafts.—3 P. M. Halted on the east bank of the Moy-Gnow, having crossed one or two trifling hills in the course of the day, but the march was on the whole a slight descent, as we followed the course of the stream through the hills towards its mouth; the country was entirely uncultivated, and destitute of any sign of inhabitants. The wild elephants are much more scarce on this than on the western side of the Moy-Gnow, and even there much less numerous than on the British side of the Thaung-Ein. Tigers, deer, wild cows, &c. &c. are, however, numerous here. The Shans march without tents or coverings of any description, and make little huts of branches after each march in the same manner as the Burmese.

"28th. Direction North, 30 West. Time, 4 hours, 15 minutes; distance, 12 miles.

"11 A. M. Crossed the river ten times, and proceeded along the banks through a country of the same character as yesterday, with scarcely a sign of a path, and learned that this road is never travelled except by the chiefs when collecting the tribute from the Careens, who, in the neighbourhood, are tributary to Ponya²⁰ or Benya-tche, the principal of the four little chiefs who came to meet me.—3. 15. Halted on the east bank of the river, about the same width as when we first came on its bank.

"29th. Direction North, 25 West. Time, 2 hours; distance, 6 miles.

"9 A. M. Continued our march along the banks of the Moy-Gnow till about 10 A. M. when we left it to the westward, and, crossing a rather steep hill, came at 11 o'clock on the banks of the Mein-lun-ghee (running to the southward; wide about 120 feet) a short way above where it is joined by the Moy-Gnow.—11 A. M. Crossed and halted. Saw numerous marks of elephants, deer, elk, and hog, in a soft part of the jungle to-day: the Shans say that they all eat that sort of mud, a kind of black stiff (probably saline) loam or rather clay;—killed a small animal to-day called by the Burmans Poe²⁰, and of which I do not recollect to have seen any description. The head is large and round, like an otter; the cutting teeth like a rat, and feet slightly webbed, somewhat resembling in appearance, though inferior in strength, to the moles. The fur exactly like that animal, but larger in the staple, and, I think, even finer—it is little larger than a common English mole, and burrows with great rapidity. There are two kinds of the same animal; the other differs in being much larger, and the hair coarse and harsh, like the bandicoot. I regret that the specimens I obtained were both lost.

"30th. Direction North, 30 West. Time, 4 hours; distance, 12 miles.

"10. 20. Continued to march along the Mein-lun-ghee in the same way as we had done along the Moy-Gnow. Crossed twelve times to-day. Its average breadth 130 or 140 feet, and depth about six feet. Its course continues amongst the hills, which are covered with teak and that-tee trees, as those of the Moy-Gnow.—At 2. 20 halted on the western bank of the river in a small patch of paddy in a plain of few miles extent; the first lowland paddy we have seen since leaving the Thalveen, and the first of any cultivation since joined by the Shans.

"31st. Direction North, 20 West. Time, 4 hours, 10 minutes; distance, 12 miles.
8. 15. Marched to-day along a path better than any we have seen since crossing the Moy-Gnow.

11. Passed the village of Bowttao; 12 or 14 houses surrounded by a small patch of cultivation. Having crossed the Mein-lung-hee river four times to-day.—12. 25. Halted in a rather extensive patch of paddy stubble belonging to the village Kapa, which is distant a mile and a half. Nearly the whole of the country between this and the village, which is in a small valley, has last year been under cultivation; all the rice in the country is of that glutinous description called by the Burmans kanghuyeen; the only hard rice that can be obtained is from the Careens, who left us to-day, and by whom we have been accompanied from the neighbourhood of one village to that of another since leaving the Thalween. They are a fair, well-limbed, athletic race, superior in appearance generally to the Talines and Burmans, but have been oppressed from time immemorial by Talines, Burmans, and Shans, whoever happened to have the ascendance. They have been obliged to furnish provisions, erect huts, cut the jungle from the edges of the path, and furnish guides to all travellers crossing the hills, the latter of which services they performed for us, and were much surprized at being paid for whatever they furnished us. They annually shift their habitation, and if they pitch upon a site near a path, it is immediately shut up. In addition to the other inhabitants of the jungle, we to-day saw marks of rabbits in considerable number.

January 1st. Direction North, 20 West. Time, 4 hours, 50 minutes; distance, 14 miles.

9. 45. Proceeded along a good path through the paddy grounds of the village of Kapa, which we passed at 10. 20, consisting of about thirty or forty houses precisely in the Burman style, with one or two Pungee houses, but no pagodas, &c.—11. 25. Passed the first pagoda we have seen since leaving Thalween, perfectly dilapidated. Near a small village saw 70 or 100 heads of good cattle in a rather extensive paddy field.—2. 35. After traversing a grassy plain intersected with belts of jungle, halted on the south bank of a small stream running to the westward and falling into the Mein-lung-hee river about quarter of a mile from the village of Mein-lung-hee. The path to-day was well marked, and there was more appearances of cultivation than we had before seen. We only crossed the Mein-lung-hee river three times. The rise of water in the rains, from the marks on the trees and banks in this river, cannot be less than 30 or 40 feet.

The Shans being anxious to detain me on the road till an answer is received to the letter notifying my arrival, dispatched on the day I met them, I have consented, as I cannot well proceed without their assistance, to remain here two days."
who levies contributions from the Kayen tribes in the neighbourhood, and is not scrupulous of occasionally extending his exactions into our portion of the country. Such is the wild life and timorous nature of these tribes that they submit to any one who appears invested with any authority, and it is difficult to induce them to visit Maulamyne with their complaints. Mein-lun-ghee being the first frontier station, is generally passed through by the traders of Maulamyne, and the Shan States also by those of the latter, who visit the country of the Red Kayens to purchase slaves. An effort was made to detain Dr. R. here, till an answer should be received from Labong regarding him; but on evincing a determination either to proceed or to return immediately to Maulamyne, elephants were furnished him, and he resumed his route on the 6th.

"6th. Direction South, 80 East. Time, 3 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 10 miles.

Six elephants were produced, and at 10. 20 we proceeded across the valley to the south-eastward.—11. 12. Commenced the ascent of the eastern hills, which is gradual but considerable.

"1. 15. Crossed the Moy-Konie within quarter of a mile of a fall 60 or 80 feet to the S. W. of the road.

"1. 50. Halted on the banks of the Moy-Konie. Three of the elephants had four young; all born in captivity, which the Shans speak of as a thing of course: one of them had two, one about six years old, the other about 2½ or 3, still sucking. We here left all the little chiefs, but Benya-chi and the Burman who was taken prisoner twenty-five years ago. The road to-day (one of the principal routes to the Careen Uee (or Red Careens) country) was good, and the hills not very steep.

"7th. Direction South, 80 East. Time, 7 hours, 50 minutes; distance, 14 miles.

"8. 55. Steep ascent for two hours; great part of the way in ruts as deep as the elephants' backs worn by the mountain torrents.

"11. The mist on the hills and valley below us with a beautiful clear sun on it, had exactly the appearance of snow. A cold piercing wind from the eastward.—11. 15. Narrow road along the side of a hill which rises perhaps 150 or 160 feet above it, with a deep ravine below to the eastward.—12. Continued cold and chilly; left the elephant; steep descent for nearly an hour.—2. 45. Halted on the banks of the May-lie (which falls into the Mein-lun-ghee about a day below the village) on a beautiful little plain surrounded by high hills, and bounded on the south-west by the stream 10 or 12 feet wide.

"The march to-day was almost a continued ascent; some of the hills very steep; the elephants frequently obliged to stop from fatigue; the paths tolerably good, evidently much frequented, and said to be cut by a Shan king of great power, but evidently the tracts of elephants deepened by the torrents, in many places as deep as the backs of the elephants, not more than 18 inches wide at the bottom, and just clear of the howdahs at the top. The elephant from which I dismounted at 12 did not come to the ground till 4. 45, and was consequently
8 hours, 50 minutes on the road; some of them did not arrive till an hour afterwards from the difficulty of the ascent.

"8th. Direction North, 70 East. Time, 5 hours; distance, 12 miles.

"9. Continued to ascend the hills in a path rather better than that of yesterday; free from ruts.—10. 45. A good broad road along the side of the hills for an hour or two.—2. Halted on a small plain near the Lowa village of Mein-lay-been containing five or six houses. The nights have gradually been becoming cooler as we ascended, and there are seven of the people ill with fever in consequence. The thermometer stood at 46° in the tent this morning at 8 A. M.

"The jungle plantain, thet-tse, bamboos, and pine in luxuriance, the latter forming the principal part of the jungle (or forest, for it has lost much of its density in these upland regions;) the creepers have almost disappeared, and the trees which form the crest of the hills to the westward may almost be counted in the afternoon, and might be traversed with little difficulty.—At 11. 15 to-day from the top of one of the high hills nothing could be seen as far as the eye could range but masses of hills rising one above another, covered with the same description of jungle to their summits, but no snow to be seen; if they can be said to be disposed at all into ranges, it is between S. S. E. and N. N. W. but they are extremely irregular and broken.

"9th. Direction North, 45 East. Time, 6 hours; distance, 10 miles.

"8. 55. Continued to ascend.—2. 30. Open forest, composed entirely of fir trees, tall, straight, and free from branches, to the height probably of 50 feet.

"2. 55. Halted at the Lowa village of Bo, situated in an open plain in the forest, perhaps of 12 or 15 miles in length by five or six in breadth, as has been the case ever since leaving the Mein-lun-gehee. Our march has been a continued ascent, but gradually surmounting hills in succession, with several descents throughout; we are now said to occupy the highest and coldest halting place on the road; the fir has been the most numerous tree throughout the march, and the only one during the latter part of the day. The village of Bo consists of 60 or 80 houses: the people are all ironsmiths, and are exempted from all service but furnishing elephants' chains, cooking pots, spears, and other iron-ware to the Shans during war, or for military purposes; the iron ore is a red oxyd, and is found in immense masses in a hill to the north-westward less than one day's journey. It is brought to the village on elephants and melted in a simple furnace—yields nearly 50 per cent. of metal, soft and unfit for knives, ploughs, shears, &c. &c.; they have not the art of hardening it. The people are said to be rich, particularly in elephants, of which there are not less than sixty or seventy in the village.

"10th. Direction South, 65 East. Time, 5 hours, 40 minutes; distance, 14 miles.

"10 a. m. Ascended by a good path, much frequented throughout.—10. 20, descent.—1. 25. Saw the May-ping river, which falls into the sea at Bankok.—2. 20. Rocky steep, difficult descent.—3. 15. Crossed the May-papie river, knee deep, running easterly.—3. 40. Halted on the banks of the May-papie on a small grassy plain. Since 12. 20 we have been descending; the road though rocky has been pretty good, the air is decidedly milder, the pine has been gradually diminishing in numbers, and now not one is to be seen; the jungle just here is very close; the rocks throughout the latter part of the march old gray
sandstone, previous to which they have been granite with a large portion of felspar.

"11th. Direction North, 80 East. Time, 4 hours; distance, 12 miles.

"8.40. Crossed the May-papie: good path and less precipitous.—11. 50. Crossed a small dry rivulet in which rubies of small value are found.—12. 5. Crossed the May-Haut\(^{45}\) about knee deep, by which the paddy between this and the village is irrigated; nearly all the paddy in the plains of the valley of May-ping is cultivated in the same way.—12. 30. Halted at the village of Maarig-Haut\(^{46}\) (pronounced by the Burmans Mein-Woot) on the west bank of the May-ping, which runs to the southward and falls into the sea at Bankok after joining the May-nam\(^{47}\).

"The march to-day continued to descend gradually, with a few trifling acclivities till 12; since which nearly level; the climate proportionately improved; the jungle has assumed the same character as on the other side of the hills, but more open.

"We are now fairly in the valley of the May-ping, and have the prospect for the next three or four days of seeing something of the level country, but the whole extent of the country between the Thalween and May-ping, with trifling exceptions (such as the little valley of the Mein-hun-ghee), is one succession of mountains; nearly all of the primitive series, principally gravel gneiss trap, lime and sandstone.

"We crossed the May-papie thirteen times to-day. The village Mann-Haut contains about sixteen houses of the most uncomfortable appearance; it is about 12 days from Bankok, with which the communication is frequent; the river here is about 200 yards across, and rather rapid; there are a number of palmyra, cocoanut and other fruit trees, both here and on the opposite side, where there is also a small village.

"The river here is a little wider than above or below the village, and just fordable by elephants; there are few fish in the river, and the people almost ignorant of the art of catching them. On endeavouring to procure boats as the easiest conveyance for the sick, I was not a little surprised when only one small canoe could be procured, in which only one of the worst cases could be sent forward.

"Remained here one day at the request of the persons who accompany me, in order to transmit intelligence to Labong of our approach.

"13th. Direction North, 20 East. Time, 5 hours; distance, 15 miles.

"9.15. Road lies along the foot of the western hill; the river turns towards the eastern hills, which are distant about 20 miles.—11. 55. Crossed the Nam-May-tcheem\(^{48}\) wide 100 yards; fordable by elephants.—1. 45. River 200 yards wide; full of shoals.—2. 5. Crossed the May-ping, and halted on its eastern bank in an open jungle, where a house\(^{49}\) had been built for our reception. The road to-day has been nearly level and much frequented; the whole of the valley was inundated last year to a greater extent than is recollected by the oldest people, the paddy being nearly all destroyed, and the people obliged to take to the hills.

"14th. Direction North, 30 East. Time, 5 hours, 15 minutes; distance, 16 miles.

"8.15. Road good level.—9. 55. Grassy plains.—1. 30. Crossed the May-lie\(^{50}\), which falls in the May-ping four miles to the westward, wide about thirty or forty yards; halted on the eastern bank at the village of Naung-long\(^{12}\).
"15th. Direction North, 60 East. Time, 7 hours; distance, 21 miles.
"9. 5. Road good, passable for bandies.—12. 20. Grassy plains intersected with jungle.—1. Western hills distant 20 miles; eastern hills, 4 miles; hills sight to the northward.—1. 30. Paddy ground; numbers of buffaloes and black cattle.—2. 10. Halted between the village of Bansan-kanoy and Bansuypta on the western bank of the May-la, a small stream, which falls into the May-quang about a quarter of a mile from this, and from thence into the Mayping a quarter of a mile further to the south-west.
"The road to-day has been very good, much frequented and passable for a bullock cart; throughout marks of recent inundation are still very visible; oranges, pummaloes, pine apple, mangoe, palmyra, cocoanut, guavas, and other fruits are abundant; the first and the cocoanut are the only two now in season. The people have much improved in appearance; some of the women and children are nearly as fair as Europeans: many of the latter with light hair; the eyes are large and expressive, not at all like the Chinese; the nose, however, is small, like the Burman.
"They have had a report current here for the last month, that the English were coming up with 1,000 men, which has alarmed them a good deal. A letter has been dispatched to the people here to-day, telling them who I am, and ordering them to supply me with everything I want; and the messenger begged I would remain here two or three days, till the road was made smooth and everything ready for my reception at the capital. There is no way of avoiding their ridiculous delays."

Dr. R. was delayed here a few days, on the plea of preparing for his reception, and ascertaining from the astrologers a lucky day for his visit.

"20th. Direction North, 20 East. Time, 2 hours, 10 minutes; distance, 6 miles.
"10. 20. Started on horseback with ten or twelve elephants, each having a little either of my baggage or presents. At 11. 35 I was met by the second son-in-law of the Tsohoa, the 3rd chief of the province, with fifty elephants. On each were mounted some of the numerous relations of the chiefs. They had brought a spare elephant for me, on which after complimentary speeches of welcome, I mounted, and we continued our march; the elephant on which I rode being last. In this procession we proceeded slowly towards the town, occasionally stopping to let the elephants pull the pine apple plants and plantain trees out of the gardens of the poor people, with whom the chiefs chatted on the most familiar terms.

"At 12. 30 we arrived at this spot, about a mile from the town, which they had fixed on for my encampment. My tent was already pitched in a little square of sheds, which they had built for the people. The chiefs remained with me about an hour, examined the muskets, talked of our soldiers, &c., and then took their leave. On inquiry I found there were two chiefs from Lagon, but none from Zimmay present. There is only a small portion of the walls of the fort visible from this, and none of the houses; and from the immense number of cocoanut and betelnut trees growing inside, it has more the appearance of a forest than a fort; the tops of two pagodas (one of which is gilt) are
lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces.

visible over the tops of the trees; the whole country is so covered with wood that not twenty houses are to be seen from this place: there are as many round the Fort as there are in it. It stands on the right bank of the May-quad, which is here about 30 feet wide and three deep at this season, though navigable for boats of some burthen during the rise of the river. The May-quad falls into the May-ping about half a mile from this (in the valley of which river both this town and Zimmay are situated), which pursues its course amongst the hills from this to within a few days of Bankok, where the hills terminate, and the country spreads into a plain populous and fertile. The valley varies in breadth from 10 or 12 miles to 60 or 80; the soil is a rich sandy loam, and from the beds of the river apparently of great depth; the hills are of very considerable height, but no snow is visible from this, though the thermometer at 7 o'clock is seldom above 53°. The distance from this to the frontier towns of China is about 40 elephant marches (probably of 12 or 15 miles each) over the northern hills, and throughout that distance no snow is said to be encountered; but to what other cause than snow the rise of the river can be attributed, I am ignorant; as it is thought a heavy monsoon if there are three or four days of heavy rain in a month. The annual rise of the river is considerable, and last year was so excessive as to drive the whole population from its bank.

"I have had no communication with any of the chiefs to-day, but a letter was sent to the person (a Benya) left here to provide any thing I might want, to keep the Pungees and the people from crowding round my tent, in consequence of a representation of mine yesterday. The bearer of the letter said it was the wish of the chief that I should be presented to-morrow, and begged that I would not bring any pocket pistols or any other hidden instrument of death; I requested to know if I should wear any sword, as it was looked on by us as a mark of respect; to which they also objected. The materials have this evening been brought to build me a small house.

"21st. At 12. 30 sixteen coolies with seven large silver, and nine copper calats (salvers), and a body of peons armed with spears, came out to carry the presents and conduct me to the presence of the chief.

"The walls of the fort are formed of the red ferruginous porous stone common in Burmah at the bottom and the top of bricks of the most slender construction; the sides of the streets for a few yards were lined with the common people, bearing muskets; the shed (about quarter of a mile from the gate) in which the chief received me, was about 60 feet long and 20 wide, with three sheds at right angles built for the occasion, occupying the whole of the front, all of which were filled with people; many of them near relations of the chief, and all in the crouching position common with the Burmans; nearly all armed either with swords or muskets. The presents had already arrived, and were placed at the upper end of the centre shed. Having made a bow to the chief, I went immediately up to his seat (a small light chair) and presented the letter. I said that I was fortunate in being the first to open the road of friendship between the two countries, that it was the wish of the English Government that the merchants of each should be as uncontrolled in the territories of his neighbour as if they were in their own, &c. &c. He answered, he had long turned the eyes of friendship towards us; that he was happy the gold and silver road had been opened; that he hoped we should now be as one people, but that the presents must be
sent to the king of Siam, whose instructions would be taken. He wished to know what terms we were on with the Burmese. I said on terms of friendship: that after a war of two years they had sued for peace, and had obtained it—that they had nearly fulfilled the terms of the treaty, and that it was a principle of the English to forget an injury as soon as reparation was made. He said such was not the case with them; that they had been at war with the Burmans for ages, and that they killed or made slaves of them whenever they had it in their power—that the Burmans were equally inveterate. He then asked if I thought I could obtain an order from the Commissioner of Maulamyn for the Burmese to give up some tribes of Shans who had originally formed part of their kingdom of Siam. I said they were Burman subjects; and though we had conquered the greater part of their kingdom, it had been restored to them, and that we had now no control over them. He said that we had the Thenien or Sirian Shans with us; that they were originally from Caung-Ghan; and that if they wished to return to the land of their forefathers, he hoped that they would not be prevented. I said, that they were our subjects, and that if they wished to return, every facility for doing so would be afforded them.

"I thought this too favorable an opportunity to be missed, as I knew nearly every one in court was aware of my being acquainted with the circumstance of thirty or forty families of Burmans having been carried off by his people when coming to Maulamyn with a pass from Sir A. Campbell. Seeing the person who carried them off in court; and a Mussulman merchant being with me who had represented the impropriety of their proceedings at the time, and fearing that an unfavorable construction might be put on my silence and a precedent for like enormities in future; knowing also that Major Burney had demanded and obtained from the court of Siam the liberation of several hundred people carried off by the Siamese from about Mergui and Tenasserim; I thought it my imperative duty, as the business had already in some degree been agitated, to endeavour to obtain their release, notwithstanding my instructions were not to interfere in the matter if it could be avoided. I therefore said, I hoped equal indulgence would be granted to the Taline people who had been taken with the British General's pass. He denied having seen the pass, though I believed at the time and have since heard that it was shewn him when several of the Zimmay and Logan chiefs were present—that their liberation was agitated and opposed by the Zimmay chiefs. The chief who carried them off being in court, and having been before pointed out to me, I immediately put it to him, and he acknowledged that the pass was still with him, but no one present understood English; that they were ignorant of its contents, but it should be brought to my tent in the evening. Chow-the-Week said it should be made known at Siam, and that they must abide by the instructions from thence. I mentioned the circumstance of Major Burney's mission, and said I was sure it only required to be made known to his Siamese Majesty. The old chief was evidently much embarrassed during this part of the conversation; however, in case of any thing further being done towards their liberation, he cannot again plead ignorance. I repeated the hope that our intercourse might be free and unrestrained, and was again told that they must wait for instructions from Siam. I said that they might come to our settlement on the coast with the same freedom they would go to Lagon or Zimmay, and requested that Ponya-tche (who had
lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces.

asked me to make the request) might be allowed to accompany me to Maulamyne, where he would see the facility with which business was carried on amongst us, and the advantage to both countries which would arise from an unrestrained trade. He said he was about to send him to Bankok with the presents I had brought in the course of next month. I hoped he would find it convenient to send some one else, and from the great number of chiefs I there saw round the hall, I thought it could easily be managed. I then took my leave, and in the evening Ponya-Tche called on me, expressed himself much disappointed, and begged I would not give up the point. He was persuaded if I repeated the request he should be allowed to accompany me, and as he is one of the most intelligent persons I have met here, and the ultimate object of the Mission likely to be forwarded by his accompanying me, I promised I would do so. I asked him if there was any objection to my riding through the fort, &c. &c. He told me Chow-Tche-Weet had desired him to tell me I was at liberty to go where I pleased in the day, but that the gates of the fort were shut at night, and that it was rather expected I should call on some of the lesser chiefs, his numerous relations. I proposed calling to-morrow on his son-in-law, and one or two others of the chiefs who met me on the road and remained here the day I arrived."

The following are extracts from Dr. R.'s journal during his residence here, which are the most likely to interest the general reader.

"They had no idea that any European would attempt to cross the hills. I visited Chow Hood*; he is an intelligent man, about 40, of quiet and agreeable manners, to whom the chief government of the province is entrusted. The whole conversation was of the war with the Burmans, their hatred to whom is only exceeded by their dread, and their expressions of friendship for us proportioned to their idea of our power from having conquered the Burmese. The Zimmay chief who is nephew to Chow-Tche-Weet is by no means so friendly to us as the others, and there is some sparring between them now, about my being allowed to come here. On my return in the evening I found Chow-Ni-Moi-Koin at my house with two of the first chief's wives and several musicians, waiting to entertain me with a natch and singing; the music was particularly pleasing. One man, a northern Shan, sang remarkably well, both as to taste and execution, much in the style of the Chinese, but much superior to any thing I ever heard in that country. I presented a cotton handkerchief and a Madras rupee to each, with which they were highly pleased.

"24th. Rode round the fort to-day, which is of an irregular form; the largest end towards the south. The east, west, and southern faces are nearly of the same length (probably 15 or 1600 feet); the north end not more than 1,000. The wall is from 15 to 23 feet high outside, and from 13 to 18 inside, and of the most flimsy possible structure, with four gates in the east and two in the south, two on the west, and one in the north face, surrounded on three sides by a wet ditch of 60 or 70 feet wide and in good repair. On the east side the river flows: at this season it is not more than knee-deep; at the gates are guards of half a dozen coolies without arms. On the eastern bank of the river opposite the fort are the remains of an old stockade of equal size with the fort, with brick angles and bastions. The houses are more numerous without than within the fort. On the western side is an extensive plain of rich

* The title of the heir-apparent to the chieftainship.
paddy ground as far as the eye can reach from north to south, and five or six miles from east to west covered at this season with many thousand head of cattle, buffalos, also elephants in considerable numbers. Saw some of their bandies, which are the best specimen of their workmanship I have seen; the wheels are exactly like, and equal to those of a common English cart.

"25th. I have heard to-day that orders have been given to the people not to buy any thing from the merchants who accompanied me, and not to come about my house. Yesterday they endeavoured to exchange their goods for cattle, but the people dare not sell without orders, though anxious to do so. I sent the interpreter to Chow-tche-Weet, as is the custom here, to intitiate my intention of calling on him. He excused himself on account of indisposition. I told the interpreter also to say I was anxious to return on Saturday or Sunday at farthest, and to inquire if there were any objection to my going to Zimmay, to which I received no answer.

"Called on Chow Rajawoon, an elder brother of Chow-tche-Weet's, but by a concubine; he lives in a small bamboo house outside the fort, but has gold betel apparatus, the gift of the King of Siam, which is only given to chiefs of rank. He has twenty-eight wives, and told me with evident exultation that they were all taken prisoners by himself but one. He was chief of the Dummys, or licensed robbers, for many years,—a situation of some honor and danger, where the most barbarous system of border warfare is carried on with the most rancorous hatred, and where the State looks upon the prisoners taken by these treacherous midnight robbers as a principal source of its population.

"I represented to Chow Houa the inconsistency of the friendly expressions towards us, whilst the very object of my visit, from which they ought certainly to expect much advantage, was defeated by prohibiting their people from purchasing the things they were anxious to be in possession of, from the few poor people who had accompanied me; that it was bad encouragement for future caravans on a larger scale; but to convince them we perfectly trusted in them, the merchants would remain till their things could be disposed of, and that I would give a note of their names and numbers.

"26th. I received a visit from Chow Houa to-day, the purpose of which was to induce me to remain here for two months, till the presents I had brought were sent to Bankok and the King's sentiments known. I told him my reception had been such that I could have no objection to remain twelve months, but that the purpose of my visit had been to assure them of our friendly disposition towards them, and open a friendly communication between Maulamyne and the Shan country; that we had been on the most friendly terms from time immemorial with the King, or I could not have been sent to any of his allies or dependencies; that they were now aware of our sentiments and our anxiety to be at peace with all our neighbours, and that I wished to return on Sunday the 31st.

"29th. Paid my second visit to Chow-tche-Weet to-day, who sent in the morning to say he would be glad to see me; I was received as before, but with less stiffness and more cordiality, and there were no armed people in the street. He repeated his declarations of friendship towards the English, which I see no room to doubt; and said the only reason we were not on the same terms as natives of the country, was the bad feeling of the Zimmay chief towards us, and
that they had sent to Siam to endeavour to bring him under the king's displeasure for having received me as he had.

"I begged to know if Chow-ni-moi-Koin and Ponya-tche would be allowed to accompany me, and told him I was anxious to start on Sunday 31st. He said in that case it would be impossible for them to accompany me, and hoped I would wait nine days, when every thing would be ready, and a lucky day, and they should then proceed along with me. After some consideration, I said that though my instructions were to return immediately, I would take on myself to remain. 'Then,' said he, 'every thing is settled very soon; if you have any thing to ask or communicate, do it without reserve.' I then produced the General's pass, which mentions 1100 people, though there are now scarcely 100 remaining, the others having escaped as opportunity offered; and asked what were his intentions regarding those people; and as I had little doubt of his refusing to liberate them, and I had no authority to demand them, I added, that as our friendship was sealed and they were apprehensive of the King of Siam, I did not wish to press their immediate release, but begged he would allow the heads of the villages now left (who was the person they had selected to bring the letter to Maulamynge) to accompany me, and communicate his case to the Commissioner, that from the constant and friendly intercourse we had with the King of Siam, and his having given up our people who were carried off from Mergui, I had no doubt of the result. He readily agreed to the man's accompanying me, but begged jocularly that I would not give him up to the Burmans, who were a thorn in their eye, which seemed a signal for the conversation to become general; amongst other things he told me he had 80 wives, 18 sons, and 16 daughters, of whom one is an inferior wife of the King of Siam, but has unfortunately no children; that his relations in the three towns amount to upwards of 700; that there were 30 guns in this town, and 40 in Lagon and Zimmay each; (a Burman prisoner here has offered to eat all above ten in the three places;) that there are 4,000 inhabitants in Labouny, 40 or 50,000 in each of the other towns:—this is also of course very much exaggerated. The people who accompanied here to-day, after many pros and cons, received an order to buy forty-two bullocks for carriage. A Chinese who is here (father-in-law to Chow-tche-Weet) is to start to-morrow for Zimmay, to bring up some of the principal Chinese traders said to have arrived there, and I have strong hopes, from the enterprising character of the Chinese, they may be induced to visit the coast.

"I was invited into the fort at 3 P. M. to an entertainment, and had the ceremony called "Pouk" performed; beyond which I am told there is no possible mark of friendship. It consisted in two old men saying a prayer of some length for long life, riches, and happiness to one of the English Chiefs of elephants and horses and conqueror of the Burmans, and tying seven threads of white cotton round my wrists: the latter ceremony was also performed by Chow Raya Woon, the chief's elder brother, and by Chow-ni-moi-Koin, and I returned the compliment to them. Two large bouquet of flowers, one ornamented with a number of thin silver plates, and some of the flowers being of very considerable but oppressive fragrance, were presented. Sweetmeats were also served up to me, and rice with various curries, both to the people who accompanied me and to the natives, in large silver bowls, to the number of probably fifty, varying in size

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from a foot and a half to a few inches in diameter: the workmanship of many of those of the lesser size was remarkably good, nearly all gifts from the King of Siam; after which seven of the chiefs' wives danced to the music of the Bangkok band, by which they set great store, and the music is certainly very pleasing. Many of the women possess a very considerable share of Asiatic beauty: their eyes in particular are large and expressive, without a trace of the Tartar; their skin remarkably fair, and had it not been for the little Burman nose, some of them would have been really handsome. There were probably not less than 300 people present—all the chiefs of Lao-ny, many of those of Lagon, but none from Zimmay.

"February 8th. I have at length prepared to start in the morning by the shortest and best route to Maulamyne. The only reason for not starting to-day is its being a black one, and it would be disrespectful to me, as well as dangerous to themselves, to begin a journey to-day. I took leave of the chief to-day, and have been allowed as an especial favor to buy one (and Chow-tche-Weet has presented me with another) young female elephant, and sends one as a present to Mr. Maingy.

"Had another visit from some Zimmay people to-day, who agree with the others as to the very friendly feeling of the people there towards us. They say they so fully expected me there, that houses have been ready for the last ten days. On taking leave of Chow Houa he gave me a rhinoceros horn, on which he seemed to set a great value, as a charm against every evil; and as I had expressed some impatience at their delays and suspicion, he begged I would not suspect them of any want of friendship in so long withholding permission to purchase bullocks and trade with their people; that our character was perfectly new to them; that they were like an elephant crossing the river;—they must feel before they proceeded; that their difficulty was now got over, they were aware of our intentions being good; and that we should now come there on the same terms as subjects of Siam.

"In proof of their sincerity and the trust thus reposed in us, Beyna-tche would accompany me with 50 or 60 people, 2 or 300 cattle, and a number of elephants; that they all lived by trade or agriculture, and that some of the Chow's sons would certainly next year visit our settlement on the coast. He invited me to repeat my visit next dry season."

On the 9th Dr. R. started on his return: he gives the following account of the route he took, which, until the 15th, was the same by which he had travelled on his way up.

"15th. Direction South, 30 West. Time, 4 hours; distance, 10 miles.
"12. 35. I started: most of the people having gone on before me.
"1. 30. Came amongst the hills and commenced to ascend.
"2. 12. Broke off from the old Mein-lun-ghee road, leaving it a little to the westward.—2. 20. Crossed the May-papie in a few inches of water; path narrow, through low bamboo jungle; hills range about south 70 west, north 70 east.—3. 45. Crossed the May-Gnout© and halted on the western side in long grass; the bed of the stream rocky and wide 20 or 30 feet, with but little water at this season. Saw two wild cows and a tiger this evening.

"16th. Direction South, 50 West. Time, 6 hours; distance, 13 miles.
"9. March along the banks of the May-Gnout, and continued to ascend with
lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces.

few declivities; the path rocky.—10. Rocky steep ascent for half an hour.—10. 55. Saw the first pine trees.—11. 30. Left the May-Gnoot.—1. 20. We entered pine forest, and no other tree is to be seen but a few stunted yews.—3. Halted on the N. E. bank of a small stream called the May-lie, which falls into the May-ping to the eastward; the path has been pretty good, and though rocky in many places, I think less difficult than the Mein-hun-ghee road: it is the old road to Martaban61, and has been little frequented for the last seven years; the rocks in all the high hills are granite of very dark colour externally. A good deal of thunder and rain this evening; this halting place is famous for tigers; several people have been carried off from it.

"17th. Direction South, 30 West. Time, 3 hours, 20 minutes; distance, 11 miles.

"8. 30. Crossed the May-lie.—9. 30. Proceeded by a nearly level path along the top of a small connecting range of hills in a noble pine forest.—11. 30. Descended.—11. 50. Halted on the banks of a small stream, the May-tome62. Path remarkably good and nearly level for the last two and a half hours; some of the pine trees measured eight or nine feet in circumference, and are much taller and straighter than the same trees in Europe.

"18th. Direction South, 45 West. Time, 3 hours, 15 minutes; distance, 14 miles.

"8. 45. Crossed the May-tome, and continued along a good path; descending for nearly half an hour.—9. 30. Crossed a small stream.—11. 15. Crossed another small stream, and ascended with occasional small descents till 10, when we halted on the southern bank of the May-tuan63, running to the eastward.

"The whole march to-day through the same fine open forest of pine; the path good and the hills not at all steep. Shot a jungle cow to-day: these are abundant in some of the valleys near our route; the flesh was harder than the worst buffalo. Tigers and the common deer are abundant.

"19th. I have been obliged to halt to-day to refresh the elephants, as the passes are said to be difficult and no forage for three days for them: (there are seventeen large and four small ones.) We are now on the site of an old city64 formerly inhabited by Talines (to whom all the country to the westward formerly belonged) and more lately to the Shans, but has been deserted some years on account of the devastation committed by the Burmans; the valley is of some few miles in extent, and through it runs the May-tuan river, which at this season is about two feet deep, and as it falls into the May-ping, was formerly navigable for small canoes to Bangkok; its course is extremely winding.

"20th. Direction South, 50 West. Time, 6 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 30 miles.

"9. Ascended along a rugged bad path.

"10. 17. Descended. The firs which have been gradually diminishing in numbers through the whole of to-day's march, are now only to be seen in single trees towering above the other trees of the jungle.—3. 48. Halted in a ravine of very thick jungle on the west bank of the May-tuan, running to the northward.

"The march to-day has been the longest as to time, the most toilsome and disagreeable since leaving Maulamyne: the path has been either up or down steep hills, or along the bottom of ravines into which the sun can only shine a few
hours in the day; and since half past ten through a thick jungle. Our course has been all round the compass, and I have been obliged to note its direction no less than eighty times to get at any thing like a correct general direction; we are again on the banks of the river which we left this morning, the course of which is even more tortuous than the road we have come. We are encamped on a small level spot of a few hundred yards, surrounded by high hills; the jungle extremely thick, but abounding on the hills with deer of all sizes, cows, buffalo, tigers, leopards, and rhinoceros. We passed the end of the road, which runs more to the eastward, along which the bullocks are to come; path is much better, but there are no inhabitants in that direction.

""21st. Direction South, 65 West. Time, 7 hours; distance, 15 miles.

"9. 15. Proceeded along a narrow ascending path in thick jungle.—4. 45. Halted on the May-Koung\(^\text{65}\), wide 30, deep 1½ feet, pebbly bed, a short way from Kamoo\(^\text{65}\), a Careen village. The march to-day has been over a succession of hills, some of which were nearly perpendicular, and I should think almost impassable for a loaded bullock, though the elephants have travelled with ease. The path is well shaded, and there is abundance of water: indeed the jungle has generally been so thick that we could only see a little of the path before us, and a ravine or a hill close to the road; the march on the whole was less disagreeable than yesterday, having been more on the hills. Between 10. 20, and 10. 40, passed a hill, on which there are a great many lofty cinnamon trees, the only ones known by the Careens to exist on any of the hills, and are not at all prized by them; the bank is about two inches thick, and of good flavour, when fresh, but acquires a bitter taste when dry. Passed some immense trees, called by the Burmans Couck-Moo\(^\text{67}\), of which the canoes are made; said to be large enough to make a canoe for 5 or 600 baskets of paddy.

""22nd. Direction South, 40 West. Time, 2 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 7 miles.

"9. Path pretty level; jungle extremely close.—9. 20. Along the bed of the May-Koung, pebbly with large rolled mosses overhung by rocks 1 or 200 feet high.—10. Jack trees; said to be the site of an old city.—11. 30. Halted in a thick jungle with some betel-nut trees on the western bank of the May-Koung. March nearly of the same character as the last two days, but the hills less steep.

"23rd. Direction South, 55 West. Time, 8 hours; distance, 17 miles.

"8. 4. Ascended.—9. 10. Wound up the face of an extremely steep hill from east to west, in a southern direction; and at 9. 20 ascended along the brow of the hill.—11. 40. Crossed the May-Tia\(^\text{68}\), and proceeded along a ravine.—1. Recrossed the Tia.—4. 45. Halted on the east bank of the May-Gnow, wide 90 or 100 feet, running north, 20 west. The hills to-day, with the exception of those on the 21st, were as steep as any we have crossed; and our progress slow and difficult; some of the highest hills to-day had been cleared for paddy, and the ground is said to be productive. Met a Zimmay slave merchant returning by the route; he had six slaves, three of whom are about five years of age, for each of whom he gave four bullocks.

"24th. We have been obliged to halt to-day till the old road between Martaban, and this, which has grown up from disuse, be a little cleared by the Careens for the next two marches, when it again joins the route followed by us in our march up one day from the Thanung-Ein.
"25th. Direction North, 80 West. Time, 2 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 7 miles and 4 furlongs.

"9. 45. Crossed the May-Gnow several times along a level road. At 10 passed a small Careen village, and left the May-Gnow to the northward. The Careens had cleared the path through long grass, along the banks and in the bed of the May-Satang, a small stream of a few inches deep. At 10. 15 halted on the banks of the May-Satang, in thick jungle with wild plantains. The path to-day has been nearly level down the course and across the valley of the May-Gnow.

"26th. Direction North, 65 West. Time, 3 hours; distance, 7 miles.

"9. 30. Proceeded along a pretty good path, crossing the May-Satang.—10. 45. Descended and crossed the May-Satang, the last time.—11. 40. Side of the hills less steep to-day than some parts of our march, but path very narrow on the brink of a precipice.—12. 30. Halted on the brow of the hill. The road which we have come to-day will be good when more frequented. Except a very steep hill at the beginning of the march, the Careens declare there is no better path through these hills. A considerable part of the march to-day was through an old paddy hill on which the trees had not yet acquired any size, and many of the other hills had been cultivated to their summits within the last year or two. The Careens in this part of the hills must, of course, be pretty numerous.

"27th. Direction South, 70 West. Time, 5 hours, 13 minutes; distance, 11 miles, 6 furlongs.

"9. 10. Started, and crossed several hills, or rather heights, on the hills.—2. Came on the paths we travelled on the way up.—2. 25. Halted at our former halting place on the banks of the Seindzoy-Keum. The path to-day has been good for elephants, and very passable for bullocks.

"28th. Direction South. Time, 6 hours, 40 minutes; distance, 12 miles.

"9. Crossed the Seindzoy, and proceeded along the path pursued on our way up.—1. Passed our old halting place on the May-tha-woe.—3. 40. Halted at our former halting place on the banks of the Thaung-Ein.

"The first half the march to-day, which was extremely distressing to the elephants from the steepness of the hills, was performed in two hours and a half on our march up, and took us four hours to-day. The last half of the march was more level along the little valley of the May-thoe-woe, which we crossed 8 or 10 times, and was performed in very little (10 minutes) more time than we took in the way up.

"March 1st. Halted to-day on the banks of the Thaung-Ein. To-morrow I shall proceed alone, and the Shans will wait for the remainder of the cattle on their own side of the river. The golden sword-bearer is to accompany me one march with four elephants.

"2nd. Direction South, 20 West. Time, 4 hours, 5 minutes; distance, 12 miles.

"10. Crossed the Thaung-Ein at an elephant's ford about ¼ of a mile above where we crossed before.—12. 10. Passed Ween-Wee, our old halting place.

"3. 5. Halted on the old ground at the top of the waterfall.

"The path for much the longer proportion of this march was good, and per-
fectly level; the elephants consequently proceeding rapidly, and were up with the people.

"3rd. Direction South, 20 West. Time, 4 hours, 20 minutes; distance, 10 miles.

"10. 20. Descended the waterfall.—1. 15. Reached the Yun-byne river.—2. 45. Crossed the end of the Yun-byne path, by which we marched on our way up, and halted on the beginning of the Daygue path, near our former halting place.

"The descent of the waterfall was less difficult than I had anticipated. The bullocks left Ween-Wee this morning, and were up a short time after us. The road on this side of the Thaung-Ein, though still amongst the hills, is less mountainous than we have travelled between Mein-Woot and that river.

"4th. Direction South, 45 West. Time, 2 hours, 45 minutes; distance, 7 miles, 4 furlongs.

"9. Crossed the Mian-Koung, the path good but narrow, from not having been cut by the Careens.

"9. 45. The whole jungle of short bamboos intersected in all directions with elephants' tracks.—12. 30. Crossed the Chiline-Boye river, now with only a few inches water, but the bed of the river is 80 or 100 feet wide, with deep banks, probably 18 or 20 feet.—1. 10. Halted on the north bank of the Kwee-Koung or buffaloe stream, 10 or 12 feet wide, running to the westward. The path to-day was particularly good and level, but not cleared for a few miles. Some of the people saw to-day a herd of 20 or 30 elephants, amongst which there were several males, and some young ones.

"5th. Direction South, 45 West. Time, 2 hours, 45 minutes; distance, 7 miles, 4 furlongs.

"9. Crossed the buffaloe stream and marched along a good level path.—11. Halted on the banks of the Ou-ko, after searching half an hour in vain for a path; the Careens who were sent for this morning at daylight have not yet arrived. The path to-day good, open and level, and, as yesterday, much intersected by elephants' tracks.

"This part of the country was formerly inhabited by the Lowa-Talines, and the places still bear Lowa names; the same race extended to the Moy-Toun, before the country was devastated by the Burmans, whose blood-thirsty rapacity has depopulated the whole of this part of the ancient Taline kingdom.

"6th. Direction South, 30 West. Time, 4 hours, 15 minutes; distance, 12 miles, 2 furlongs.

"8. 30. Good path through open jungle and long grass.—11. Remains of Careen villages.—11. 20. Plains of considerable extent; marks of wild cattle. —12. 25. Halted in consequence of the jungle in advance being on fire.—1. 40. Proceeded, and at 2 halted on the south-western bank of the Chiline-Boye (which falls in the Gyne, a short distance in a South 70 East direction from this.) Such is the level nature of the country that some of the stream runs into the Chiline-Boye in the beginning of the rains, and out of it after they have fairly set in. The bed of the Chiline-Boye, which rises 20 or 25 feet in the rains, is here 80 or 100 feet wide, the water about knee-deep in some places, in others of greater depth, and frequented by alligators; and that of the Chiline-putty about 30 wide and 25 deep; they were both choked up with fallen trees, and the latter dry at this season.
"The march to-day has been through a level country; the jungle open with long grass, and four or five small plains covered with small bamboos much cut up by the jungle cattie. Elephants' tracks still intersecting in all directions. Saw some rhinoceros' marks to-day; their feet are smaller than the elephants, toes more apart, and the nails longer;—sent off two sick people to proceed down the Ghine in boats, under charge of the head Careen.

"7th. Direction South, 20 East. Time, 2 hours, 30 minutes; distance, 7 miles.

"8.30. Proceeded along a good path and level.—9. 30. Plain with long grass. At 10. 45 large plain and paddy stubble covered with upwards of two hundred buffaloes belonging to the Careen village of twenty-eight or thirty houses called Twine-woot or Twine-bot.—11. Halted at the end of a plain.

"8th. Direction South, 35 West. Time, 2 hours, 20 minutes; distance, 10 miles.

"10. 10. Proceeded along the level path, through a country of the same character as yesterday.—2. Bed of the Tham-bou river.—2. 30. Halted at a broken bridge over the Atsong river on the high road from Martaban to the town of Gyne, about ten miles from Gyne, and at an equal distance from Domi-tha, and within sound of the evening gun of Maulamyne. The town of Gyne was destroyed in a revolt of the Talines about twenty years ago.

"The road to-day good and level; very beautiful plains, less water than usual, but plenty for cattle and passengers.

"9th. Direction South, 20 West. Time, 6 hours; distance, 17 miles.

"8. 10. Route continues through level grassy plain with occasional patches of jungle.—11. 11. Paddy stubble.—2. 10. Halted near the Thaung-thoo village of Naung-laung, containing about thirty houses, and probably about 200 inhabitants: found here a body of about one hundred of the annual caravans of the Shan-Gaung-bee Shans, who have been nearly four months on the road from their own country in the north. The road to-day level, and generally free from jungle, through plains of fine long grass. The path has been extremely tortuous, and for the last two hours most unnecessarily winding in all manner of directions through a plain of short grass or paddy stubble. The whole of the plains in this neighbourhood are covered with rich green grass, enough for the subsistence of an immense number of cattle throughout the dry season. The waters of the monsoon recede very late from this part of the country, and at that season boats pole across this plain to Yam-soline, and from thence up the creeks to Shewe-Ghin, and Toungoo.

"The path along the plain was much exposed to the sun, and many of the Talines, who suffer more from the sun than the natives of India, were ten hours on the march.

"10th. Direction North, 20 East. Time, 8 hours; distance, 26 miles.

"7. 15. Marched along the continuation of the plain till 1. 45, when we halted a few hours at Dzadi-been.—6. 30. From this proceeded in boats to Maulamyne, where we arrived at 9. 20 p. m.

[To be continued.]
II.—Outline of Political and Commercial Relations with the Native States on the Eastern and Western Coasts, Malay Peninsula*. By T. J. Newbold, Lieut., A. D. C. to Brigadier General Wilson, C. B.

Note.—It will be convenient to preface, that the subjoined outline follows the geographical order of the States on both coasts of the peninsula; commencing on the north-west with Quêdah, and proceeding southerly down the Straits of Malacca to Point Romania—thence turning northerly along the eastern coast up to Patâni.

The following is the order of the States, with their supposed boundaries and estimate of population, chiefly derived from native sources in 1835.

Quêdah†—from the Trang river, in 7° 20’ N. to the Krian, 5° 10’ N. Population 50,000.

Péerak—from the Krian to the Rânkâp, in about 3° 59’ N. Population 35,000.

Salangôre—from the Rânkâp to the Lingie, in about 2° 35’ N. Population 12,000.

Malacca—(British territory,) from the Lingie to the Cassang. Population, (1833-1834,) 34,333.

Johôre—from the Cassang to the Sedilly, on the East coast, 2° 15’ N. Population 25,000.

Pahâng—from the Sedilly to the Kemâmang, in 4° 15’ N. Population 40,000.

Kemâmang—is situated a mile or two up the river, little or no territory along the coast. Population 1,000.

Tringânû—from the Kemâmang to the Basut. Population 30,000.

Calântan—from the Basut to the Barûna. Population 50,000.

Patânî—from the Barûnà to Tana, in 7° 20’ N. Population 54,000.

The population of Pinang in 1833 amounted to 40,322,—that of Province Wellesley to 49,553,—and that of Singapore, in 1834, to 26,329.

Quêdah, Ligôre, Patânî, Merdilous, Junk Ceylon.—The upper states of the peninsula, viz. Quêdah, Ligôre, Patânî, Merdilous, and the island of Junk Ceylon, are considered in the treaty concluded by Major Burney, with Siam, in 1826, as provinces of that empire,—a concession to that arrogant power, scarcely just or politic.

Quêdah.—Our relations with the latter four states are merely of a commercial nature,—an unrestricted trade with the ports of Singapore, Malacca, and Pinang. With regard to Quêdah, it is stipulated in the above treaty, that the Siamese shall take proper care of that country and its people, and that they shall remain there: the inhabitants of Pinang and Quêdah enjoying mutual trade and intercourse as before. The Siamese engaged not to levy any duty upon stock and provisions; such as cattle, buffaloes, poultry, fish, paddy, and rice, which the inhabitants of Pinang, or ships there, might have

* This paper, though rather more of a political nature than is suitable to a Scientific Journal, cannot be refused publication, as it forms the wind-up to the valuable series of notices of the Malacca States already printed in our pages.—Ed.

† It must be borne in mind, that a tract of the Quêdah coast, called Province Wellesley, about 35 miles long by 4 broad, extending from the embouchûre of the Mêda to that of the Krian river, is under the Pinang Government.
occasion to purchase in Quédah: and the Siamese should not farm the mouths of rivers or any streams in Quédah, but should levy fair and proper import and export duties.

The English engaged to the Siamese not only that they would not attack nor disturb Quédah, but that they would not permit its depos-ed sovereign or any of his followers to attack, disturb, or injure in any manner the territory of Quédah or any other territory subject to Siam. They also engaged that they would make arrangements for the ex-king of Quédah to go and live in some other country*, and not at Pinang or Prye, or in Perák, Salangóre, or any Burmese country. In case the ex-king did not remove, the Siamese were at liberty to levy the export duty upon paddy and rice in Quédah.

With Quédah for Pulo-Pinang or Prince-of-Wales Island.—Pulo-Pinang was formally ceded to the British on the 12th September, 1786, for the annual sum of 6,000 Spanish dollars, by the father of the present ex-king of Quédah, through the agency of Mr. Light, to whom it had been presented the preceding year as a marriage portion with the Malay king's daughter.

In 1802, Sir George Leith finally arranged that the English Company should pay annually to His Majesty of Purlis and Quédah 10,000 Spanish dollars, as long as the English should continue in possession of Pulo-Pinang and Province Wellesley. This last is the line of coast, on the opposite shore, on the main, that lies between the river side of Qualla Múda on the north and Qualla Krián on the south; measuring inland from the sea side 60 orlongs.

The Company are bound to protect this coast from all enemies, robbers and pirates that may attack it by sea from north or south.

The treaty consists of fourteen articles, and terminates with the following remarkable paragraph. "These fourteen articles being settled and concluded between his Majesty and the English Company, the countries of Purlis and Quédah and Pulo-Pinang shall be as one country; and whoever shall depart or deviate from any part of this agreement, the Almighty punish and destroy him; he shall not prosper."

Pinang was formed into a regular government in 1805.

Perák.—Perák is the next state, on the west coast, south of Quédah. A notice of its relations has been already given.

Salangóre.—A treaty of commercial alliance, precisely similar to that entered into with Perák, was concluded with Salangóre in 1818 by the British Commissioner, Mr. Cracroft.

* He resided and drew his pension in Malacca till the close of 1835, when he left it ostensibly for Delli in Sumatra.
By Major Burney's treaty with Siam, 1826, the British are bound not to allow the State of Salangóre to attack and disturb that of Pérak. The Siamese are likewise bound by the same treaty not to go and attack or disturb Salangóre. In 1786 the Dutch dictated a treaty to the then Rája (Ibrahim), by which the latter was compelled to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Dutch, who were then in possession of Malacca, and to hold his kingdom from them as a fief. In 1818 the Dutch wished to renew this treaty, but the Salangóre chief refused, relying on his newly acquired relations* with the British.

Johóre for the occupation of the island of Singapore.—In 1818 a commercial treaty was entered into, by the then Resident at Malacca, Major Farquhar, with the monarch of Johóre, who was acknowledged by the Dutch; viz. Sri Sultan Abdurrahmán Sháh. Since that time, however, the elder brother of this prince was set up and acknowledged by British policy as being the rightful successor, and in order to obtain a legal title to the island of Singapore, which, as will be shewn, was ceded to the Company by the latter. By Major Farquhar's treaty with Abdurrahmán Sháh, mutual liberty of navigation and commerce in the ports and dominions of Johóre, Paháng, Lingin, Rhio, &c. was secured to British subjects, or persons under the protection of the Company, on the footing of subjects of the most favored nations; the subjects of Johóre enjoying similar advantages and privileges in the harbour of Fort Cornwallis, and in all other places dependent on the British Government of Pinang.

Sir Stamford Raffles, in a letter to Sir Robert H. Inglis, states that the Dutch no sooner obtained possession of Malacca, (in September, 1818, the month after Major Farquhar's treaty with Abdurrahmán Sháh had been concluded,) than, notwithstanding our treaties, which had been publicly communicated for their information on the cession of Malacca, they sent an overpowering force to Rhio, where Abdurrahmán resided; declared the chief to be their vassal, treated our negotiations with him contemptuously, and dictated a treaty which excluded the British trade from the port, &c.

In consequence partly of the delivering up of a place, so advantageously situated as Malacca, to Holland, it was deemed politic by the Marquis of Hastings, in order to protect the British trade, and to secure one of the two passages to the Eastern Archipelago and China, to attempt the improvement of our relations with Achín at the

* Salangóre, formerly renowned for its warlike and enterprising colony of Bugis, has dwindled into a weak, piratical state. They were apprehending and preparing for an attack from Siau in the middle of last year. The present chief is not remarkable for talent or enterprise. His name is Sultan Mahomed.
northern entrance, and to form a settlement at Rhio, an island advantageously situated near the southern extremity. For these and other political purposes, Sir Stamford Raffles was appointed and associated with the Resident at Malacca, Major Farquhar, by his Lordship, and proceeded on his mission from Bengal in December 1818.

On arriving in the Straits he found Malacca and Rhio in the hands of the Dutch, as already alluded to;—consequently, Holland at this time held in her hands the keys of both those gates to the China Seas, the Straits of Malacca and Sunda.

The Carimoon isles and that of Singapore were almost the only eligible spots now left. The latter, with the concurrence of Major Farquhar, and, some say, at the suggestion of Captain Ross, was judiciously selected by Sir Stamford, and the British flag there hoisted on the 29th February, 1819. The new settlement was placed in charge of Major Farquhar; who, from his great popularity among the Malays, and local experience, was admirably fitted for the office.

It appears that Sir Stamford when off Singapore was visited by the Tumungong of Johore, a chief inimical to the interests of Holland, and by no means friendly to the claims of the Sultan newly elected by the Dutch, Abdurrahman Sha'h, with whom a reluctant and exclusive treaty, as far as regarded the commerce of other European powers, had been concluded by Dutch agents at Rhio, which gave them possession of that island. The Tumungong represented to Sir Stamford, that the British were still at liberty to establish themselves on the island of Singapore under the sanction of the legitimate sovereign, whom he considered to be the elder brother, Hussain Mahomed Sha'h, whose lawful claims had been set aside by the Dutch in favor of those of his younger brother, Abdurrahman Sha'h, with whom they had concluded the arbitrary treaty already mentioned.

As the recognition of Hussain Sha'h as lawful sovereign of Johore was a necessary preliminary to treating with him, he was now invited over from Rhio to Singapore by the British Commissioners, and being acknowledged by the two hereditary elective officers of the empire, viz. the Bandahora of Pahang and the Tumungong of Johore as their lawful chief, was recognized and treated with as the legal sovereign by the Commissioners; who forthwith entered into arrangements for the immediate occupation of the port and the establishment of a settlement at Singapore, pending a reference to the Supreme Government.

By the arrangement with Hussain Sha'h, of the 26th June, 1819, which appears to have been rather loosely drawn up, it was decided that the British jurisdiction should extend only over a limited part of the island; viz.—from Tnajong Mallang on the west, to Tunjong
Kattang on the east; and interiorly as far as cannon-shot range all round the factory. The council for the government of the island to be composed of the British Resident, the Sultan and the Tumungong.

This state of affairs continued with little alteration until 1824, when final arrangements for the entire cession of the island to the British were made, and a treaty of friendship and alliance concluded by the then Resident, Mr. Crawfurd, on the part of the Company, with their highnesses the Sultan and Tumungong of Johore. This took place on the 2nd of August. By it the island of Singapore, together with the adjacent seas, straits and islets to the extent of ten geographical miles from the coast of Singapore, were given up in full sovereignty and property to the East India Company, their heirs and successors for ever.

The Company agreed, in consideration of this cession, to pay to the Sultan the sum of 33,200 Spanish dollars, together with a stipend during his natural life of 1,300 Spanish dollars per mensem; and to the Tumungong the sum of 26,800 Spanish dollars, with a monthly stipend of 700 Spanish dollars during his natural life.

In event of the Sultan and the Tumungong, their heirs or successors, preferring to reside permanently in any portion of their own estates, and to remove for that purpose from Singapore, the Company agreed to pay the Sultan, his heirs or successors, the sum of 10,000 Spanish dollars; and to the Tumungong, his heir or successor, the sum of 15,000 Spanish dollars. The Sultan and the Tumungong, in return, relinquishing for themselves, their heirs and successors, to the Company, their heirs, &c. for ever, all right and title to every description of immovable property, whether in land, gardens, houses, &c. of which they might be possessed within the island or its dependencies at the time of their withdrawal from Singapore, for the purpose of residing permanently within their own states.

It was also mutually stipulated, that neither party should be bound to interfere in the internal concerns of the other Government, or in any political dissensions or wars which might arise within their respective territories, nor to support each other by force of arms against any third party whatsoever. The Sultan and Tumungong bound themselves that, as long as they continued to reside within the island of Singapore, or drew their respective monthly stipends from the Company, they would not enter into any alliance, nor maintain correspondence with any foreign power or potentate without the knowledge and consent of the Company, its heirs, &c.; to maintain a free and unshackled trade every where within their dominions, and to admit the trade and traffic of the British nation into all the ports and harbours of
the kingdom of Johore and its dependencies on the terms of the most favored nations. Such are the conditions under which the British hold Singapore from the Sultan of Johore.

Pahang.—Pahang, though virtually independent, is nominally a dependency of Johore; governed by one of its elective officers, the Bandahara. It has consequently been included in the relations with that state.

Tringanu and Calantan.—By the 12th article of Major Burney's treaty it is stipulated, that Siam shall not go and obstruct or interrupt commerce in the states of Tringanu and Calantan. English merchants and subjects shall have trade and intercourse in future with the same facility and freedom as they have heretofore had; and the English shall not go and molest, attack or disturb those States upon any pretence whatever.

Patani.—Patani has already been adverted to as having become a province of Siam, on which empire it borders.

Present condition of the Malay States.—Having thus traversed both the eastern and western coast of the Peninsula, I will briefly advert to the political condition of the Malay States as it existed at the time of my quitting the Straits in 1835. The Siamese retained, in spite of their struggles, firm hold of Quedah and Patani, which are still groaning under the yoke. The rightful Raja of Patani remained a close prisoner in Siam, and his country in a state of depopulation and distress under a Siamese governor. Tringanu and Calantan, being less under the withering influence of the monarch of the White Elephant, are in a more prosperous condition, carrying on a considerable trade with Singapore under their own princes. Both Tringanu and Calantan have been lately menaced by Siam, in violation of their treaty with the British, by which they are interdicted from interfering with these States.—Kemimang is a small state, lying between Tringanu and Pahang: of the former it is nominally a tributary, but bears a mala fama on the score of piracy,—a practice said to be countenanced by its chief. The pirates are chiefly tempted by the prows trading from Patani, Calantan and Tringanu to the port of Singapore. Pahang was in a peaceable and flourishing state under its Bandahara, carrying on a profitable trade with Singapore, chiefly in gold-dust. The shores of Johore, though nominally the possessions of our stipendiary the Sultan, are miserably neglected; the creeks, bays, islets, and rivers of this extensive tract affording safe shelter to the hordes of pirates that threaten to extirpate the native commerce of Singapore. The states in the interior of Malacca were, by the last accounts, still in anarchy and confusion, arising from the fierce feuds and broils which have for some years
past been raging among the native chiefs. Salangóre was labouring under serious apprehensions of an attack from Siac on the opposite coast of Sumatra, the chief of which was said to be collecting a fleet of práthus for that purpose. The Rája of Salangóre was employed in repairing his fort, and remounting the numerous guns that lay scattered on and around the hill on which the fort stands. Péarak was quiet, and occupied in agriculture and the tin trade. Our old ally, the ex-king of Quédah, and the Sultan of Johóre were living on their handsome pensions at Malacca. The latter has since died (September 2nd, 835). Near the close of 1835 no steps had been taken with regard to the succession. According to treaty, the pension was to expire with the Sultan; but out of consideration to his widow and children, an allowance of 100 Spanish dollars per mensem has been granted her by the Straits Government, pending a reference to Bengal.

The late Sultan first married with the present Bandahára of Pa-háng's daughter; by whom he has no issue. By his second wife, the present Tumúngong of Singapore's sister, he had a son, surnamed Tuanku besár, who married one of the Tumúngong's daughters, but died without issue. His third wife was a woman of low birth, by whom he has a son now living at Singapore, named Abdal Jalil. He is about 21 years of age. Not being of noble blood by his mother's side, his claims to the succession are not considered good by the Malays. By the fourth and present wife, who is of royal extraction, he has two sons, fine lads,—and two girls: they reside with their mother at Malacca. The eldest of the boys is considered the late Sultan's heir.

The ex-king of Quédah, I believe, left Malacca towards the end of 1835 for Delli in Sumatra. He had, in 1833, expressed to me his determination of doing so, being disgusted at the answers given to his earnest and repeated applications for redress against the Siamese, and to his request for permission to reside at Pinang, which had then been recently refused by Lord William Bentinck. He said that he had many friends at Delli, and hinted at the possibility of his making a final attempt to expel, with their assistance, the Siamese from his dominions. Péarak and the whole Malay population of Quédah, and probably that of Patáni, are greatly under his influence; and it would require but little persuasion to excite the whole of the neighbouring Malayan States to take up arms against their haughty oppressors.

With regard to British influence over the Malay States, it might unquestionably be much greater than it is; and indeed we might possess almost sovereign power over the whole peninsula, were we
only to exert the political means already under our control. Of later
days the fashion has been to treat with them as independent
powers; while the chiefs themselves, from a combination of circum-
stances too long for detail here, are for the most part with difficulty
and unwillingly brought to consider themselves so.

Experience has shewn the necessity of the existence of a predomi-
nating power, capable and willing to afford effectual mediation, to
which these divided States may look up in their frequent disputes.
The Dutch during their ascendency were fully alive to, and took
every advantage of, the influence their commanding position gave
them; as the numberless treaties concluded with almost every petty
chief on the peninsula and in the Archipelago fully evince: but, by
a series of tyrannical and impolitic acts, more particularly the dis-
graceful system of forced labour, they alienated the affections of a
generous race of men, and lost, as a natural consequence, the fruits
of their able, though selfish negotiations and political alliances.
Britain now occupies a prouder situation with regard to these Eastern
States than Holland ever did. Two princes, representatives of the
two most noble dynasties, Quédah and Johore, derive a handsome
subsistence from British bounty. British colonies occupy, and carry
on an extensive commerce from the site of those two ancient seats
of Malayan empire, Malacca and Singapore; while British ships
retain undisputed possession of the seas. It alone remains for a
wise and liberal Government to consolidate and uphold the moral
influence of public opinion,—that extraordinary talisman by which is
held together the greatest of colonial empires. In the face of such
considerations, deterred by the fallacious theories of non-intervention
and non-territorial extension, we are incurring the heavy moral
responsibility of permitting so great an extent of power, delegated,
no doubt, for philanthropic and humane purposes, to lie inert,—a
power which, if wielded with discretion, would not only strengthen
our political and commercial relations in this part of the globe, but
effect the decided amelioration, and, eventually, the radical extir-
pation of the evils under which these oppressed States now groan.

The absence of the strong hand of power, guided by the dictates
of humanity and common sense, to settle the endless feuds of the
native chiefs, which are too often excited and supported by the crimi-
nal cupidity of native merchants and others residing under our au-
thority (as in the case of the late massacre at Lákūt, and the distur-
bances still prevailing at Lingie); the morbid dread of intervention,
exemplified in our late treaties, and in our systematical non-support
of the native established sovereigns in just authority over their rebel-
The resources of the soil have been almost hermetically sealed to the occupier by the frequent and protracted feuds already alluded to. Hence the peasant, driven from his village and lawful means of subsistence, and tempted by the smooth seas, the favorable navigation and shelter from pursuit afforded by the unexplored rivers, creeks, and numerous islets of the Straits, and by the charms of a life so congenial to the free and restless spirit of a Malay, is induced to scour the water for a precarious subsistence by fishing or plunder, or by both, as opportunity chance to present:

* The prahu used by Malay pirates are from eight to ten tons burthen, extremely well manned and remarkably fast, particularly with the paddles commonly used. They are generally armed with swivels on their bows, centre, and stern, of small calibre, but long range. When preparing to attack, strong bulwarks of wood called Apilans are erected, behind which the crew ensconce themselves, fighting with their long guns until their prey is disabled; or till the gong sound the signal for boarding. But what they mainly depend upon for safety and success is their skill in paddling, (Malay pirates scarcely ever attack except during the lull between the land and sea breeze, or in a calm,) the swiftness of their boats, and their knowledge of the intricate channels between the islands, or over the bars of the rivers into which they generally contrive to escape, baffling their pursuers, and often leaving them aground on one of the numerous shoals or mud-banks which their own superior knowledge enables them to avoid.

The prahu of the Sulu and Illânumâ pirates are much larger and better equipped than those which commonly infest the Straits. The Malay pirates make their attacks and move in small fleets of from six to twenty prahu.

During the months of October, November, December, and January, they will be found cruising up and down the west coast of the peninsula and the opposite shore of Sumatra. From June to the end of September, they are often to be seen among the islets south of Singapore, and in the creeks and rivers of the Johore coast. February, March and April are spent in fishing, collecting seaweed, and preparing for future piratical expeditions.

The crews are armed with boarding spears (some of very great length), krisses, Malay hatchets and swords (the parang and kleywang), muskets, blunderbusses, and a variety of missiles, such as sticks pointed and burnt at the end, stones, &c.

The most noted haunts for pirates on the western coast of the peninsula (according to information derived from a Malay of Salangore, who had in his
I conclude with a few suggestions touching the suppression of piracy now existing to so alarming an extent in the Straits. Its remote causes, I have already remarked, are alone to be removed by the adoption of a more enlightened policy towards the native powers; and, it may be added, by the gradual spread of civilization and diffusion of useful knowledge.

1st. The employment of one or more small armed steamers, together with eight or ten large boats, of the fastest possible construction, (particularly for rowing;) manned fully with Europeans, and well armed for both close and distant fight.

2nd. A discreet surveillance over the conduct of the present Tumungong of Johore; who is more than suspected of being the mainspring of the daring system of piracy which has so long been an opprobrium to the eastern extremity of the Straits. A threat of withdrawing the stipend he enjoys gratuitously from the British Government might be useful.

3rd. A careful survey of both coasts of the peninsula, the unexplored rivers, creeks and islets. This, in addition to other obvious advantages, will afford opportunities of observing the character and pursuits of the natives inhabiting the sea-shore and banks of rivers, who are always more or less in league with the pirates, and of collecting information of piratical haunts and places of rendezvous.

4th. The suspected native chiefs should be peremptorily called upon to lend their assistance and information: particularly the chiefs of Kemimang, Salingore, Perak, and Calantan. And lastly, the cooperation of the Dutch Government should be secured.

III.—A brief account of Masud, known by the name of Farid Shakarganj or Shakarbör. By Munshi Mahan Lal.

[Dated Derah Ghazi Khan, 10 miles off from the right bank of the Indus, 10th February, 1836.]

When we reached Ramú, a village on the left bank of the united streams of the Hyphasis or Biás, and Hesudrus or Sutlaj, about 150 youth exercised the profession himself) are the Bunting, Aroe, Cocab, Pisang Dividing and Sambilang isles; those on the Salangore coast, and the islets between Cape Rachado and the Lingie river. The rivers Mirbowe, Birman, Perak, Puteh, Koroo, Miar, Rio Formosa, or the Battu Pahat river, and formerly the Lingie river: the Straits of Calang and Dryon, Point Romania and its vicinity, and the Carmion isles to the south.

On the eastern coast are the creeks and small rivers of Johore up to Pahong; the Kemimang river; those of Trinjánu and Calántan, also the islands of Timoang, Puto Tingle, Redang and Aor.
miles S.-W. of Lodíáná, we heard that between the two waters of the Hyphasis and Acesines is a town called Pák Patan. It was built in ancient days, and is looked upon as a place of devotion, since the body of Shekh Fari’d reposes there. We crossed the river in a small boat, and bent our route to that direction. The road commenced in a fearful forest, and ended in an extensive hard clayey plain, which environs the above town. It is constructed on a precipice, which is 70 feet high from the surface of the land. The houses are small, both of burnt and unburnt bricks, and the bazásrs are narrow, containing some poor shops.

In the year 600 Hijrí, or A. D. 1235, the town was celebrated by the name of Ajwaddhan, and was governed by a Jogí of that name, tributary to the neighbouring Mahomedan chiefs. When Shekh Fari’d (whose original name was Masú’d) after travelling into Asia and Arabia chose his residence in this town, with the power of his piety he persuaded the Jogí to believe in the true faith of Muhammad, and changed the name of the town from Ajwaddhan to Pák Patan. Pák in Persian means holy, and Patan in Panjábí signifies ferry, (holy ferry.)

It is added, that after passing some period, the Shekh wished to undertake the Mujáhedah, which, I think, imports to labour in defence of the faith, and asked the permission of his Murshíd, or the guide to salvation, who rests now in the charming place called Qutab, about nine miles S.-W. of Dehlí. Shekh Qutbuddí’n Bakhtýár, as he is called, answered his pupil Shekh Fari’d to make a “tai” or fast for three days. Fari’d did accordingly, and ate nothing for the fixed time. On the eve of the third day some person presented him with a few loaves, which Fari’d ate, thinking that they were sent to him from the invisible world, or “Ghaib.” Meanwhile, a crow holding the polluted intestine of some dead animal in his beak came and sat on the bough of a tree. Fari’d, on the very first sight, felt an abhorrence in his heart, and, ejecting the bread which he had eaten a few minutes before, his stomach became quite empty. He told the circumstance to Qutbuddí’n Bakhtýár, his spiritual guide, who replied, that God has bestowed a great favor on him, otherwise this meal would have hurt him. “Go now, Masú’d, and fast three days more.” As he had not eaten any thing from six days, he became very weak, and the heat of hunger began to burn his heart. He stretched his hand on the ground, and, taking a bit of clay, put it into his mouth, and found that it tasted like sugar. This was the effect of his pure mouth. The following verse says,
"Stone in his hand becomes pearl, and poison turns sugar in his mouth."

Fari'd attributed this favor of God to the tricks of man, so he threw it out of his mouth, and fell deeply again into the contemplation of the Omnipresent. At midnight hunger rendered him weaker than before, and he again got some pieces of earth, and after putting them in his mouth discovered that they were as sweet as sugar. The same thought of deceit came again in his memory, and he threw them once more out of his mouth, and engaged again in prayer as before. By the end of the night Fari'd reflected to himself, that the feebleness caused by hunger might render him unable to stir, so he picked up again some bits of clay and they became sugar in his mouth. He thought they might have been sent to him by God, ate them, and broke his fast in the manner he was directed by his guide Qutbuddi'n. When the sun rose he went to Qutbuddi'n, who told him, "Fari'd, you did well to break your fast with the sustenance sent to you from the invisible world. Go: you will be sweeter than sugar." Hence he was called "Fari'd Shakarganj Shakarbar," or the treasure of sugar.

Books have been written of the miracles wrought by Fari'd. Tughlaq, a man of obscure origin, and the inhabitant of Abür, seven miles from Pāk Patan, presented him with a load of fuel, and asked nothing for its price. The only petition he made to Fari'd Shakarganj was, to plant him on the throne of Dehli; and it happened so by the benediction of Shakarbar. The reign of this person may be remarkable for other things for aught I know; but the large and strong fort he constructed now presents nothing singular to the view except heaps of ruins. It was called Tughlaqābād, and is situated six miles south of Dehli.

Fari'd Shakarganj had many followers; one of them was Nizāmuddi'n. His body rests in the most handsome place out of Dehli. He was the patron of the famous poet Amīr Khusrav, who, by the Persians, was denominated "Totē Hind," or the parrot of India, and sleeps on the same charming spot.

The mausoleum of Fari'd Shakarganj is visited by the pilgrims of different quarters. The Hindus of this country believe him to be an inspired man, and pay respect to his monument, like the Musalmáns. After descending a few steps we came into a square laid with bricks, and entered the cupola in which the Fari'd is interred. It is floored with marble slabs, and opens by a door towards the east. On his left hand is the tomb of his son, Shekh Badruddi'n, neither differing in size nor in materials. Over them is a pompous canopy of green
brocade tied with string against the roof of the monument. A small window covered with oil and dust is made in the direction of the south. It is called the "Darwizah Bihisht," or the door of Paradise, and is opened every year on the fifth of the month of Muharram, which is the death day of that holy man. The people flock on that day, and, pushing each other forward, rush in at the Darwizah Bihisht, and come out by the next door. By doing this they have been persuaded to believe, that they shall have the first place in heaven when they depart for the next world. The monument is 20 paces in circumference, and 30 feet high. It was erected by his disciple Sheikh Nizam-uddin, Auliyâ, or the Saint. It is whitened with lime, and has a beautiful appearance when nearly viewed. Fari'd was born in 569 Hijri, and died of colic in the year 664 H., at the age of 95. The following verse gives the above dates.


de ad din wa la ilaha malik rajjallat masumun asrar

Rahm farrâ' shud tawallud 'abid azadah urmr,
Shud Farîdullâh sâle rahlat Masûd asâr.

The words Rahm farrâ' we should take for the date of his birth, as, 140 200 80 40 8 200 or 569 Hijri. The words 'Abid azadah stand for the year of his age, as (Ubâd e azad) 70 + 1 + 2 + 4 + 1 + 7 + 1 + 4 + 5 = 95. Shud Farîdullâh shews the date of his death as (shud Farîdullâh) 5 + 30 + 30 + 1 + 4 + 10 + 200 + 80 + 4 + 300 = 664. "Farîd asri" or the gem of the time, is another date of his death as (Farîd asri) 10 + 200 + 90 + 70 + 4 + 10 + 200 + 80 = 664 H.

Next to this monument in the same square is another dome built by Tughlaq Shâh. It contains the tomb of Sheikh Alah-uddîn, Moizzuddîn and Sheikh Fazl, &c. &c. the descendants of Farî'd. The height of this dome is nearly 50 feet, and the circumference 36 paces. It is larger than the former, and has a door opening to the south. It looks older, because it has never been repaired. All of the graves were veiled with dust, but a few flowers lying over them showed that they are also occasionally visited by the people. The accompanying is the drawing of the Fari'd's monument, which I have done by the means of a camera obscura*

* Our young friend has evidently not yet acquired the knack of the camera obscura (lucida?). Out of consideration therefore for the memory of Dr. Wolfaston, its inventor, we omit his unsuccessful attempt to use it.—Ed.
Connection of Mithraic with Hindu Coins.

Hindu Coins, Canopy Series, with Artohro reverse.
IV.—New varieties of the Mithraic or Indo-Scythic Series of Coins and their imitations. By James Prinsep, Sec. As. Soc. &c.

From the variety of the Mithraic reverses already made known, it might have been imagined that the series was nearly exhausted. Every year, however, adds a few new types to our previous list, or produces finer samples of these hitherto considered indistinct. So multiplied, indeed, are our resources at the present time, that we can afford to be fastidious, and not only reject coins of the baser metals, but limit the admission even of golden novelties to those of one size, weight and value!

My object in Plate XXXVI. is to develop more fully the transition from the Mithraic or Indo-Scythic coinage to the Hindu series, for which my numerous friends have furnished even more unequivocal links than those engraved in my former Plate, (XXXVIII. of Vol. IV.) I must begin, however, with a few novelties of the true Mithra type.

Fig. 1 is the first to rivet our attention and curiosity. It is an unique of Mr. Masson’s discovery. The obverse has the usual standing figure of the Rája sacrificing, with the legend PAO NANO PAO KANHPKI KOPANO. The reverse has an armed figure, nearly the counterpart of the other, but without any altar, and with the usual monogram: the legend being in Masson’s drawing, OPAAPNO. Not having the coin itself before me, the reading I venture to substitute for this, is of course liable to correction; but the strong similitude between the commencement of this legend and of the two curious ones formerly noticed, namely, APAOXPO and APAHOPO, leave little doubt in my mind that the one before us should be read APAAPNO; the word ATNO representing the Sanscrit आगि Agni, the god of fire; whom we may reasonably suppose to be substituted for Athra, as the Sanscrit आर्क Arka has been for Mithra in the Indianized designation, OKPO. The Pehlevi affix APA Arda (generally written APTA by the Greeks) implying ‘the great,’ bears an evident connection with आर्य Arya, a common Sanscrit epithet of the same signification, ‘excellent;’ or आर्य Arya, holy, venerable; as आर्यान्व Arya-man, the sun, आर्यवर्धन आर्यवर्त Aryavarta, the holy land, (India) &c. Aria also occurs in combination in Persian names beginning with consonants, as Ariobarzanes, king of Armenia,—a derivative from Berzin, the planet Jupiter of the Mithraic system.

Further search, should these conjectures be well grounded, will probably bring to light coins with the single appellation ATNO, which has not hitherto been observed.

* Vaillant Ars. Imp. I. 183.
Fig. 2 is misplaced: for the imperfection of the Greek legend on the obverse, ought to condemn it to a lower grade in chronological order. All those legends which have the family name of KANHPKI are clear and better formed than those of OOHPKI to which this coin belongs. The latter, too, have generally the bust of the sovereign substituted for the full length sacrificer. The name on the reverse of fig. 2, ΦΑΠΟ, is new; nor is it at first very obvious what meaning it may be intended to convey. It cannot well be a corruption of ΔΘΠΟ, because the standing figure faces the opposite way—holds a spear, and wants the flames on his shoulders. Mr. Masson observes on this coin: "Here is another peculiar legend, but evidently signifying the sun as source of light and majesty. Pharoas was the term applied to the Alexandrian light house, and Pharaoh is the well known Scriptural title of the old kings of Egypt. The bust on this coin affords a remarkable contrast to other coins of the family." It is certainly probable that the word has some affinity to the Greek φαος, lumen, dies, solis ortus, but no more than is naturally found between languages of common origin. The word Phraa, or something like it, certainly existed in the ancient language of Persia, as the personification of light or heat—allogenous to Mithra, the sun*. In compounds it is frequently found, as in Phraates, Phraortes, Farnaces, and Phradates; the latter being altogether congenorous with Mithradates, or as the Greeks translated the name, Apollodotos. From the same root are descended the modern Persian verb اورز، to inflame, whence یورز، illuminating, so often employed in compounds. Perhaps the uncouth name of Unad-Pherrou, on a numerous class of the deteriorated Bactrian coins, may spring from the same root.

Vaillant, however, gives a different and, I think, a less satisfactory etymology of the above class of names in his history of the Arsacidæ. "Phriapates seu et Phrapates, idem ac Aphra Pates, seu et Papatius; nam apud Persas idem Aphra est, ac Pa apud Turcas Scythasque, scilicet elevatus, supremus, maximus, quæ nominibus propriis ut et art preponuntur." (Arsac. Imp. 1. 2.) Now if the word aphra be merely an intensive preposition, like the Sanscrit पर, para, the Persian بّار, the Greek παπα, and the Latin præ or per, the word to which it is affixed should be a significant adjectival noun, as پرکن: parākramas, the very heroic; اردشير, Ardashir (Artaxerxes), the great lion, or very valiant, &c. The participial nouns Mithradates (quasi مهراناده the given of Mithra) and Phradates (فراداده the given of Phra) require the first member of the compound to be a noun.

* Phre in Egyptian has precisely the same meaning as mihr in Persian, 'king, prince.'
Fig. 3. A type familiar to us, in copper—and known before in gold of a smaller size. It was, in fact, one of the two coins first extracted by M. Venta from the Manikyala tope. In Mr. Masson’s coin the spelling accords with the vernacular pronunciation MIPO, and the solar glory is irradiated on its edge, to shew more plainly its reference.

Figs. 4 and 5. Two more gold coins of Mr. Masson’s collection, having the legend of the reverse respectively NANO PAO and NANA, both proved to be equivalent to NANAIA by the peculiar attitude of the allegorical image. The introduction of PAO in the first of the two would almost seem a mistake of the engraver, who had in his mind the PAO NANO PAO of the obverse. I have nothing to add to my former remarks on the word itself, except to draw attention to an extract from the Armenian Chronicles with which Mr. Avdall has favored us, proving that NANAIA and the Persian ANAHID were not positively identical, each having her separate temples and votaries even in Armenia.

"Anahid was the tutelary goddess of our country, and was known equally by the names of Artemis and Aphrodite in our mythological works. She was always considered identical with the planet Venus, though possessing all the attributes of Diana." As Nanea, on Mr. Avdall’s authority, means maternal or motherly, it would hardly be proper to ascribe such a designation to the moon, the chaste Diana; neither has her effigy on our coins the lunar emblem, so distinctly portrayed on the MAO and some other types. Rather then let her be constituted the Venus of the group, who plays an equally conspicuous part in the Mithraic system*.

Fig. 6. Is a gold coin from M. Court’s drawing, of the AOPO reverse. The obverse legend is PAO NANO PAO OOHPKI KOPANO.

Fig. 7 is likewise from M. Court’s collection. In it I was struck by the strong resemblance of the head-dress to that of the Parthian or Sassanian coins. The legend is wanting, and that of the reverse is quite illegible, though the monogram and device are in a perfect state.

Fig. 8 has been already engraved in my plate of the Manikyala relics; but as one of the most interesting of the Mithraic series, it could not be denied admission in a plate exclusively devoted to them. I wished further to place it in juxta-position with the sitting figure of the APAOKPO reverse, because it might be conceived to be the parallel Hindu lunar coin to that form of the Hindu solar effigy, OKPO.

* The Baron Hammann says that the word Neith of the Egyptians is evidently the same as the Persian Nahid—whence also may be traced the German Nacht and the English Night.
Like OKPO, this figure has four arms, and is therefore Indian: further it is a male divinity; and thirdly, it is identified with MAO, the moon, by the crescents of that luminary arising from its shoulders. It must therefore be Soma or Chandra of the Hindu pantheon, who is represented with all these characters in Moore, though a later work by Mr. COLEMAN makes him to be a two-handed divinity.

The appellation MANAOBAFO, which so puzzled me on the former occasion, has at length, I think, found a satisfactory explanation. मानोबाले in Persian, is an ancient name of the moon,—and Bhaga भग in Sanscrit, means splendour, glory; and is given as a synonyme of the moon as well as of the sun. In the Zend, then, the link between the Persian and Sanscrit, we may naturally look for a compound of these two terms, such as manao-bago. It is well known that the mythology of the Saxons was derived from a Scythic or central-Asiatic source, and their male deity MONA (whence our modern term, moon*); has been by the learned referred to the Persian Mang. I have, however, found a much more convincing proof than these analogies afford, that such is the correct explanation, in the Baron Von HAMMER's Prize Memoir ‘sur le culte de Mithra, son origine, sa nature, et ses mysteres,' Paris, 1833; for a copy of which I am indebted to the learned author's perusal of my observations on the curious relics from the Panjáb.

In the catalogue of Mithraic inscriptions discovered in various parts of Europe, the Baron points attention to one in particular among GRUTER's collection, in which the word MENOTYRANNUS denotes the deified moon:

‘Cette inscription est une des plus interessantes à cause des deux mots de Menotyrannus et de Persidicus: le dernier indique l'origine persane du culte de Mithra: le Menotyrannus peut se traduire par, seigneur du mois; mais malgré les objections de M. Rolle contre l'existence du dieu Lunus, je crois que cette existence peut très-bien être prouvée, non seulement par tous les monuments astronomiques des orientaux modernes, dans lesquels la lune est représentée sous la figure d'un jeune garçon de quatorze ans, mais encore par la coincidence de la mythologie Egyptienne dans laquelle la lune, d'après les decouvertes de M. Champollion, est une divinité mâle. Enfin le mot MHN dans lequel M. Rolle ne voit que le nom d'un mois, est effectivement un nom persan de la lune qui s'appelle mah et mang; c'est le moon des Anglais et le mond des allemands, lesquels lui ont conservé son genre oriental.'

* In like manner I feel strongly disposed to connect the strange OAAO of our coins with Odin or Woden of the Saxon mythos, an acknowledged derivative from the Sanscrit बुध्द बुध्द Buddha, Mercury. It is not a little curious that the verbal root of two of our present days of the week, Monday and Wednesday, should thus be discovered among a parcel of old coins dug up in the Panjáb!
After this we can have little hesitation in translating *MANAOBAPO* 'lord of the months'—indeed if we derive *BAPO* from the Persian or Scythic * broadband* 'lord or prince,' we shall have precisely the corresponding term to *tyrannus*.

Fig. 9. A gold coin of Kanerkos from a drawing by M. Court. The *râu* in this seems to have a case for his bow strung behind his back. The *reverse* is similar to that of a fine coin of *OOHPKI* in General Ventura's series (fig. 9. of Plate XXXVIII. Vol. IV.) which however differs in having the bust in lieu of the full length of the prince. The legend *APAOXPO* has been before explained as "the great sun*."* One of his attributes it may be presumed rather than the god himself, is intended, by the female holding the cornucopia—typifying the fertility he bestows on the earth.

Fig. 10 is a most important acquisition to our Mithraic series, as being the very link of connection between them and the *Canouj* coins. Immediately after the publication of my former plate, Lieut. Cunningham wrote to me from Benares, pointing out a coin in his cabinet of the class I had designated links, having the seated female with the cornucopia, but more perfect than those I had engraved, insomuch as the legend to the left was preserved and legible as *APAOXPO*, the same as that of the standing figure. A duplicate of the same coin was also in Colonel Stacy's cabinet, and on reference to the Asiatic Researches, Plate I., the letters of *APAOXPO* were clearly legible on the reverse of fig. 6, a gold coin procured by Mr. Wilson from the bed of a tank in the Húglí district.

The cornucopia as a device seems to have been copied from the Roman coins of the Emperors. It is seldom or never to be seen on the genuine Greek coins—nor is it found on our Bactrian series until the age of Azos (with exception of the copper coins of *Antimachus* and *Philoxenus*, the date of which is uncertain). Whether it bears any direct allusion to the legend may be doubted,—at least such allusion is entirely lost sight of the moment we pass the boundary into the Indian series.

**Hindu coins imitated from the Ardokro type.**

Since my former paper on the *Gupta* coins of *Canouj* appeared, very important acquisitions have been made to our knowledge of this before unknown dynasty, through the medium of coins and of inscriptions; for both of which we are almost entirely beholden to the researches of Lieut. A. Cunningham and Mr. V. Tregear in the neighbourhood of Benares.

* The *OPOOKPO* of the copper coins may be deemed a still closer imitation of the Sanscrit *ययः* *Aryórka*. *APΔ* is the Persian orthography.
The inscription in an ancient character upon the column at Allahabad interpreted by Capt. Troyer and Dr. Mill in the 3rd vol. Jour. As. Soc. had made us acquainted with the four first of the family*; namely, 1, Gupta, a Rāja of the solar race: 2, Ghatot Kacha, his son: 3, Chandra-gupta, his son: 4, Samudra-gupta, the fourth in descent: —and there the Allahabad record broke off with an intimation that a son was expected.

The Bhitari lāth brought to notice by Messrs. Tregear and Cunningham, fills up the line of succession for three generations further (see Plate XXX. of the present No.). We may so far anticipate the translation of this highly important record promised to us by Dr. Mill, for the illustration of our subject, as to state that the infant of Samudra was named Chandra-gupta II. His son was, 6, Kumara-gupta; after whom followed, 7, Skanda-gupta—and there again this new authority breaks off.

Now to all of these (excepting perhaps the first) we can at present assign their respective coins from undoubted and numerous specimens, and the succession of the devices on the obverse and reverse will be seen to follow just that modification from the original Mithraic model of the Ardokro coin, as would be expected when the source was nearly forgotten, and Hindu ideas became predominant. Moreover, we can, from our coins, add the name of Mahendra-gupta, and perhaps of Assagupta to the list, and there is presumptive evidence of a second Samudra as of a second Chandra. Altogether we may reckon upon nine or ten generations, which at an average of eighteen years will fill a space in Indian history of nearly two centuries, of which no written account can be met with; unless the passage in the Vishnu Purāṇa†, that the Guptas, a Sudra family, reigned over a part of Magadha, at the time of its compilation, be regarded as alluding to our dynasty. The sites whence their coins have been most frequently obtained, certainly agree with this description; but the date assigned to the Purāṇa must in this case be carried back a few centuries, and by the Mlechhas of the Indus must be understood the Indo-Scythians rather than the Musalmans. But I had intended to confine myself to an enumeration of the new coins, and to postpone speculation until we are thoroughly acquainted with them. To proceed therefore:

Fig. 11. One of two gold coins of Capt. Cunningham's cabinet (the first procured at Benares, the second in Calcutta, now with Dr. Swiney). It is a duplicate of my own (from Lieut. Conolly) with the unintelligible legend, engraved as fig. 23 of Plate XXXIX. It was

* See Vol. 3, page 344.
† See Wilson's analysis of the Vishnu Purāṇa, Jour. As. Soc. I. 440.
then alluded to as having the letters a little different from mine, and was read Kragipta Paragu (pta). Upon full consideration of each individual letter as compared with those of other coins, I do not think the second letter a g; it is rather a bh, and the reading altogether KUbhdv-uparaguja, Kubhavu paraguja (adding the ja from the obverse of my own coin, where it is quite distinct). Now we have gained experience enough from our reading of this class of coins to expect that the legend, where it does not merely embrace the titles of sovereignty, will express some extravagant epithet. The final ja also (implying born of,) shews that the said epithet belongs to his father; and this will account for the omission of ja on one side of the coin, which would have the effect of making the epithet apply to the son also. The present compound may thus be made up of Ku, a diminutive particle; bhav bhava, the mind; upa, a particle implying similitude; Ragu (for RAGHU) the grandfather of Rama, and ja, born of * or, united by Kubhav-uparagu-ja ‘of the humble-minded, resembling-Raghuborn.’ The name is unfortunately cut off from the margin. Two letters of it are visible under the Rāja’s arm on the obverse, and look like Asa: but on reference to my own coin, I have there no hesitation in reading it Samudra. The coin is in this case wrongfully placed at the head of the group in the plate, but as there are two coins to one in favor of the reading Asa I still hesitate to remove it, for Assagupta is a known name in the Cashmīr list; and it is, moreover, so like our Azos, that one feels inclined to discover in it a coin of Yavanaso himself, the supposed founder of this Canouj dynasty.

Fig. 12. This beautiful coin is an unique in Mr. Tregear’s possession. It is valuable on every account: as giving an additional link with the Mithraic coins (fig. 9), in the standing cornucopia-female; as adding a new and much desired name to the coin list; and as teaching a good lesson, in the most unequivocal and well formed Nāgarī, of the style of legend adopted by these sovereigns; to whom, whether from their extra-Indian, or their low origin, or their limited sway, the panegyrist seems to have avoided applying the usual epithets of royalty, mahārāja dhīrája.

On the reverse the reading seems to commence, Sarvārājochhatra, ‘the chatta or overshadower of all the Rājas’—then, on the right of the obverse, Kāma-naruttama-ja Gha- (tūt ?) and under the left arm, written perpendicularly in the Chinese fashion Kacha. ‘Son-of-an-excellent-man-resembling-Kaṃa,

* I have worked out this solution, dictionary in hand; for the Pandits could not aid me in the least: it is therefore quite open to criticism.
Gha(tot) Kacha.' The only portion of this inscription missing is
the second syllable of Ghatot, which may be replaced with confidence.
The Raja is sacrificing on the small Mithraic altar, and is dressed
much in the Kanerkos style, though more fashionably.

Fig. 13. Next in succession to Kacha comes Chandra. Of his
coins I have already supplied several examples, (see Nov. 1835, fig.
18, also Marsden MLVII.) but to keep up the comparison of the re-
verses, I here insert a very perfect sample from Lieut. Cunningham's
cabinet, procured at Mirzapur. Legend on the obverse स्रविचन् राजा
Sri Chandra (the rest only partially visible), and under the arm again च
Chandra; on the reverse वीक्रमः Sri Vikrama. I do not find any in-
stance of the name on this form of coin being written Chandra-gupta,
although it is distinctly so on the pillar-inscriptions. He is the first
to change the trident standard of OOHPKI for the (quasi) Roman
eagle. He also prefers the bow to the spear.

Fig. 14. Lieut. Cunningham's, from Gaya, similar to my own (Capt.
Wade's) of fig. 16, Plate XXXVIII. Vol. IV. Fig. 17 of that plate is
another; and seven are now known of the same type, dispersed among
us: but few, if any, have the marginal inscription so well developed.
As all the coins bearing simply Vikrama on them may be set down to
Chandra-gupta, so all having पराक्रम: Parakrama may be assigned
to his son Samudra-gupta the first. This legend is attached to the
same sitting female as before on the reverse. The Raja on the oppo-
site face is just like his predecessors in costume and attitude, with
spear and eagle standard.

By means of Messrs. Cunningham's and Tregear's coins, added
to my former specimen, the long legend on the obverse can be nearly
all restored; it appears to be समर शत सम....वजयजतर....Samara
satamataga (ja).... which may be translated 'having the strength of
100 must elephants,' and on the opposite margin vijayajatara.... In
my former specimen, however, the final portion read Aparajita dava.

Under the arm the word समुद्र Samudra is written in the perpen-
dicular form, the n being apparently placed above the m, because the
d had taken its proper position below.

Fig. 15 is another Chandra-gupta, from Col. Stacy's box, of
which Mr. Tregear has a duplicate. Another is engraved in Mars-
den, fig. MLVIII. From the alteration of the device, and particularly
the omission of the fire altar on this coin, we might with plausibility set
it down to Chandra-gupta the second,—but on the same authority
we might make two Samudras; for these princes seem to have imitated
one another so closely, that we find the device of the Raja and his wife
(i) like that of the Raja and eagle standard, repeated on the Samudra coin (fig. 12,) and at a later period on a coin of Skanda-gupta (fig. 24, of Plate XXXIX. Vol. IV.) with a change of costume. The Raja's name on this coin is disposed in two perpendicular lines one on each side of the spear च्छव्य Chandra-gupta—the second line, not very clear in Col. Stacy's coin, is quite distinct in Mr. Tregear's, which reached me just too late to be substituted in the engraving. On the reverse, the cornucopia lady is seated on a sleeping lion—as if to express 'all will go on prosperously if ye rouse not the wrath of your ruler.'—On the left hand are the words पक्षय: in the ancient character. The upper prolongation of the p, perhaps, indicates an anuswara, and thus the reading may be पंचय: Pancha-chhavayas, 'the five excellencies;' to wit, of a king.—There is a fault in orthography, however, here, as in the legend of Ghatot kacha: the words should be written पक्षय: Pancha-chhavayas. Whether the word chhavaya, 'light,' may have any allusion to the five luminaries of the Mithraic worship; the sun, the moon, fire, Jupiter, and Venus, it is impossible to say:—but that a king should possess five virtues, we learn from various Hindu authorities.

Fig. 16. An unique in Captain Cunningham's collection from Gaya. The female of the reverse having in the last quitted her Grecian seat, has been here installed in one of a more genuine Hindu character—the lotus flower. There is a peculiarity also in her attitude, both hands being turned up, and the elbows resting on the knees. The legend is unfortunately cut off. On the obverse, however, to the left of the usual Raja, we have in very conspicuous letters superposed in the usual style कुमार: Kumara—proving that this is a coin of Kumara-gupta, the successor of Chandragupta the second, and thus far in accordance with the Bhitari monument. Lieut. Cunningham has another of the same prince, of quite a different type, (described in Vol. IV. page 637,) but what confirms Kumara's succession to Chandragupta the second, is, that there are devices common to the two which belong, as far as our researches yet go, to no others,—as if on the accession of the new prince the mint had continued the preceding device, mutato nomine, until another was subsequently selected by the rising monarch. (See figs. 27 and 28, Plate XXXIX. Vol. IV.)

Figs. 17 and 18. For our acquaintance with the owner of the next coin in our series we are entirely indebted to Lieut. Cunningham. He first extracted his name from the Bhitari-luth inscription,—and subsequently traced it on these two unique coins in his own, and on
one of my, collection, already published; (fig. 24. of Plate XXXIX. Vol. IV.) Fig. 17 is from Gaya, and fig. 18 was dug up near a village four kos from Ghazipur.

On the obverse, the general attitude of the Rāja is the same as usual—the waist a little more fashionable, the gaiters absolutely those of the last century! and the hair or wig commencing to be curled in parallel rolls, as will be more fully developed hereafter. The name perpendicularly disposed under the arm of both figures is quite clear, or खण्ड Skanda; while on the reverse of Fig. 18, it is as decidedly (in the old character) स्रीकंठ Yama; or (in the new) स्रीकंठा gupta, the very name of the Bhitari-lith successor to Kumāra.

On comparing the plates in the Researches and Journal of the coin given to me by Mr. Bacon, many years ago, and then thought rather suspicious, Lieut. Cunningham soon found its legend to be identical with his own,—a fact fully confirmed by re-examination of the coin itself. These three, however, are the only coins yet known of this name. One of them No. 17, exhibits a new name on the reverse, for, unlike 18, it is certainly not Skanda-gupta, but क्रमसंपत्त: Kramamanda, which may be looked upon as a rhyming epithet—“equal to (or surpassing) Manda” (Saturn or Yama). Mr. Treger has lately got a duplicate of this coin—in which the reading is rather क्रमसंवत्त:—one and both may possibly be intended for श्रीमंत: Sri Mahendra.

Figs. 19, 20. We now pass to another new acquaintance made out jointly by Lieut. Cunningham and myself on a general inspection of the Gupta coins. Fig. 19, is in the Society’s collection, and is engraved as No. 14 of the Plates in the 17th Vol. As. Res. unread by professor Wilson. Upon recognizing the final letter कु ndra, we soon perceived the preceding letter which I had before mistaken for a ः, or उ, to be the old क, ख, and thus with the vowel above it, the name was immediately cleared up as श्रीमंत: Sri Mahendra. Another coin from Gaya, belonging to Lieut. Cunningham, turned out to be of the same individual as to the reverse, with some variation in the legend of the obverse. Under the arm of the latter, the letter कु ku seems to denote a Kumāra; but on the margin are evidently the words जयकंठ Jayaté Mahendra. On the Society’s coin, fig. 9, the marginal inscription is more complex—परस्यजय, as yet unintelligible; then between the feet श्री Sri, and near the hand the letter ज्ञ gu (of Gupta) the intervening name being cut off.

Pursuing the examination, we found the coins 29 and 30, of Plate XXXIX. Vol. IV. with the Rāja on horseback, and the seated female
Canaug Coins. Continued.

Copper Coins of Chandragupta.

Second Series of imitations from the 'Ardoor' type.
feeding the peacock, to belong also to Mahendra-gupta. Ajita Mahendra on the reverse and Mahendra-gupta on the obverse of 30, are quite clear. I was before only misled by the letter h, which I read as the nasal n of the lāth alphabet.

I shall have occasion to recur to this name in the next plate, which contains those new forms of the Canovy coin that are without the cornucopia female, and have not such direct analogy to their Mithraic prototype as is palpable in the whole of the reverses included in the lower half of the present plate.

Plate XXXVIII.

Figs. 1, 2. These two coins, from Mr. Tregear’s cabinet, are variations only of the original coin given to me by Lieut. Conolly. Now became celebrated as having opened the door to the understanding of the whole group. In that coin, however, the archer holds his bow in the wrong hand, whereas in the two present coins, and the one following, the position is rectified and the lion is better developed, particularly in Fig. 2. Besides adding these fine specimens to our series, Mr. Tregear has made out the true reading of the legend on the reverse. Instead of Saccha or Pradya the word is śīṃgaśīra: Sinha Vikrama, ‘the lion hero,’ which is consistent with the device, for it may be also understood as ‘conqueror of the lion.’ To whom, however, this title is to be applied, would still have remained doubtful, but for the fortunate discovery of another coin by the same indefatigable collector in the prolific neighbourhood of Jonpur, while even I was engraving the present plate.

Fig. 8, the coin here alluded to, bears precisely the same device, with variation only of the attitude of the warrior. The legend is different, the part visible being on the obverse, gri. . Mahendra jaya, and on the reverse, Śrī Mahendra Sinha. Whether the Mahendra here designed be distinct from the Mahendra gupta of the cornucopia reverse, remains to be ascertained.

Figs. 3, 4, 5. From Mr. Tregear’s collection. These three coins bearing the Raja on horseback on the obverse, and a female seated sideways on a morha or wicker stool on the reverse, are essentially the same as were published in November last, (figs. 29, 30, Plate XXXIX. from Lieut. Burt’s and my own coins) which I was then, however, unable to read satisfactorily, from misapprehension of the

* It is remarkable that in most cases the word Sinha (or more properly Simha) is written with an unknown letter superposed to the श. This must be the nasal m, for which the anusvara is now substituted. In fig. 2 the letter is palpably an ऋ, m, to which is subjoined the h ब; but in figs. 1 and 8, and in my coin, the letter has the form of र. 

4 p
letter h. The legend is in all exactly the same on the reverse, अजित महेन्द्र Ajita Mahendra: 'the unconquered Mahendra.' The female holds, in her right hand, variously, a flower, a noose, or food for an attendant peacock, like that of the Kumára coins.

On the obverse the legend is more variable.

In No. 3, we have the letters अजित पुर... तविङ... not legible.
In No. 4, तच्छ not legible.
In No. 5, चच्छ.. not legible.

Fig. 6. (Tregear). This coin resembles in all respects the foregoing, excepting as to the legend, which is on the obverse, beginning at the top परसेव ... नभत: Paramès (vara? Cha or mahê) ndra-gupta. On the reverse (the second letter being very clear on a duplicate coin in Capt. Cunningham's cabinet) अजित विक्रमा: Ajita Vikrama. This name so closely resembles the common pronunciation of Vicramajit, (correctly written Vikramaditya,) that although it may not belong to that celebrated sovereign, it is very possible that matters appertaining to the history of the one may have been transferred to the other, and hence some of the confusion, so perplexing to the historian, have originated.

Fig. 7. An unique lately procured by Mr. Tregear. The Rája on the obverse is of a peaceful character, with hand extended but no altar. A diminutive attendant holds a chatta over his head. The letters on the margin are not legible. On the reverse is the standing cornucopia female holding a well depicted lotus flower, with a lateral inscription which may be read विक्रमादित्य: Vikramaditya; but although the length of the subjoined y exceeds that usually found in the d, and the di is not much like the ch, it is probable that the word is after all only विक्रमचन्द्र: Vikrama Chandra: and we must not allow our sanguine imagination to rejoice in having at length hit upon a veritable coin of the author of the Samvat era; against which there is also a cogent chronological obstacle, in the date hitherto assigned to our dynasty of Guptas*

Fig. 9 (Tr.) is introduced as a new variety of the Chandra-gupta coinage: only differing from the numerous class before described in the legends, which are very clearly on the obverse, श्रीचन्द्रगुप्त: ... Sri Chandra-gupta, (the titles not legible,) and on the reverse श्रीविक्रम: Sri Vikrama.

Fig. 10, of Mr. Tregear's collection, was engraved as a doubtful name, but I think it may be set down as belonging to Skanda-gupta.

Figs. 11 to 15. This curious class of copper coins has not yet been brought to notice. They are indeed much more scarce than the gold coins of the same age, and hitherto only those of one individual.

* Mr. Tregear has since written that on re-examination the word is palpably Vikramaditya.
of the family have been met with. It was not until Mr. Tregear's highly curious specimen, fig. 11, had furnished us with the style of Chandra's copper coins that we were led to re-examine our several collections, in which were found, and became legible, a few rare specimens of the same character.

Fig. 11 has the portrait of the Raja on one side, with a smaller, perhaps female, figure on his left hand. On the reverse a front face of him is presented, leaning, as it were, on a window sill: below which in very well defined characters, शाराज श्रीचन्द्रगुप्त: (Sri ma) haraja Sri Chandra-gupta.

Fig. 12 is a demi-coin of similar stamp, one of two belonging also to Mr. Tregear: but on the reverse of this, as in all that follow, the device, is a bird, the same that figures on the military standard of the gold coins, and which Mr. Wilson says "looks more like a goose than a Roman eagle." The inscription is very well preserved, श्रीचन्द्रगुप्त Sri Chandra-gupta.

Fig. 13 is from Col. Stacy's cabinet: the obverse, well executed, represents the bust of the Raja holding a flower; beneath, चन्द्रगुप्त. Sri Vikrama; the next letter may be च or न: but on the reverse are distinguishable the initial letters चो: Sri Cha.... proving that the coin belongs to Chandra-gupta.

Fig. 14 is from Col. Swiney's cabinet, in all respects a duplicate of the last, but the reverse legend is even more distinctly.... चन्द्रगुप्त the lower part of the ndra only is effaced.

Fig. 15 had escaped notice in my own cabinet:—the head is more highly finished than in the other specimens, but the legend could not have been understood without their aid:—it is.... चन्द्रगुप्त.... ndra-gupta.

Before quitting this very interesting group of coins, I must not omit to notice the only silver specimen which has yet come under my observation: it belongs to Dr. Swiney, and is.... a forgery!—not a modern one, but an actual false coin of the period when it was struck. It is of copper thickly plated, but the silver plate is worn through in several places, exposing the interior nucleus. I have depicted it in Plate XXXIX. Fig. 21.

Obverse, the Raja in the original sacrificing attitude; under his left arm the letters अजय Ajaya or राजय Raja y...

Reverse. Goddess (Durga?) seated in the native fashion with cornucopia (or flower) and glory—a small elephant with trunk uplifted for protection, on her right shoulder. The marginal inscription श्रीप्रकाश:.... Sri Prakanau.... the last letter may be double n,—but in neither manner does it present an intelligible word.
New varieties of the

Second Series of imitations.

We now pass to another series of coins evidently descended from the same 'Ardokro' type coin to which the early Canouj group has been so satisfactorily traced. In the latter case we have seen that the Hindu artists soon quitted their original, and exercised a fertile invention in varying the device during several generations of princes: but in the coins we have now to notice, no claims to ingenuity can be advanced; unless it be for gradually barbarizing and disguising the original type, so that it would have been absolutely impossible to recognize the character of the extraordinary symbols on the later pieces, had we not a numerous train of specimens to produce, in evidence of the gradual deterioration. I had already more than once engraved specimens of this curious series, thinking them to be merely the link coins between the Rao nano rao and the early Canouj series. Among the Manikyála coins was the only silver coin of the set on which I had particularly remarked legible Sanscrit characters; which were of a form and age differing essentially from the Canouj coin alphabet (so-called). But now through Capt. CUNNINGHAM's careful scrutiny of all our available collections, I am enabled to produce a host of variable legends, which may be the means of developing by and bye a second royal dynasty of some other Indian locality, as successfully as has been the case with the GUPTA family.

Henceforward my readers should understand, and they will, doubtless, soon perceive the fact, that my coin essays are joint productions, and that I have an auxiliary at my elbow, far better acquainted with the contents of, I may say, all the collections of coins in India, than I have leisure to become. With his zealous aid in hunting out the unpublished varieties of every class, I hope to make these notices complete as far as discovery has yet proceeded, and to do fuller justice to the numerous contributions I continue to receive from my numismatic co-adjutors in the interior.

That the present class is totally distinct from the last, may be argued on many grounds:—those are discovered in greatest quantity at Canouj, Jonpur, Gaya, and even occasionally in Bengal,—these are chiefly met with in Upper India, and in the Panjáb. Capt. CAUTLEY has sent me one dug up in the foundations of his residence near Seharanpur; Mr. DEAN dug up some at Samehana near Delhi:—but the most important fact in their history is the extraction of one of the lowest members of the group from the Manikyála tope by General VENTURA. Mr. Masson's large collection in Afghánistán does not contain one of this type, nor any of the first or Canouj series. They are, therefore, purely of Indian growth. To Upper India, the Panjáb
or Cashmir, then we must turn our view in seeking the focus whence they were issued, and fortunately we have authentic lists of the sove-
ereigns of some of these places to consult.

But first to enumerate the coins:

Fig. 18. A gold coin (Stacy) weight 120 grs.* deserves to be men-
tioned first, because the workmanship is nearest in perfection—in
imperfection we might rather say,—to the 'nano rao,' or 'Ardokro'
original. The legs of the couch, cornucopia, and drapery, are well
defined. The raja on the obverse has his trident standard, and his
right hand outstretched as over the fire altar, but the altar is omitted.
Under the right hand of the raja, both in this coin and in figs. 16
and 20, occur the letters पः pasa either side by side as in 16, or super-
posed as in 20. Under the left arm, which is elevated to hold a
spear, is another perpendicular combination of two or three conso-
nants, apparently स क, and र with the vowel रे. The same mono-
gram (or rather polygram) continues through the whole series. I
formerly took it for a sword handle, which it exactly resembles when
the lowermost letter is hid.

Fig. 20. (Stacy) the next best in execution, has the letters श्रीक
Sri Kri. . . . visible on the left of the female.

Fig. 19. (Tregear:—duplicate, Cunningham) continues the
word; श्रीक्रिम्य Krigodhya? or Kribhodhya.

Figs. 16 and 17 of my cabinet have the letters श्रीकिम्य . . . Sri
Visva. . . . or Vikha on the former, and पशु . . . Pasala . . (or perhaps
Visala?) on the latter.

Numerous other specimens in gold might be enumerated,—but
they generally contain even less satisfactory fragments of names than
the above. All that can be positively asserted is that the letters are
Sanskrit, and, on these at least, of the same alphabet as that we have
designated No. 2 of the Allahabad lath.

The silver coins of this second series are much more scarce than
the gold and copper ones.—The three I possess, represented in figs.
1, 2, and 3, appear also to be of a very debased standard, and to be-
long to a much later period. None of them retain more than the
rudest semblance of the raja figure—and still less of the goddess;—
the latter has even been taken for a dagger, the former for a scorpion!
The letters also are of a more modern formation, not differing much
from those of the tenth century, found at Sarnâth and other places.
Captain Cunningham first pointed out to me the words श्रीप्रताप Sri
Pratâpa. . . . on figs. 1 and 2.

* The weight of all these coins is nearly the same, being in fact the di-
drachma of the Greeks.
On fig. 3, on a former occasion I had already read श्रीयम... Sri Yag... but as there are traces of a cross-line to the loop of the third letter, I am inclined to adopt rather the reading श्र. Yasa... Yasa glory, forming in composition many Indian names, as Yasa Vigraha, Yas o Varma, Yas o Pâla, Yaswant, &c.

The two earliest specimens of the copper series, figs. 4 and 5, are from Col. Stacy's and Capt. Cunningham's cabinets respectively. The first has several letters of the old character:—under the left arm perpendicularly सचर. Sayadha, and on the exterior मक. maha.

Fig. 5 is, in reality, a forgery of a gold coin: the remains of the ancient gilding are still perceptible in the angles. The monogram is the same as in fig. 18, of the last Plate.

Figs. 8 and 9 are selected from Col. Stacy's box as examples of the name of श्रीताप, Sri Pratapa, in the two forms of alphabet.—Probably they belong to different individuals of the same family name.

Fig. 8, is a valuable unique in Col. Swiney's drawers, with a multitude of letters that have usurped the natural position of arms, cornucopia, throne, and all such appurtenances!—On the obverse are the letters जय jaya: on the opposite face, विनाद स्री Vinada or विरव Virava... and to the right म (?) रेद manded....

Fig. 9. The word Sri is still perceptible.

Fig. 10 is but introduced (from my collection) to shew the complete barbarism that finally prevailed. Such rude pieces are to be had in plenty, for one that contains a trace of writing. Pratapa is the commonest name on those that are by any means legible.

Third Series of imitations.

The next five coins of my Plate represent a very numerous class of Hindu coins, grotesque but very bold in execution, and attempting refinement in the position of the right hand of the râja, and in the sitting posture of the reverse. Having pointed out the prototype of the European coat, pantaloons, gaiter and wig on one series, I must not pass unheeded the epaulette so faithfully and curiously portrayed on the obverses of this series! I am induced to consider them a third instance of imitation of the Ardkro type from their general aspect and attitudes:—moreover the cornucopia is traceable in the earlier pieces as figs. 13 (Sta.) and 14 (J. P.) As they deteriorate, the limbs are lopped off as usual to make way for Nâgârî characters! This is well exemplified in fig. 11 (Cunn.) and 12 (Sta.) Fig. 17 (Swi.) may be regarded as the ultimate degradation of the type.
Of legends we have in fig. 15, on the margin . . ७८०. . On fig. 16, reverse, the letter ज ja. On fig. 11, on either arm of the sitting figure श्रीरुः Sri i;? and on fig. 12 several uncertain letters scattered about म य न य. In the last of the set, the letter ज stands alone.

It would be in vain to attempt any explanation of such vague symbols. Of this series of coins M. Court's drawings contained many good samples. They are plentiful in the Panjab, less so in Upper India, and comparatively rare in Afgbánistán. Mr. Masson has only given one, and that very degraded.

Fourth Series.

These shadows of the Kanerkan king are alike Duncan's issue,—
"a fourth?—start eyes! what will the line stretch out to the crack of doom? another yet?"—Such is, however, the singular fact; whether they "reigned in this kingdom" consequitively, or in subdivided portions of it, there can be no doubt of the common source whence these numerous progeny have borrowed their family features. Amid the hundreds of each kind, now open to our examination and selection, the progress of deviation can readily be followed: and it is not a little curious to see the different results of corruption arrived at by different engravers or moniers, in the course, perhaps, of a few generations. In one case we come to a kind of dagger—in another to a few dots and strokes—and in the present instance to a kind of heart, formed of the knees and petticoat of the seated female! The best of the three coins depicted in the engraving are from Mohan La'l's collection; the worst from Capt. Cautley's disinterred Behat relics, where a large proportion of these heart coins was found in association with the supposed Buddhist coins, described in my essay of last November. I can find but one approach to a letter on any of them, viz. the नि to the left of the well formed Rája in fig. 16. It is hardly sufficient to confirm their Indian origin: and it must be noted that this species is found in abundance farther to the north-west than any of the others.

Thus Mr. Masson says of them: "this series is very extensively found in western Afgbánistán. The obverse has a rude figure of the prince, clad in mail with the accompaniment of the fire altar," (not visible in ours, but clearly so in M.'s drawings) "and on the reverse a figure seated on a throne with her foot on a footstool. On no one coin of the class have I been able to detect the legend, although they appear in some instances to have had characters intended for such. Figs. 61 to 63," (those that shew the chair, the cornucopia and noose) "are generally found at Beghram, figs. 64 to 66," (those having only the outline of a heart,) "are the types prevalent
on the banks of the Indus and in the Panjáb,"—and, as we have stated above, near Sehoranpur in India proper. This series has, undoubtedly, a better claim to be considered the genuine descendant of the Ardokro coin in situ than any of the three preceding series.

To sum up my review of these coins, I cannot help remarking how great an analogy exists between the circumstance of these several adoptions by subordinate imitators, of a predominant form of coinage that had perhaps prevailed for centuries under a paramount rule; and the nearly parallel case of the Sha'h A'Lam coinage of the last century, the very words and form of which were copied by the numerous rājas and nawābs, who assumed the privilege of coinage upon the dismemberment of the Delhi monarchy. In many places, a few years only, have sufficed so to disfigure the Persian letters, as to render them quite illegible and barbarous.

_Pala or Deva dynasty of Canouj._

By way of filling the plate, I have engraved at foot, two new specimens of this dynasty, brought to light since the publication of Plate L, Vol. IV.

_Fig. 19_ is taken from a cast of a gold coin, in Col. T. P. Smith's possession. Some of the letters are new in form, but they may possibly be read श्रीमत्विनय सव श्रीमद विग्रहापुल देवा.

_Fig. 20_ is an unique copper coin of Capt. Cunningham's. On the obverse, the four-handed god is crushing a demon—instead of being seated in the usual serene attitude. The legend on the other side may be read, श्रीनवाचदेव श्री मत प्रिथि देवा, a name occurring in the Delhi list as having reigned at Lahore A. D. 1176—1192; but not to be found among the many names which inscriptions have given us of the Bhupāla family of Canouj and Benares.

Mr. Masson has figured a third new name of the same group, which I have inadvertently neglected to introduce in this plate as I had intended. The letters that are visible are श्री... श्रीसरस... रेव श्रीमा... मिरामा... देवा. The first and last letters are half cut off, and the vowel may be an a, so that the reading may possibly be _Sri m(at Ku)māra mah(ā Rāja) deva._ Mr. Masson says that "at Kābul coins of this peculiar type are met with occasionally in the bazar, generally of gold. A large parcel was dug up out of the soil, three or four years ago, near Korinder a village of Koh-daman." He places them as the last of the Indo-Scythic series, not having, at the time of writing, seen what had been made of them here. If indeed the sitting female be a far descendant from the Mithraic goddess, the long interval of six or eight centuries will fully account for the magnitude of her transformation.
It is a great pity that the horde discovered at Korinder was not secured at once. It might have contributed very materially to our classification of this second Canouj dynasty. A great many specimens of the same sort must also be scattered about in the cabinets of retired Indians at home; and we may hope now that Professor Wilson has commenced upon the task of examining the coins in the Royal Asiatic Society and India House collections, specimens will flow in to him from all quarters to be deciphered and described.

V.—Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions, lithographed by James Prinsep, Secretary As. Soc. &c.

[Continued from page 561.]

Inscriptions from Buddha-Gaya, Plate XXX.

The neighbourhood of Gaya has long been known to be prolific of inscriptions:—yet, notwithstanding the various notices of them which have appeared in the Researches, of the Bengal, and of the London Societies, the theme is, as yet, by no means exhausted. Mr. Harington furnished our Society at a very early period after its institution with copies of two inscriptions from the principal cave, lying in the hil' of Nagarjuna, (the name, it will be remembered, of a celebrated Buddhist patriarch,) one of which was deciphered by Dr. Wilkins, and proved to be a record of the excavation of the cave by Ananta Varma, the grandson of Yagna Varma. The date is not given, but the character (No. 2 of the Allahabad lith) shews it to belong to an early century of the Christian era. Mr. Harington mentions several other caves and inscriptions which have not yet been examined.

Dr. Wilkins also translated one inscription copied from a stone by Mr. Wilmot in 1785, (As. Res. vol. i. 284,) dated Samvat 1005, purporting that Amara Deva, the author of the Amera kosha, built the temple of Buddha at Buddha-gaya.

Dr. Hamilton (Roy. As. Soc. Trans. vol. ii. 44,) in his account of the ruins of Buddha Gaya, alludes cursorily to inscriptions on two images of Gautama, recording their erection, one by Jaya Sen and Kumā'ra Sen, sons of Punyabhadra, son of Samanta, all untitled persons: the other by Rāja Vijyabhadra, of whom nothing more is known.

The Burmese inscription found by the Embassy in 1831, was of a more interesting description. It is described in the Journal (vol. iii. page 214), and more fully by Colonel Burney in the last volume of the Researches. It was upon the occasion of my requesting Mr. Hathorne, then magistrate of Gaya, to take a duplicate of the Bur-
mes facsimile, that this gentleman went beyond his commission, and kindly furnished me with facsimiles of several other inscriptions in the neighbourhood of the ancient temple, all of which, he says, are quite illegible to the learned pandits of Gaya.

"No. 2, (No. 1 being the Burmese inscription) he writes, is on a stone lying near the Mahā Buddha temple." A copy of this, noted by Hamilton as 'an inscription of considerable length,' appears to be deposited in the E. I. C.'s Museum, labelled No. 113, but no further account of it is furnished. It is this inscription which I have lithographed in Plate XXX; but before proceeding to its discussion, it will be better to notice the other items of Mr. Hathorne's dispatch.

"No. 3 is an inscription on a stone, inserted in the wall of a Brahman's house erected on the site of the old fort, said to have belonged to Rāja Ami'r Sinh, who went over to the Burman empire, became converted to the Baudhha faith, and died in that country." This is evidently the inscription translated by Wilkins; the Rāja Ami'r being the Amara above mentioned; and the story of his conversion has merely been altered a little in repetition, and mixed up with the more recent collisions between the Burmese defenders of the shrine and the Rajput expeditions against these infidels in the 12th and 13th centuries. Perhaps the similarity of the name to the celebrated Hāmi'ra Sinh of Chitor may have helped to confound the tradition. It is unnecessary to republish this inscription.

"No. 4 is inscribed in a circular form over an image of Devi in the Mahant's garden." This, again, is alluded to by Dr. Hamilton as No. 99 of the India House museum, "on a male figure now called Saraswattī (a goddess), is the usual pious sentence of the Buddhist." It is useless to lithograph this inscription, which does not differ even in the form of the letters from the "Yē dharma hetu, &c." of the Sārnāth and Tirhut images.

"No. 5 is a word engraved on a pillar which now forms one of the stanchions to an upper story in the convent. The character you will observe assimilates to the ancient inscriptions." This I have found room to insert in Plate XXXIII., but it is impossible to make any thing of it: perhaps it formed part of a longer inscription in the oldest laṭh character.

No. 2, then, is the only one of the series which requires further observation. From my acquired experience in such matters, there was little difficulty in transcribing the whole from the facsimile (lithographed on a reduced scale in Plate XXX.) into the modern Nāgāri, nor in preparing a translation with the assistance of the Society's pandit, and of Ratna Paula, whose acquaintance with the Buddhist
tenets enabled him to correct the former in several doubtful readings.

The character may be properly designated as the Gaur alphabet, the parent of the modern Bengali form. The specimen is chronologically valuable to the investigation of the gradual alterations it has undergone, because it contains a date, Samvat 73 or 74, of an era that has been the subject of some misapprehension. Mr. Colebrooke rectified Dr. Wilkins' mistake in supposing this sambat could refer to the era of Vikramaditya, and assumed a position for it 1000 years more modern, in connection with the Gopala or Bhupila dynasty of Gaur. The document before us corroborates this view; but by the expression, "after the expiration of the reign of Laxmana Se'na," it would seem that the term samvat applied generally to whatever epoch might be mentioned in the preceding sentence. Laxmana Se'na, the son of Belal Sen, who built the city of Gaur, reigned in A.D. 1116—1123: so that the date of the inscription on this supposition would be A.D. 1197, only three years prior to the destruction of the monarchy by the Musalmans. The figures, however, are unfortunately doubtful, just where their identification is of the greatest consequence:—the first might be read as the Nāgarī 1, were not the numerals of the month so clearly of the Bengali form. If counted from the foundation of Gaur in 1066, the date would fall in 1140. Were there any possibility of assuming a starting point on satisfactory data, the day of the week, Thursday, would afford a sure test of its being correctly fixed, by the calculation of the luni-solar period elapsed: but according to the formula in my calendric tables, neither of the epochs above selected will bring about such a result.

The following is the transcript of the facsimile in modern Nāgarī. One letter after Namobuddhāya is illegible, and the next word is consequently doubtful: anusvara is substituted for ड़.

नभा बुधाय बंकले यं श्रवणाविविवद निभायाविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविविवি঵िविविविवি঵िविविविविविविविविविविविविविविवি঵ি঵िवি঵िविविविवি঵ি঵िविवি঵िविविविविविवি঵िवি঵िविवি঵िवি঵िविविविवি঵ি঵िविविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵िविविविविवি঵िविविविविविवি঵िविविविवি঵िविवি঵िवি঵ি঵िवি঵िवি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविविविविविविविविविविविवি঵िविविवি঵ি঵िविवি঵िवি঵ি঵िविविविविविविविविवি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵िविवি঵िवি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵िविवি঵िवি঵िविवি঵िवি঵िविवি঵िविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविवি঵िविविविविविविविविविविविविवি঵िविवি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵ি঵िवি঵िवি঵ি঵िविवি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵िवি঵िविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविविवি঵िविविविविवি঵ি঵िविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵िविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵िवি঵िविवি঵िविविविवি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵िविविवি঵ি঵ি঵िविविविविविविवি঵ি঵िविविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵िविविविविविविवি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵िविविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵िविविविविविविविविविविविवি঵िविविविविविवি঵िविविवি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविविविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵िविविवি঵िविविवি঵िविविवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िविवি঵िविविविवি঵िविविवি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵िवি঵ি঵ি঵ি঵ि
Translation.

"Salutation to Buddha.—May this votive aspiration of the devoted votary to Mahávira Swámi*—(Of him who is) in holiness like the blue-bee steeped in the honied lotus of the feet of a divine personage, and in might like the lion triumphant over the infuriate elephant, who reigns over the royal and puissant progeny of Halkara Bhupa'la, named Krishna Nripati and Garudana-rayana, his inveterate antagonists—who is himself the gracious father (protector) of tributary kings—who, adorned with such might and virtues, sways the imperial sceptre over 125000 kingdoms well people with mountaineer warriors—the king of kings—the auspicious and high in dignity Asoka Chandra Deva,—(of the aforesaid Raja's) younger brother, Dasaratha Kumá'ra, supported and maintained through the lotus of his gracious feet, his dependent treasurer, a conscientious Bodhisatwa—the light of his tribe and family, by name Sahasrapa'fa, son of the dignified Sri Cha'ta Brahma, and grandson of Mrishi Brahma—may (this his holy act), united with the virtues of his teachers and guru, his mother and father, enable to attain the fruit of immortal wisdom, salvation from passions and delusions of sublunary existence, and absorption of his soul in the Supreme Being."

"Written after the conclusion of the reign of Sri mat Laxmana Sena Deva, in the year 74, on Thursday, the 12th day of the dark half of the month of Vaisakha."

The inversion of the sentence, and the multitude of epithets applied to each party, makes it difficult for an English reader to follow the sense through such a labyrinth:—in a few words, it prays that some good act (probably the building or endowment of a temple) may redound to the eternal welfare of one Sahasrapa’da, the treasurer of Dasaratha Kumá'ra, the younger brother of Maharája Asoka Chandra Deva, the reigning prince of a dynasty that had supplanted by conquest some descendants of the Bhupala family, (of Gaur doubtless,) by name Krishna and Garudana'ra’yan. All these names and persons I believe are new to history: at least I find no Asoka among the successors of Bela'z Se’n. From his assumption of such a name it may be presumed that he was of the Buddhist faith, as the invocation shews to have been the case also with his officers of state.

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* Buddha, the transcendentally victorious hero. The construction of the sentence, which it is endeavoured to follow closely, will be hardly intelligible without explaining that this first epithet belongs to Sahasrapa’da, whose name occurs lower down.
Sub-Himalayan Fossil Remains. Sus.

fig. 1

fig. 2

fig. 3

Fossil Remains of the Dādūpūr Collection. 661

Bhitari Lāth.

On the same plate I have lithographed from a drawing by Captain Cunningham an elevation of the Bhitari lāth in the Ghazipur district, of which so much have been said. It was Mr. Tregear who first brought it to notice in 1834; he sent me a rough pencil sketch, and promised further examination. This was accomplished in company with Captain Cunningham; when on clearing away the earth from the lower part of the shaft a long inscription was discovered. It was immediately seen to be in the same character as No. 2 of the Allahabad lāth—and while taking a copy of it in pencil, the names of Rājas Sri' Gupta, Ghatot kacha, Chandra-gupta, Samudra-gupta, were found following in succession, exactly as on the Allahabad inscription—other names, Chandra-gupta, Kum'a'ra-gupta, and Skanda-gupta, succeeded; proving that this pillar had been erected several reigns subsequently to the other, and confirming in an extraordinary manner the concatenation of the Canouj coins of this very Gupta family, as has been noticed in a preceding paper.—More need not be said at present, as the inscription itself will appear next month with Dr. Mill's interpretation and valuable comments.

There are two other pillars near Ghazipur, at Zamineah, south of the Ganges, from which great expectations were entertained, of our making a further acquisition—but we have just been disappointed. Col. Povoleri writes me, that Mr. Murray has closely examined the principal pillar without finding any trace of writing on it; he is about to dig around it, however, for the square portion of the shaft may possibly be buried below the soil. This is our only chance.


Genus Sus*. 

Cuvier has confined his remarks upon the fossil remains of the genus Sus to a brief notice of their existence, in consequence, it appears, of the fact that up to the time at which the Recherches sur les Ossemens fossiles were published, the instances of the occurrence of fossils of this genus were rare; and of the small number discovered the greater portion had been found in peat. The tables given in the

* The Plates B and C mentioned in the ensuing descriptions, have been incorporated in Plate XLIV., and had been reserved for the Researches, on account of their dimensions; but we see they are necessary to the article, and have inserted them with Col. Colvin's lithograph.—Ed.
latest geological manuals show, that in the interval which has elapsed since the publication of Cuvier's work a few sites have afforded specimens, but still the remains in comparison with those of other genera are far from being abundant. By reference to the table of Sub-Himalayan fossil genera in the 53rd No. of the Journal of the Asiatic Society it will be observed, that, although here found in greater quantity than in European localities, the relics of the genus are, in comparison with those of most of the other Pachydermata, scarce. Notwithstanding their small number, the specimens in our possession, happening in general to be tolerably perfect, form a series which, though not continuous, is sufficiently perfect to illustrate the dentition of one of the species.

To the consideration of this species we without further introduction proceed; premising only, that with the exception of the cranium of which fig. 6, Pl. B, is a representation, the whole of the specimens referred to are from the Maginand deposit, a general description of which prefaces our notes on the fossil unicorn-rhinoceros.

**Cranium.** The fossil, of which figs. 1 and 2, Pl. XXXIV. are representations, is the cranium of the sow of the species to be described. The specimen has been less crushed than is usual, but has not altogether escaped. The nasal bones are not quite centrical, and in their natural position, being thrust over towards the left maxillary by a crush which acted on the right side of the head. The mastoid apophyses and the descending tubercles in their front are broken off; the extremities of the pterygoid apophysis are also mutilated:—the zygapophyses of the temporal, if perfect, cannot be cleared completely from the matrix which adheres to it, without the risk of destroying the process itself and the adjacent parts: both jugals are imperfect, being broken off (as shewn in the profile view of the skull) immediately after their descent from forming the post. orbitary apophysis: the canines are wanting, but their alveoli are very distinct, though small for the size of the head: this circumstance, in conjunction with the minor development of some parts of the occiput when compared with other specimens, indicates the sex of the cranium.

With the view of obtaining the difference of proportions consequent on differences of sex, the measurements which form the third column of the subjoined table were inserted; the half palate of the cranium from whence they are derived is given at fig. 5, Pl. B, but the occiput and nasal bones being imperfect, it was not deemed necessary to delineate the specimen either in plan or profile.

The second column of the table is occupied by the proportions deduced from the dimensions taken upon the cranium of the sow; and
the first column by those obtained from the head of a wild boar killed in the neighbourhood of Harsi. These two skulls denote, by the state of their molar teeth, very similar ages, the existing being but little younger than the fossil species; they are therefore well adapted for a comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Existing species</th>
<th>Fossil species, Female</th>
<th>Fossil species, Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Space occupied by seven molars measured on mesial lines,</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From lower edge of foramen magnum to extremity of intermaxillary,</td>
<td>2,672</td>
<td>2,556</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space between the 9th molars at their anterior,</td>
<td>0,210</td>
<td>0,193</td>
<td>0,257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto 1st ditto,</td>
<td>0,371</td>
<td>0,356</td>
<td>0,418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from 1st molars to extremity of intermaxillary,</td>
<td>0,858</td>
<td>0,650</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from lower edge of occipital foramen to posterior edge of 7th molars,</td>
<td>0,825</td>
<td>0,922</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from summit of occiput to extremity of intermaxillary,</td>
<td>3,627</td>
<td>2,940</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth of frontal plane at post. orbital apophysis,</td>
<td>0,876</td>
<td>0,831</td>
<td>0,928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of parietal plane at narrowest part,</td>
<td>0,358</td>
<td>0,241</td>
<td>0,301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth across zygomatic process of temporal bones,</td>
<td>1,323</td>
<td>1,280</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From anterior of orbit to extremity of intermaxillary,</td>
<td>2,079</td>
<td>1,934</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From anterior of orbit to point of post. orbital apophysis,</td>
<td>0,362</td>
<td>0,317</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diameter of orbit perpendicularly to line of molar,</td>
<td>0,365</td>
<td>0,280</td>
<td>0,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From point of post. orbital apophysis to lower edge of jugal,</td>
<td>0,562</td>
<td>0,553</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of occiput from lower edge of occipital foramen to summit,</td>
<td>1,073</td>
<td>0,893</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across occipital condyles,</td>
<td>0,487</td>
<td>0,449</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having only one specimen of the existing species, we shall draw no conclusions from the difference of size observable in the two species, as shown by the table of dimensions which closes this paper; but, confining ourselves to the discordances displayed by the above table, in which the length of space occupied by the seven molars is chosen as the unit of comparison, shall notice the following circumstances.

The molars with reference to the length of the head as measured from the foramen magnum to the extremity of the intermaxillaries, occupy more space, and are situated at a greater distance from the foramen magnum; there is, consequently, a less interval between the anterior false molar and the extremity of the intermaxillaries in the fossil than in the existing species: the palate is also somewhat narrower.

The mesial line of the occiput is in the fossil nearly perpendicular to the plane of the palate, agreeing in this respect with the cranium of the hog which forms the subject of Cuvier’s description: but in the wild hog of Hariánah this mesial line makes an obtuse angle with the palatal plane; thus causing the dimension from the crest of
the occiput to the anterior extremity of the intermaxillaries to be proportionately greater than in the fossil.

It will be observed, that the male, with exactly the same space occupied by its molars as by those of the sow, has a greater frontal and parietal breadth of upper plane of the head. In both fossils there is, in the frontal plane, a total absence of convexity: as this plane ascends, there is a tendency to concavity, in consequence of the parietal crests being more strongly marked than in the existing species, and thus producing the appearance of a gentle hollow where in the common wild hog there would be a gentle swell.

The orbits are in the fossil proportionately less, situated higher, and more forward in the head; their horizontal is greater than their perpendicular diameter, whereas in the existing species these are nearly equal: the post. orbital apophyses of the frontals are not so salient, and those of the jugal bones are less distant from the anterior of the orbit than is the case in the existing species.

Considering the sex of the fossil cranium, the saliency of the zygomatic arches correspond in the two species.

On reference to the table of measurements, it will be seen that the occiput of the specimen third in the table is, in consequence of having belonged to a male, larger than that of fig. 1, Plate XXXIV. The specimen here alluded to possessing only one molar, could not be introduced into the foregoing table of proportions: supposing, however, the space occupied by its molars to have been equal to that of fig. 1, Plate XXXIV. and fig. 5, Plate B, the height of this occiput yields a proportion of 1.071, which is very similar to that obtained for the existing species. The breadth across the condyles is comparatively less in the fossil; but the transverse breadth of the occiput at the broadest part is more developed than in the existing species.

No sutures can be traced in the fossils. From the foregoing remarks it is evident that in several respects the species differ. We shall now proceed to examine the dentition, which presents a few modifications worthy of notice.

Upper jaws. The plane of the palate extends backwards behind the seventh molars, even further than in the common hog.

The teeth correspond in number with those of the existing species, the incisors being $\frac{1}{2}$ canines $\frac{3}{4}$, molars $\frac{7}{4}$—$\frac{7}{4}$.

With exemplars of the earlier stages of the dentition in the upper maxillaries, we are not well provided: a small fragment containing the 3rd and 4th molars but slightly worn, shows that the 4th milk tooth resembled that delineated by Cuvier in his Plate 1, fig. 6; but the 3rd molar, though composed of similar parts, is a little longer.
and more tapering than the one in fig. 6. Between this the initial step in the dentition, and that in which the 6th molar is making its appearance, we have none of the intervening stages. A cranium which has not been drawn in consequence of the mutilation of all the molars except the 5th, shows the 6th tooth in the act of cutting the jaw: the anterior extremity of the intermaxillary being broken off, the incisor teeth are not perfect, but by the fracture the permanent incisors are in part laid open, so that the milk ones must either have already fallen or have been on the point of so doing: the latter is the most probable, as the lower jaw of this cranium, of which fig. 2, Plate C, is a representation, has the first set of incisors still in the jaw, though much worn; of course the state of detrition of the molars of the upper corresponds with that of the teeth of the lower jaw; the 4th molars are very much worn, the 5th has commenced to be in use, and the 6th is showing the summits of its collines; it appears to be during the progressive wear of the 5th and the descent of the 6th molar that the milk teeth are shed and replaced by the permanent ones; for fig. 1, Plate B, which represents the right half of a specimen, has no vestige of the milk teeth, but shows the permanent molars Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 unworn.

As the animal increased in age and the 7th molar gradually descended, the teeth already in use assumed the appearance exhibited by fig. 2, Plate B, which represents the left half of a fossil upper jaw: this and the foregoing specimen, fig. 1, show that the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th molars, excepting in size, correspond with those of the existing species, each tooth being compounded of the same parts, even to the small external interstitial pillars of the 5th and 6th. The 7th is in fig. 2 quite untouched, only the anterior portion of the tooth having, in fact, been exposed; although in consequence of the breaking away of the posterior part of the specimen the whole of the molar is now exposed. Compared with a germ of the existing species, it is found to be composed of analogous parts, the general shape of the fossil tooth being at the same time modified in consequence of the greater size to which the posterior collines or mamille attain: hence the tooth is comparatively longer and less tapering.

Fig. 5, which represents the left half of a fossil cranium, shows the 7th molar in great part brought into use, and the corresponding progress in the detrition of the other teeth. In fig. 3, Plate B, which is a view of the left half of the palate of the cranium fig. 1, Plate XXXIV., the whole of the last molar has been brought into use. The 1st molars are in this specimen mutilated, the others evince the wear
due to a more advanced age than that to which the fossil fig. 5 had arrived.

Fig. 4 is the left half of a fossil cranium, in which the two rows of teeth have accidentally worn irregularly; the left side is given, being the one in which the enamel curves of the last molar have assumed forms which, on comparison with the foregoing specimens, will be found slightly to differ. The corresponding tooth in the right maxillary is both considerably longer than its fellow, and bears a greater similarity to those of the other skulls. The canines of the male were large and ribbed on the upper surface, but the fossil upper jaws presenting none perfect, their shape and direction are not ascertainable: a detached fragment indicates a wear similar to that which occurs in the tusk of the wild hog: from the lower jaws little can be deduced, fig. 3, Plate XXXIV., being the only adult one which possesses the canines perfect. This specimen would have accurately indicated the wear had it been possible to clear the canine of a thin hard coating of the matrix, which, though not sufficiently thick to affect the general shape of the tusk, conceals the worn, and does not allow it to be distinguished from the unworn, surface.

The canines of the female were small, as may be seen by the alveoli of fig. 3, Plate B.

The incisors in fig. 3, Plate B, are much used; only four are visible; the matrix, which cannot be altogether cleared from the anterior of the palate, probably conceals the alveoli of the posterior incisors.

Lower jaws. The early state of the milk teeth when the 4th or tri-partitioned molars is commencing to be used, is exhibited in the fragment of which fig. 1, Plate C, is a representation; the 5th molar is also here seen prior to undergoing detrition.

The next stage exemplified by a specimen, is that in which the 5th is a little worn; the 3rd and 4th are a good deal so, and the 6th is just showing the tops of its collines; the central early incisors are much used, but not yet shed; the posterior ones are already replaced by their permanent successors, and the canine is showing its point: this jaw, as before remarked, was found together with its cranium.

By the time that the 5th molar is much used, and the 6th a little so, the milk teeth are all cast, and the permanent ones in use. Fig. 3, Plate C, exemplifies this step; here the 7th molar is half developed, the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th are slightly abraded; the canine, which is broken at the point, rises with a gentle divergence, and instead of the triangular section observable in the tusk of the existing species, has one nearly elliptical, being only somewhat flattened at its posterior edge.
The specimen, not coming from an adult animal, affords no trace of any friction having commenced to take place between the upper and lower canines, the latter being intact: in this respect the fossil corresponds with the existing species, in which, to judge from a skull in our possession, the canines do not meet until the development of the 7th molar. The posterior incisor is present in neither half of the jaw,—a circumstance which fig. 4 proves to be accidental, and that the shape of this incisor is peculiar and distinctive. The central incisors are large, and protrude more horizontally than in the existing species. The right side has been crushed towards the left side of the jaw, so that the angle formed by the two halves at their symphyses cannot, from this specimen, be ascertained.

Fig. 5 is a fragment in which the 7th molar is nearly clear of the jaw, and has its anterior portion a little worn, but the central and posterior parts untouched. Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 6 are of course in a more advanced state of detrition than is the case with those of fig. 3.

The next condition illustrated is that in which the 7th molar is completely developed from the maxillary and—in use; No. 6 is much worn, No. 5 nearly obliterated, and Nos. 2, 3, 4, and even No. 1, are in progressive wear. Fig. 4, which illustrates this state of the teeth, is from a nearly perfect fossil jaw; the specimen has lost the left condyle, and has the parts adjacent to the right one broken off, as shown in the profile view fig. 6; the left canine is snapped off close by the bone, and thus presents a sectional view: the left hind incisor, though not actually affixed to the specimen, was found in the same block,—a fact which in connection with the general state of the specimens, argues quiet deposition.

The molars of the lower jaw, like those of the upper, bear a close resemblance to those of the existing species; the incisors and the canines are, as above noticed, distinctive; and by reference to the table of dimensions it will be seen that the symphyses is in the fossil shorter in comparison to the length of the jaw, and the angle formed by the two sides is also less acute than in the common wild hog.

From the form of the cranium, the shape of the canines and incisors, and the other points in which the fossil differs from the existing species of the country, a specific difference may be inferred; for the dissimilarity, although less than that which occurs between the Baby-russa, the Larvatus and the Sus scrofa or common hog, is too remarkable, particularly in the shape of the canines of the lower jaw, to admit of the fossil being considered as a mere variety of the Sus scrofa.
Fossil Remains of the Dādūpur Collection.

Besides the foregoing fossil species, the existence of another is indicated by a cranium, of which fig. 6, Plate B, represents the left half of the palate: the fossil is unfortunately imperfect; the molars of the right maxillary are all broken, and of those on the left side the 6th and 7th are alone perfect. These are smaller than the analogous molars of the former,—smaller even than those of the existing species, and also present other differences besides those of length and breadth: their detrition does not take place in the same manner; for the 8th molar is but little worn, notwithstanding that the 7th is fully developed; in the larger fossil species the 6th would have been much worn down. The 9th molar resembles in its tapering form that of the common hog, but is posteriorly much less complicated, fewer tubercles entering into its body; it is not in the fossil quite perfect, one of the anterior collines being broken off: there is, however, sufficient of the tooth to warrant these remarks. The 6th molar is composed of the same number of collines as that of the common hog, but these, as also the inner side of the tooth, generally are less channelled. The head appears to have been short, for the nasals gain breadth more rapidly as they ascend, and the anterior extremities of the channels from the foramina on the frontals are perpendicularly over the 3rd, instead of being over the anterior of the 6th molar, as in the Sus scrofa. The occiput being broken off, the length of the head can only be guessed by paying attention to these minor considerations.

The above specimen is the only one in our collection of this variety; we shall therefore content ourselves with noting its existence amongst the fossil species; and in the event of further discoveries adding to its exemplars, we shall recur to the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements of Lower Jaws.</th>
<th>Existing species</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 4, Pl. C</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 3, Pl. C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length from post. of ramus to anterior extremity of symphysis,</td>
<td>10.62</td>
<td>11.65</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of symphysis on mesial line,</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Space occupied by seven molars,</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molars measured along their</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>centres,</td>
<td>2nd.</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd.</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4th.</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5th.</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6th.</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7th.</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth,</td>
<td>1st.</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd.</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd.</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4th.</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5th.</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6th.</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7th.</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Ditto]
### Table of Dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurements of the Cranium</th>
<th>Existing species</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 1, Pl. 34.</th>
<th>Fossil, not drawn</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 5, Pl. B.</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 1, Pl. B.</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 2, Pl. B.</th>
<th>Fossil, Fig. 6, Pl. B.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Space occupied by the 7 molars, taken on mesial line</td>
<td>4,52</td>
<td>5,17</td>
<td>5,17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From lower edge of foramen magnum to anterior extremity of intermaxillary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12,08</td>
<td>13,37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto ditto, 1st ditto</td>
<td>0,95</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td>1,06</td>
<td>1,33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from 1st molars to anterior extremity of intermaxillary, taken on mesial line</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,68</td>
<td>1,84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from lower edge of occipital foramen to posterior edge of 7th molars ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3,88</td>
<td>3,52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto from summit of occiput to extremity of intermaxillary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14,77</td>
<td>15,20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth of frontal plane at post orbital apophysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3,96</td>
<td>4,30</td>
<td>4,80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of parietal upper plane at narrow part</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,62</td>
<td>1,25</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>1,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest breadth at zygomatic arches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5,98</td>
<td>6,62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From anterior of orbit to extremity of intermaxillary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9,40</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From anterior of orbit to point of post orbital apophysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,64</td>
<td>1,64</td>
<td>1,78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diameter of orbit perpendicularly to palatal plane</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,65</td>
<td>1,45</td>
<td>1,40</td>
<td>1,50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From point of post. orbital apophysis to lower edge of jugal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,54</td>
<td>2,86</td>
<td>2,94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height of occiput from lower edge of occipital foramen to summit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4,85</td>
<td>4,62</td>
<td>5,54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth across occipital condyles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,20</td>
<td>2,32</td>
<td>2,24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of molars measured along their centres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0,34</td>
<td>0,30</td>
<td>0,36</td>
<td>0,40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>0,43</td>
<td>0,47</td>
<td>0,43</td>
<td>0,49</td>
<td>0,52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>0,44</td>
<td>0,47</td>
<td>0,45</td>
<td>0,51</td>
<td>0,49</td>
<td>0,41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>0,38</td>
<td>0,43</td>
<td>0,56</td>
<td>0,54</td>
<td>0,49</td>
<td>0,41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>0,61</td>
<td>0,53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td>0,77</td>
<td>0,87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th</td>
<td>1,75</td>
<td>1,97</td>
<td>2,03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reference to Plates.**

Plate XXXIV.—Plan and profile views of fossil cranium, and plan view of a lower jaw.

Pl. XLIV. (B) Series of half palates to illustrate dentition of upper jaws.

(C) Series of half and entire lower jaws.
VII.—Note on the occurrence of Volcanic Scoria in the Southern Peninsula. By Lieut. Newbold, A. D. C.

I have the honor to present to the notice of the Society, specimens of a calcareous and siliceous scoria forming the substance of a small hill at Búdígúnta, near Courtney, about 11 miles west of Bellary. This hill is situated close to the road, at the summit of a small pass over a range of hills running S.E. by which it is embosomed. Its apparent height is about 40 feet—circumference, 420 feet.

The summit is rounded, and surface partially covered with long dry grass; amid which project in every direction masses of scoria, passing round the hill in almost regular succession like steps. Towards the top the scoriae appear to be more friable—the base is cavernous, and the masses more vitreous on their surface, and stalactitic in shape. The hill when struck by a heavy stone or the heel of a booted foot emitted a sound as if hollow. Similar sounds were produced in riding a horse over the base. I found two pieces of the scoria several hundred yards from the spot: it is, however, probable that these may have been conveyed thence by the traveller. On the summit I picked up a piece of clink-stone and one of hornblende rock: the latter appeared to have been excavated by art. Around the base masses of scoria intermixed with the schistose sandstone, greenstone, and quartz of the surrounding formation were strewn together, with fragments of trap and iron ore.

The bed of the rivulet that washes the foot of the pass I found to be composed of greenstone. A partial stratum of kankar is here met with, covered with alluvial soil.

The surrounding hills are greenstone slate, in which minute scales of mica are found disseminated, capped by a schistose sandstone. The mound of scoria has from a distance a singular cineritious appearance, strongly contrasted with the ferruginous tint of the surrounding hills. By many it has been thought of volcanic origin, but I could discover nothing like a crater ; nor any traces of lava, obsidian, augite, olivine or other volcanic matter.

The oldest natives can give no account how these scoriae were accumulated, beyond the vague tradition founded on an episode in the Mahabhárat, of their being the burnt bones of a Rácsásu of a former age (Dwápar Yug); nor am I aware that such scoriae are produced by any furnace used in the country in present times.

Buchanan, in his geological account of the range of hills from Rajmahal to Burdwan, describes a calcareous matter, in mass, called Asurhar, or giant's bones.
The similarity in the names given by the natives to these two substances (Raçasāsa also signifying a giant) has struck me; although Buchanan describes the Rajmahal formation as deposited from water; whereas the specimens now sent appear to have undergone the action of fire.

P. S. Since writing the above I have received a letter from the President of the Madras Hindu Literary Society, Cavelly Venkata Lachmy'a, who informs me that there are mounds of scoriae of a similar description at Būdibetta near Chittledrāg, at Būdihal, in the Mysore country, and at Bāditippa in Sāndah, near the Nugger frontier. Regarding the origin of these ashes he gave no further account save the local traditions; viz. that some were the ashes of religious sacrifices performed by the holy Rishis in their hermitages, and some the funeral piles of remarkable heroes and other noted persons.

Būdīgunta, the name of the place whence the specimens sent you were procured, signifies in the Canarese language the "hill of ashes."

VIII.—Postscript to the account of Ursitaxus printed in the 19th Vol. of Researches As. Soc. By B. H. Hodgson, Esq.

I have just procured another very perfect skull of the Ursitax, which exhibits the same formula of molar dentition as that described in my paper or $\frac{4.4}{4.4}$.

It is the cranium of a mature subject, but less old than the preceding, and I am thus enabled to correct that portion of the generic character which ascribes an almost ursine flatness to the crowns of the molar teeth.

In the present subject the coronal processes of those teeth are distinctly salient, with an obtusely conical form. A similar process rises from the inner heel of the great carnivorous tooth, above; nor is the transverse tubercular, next to it, wholly without symptoms of such a process.

The generic character should be corrected as follows:

'Cheek teeth $\frac{4.4}{4.4}$, strong, broad, low, and furnished on the crowns with obtusely-conical processes: the tubercular of the upper jaw, transverse, narrow, sub-parallelogrammic, smaller than the carnivorous tooth, and essentially a grinder: no tubercular in the lower jaw,' et cæt. sicut prius scripta.

It has been suggested to me that our animal is a Glutton or a Ratel. But the dentition of the former, according to the Regne animal, is $\frac{5.5}{6.5}$; of the latter is $\frac{4.4}{5.5}$; and I possess several species of both con-
forming to those formulæ. The peculiar dental system of Ursitaxus
is in harmony with other material peculiarities of structure; and the
animal therefore seems abundantly entitled to generic distinctness.

As to the species, that is probably identical with the Ursus Indicus
of Shaw, the Indian Badger of Pennant, and the Biju of Hindusthan,
but which still wants (I believe) a scientific name. I suppose, there-
fore, mine of Inauritus will be recognised, unless we are to persist in
incumbering the science with the vague names and descriptions of a
half informed age.

IX.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 2nd November, 1836.

The Honorable Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair.

Mr. G. F. Mc Clintoch, proposed at the last Meeting, was balloted for,
and duly elected a Member.

H. Walters, Esq. C. S., Dr. J. M. Bramley, Dr. Drummond, Newab
Tahawur Jung Behadur, and Shâh Qâbir ʿudîn were proposed by
Mr. James Prinsep, seconded by Sir Edward Ryan.

Dr. Jackson was proposed by Dr. Pearson, seconded by Sir Edward
Ryan.

Read a letter from Mr. Vincent Tregear, acknowledging his election
as an associate member.

Read a letter from Mr. C. Brownlow, returning thanks for the So-
ciety’s patronage of the Alif Ḭeṭla, and agreeing to the stipulation for
the deposit of a file of the sheets, as printed, with the Secretary.

Read a letter from J. C. C. Sutherland, Esq., Secretary to the Ge-
eral Committee of Public Instruction, requesting to know at what
price the Society would supply twenty-eight copies of the Naishadha
and of the Râja Tarangini, required for the use of the Government San-
scrit College.

Mr. W. H. Macnaghten moved that the books should be given gratis if in-
tended for deposit in libraries, as the encouragement thus given to the study
of these works would promote the sole object the Society had in view in com-
pleting their publication. The Secretary explained that they were required as class
books; that the present application would doubtless be followed up by a con-
stant periodical demand for this and other works; that when he guaranteed
the Society against any risk in undertaking to finish the suspended volumes,
he calculated on the necessary school demand for many of them as one of the
means of repayment; and the prices fixed were calculated only to cover the
gross amount expended in their completion: he proposed furnishing them at a
reduced price. Sir Benj. Malkin and other Members objected to a reduc-
tion of price, and it was resolved by a large majority that the ordinary selling
price should be charged.

The Secretary submitted correspondence with the Secretary to the Com-
mittee of Public Instruction, relative to the Oriental works deposited for
sale at the London Booksellers, which the Society’s English Agent
from a misconception had authorized to be transferred to the Society’s
account, and to be sold at reduced prices.

The transfer had been countermanded as soon as known; but the Committee
refused to sanction any sales that might mean time have been made at the re-
duced prices, awaiting the report of the circumstances from their bookseller.
Read a letter from the Secretary of the Royal Academy of Marseilles, acknowledging receipt of the Researches and Journals presented last year.

Shah Qābir ʿudīn applied to the Society to be allowed the loan, for the purpose of taking a copy, of a very valuable manuscript of the Koran in the Library, depositing 250 rupees, the price at which it had been purchased by the Society.

Resolved, that he should be permitted to employ kātībī in the apartment to take the copy, but that the volume could not be lent out for such a purpose.

He also requested two copies of the last three volumes of the Alemgiri, of which the three first volumes had been supplied gratis to the Susseram Madrassa by the Education Committee.

Resolved, that this request be complied with.

Library.

A letter was read from the Secretary to Government, General Department, forwarding for deposit in the Library of the Asiatic Society the undermentioned 95 volumes, being a set of the Reports and Publications of the Commissioners of Records, of which three copies had been recently sent out (as printed on the reverse of the title page) "for perpetual preservation in some public library of the Bengal Presidency."

Report from Commissioners on Public Records, 1 vol.
Record Commission, Scotland; Correspondence of C. P. Cooper, Esq. Secretary to the Board, with Thomas Thomson, Esq. Deputy Clerk Regulation, 1 vol.
Reports from the Commissioners on the Public Records of Ireland, 3 vols.
La Commission Des Archives d'Angleterre, 1 pamphlet.
Public Records, the public advantages of entrusting the Records of the Exchequer, &c. 1 pamphlet.

Novarum Inquisitiones in Curea Scaccariae, 1 vol.
Rotuli Hundredorum, 2 vols.
Valor Ecclesiasticus, 6 vols.
Inquisitionum Post Mortem Calendarium, 4 vols.
Manuscripts in the Harleian Collection, 4 vols.
Placita de quo Warranto, 1 vol.
Domesday Book, 2 vols.
Domesday Index, 1 vol.
Domesday Supplement, 1 vol.
Sir H. Ellis's Introduction and Index to Domesday, 2 vols.
Placitorum Abbreviatio, 1 vol.
Rotuli Scotiae, 2 vols.
Rotuli Litterarum Clausarum, 1 vol.
Rotuli Litterarum Patentium, 1 vol.
Rotulorum Originalium, 2 vols.
Manuscripts in the Lansdown Collection, 1 vol.
Inquisitionum in Officio in Hibernia, 2 vols.
Rotulorum Patentium et Clausorum, 1 vol.
The Acts of the Parliaments of Scotland, 10 vols. (first volume wanting.)
Registrum Magui Sigilli, 1 vol.
Proceedings in Chancery, 3 vols.
Calendar to Pleadings, &c. 1 vol. marked Vol. II.
Feodera, 6 vols.
Parliamentary Writs, 4 vols.
Letters sur la Cour de la Chancellerie d'Angleterre, 1 vol.
Letters to Charles Purton Cooper, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law, on the appointment of a Permanent Judge in the Court of Chancery in the place of the Lord Chancellor; 2 pamphlets.
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.


Memoria da Comissão dos Arquivos da Gran Bretanha dirigida aos Cartorios Bibliothecarios e Antiquarios de Portugal, pelo que respeita aos trabalhos e Exames da mesma Comissão; 1 pamphlet.


Rotuli Curiae Regis, 2 vols.

Rotuli de Oblatis et Finibus in Turri Londinensi, 1 vol.

Rotuli Selecti Ex Archivis in Dom. Cap. Westm. 1 vol.

Excerptâ Rotulis Finium in Turri Londinensi asservatis Henrico Tertio, 1 vol.

Fines 7, Ric 1, 16 Johan, 1 vol.

Rotuli Normannii in Turri Londinensi, 1 vol.

Statutes of the Realm, 12 vols. including 2 vols. of Index.

Manuscripts in the Cottonian Library, 1 vol.

Calendarium Rotulorum Patentium in Turri Londinensi, 1 vol.

Calendarium Rotulorum Chartarum et Inquisitionum ad quod damnum, 1 vol.

Taxatio Ecclesiastica Angliae et Walliae, 1 vol.

Read a letter from Mr. H. A. Horneman, forwarding for presentation a copy of the first number of the Numismatic Journal, on behalf of Mr. John Yonge Akerman, F. S. A. the Editor.

Meteorological Register for September, 1836, was presented by the Surveyor General.


Literary and Antiquities.

Read a letter from H. T. Prinsep, Esq. Secretary to the Government of India, General Department, forwarding copy of a report furnished to the Government of Bombay from Colonel Chesney, of the proceedings of the Euphrates expedition, in its various departments.

The substance of this report is published below.

A memoir on the Antiquities of Bamián was submitted by Mr. Treevelyan, on the part of Mr. C. Masson.

The same member presented also a notice by Munshi Mohan Lal, of Uch Sherif, a town near the junction of the five streams in the Panjáb, celebrated as the place of sepulture of many Mahommedan saints.

Mr. S. G. Heately presented through Dr. Corby, the first of a series of mathematical essays on the use of functions in geometrical analysis.

Physical.

A large fossil fragment of the acetabulum of an elephant was presented by Dr. Spilsbury, found by him at Siguami, the place where Captain Sleeman discovered the first indications of the Nerbudda fossils.

Brigadier Anmurry, Engineers, presented on the part of Mr. Swetenham, some incrusted petrifications of leaves from the calcareous springs in the Dehra Dun.

A specimen of the red-billed parrot (Psittacus Sinensis) was presented by Dr. Burlini, and a woodpecker by the curator, both mounted in the museum.

The Secretary read the following extract of a private letter from Dr. W. Griffith, dated Sadiya, Assam, 12th Oct.

"I have much pleasure in informing you that I have lately completed the arrangement of the collections of the Musci and Hepaticæ made during our late deputation into Assam. The collection of the former amounts to 154 species, or to about an eighth of the whole known number. It includes twenty-seven genera, of which I have ventured to characterise two as new. That of Hepaticæ includes forty-eight species, of which thirty-one belong to Jungernannia alone, and ten genera, of which five appear to be new. Almost the whole of both these collections were made by myself on the Khasiya Hills between Chur-

[Oct.]
ra Punji and Nunklow, and within a period of seven weeks. Both these orders have hitherto been almost totally neglected by Indian Botanists; and the greater part of the few that have been described seem to have been sent from Nipal by the Honorable Mr. Gardiner. Hence, owing to the impossibility of obtaining advice, and as my situation obviously precludes me at present from consulting the requisite authorities, I have determined on sending the MSS. and drawings to England, accompanied with a complete series of both collections. By the adoption of this plan the stability of my very numerous new species will easily be determined*

X.—A General Statement of the labors and proceedings of the Expedition to the Euphrates, under the command of Colonel Chesney, Royal Artillery, F. R. S.

The object of the present communication is not to anticipate the interest which must be felt, and especially by the members of the Geographical Society, as well as other public bodies, not only in the progress of the Expedition to the Euphrates, but also in the results obtained to science and general knowledge; for, to render these of any real value, they must be accompanied by the details of the means by which they were acquired. It is rather, therefore, with a view to the exhibition of how those means have been hitherto applied, and how the capabilities of the Expedition have been directed, that the present statement is made; not, however, omitting those details which a brief notice of this kind will admit, when touching upon the labour, the progress, and the present condition of the enterprise itself.

The voyage to Malta from Liverpool occupied a period of twenty-nine days, a great part of which time was taken up in working out the details, and consolidating the original plans of our commander. Among the scientific labours, independently of questions of general navigation and drilling the men, were the rating of the chronometers, observations in meteorology, the temperature of the sea, and researches in natural history.

At Malta, some time was devoted to the determination of the intensity of magnetic forces, and the amount of the dip of the needle. The cylinders used for the former experiments consisted of two pair that had been tried by Captain Sabine in Limerick, and another obtained through the kindness of Professor Lloyd, T. C. D. and tried at Dublin previous to departure. The whole set being subsequently experimented upon in London by Lieut. Murphy, R. E. and also at Liverpool.

An exploratory tour was also made in the interior of the islands, Malta and Gaza, with the view of recognizing in a general way their geological structure and natural productions. Some fossil shells of interest were obtained, also the plants of the season (March), and some species belonging to the classes Tunicata, Acaleppa, Malacodermæ and Polypi.

During the stay at Malta, Colonel Chesney was much occupied with the general objects of the Expedition, more particularly about the construction of flat boats. The George Canning had been separated from the Alban Steamer her consort, by rude weather, off Cork, and it was found impossible to remedy this loss at the Mediterranean station; but the Admiral, Sir Josias Rowley, allowed the Columbine sloop to accompany the Expedition to the mouth of the Orontes; and there was certainly every reason to rejoice in this arrangement; for not only was the George Canning taken in tow by the brig at all times when the weather permitted, but Commander Henderson and his officers secured the gratitude of every member of the Expedition, by the most efficient and zealous services in landing the stores.

The difficulties and opposition to the landing of the stores are already known from the various reports that have reached England. Success was only obtained here in the first instance by the bold step of an immediate landing without a reference to the authorities of the country, and by exposing and remonstrating

* We hope soon to receive from the Tea Committee some account of Dr. Griffith's previous labors. We hear that the several reports of Dr. Wallich, Dr. Griffith, and Dr. McClelland have been some time sent in.—Ed.
in the second, against the system of subterfuge carried on by the Syrian Government towards the expedition; and its commander visited Ibrahim Pacha at Tripoli, in the hope of persuading him to give, at least for a time, that assistance which had been promised unreservedly by the Viceroy himself.

The connexion between the George Canning and the shore having been established by means of an hawser extending from the ship across the bar of the Orontes, a distance of 1200 yards, parties were sent on shore from the Columbine and George Canning with tents for their accommodation, and the disembarkation was carried on with such spirit and activity, that the site designated as "Amelia Depot" soon became a little camp with a very mixed aspect, replete with bustle and useful occupation. The bar at the mouth of the river was at times dangerous, and on one occasion Commander Henderson with his boat's crew narrowly escaped a watery grave.

The observatory being now fixed, Lieutenant Murphy applied himself to astronomical observations, more especially with the fine transit instrument that had come out with the Expedition. The survey was soon afterwards begun under Lieutenant Murphy, Mr. Thomson, and Mr. Stemhouse, (who was sent by the Admiral) at Lattaquia (Laodicea), but was limited to a determination of the outline of the coast with its soundings, and an examination of the coast itself. Mr. Ainsworth also accompanied the party for purposes of natural history. The sites of Heracleum and Possidion were recognized. On their return an excursion was made to the summit of Pliny's wonder, Mount Casius or Gebel. The succession of the various forms of vegetation was noted. The party bivouacked near the summit, on which, April 28th, there still remained some patches of snow. The results given by the Barometer, which was observed at various heights, compared with a register kept at the same time by Mr. Eden in the Depot, coincided closely with those obtained trigonometically by Mr. Murphy, and which gave for the elevation above the sea 5318 feet. But this mountain, notwithstanding its great height, is entirely composed of supracretaceous limestones, characterized by cones and cerithii. At its north-eastern foot is an extensive deposit of highly crystalline gypsum, and to the south-east diallage rocks and serpentines break through the same formations, accompanied by lacustrine marlites and siliceous limestones.

On the 29th of April, a party consisting of Lieutenant Murphy, Mr. Ainsworth, and Mr. Thomson, left the Orontes in a country boat to commence the survey of the Gulf of Scanderoon and its neighbouring shores. The first points visited were Arsous and Rhodes. An ascent was then made to Gebel Kaiseria, on which they bivouacked. Next came Scanderoon, and in its neighbourhood Jacob's Well, the site of Myriandros: to the south, the pass of Bylan, gates of Syria (Ptolemy), Amanian Gates (Strabo), a defile in the mountains separating the Anamias from the Rhosos, and leading from Myriandros into the plan of Antioc or Umm.

To the north the remains of a marble gate-way, commonly called Jonas' Pillars, (Cilicia Gates of Ptolemy, Q. Curtius and Arrian:) this was the midnight halt of Alexander. The description of Zenophon refers to a narrow place contiguous to the sea; that of Arrian to the ascent of the hills that shut up the same plain contiguous to the sea. The latter applies itself distinctly to these ruins. Half a mile north of the Cilician Gates, is the river Markoalsayu (Kersus), and beyond a wall terminating in the sea with a tower. At the foot of the mountains, the Kersus passes between two walls near the village of Maretas. This is the wall and gates of Zenophon. They are built of stone. Further north is Bylas (Baias Anton. Itiner. Myrevandros of Williams' Geography of ancient Asia) and there are several populous villages between Bylas and the Isisus (Pinarius). At a subsequent period, in company with Colonel Chesnky, this river was examined in detail, as also the ruins of a considerable town near some hills which enclosed the Issic plain to the north-west—the Glaun Dagh, or Anamias, being the east pass of Darius, Armenian Gates of Arrian; the whole corresponding closely with the last mentioned author's description. Where the gulph runs to the west, there are ruins of forts, castles and gateways. From thence proceeding north-west by Kurd Kulac (Wolf's ears) (Jordeguica of D'Anville and Rennell) to Missis (Mesir) at a pass through
low hills of sandstone, are the remain of a road and archway constructed in part of sandstone, but chiefly of polygonal masses of basalt and laval, which no doubt have given rise to its name, Demir Kapou, Iron Gate, and Kara Kapou, Black Gate,—the Armenian Gates of Ptolemy; Amanicae Pylai of Colonel Leake; Upper Armenian Gates, Rennell; Timour Kapou, or the Gate of Tamerlane, (Mecca itinerary by Geographical Society of Paris.) From hence the party visited Ayas (Aga) the mouth of the Ikhoun (Pyramus), where an interesting examination took place of the progress of alluvial deposits. The most westerly point reached was Karadash, the site of Maltus and Megareus. The whole of the party being sick, the pass of Bylan was the only position examined on the return to Antioch.

In the neighbourhood of Amelia Depôt, the points of most interest were the course of the Orontes, examined by Lieutenant Cleaveland, Messrs. Eden, Charlewood, and Fitzjames; and the ruins of Selucia Pieria also made the object of interesting researches. About the same time, various other undertakings were in progress. The gentlemen already named, in conjunction with Messrs. Hector and Bell, were in turns employed on different points, repairing and widening the road from the mouth of the Orontes to Antioch; a work of considerable labour, especially in making the fords over the rivers practicable for wagons. Captain Estcourt and Dr. Staunton had gone on a journey of remonstrance to the Civil Governor of Syria at Damascus,—visiting as they returned Bualliec and the cedars of Lebanon. Lieutenant Lynch was employed in improving the line of route from Antioch by Ejzer haded to Bir; and, lastly, Lieutenant Cockburn was employed (after Captain Estcourt's visit to Reschid Pacha at Diarbek) in throwing up some slight field works, and constructing slips at a spot selected for this purpose, 1/2 miles below Bir on the right bank, and now called Port William.

To avoid the mischievous effects of idleness, as well as to carry the heavy weights to Antioch by water (when denied all other local means by Government), the Tigris was put together on the Orontes during the month of May as a working ship, in which state she was steamimg experimentally, when the Pacha withdrew his outward opposition on the 3d of June. Towards the middle of that month commenced the dispatch of the light stores on camels and mules, and towards its close some trains of wagons* passed through Antioch carrying heavy weights, but this being found a dilatory operation, the water communication was looked to once more, along a new line which promised many advantages. The Orontes, the Lake of Antioch, and the Kara-soo, were, therefore, examined; and upon the reports and maps thus obtained, the Commander ordered a Depôt (the 2d) to be formed at Goozel Burge, "pretty tower," a village on the Orontes 3 miles above Antioch, when the infinite variety of material, including the more ponderous objects, such as boilers, the eight sections (into which the Tigris had been divided,) diving bells, &c. were to be put on rafts, flat boats, and pontoons, in order to be transported by the Orontes into Kara-soo, (black water,) and along this navigable stream into the Lake Omja Dengis (white sea,) keeping along its western side on account of the deeper water, and ultimately ascending the Ultra Kara-soo to a spot called Moorad Pacha, near the Village of Gule Bachee, "head of the waters," a little beyond the junction of the Aswad and Yagra rivers, the whole distance being fourteen hours from Goozel Burge. The abundant spring called Gule Pachee issues out of a pseudo-volcanic mound rising out of the plain. The Bridge of Moorad Pacha is chiefly a causeway resting on the soil, but in parts supported by arches, and crossing that part of the plain of Unuk which is most liable to be inundated, for a distance of about three miles. This plain is inhabited by pastoral and Nomad Turcomans living in tents, who are a quiet people. The ancients appear to have known in this tract the rivers Oinaparas, Arenchus, Labotas, Ufrenus, and the ditch of Meleagrus. The actual fluents of the Lake are the Aswad, or Asoud, the Yagra (uniting to form the Kara-soo) the Aphreem traversing the Currhieesta, the rivulet of Hareem and the Orontes, but the first mentioned have various tributaries to the north, with different appellations. On the road

* Twenty-seven vehicles of different kinds were constructed at Amelia Depôt, and there were thirty-three, including the artillery wagons, from England.
to the valley of the Aphreens are some Thermal springs, El Hamman, "the Baths," issuing at the point of junction of plutonic rocks with tertiary dolomites. The waters of these springs are said to have originated with different earthquakes, and present corresponding differences of temperature.

It is a distance of about 111 miles across the so called "Syrian Desert" from Moorad Pacha to Port William. The first part of it is hilly but not infertile, between El Hamman and Azass, or Arsace Benazis of Ant. Itinerary (MSS. of Colonel Chesney.) The second part from Azass to Port William is for the most part level, at the best undulating, containing the valleys of the Kevick (Chalia) and the Sa'ijour. These plains are very where fertile, for the most part cultivated, and abound in populous villages, consisting of Pella Arabs, Kurds, Turkish tribes, and mixed races, possessing bullocks in great abundance along the whole of the direct line which passed a little way southward of Ainfas, the ancient Antiochia ad Taurum, and now a garrisoned town of large size and some commercial importance.

The general arrangements for the transport were, that Lieutenant Cleaveland and Mr. Charlewood were to carry the boilers, &c. to Gozaz Burga, from whence they were to proceed under Mr. FitzJames to Moorad Pacha by water, to be conveyed from thence to Port William by Captain Estcourt, assisted by Mr. Eden; and as there was a line of water connections the boats with the sea on one side, and to the Euphrates on the other, the three portions of the grand line were simultaneously in operation, and also a fourth, viz. canals and mules, carrying the light stores direct from Amelia Depôt to Port William by the Antioch route through Djezzer-Hadid*. At first every thing went on well, and promised a rapid conclusion. Lieutenant Cleaveland obtained bullocks with a moderate degree of difficulty, and his ingenuity and perseverance did the rest by removing every thing to Gozaz Burga, where they were successively embarked for Moorad Pacha; but here things were immediately at a stand still, and although the strongest orders (in appearance) were constantly issued by Ibrahim Pacha, very few bullocks could be obtained even at the highest prices by Captain Estcourt, whose unwearied efforts could only secure the tantalizing but ingenious result of an abundance of bullocks along the whole line, except the first and last stages; consequently the boilers which had remained for ten or twelve weeks on their carriages, might have continued at Moorad Pacha until now, if we had not exerted ourselves to bring them on, one at a time, with our own horses, instead of bringing on the whole number of heavy weights at the same time with the bullocks; and the result was, that the officers and men had to toil along the great line of route from Moorad Pacha, exposed for months to the great heats of noon, the chills of night, and to the baneful effects of what Humboldt expressively calls an extreme climate, the thermometer being as high as 110° in the shade, (July) and as low as 8° in the winter, during which some of the boilers were flooded, and the diving-bell actually lost in an extensive sheet of water near El Hamman. This had been in all likelihood the original object of the Pacha, and the Euphrates being already complete, bullocks were given to perform the impossible (as was thought), task, of bringing on the Tigris' boilers‡, which were warped out of the lake by manual labor, and ultimately taken to Port William by Lieutenant Cleaveland, Messrs. Eden, Charlewood and Hector, the only officers in the Expedition then effective. Not one individual officer or man employed on this enterprize escaped at least one serious illness, nor is it at all surprising that some fell victims to trials so long continued, and to a climate so often replete with morboid miasma as Moorad Pacha, the worst of the stations; yet the malaria only proved fatal when other causes combined to render it so; nor need the splendid scenery, nor the magnificent

* Eight hundred and forty-one camels and 160 mules were employed in all, and the greater part of these caravans were stopped on the frontier by the Pacha, in order to cause delay by forcing us to bring others from the Sultan's territory.

† In addition to pulleys, &c. the boilers were actually moved up the hills inch by inch with jack screws by Mr. Charlewood and Lieutenant Cleaveland.

‡ Mr. Hector found the diving bell by means of long poles, and then rolled it under water for the most part half a mile to its carriages.

§ Seven men of the Expedition and one workman.
climate of Syria, be approached with fear, for its malaria is not a pestilence, and the circumstances under which the Expedition was placed, toiling on lakes and rivers, dwelling in the marsh, with almost reckless exposure to the sun of the day, followed by the dew of the night, require a separate consideration; and perhaps the surprize will then be, that a greater fatality did not occur amongst a body of men (about 85), in general unseasoned, during the laborious and almost unexampled transport of two large iron vessels, which, thanks to the care of all, have since been set up*, and are now steaming with their boilers, engines, &c. quite as safe and even more perfect in their working details than when sent out of the maker’s hands at Liverpool, notwithstanding a long journey, with all the difficulties which could be thrown in the way by the Local Government underhand.

Previous to taking medical charge at the station at Moorad Pacha, Mr. Ainsworth had made an examination of the less frequented countries immediately south of Antioch. He crossed the mountains at Beit El Moie (the Daphne of Pococke,) and entered forests which covered a great basin of tertiary rocks chiefly cerithia limestone, silicious limestone and lacustrine marls, with gypsum every where broken up and dislocated by serpentines and diallage rocks. It is only in the valley of Antioch, that the Pliocene formations shewed themselves, and enabled Mr. A. to determine the period of the elevation of the plutonic rocks of the silico-magnesian series. From Lattaqia, he followed Maun- drell’s route by the country of the Maronites and Gebel Kraad, the northern prolongation of the Ansarian mountains, and by the valley of Beirut, rich in scammmony (convolventus scammonia) to that of the Oronites, which he joined at Djezzer Shogher, the Larissa of Gosselin, and Selencus Beius of D’Anville. A Roman road led to Koalat el Medyk, where are ruins of a highly ornamental character. Part of the town is enclosed in an ancient castle situate on a hill; the other ruins lie in a plain part of a strong wall, and an archway still exist, and also the remains of a temple. In the adjoining lake are the celebrated black fish, the sources of a distant commerce, which were recognized to be the Macropleronotus magur of naturalists. From Medyk he visited the little centre of primitive Christianity in the mountains of Reiha and Edlip, abounding in monuments of a then new hierarchy, returning subsequently by the borders of the great plain to Antioch.

At this period, August 1835, Lieutenant Murphy commenced the grand line of levels which was to be carried from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates, with reference to canals, and many other objects of deep interest connected with science and calculated to encourage this extensive work.

Many obstacles occurred at first; prolonged malaria had unfitted all for exposure to the sun. Lieutenant Cockburn and Mr. Thomson after a short exertion were both laid up. Lieutenant Murphy was also seriously ill. Ultimately after another beginning, the last mentioned industrious officer left for Port William, where he was required in the observatory, and levelling was continued by Mr. Thomson, who has just completed this important part of the original plan.

Nearly at the same time a party composed of Lieutenant Lynch, his brother, Mr. Staunton, and Mr. Elliot, set out on a mission of a friendly and conciliatory nature to the Arabs. They visited the tribes of Welda, Aniza, Geeza, the Bore-sipahi and some of the Tarcomans, from all of whom they met a favorable reception. The Aniza alone shewed a doubtful disposition, and the Bore-sipahi, one of their tributaries, wounded one of the servants severely. This hostility did not, however, appear to be directed against the Expedition so much as with the view of plundering those gentlemen who had ventured amongst them, and the Sheikh immediately offered to compromise the matter by presents, which were declined as a matter of policy, in the hope that an unsettled affair of blood may tend to keep the Aniza in better order as regards their future intercourse with the Expedition.

In the early part of January last, Colonel Chesney left his bed, and was actually put on his horse to prosecute a scientific journey to the Taurus, and part of

* The labor fell chiefly upon Captain Estcourt of the 43d Light Infantry, Lieut. Cleaveland, Messrs. Eden, Charlewood and FitzJames, R. N.
Asia Minor. He was accompanied by Lieutenant Murphy and Mr. Ainsworth, both invalids; also Mr. Staunton. The party proceeded by Antab to Killis; and thence to the Eastern acclivities of the Amanus, in the parallel of the Issus, but no passage could be effected at that season of the year. Repelled to the south, the mountains were passed by Payrane, through the Bsilan pass, to Sanderoon, from whence the party proceeded by the Cilician Gates and Bylos to the plain of the Issus. Sufficient time having been devoted to the examination of the various questions of historical geography, connected with this most interesting district, the great road towards Constantinople was followed by Demer Kapon to Kurd Kulac; "the Wolf's ear," (Jardiquia) and by the plain of Tachokoune Oea, "the valley of the ditch." Crossing the Gebel Elnour, the mountain of the light, bearing on its rocky summit to the north, Shah Merar, "the Castle of the Serpent," and along the left bank of the Jihoun, Djezou so, "the river of the world," to Missis, the ancient Mopsuestia, now almost in ruins, but once (like Tarsus) one of the chief cities of Cilicia. From Missis the party continued, cross the plain by Adana (head-quarters of the Pachalic) to the last mentioned town, where they found the French Consul, Mons. Gillet, engaged in excavating a monument close to the place, of great solidity, and apparently very remote antiquity. It consists of an enclosure in the form of a parallelogram, with two transverse masses of similar form at one extremity; the walls and masses were of the most solid construction, without the least appearance of any thing like a sepulchral chamber in any part of this extensive mass,—at least as low down as the level of the ground around it.

The road followed on leaving Tarsus led over the sub-alpine country at the foot of the Taurus, consisting of tertiary rocks in great variety. Near the centre of the Tauric chain the head mines of Kulet Boyhaaz were visited: they occur in limestone belonging to the cretaceous series, and are in the valley south of the grand pass of the same name, but worked most injudiciously. The pass itself was then examined almost to the summit level, and the party regained the more level country on the south side of the great mountains, in order to visit the town of Sis, and the border territories of the Sultan and Pacha. Here the inhabitants had so bad a name, that no muleteer or guide could be induced to proceed along the mountains in that direction, and whilst overcoming the difficulties made by the alarms of the people, Colonel Chesney and Mr. Ainsworth were separated from the rest of the party, and made their way to Sis on foot by one line, whilst Lieutenant Murphy and Mr. Staunton reached it by another; each traversing a romantic and beautiful country formed by the wooded abutments of the Taurus, and well peopled by the best disposed peasants imaginable, instead of being all robbers, as they were represented. During about 125 miles of country, composed almost entirely of tertiary sandstone, (ostracite sandstone of Kupfer,) they crossed the Seikoun, the Jethoun, the Corrykoun, and several smaller, yet good sized rivers watering this interesting country, which terminate at Sis, the residence of an Armenian Patriarch, the third in importance at the present day, with a respectable palace, and a large convent in his charge; whilst at Sis an incursion was made into the Taurus and the mountain of Kara Sis, Black Sis ascended, after crossing a part of the crystalline plutonic formations. The researches were then directed towards Anasaiba on the plain. The ruins of the city are still extant, backed by an insulated mountain, bearing a castle of various architecture. Such solitary hills rising out of the plains are not unfrequent here, and they mostly bear castellated buildings on their summits, as Sis Shah Meran, Toome, Anasaiba, and others. From Anasaiba the party crossed the plain of the village and district of Kars, and there entered the mountainous country which led by Analat to Marash. The chain was not crossed without much difficulty; the narrow pathway was carried alongside, and down precipices that were very steep; so much so, that it became necessary at times to unload the horses, and carry the baggage over the most dangerous places. The culminating point of this part of the Taurus is called Durdooon Daght. The chain is composed of mica slates, clay slates, with grafhite or plumago, quartz, schists, quartzites, and diorites, with uplifted limestones belonging to the supra-cretaceous series. The great and massive mountain which rises above Marash, and is there known by the name of
Arga Dagh consists of tertiary sandstone and limestone tilled up by and reposing on serpentinite and diagleone rocks, which would indicate different geographical connections. The direction of the Arga Dagh is nearly from SW. to NE.; that of the shistose chain of Durdom Dagh, a little south of east; that of the Giaur Dagh (Amanus) is the same as Arga Dagh. Colonel Cheshney returned to Port William from Marash, leaving directions for the remainder of the party to proceed in the direction of Samasat, Orfa, &c.; but being thrown back on Romkala by the swollen rivers, they returned to Port William, surveying the river between those places. During the whole period of their progress the positions of the principal places, ancient and modern, were determined astronomically by Lieutenant Murphy, and careful itineraries kept, in addition to bearings taken, when practicable, with the theodolite or Kater's compass, according to circumstances. The results of these labours has been, in the first place, to connect the survey of the coast of Lattaquia and that of the Issus with that of Captain Beaufort; and, in the second, to join those surveys to the Euphrates. There are ample materials for laying down a map with such a degree of accuracy as will, it is hoped, enable the learned to determine many points of ancient history and geography, especially those depending upon the length of the stadium, the parasang, and other scales of measurement used by Strabo, Pliny, and Herodotus.

On the day following the return of the first party, another was sent out by the commanding officer to finish that part of the plan which had been interrupted. This one consisted of Lieutenant Lynch, Mr. Eden, R. N. and Mr. Ainsworth. Agreeably to the instructions received, the party took up the former work at Romkala, proceeding from thence along the left bank, carefully surveying the river as far as Sawsat, the birth-place of Lucian. The ruins of this celebrated place are just recognizable. The modern town is small and poor, but the valley itself fertile, as it is described to have been in former times; and ferry-boats are still kept up to pass the river to and from Orfa. The course of the Euphrates from this ancient Zengma, to that above Bir, differs from what has been represented on most maps; it flows, in fact, in the general direction of south-west, and is not turned, as an incorrect reading of Strabo would infer, (Rennell and D'Anville) to the south-east.

Samasat having been fixed, it was then connected astronomically as well as by an itinerary, with Orfa, (Calli-rhoe, Roha Orfa, in its progress of corruption, Edessa, and Antiochea under successive masters.) To the north of the city are evidences in conic lines, and circles of elevations of pseudo volcanic action. The fish venerated so much in ancient times, are still preserved in the marble basins of the mosque of Abramia, and were recognized to be a kind of Barbel. From Orfa, the great Mesopotamian plain was crossed in the direction of Har-ran, " Carrhas clade crassi nobiles," and still more interesting as the residence of Abraham. Haran was also connected with its rival in antiquity, Seryug, of which scarcely a vestige remains. In the plain around the ruined site of the latter place, the party met two colossal lions, sculptured in basalt with refined taste (Basanite basalt, with disseminated augite); these may possibly be the remains of that vanity which prompted Antonius Caracalla to assert that a lion had fought by his side in his Parthian wars.

Doctor Helper having been separated from the rest of the party when proceeding towards the Taurus, a journey made by him to the Salt Lake south-east of Aleqyo, led to the discovery of an ancient city near a basaltic range, four hours S. E. of the Lake. There are some remains of a temple and several Greek inscriptions which have been furnished, with a detailed description of this hitherto unknown place, by Mr. Helper.

Early in February an opportune reinforcement arrived, consisting of four sappers from England, and six seamen from the Columbine, which restored the Expedition to its original strength; and the pendulum, dipping needle, and other experiments being completed, the Expedition was put in motion on the 16th March. The Euphrates taking the lead to survey, and give the benefit of the rough charts, and a pilot to the Tigris, in order that she might follow at one or at most two moves, and thus spare fuel as much as possible.
Previous to the actual descent, the *Euphrates* passed up rather a bad rapid, and stemmed the strong current as far as the town of *Bir* in the most satisfactory manner, displaying the Sultan's standard, and saluting him with 21 guns, which were returned from the castle and by the acclamations of the astonished Moslems, who crowded both banks to be really certain that iron could be made to float, and to surmount the force of a current, now overcome for the first time, and God was blessed for such a creation, and sending men amongst them, ten of whom could take their town, was added.

Since the departure, 101 miles of the river have been carefully surveyed in the following manner. A boat was dispatched ahead usually for a distance of twenty or twenty-five miles, sounding, and taking bearings, which being placed on paper when the officer returned, he became pilot to the vessel for the distance examined; and a second set of bearings, with a double set of soundings, were taken from the vessel's deck. Simultaneously with the water operations thus carried on by Lieutenant CLEAVELAND, Messrs. EDEN, CHARLEWOOD, FITZJAMES, and HECTOR, there were two other sets on land; viz. a chain of grand trigonometrical angles along the principal heights, based on astronomical points, by Lieutenant MURPHY, R. E.; and a smaller one, with a succession of short base lines from bend to bend, by Captain ESTCOURT, who is now laying down a map with his details of the ground, &c., and also embracing the labors of all his coadjutors: so that it is hoped, that the map of the important part of this great river will be sent home almost immediately*. A similar method of surveying is to be organized immediately on board the *Tigris*, so as to carry the work on to *Bussora* in the same manner, each vessel taking a separate section of the labor.

Our land parties, as well as the water, naturally involved much intercourse with Arabs, who have shewn themselves well disposed, except in one instance, when it became necessary to fire a 9-pounder blank to save a Sheik, their enemy, who was attacked whilst in our boat.

The state of the river is very favorable, although we run aground, owing to the deception caused for the moment by a bright meridian sun: but the deep part of the river was 420 yards wide at the spot in question, where we remained some days digging the vessel out, nor did she suffer in the slightest degree†.

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**XI. — The Governor General’s Conversazione.**

On Tuesday, the 9th of November, was held the first of a series of entertainments, which we hail as the harbingers of a new era for Science and Research in India. Acting on the example of the Duke of Sussex, President of the Royal Society, Lord AUCKLAND, as Patron of the Asiatic Society, has expressed a desire to assemble around him at these periodical parties, in a social way, not only the members of the Society, but all residents and visitors at the metropolis, who are known to cultivate the fine arts, the sciences, or literature, and to collect on his tables for their inspection and amusement, in the language of our motto, ‘whatever is performed by man or produced by nature.’ Thus without interfering with the formal proceedings and records of the several scientific bodies, those who contribute thereto will have the satisfaction of knowing that their donations or their inventions will be likewise viewed by the head of the Government, and by a much more numerous assemblage than could ever be enticed to an ordinary meeting. Distant merit will feel that it is sure of appreciation, and ambition secure of notoriety. Schemes for scientific exploration—plans of national improvement—useful mechanical invention—promising talent in the fine arts,—will be brought forward, canvassed and encouraged, where encouragement is due, etc.

* Also the specimens already collected in the different scientific departments of geology, natural history, &c.
† The above report was addressed to the Bombay Government, previous, of course, to the disastrous hurricane which wrecked the *Tigris*, and destroyed so many lives.—Ed.
and the stimulus which has been wanting since the days of Minto and Moira, will again be restored.

We have hardly room to describe the conduct of the first meeting, nor do we think any formal report of a soiree, intended to be private, and sans formalite, would be becoming. It is more to satisfy our distant readers as to the nature of the parties, which they can so materially benefit, to speak paradoxically, by their absence, that we venture to insert the brief notice, which appeared in the daily papers.

"The south-west or drawing-room wing of the Government House was tastefully laid out with all the novelties in the arts, in antiquities and in natural history, that could readily be brought together. On the pier tables of the corridor leading to the rooms, were disposed very numerous specimens of the plants now in flower at the Botanical Garden, each ticketed with its classical name.

"On entering the ante-room, a very splendid collection of insects was seen displayed on the tables and against the walls, in convenient cabinets; the newest addition to these, (which comprised a portion of Dr. Pearson's and of the Asiatic Society's cabinets) was the donation of Mr. George Loch of the Civil Service, to the Asiatic Society, at a recent meeting. A fine collection of shells just received from His Excellency the Governor of Ceylon, was distributed on the side tables of the principal saloon. In an adjoining apartment were selected fragments of the rich and highly curious Buddhist sculpture, discovered by Captain Cunningham, in the neighbourhood of the Sa'rna'th tumulus near Benares, and presented by him to the Asiatic Society. On another table the last fossil discovery by Dr. Spilsbury, the socket of the thigh-bone of an elephant from the rock at Segowal, whence Capt. Sleeman first brought to light the fossils of the Nerbudda valley. By its side were placed the femur of a modern and of a fossil elephant (the latter of an animal 15 feet in height) to shew that the present socket must, from its curvature, have belonged to a still more monstrous animal!

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"On the round tables of the drawing room were spread out numerous beautiful drawings—of Mr. Hodgson's Nipal Zoology; of Dr. Cantor's collection of Indian Snakes; of Dr. McClelland's Assamese Zoology; and all the designs sent in to the Committee of the Metcalfe Library. In other convenient spots were displayed a wax magnified model of the human ear: stuffed objects of natural history, and models of Malay praws, presented by Capt. Chads, &c.

"After the company had severally made the round of these objects, their attention was drawn to the table which Professor O'Shaughnessy had prepared for the exhibition of his very ingenious model of the application of the late galvano-magnetic discoveries to the practical attainment of a working power.

"It would be impossible here to describe fully the construction of this curious wheel:—a number of horse-shoe magnets of soft iron, with wire coiled round them, were arranged on its spokes, so as to present their poles successively in rotation before the opposite poles of a more powerful magnet (also artificial) fixed on a stand at the side; the wires of the several wheel magnets were conducted in a manner not readily seen, so as to terminate in mercurial cups, into which were dipped the two wires of a small galvanic battery; on charging the latter, rotation ensued, and by a contrivance, as each revolving magnet arrived by the force of attraction, at the fixed magnet, its poles were instantaneously reversed so as to cause repulsion, while the next magnet above was attracted. We hope to see a full account of the Professor's successful adaptation when his apparatus is matured. The model worked steadily with 10 oz. power.

"The converse of the problem, or the development of a galvanic force from the ordinary magnet, was then exhibited on an adjoining table by a beautiful apparatus belonging to Mr. James Prinsep. Water was decomposed by the magnet; a candle was lighted by it; and an electric shock was administered to many of the spectators, among whom the native gentlemen in particular betrayed considerable astonishment at its effects.

"At the close of the evening refreshments were partaken of in the marble hall, and the guests retired at half-past eleven, apparently much pleased with the novel entertainment prepared for them by their illustrious host."
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Day of the Month</th>
<th>Observations at 10 A. M.</th>
<th>Calculated Humidity</th>
<th>Observations at 4 P. M.</th>
<th>Calculated Humidity</th>
<th>Register Thermometer Extremes</th>
<th>Wind</th>
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I.—Notice of the Vallabhi' dynasty of Saurashtra; extracted from the Buddhist records of the Chinese. By M. Eugene Jacquet, Member of the As. Soc. of Paris.

A new source of information on the darkest period of Indian history cannot but be most acceptable to all who have perplexed themselves in attempting to reconcile and connect the scattered and contradictory traditions of the Rajput bards with the inscriptions found in various parts of western India; and to assign specific dates even to sovereigns whose names are most familiar and notorious. While Mr. Turnour is throwing light upon the earlier periods of Buddhist rule, from the authentic chronicles preserved among the Ceylonese priesthood, it has been reserved for a distinguished orientalist at Paris to render us an equally eminent service from an opposite and more remote quarter of the globe! M. Klaproth's tables of Buddhist chronology, translated from the Chinese and Japanese authorities, had proved the intimate connection that existed between India, Tibet, and China for the first eight centuries of our era, and had encouraged the hope of gleaning a few cursory notices of the state of the Buddhist portion of the continent of India from the annals of some of their common patriarchs, whose head-quarters were variously located in Magadha, Capila-vastu, Cabul, and Ferghana, during that long period. More than this is, however, likely to be realized:—the narrations of Chinese pilgrims and travellers have been happily preserved, and, more happily still, have found their way to Paris, where alone, perhaps, exists the concurrence of talent and research capable of turning these valuable records to their best purpose. The specimen we have now the satisfaction of introducing to our readers has been elicited,
the author writes us, by a perusal of Mr. WATHEN's translation of the Gujerât inscriptions in our last volume,—a translation which M. JACQUET does not hesitate to pronounce "ce que l'on a encore publié de mieux en ce genre dans l'Inde à l'exception peut-être de quelques monuments traduits par votre admirable COLEBROOKE."

We cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of adding his further testimony to the great utility of this important document. "J'ai été d'autant plus satisfait de voir ce Shâsana si heureusement interprété, que je possède, dans le petit nombre des copies d'inscriptions rassemblées par Tod, un Shâsana non daté, écrit dans le même caractère; et que j'avais déchiffré de manière à obtenir un alphabet absolument conforme à celui de Mr. WATHEN. C'est encore cet alphabet qui m'a donné le moyen de déchiffrer les legenides des anciennes medailles indiennes, et de reconnaître le nom alteré de Chandragupta dans l'inscription de Bhilsa, publiée dans votre journal d'apres le facsimile de Mr. HODGSON."—In fact, M. JACQUET at Paris has been pursuing step by step the path we have been following in India; and while this fortunate key has opened to him an insight into the Bhilsa inscription, the self-same has led Capt. CUNNINGHAM to discover the titles Mahârâja adhi râja, &c. in the inscription from the Khandgiri rock, published in STIRLING's account of Cuttack. The copies are both too imperfect to hope for further success until the originals can be re-examined, and this has been undertaken by two friends upon whose zeal we may entirely confide,—Mr. L. WILKINSON of Bhopal, and Lieut. KITTOE, whose regiment has just marched to Cuttack.

But to return. In addition to inscriptions and coins, we may now look to the geographers and historians of China, for an insight into the middle ages of Indian history; and the latter have this great advantage over the former,—that they have scrupulously preserved dates in their records, and that they, as M. JACQUET justly says, "font le journal de l'Asie depuis le second siecle avant notre ère." In his very interesting article inserted in the Journal Asiatique on the recent Bactrian and Indo-Scythic discoveries, we are promised further and more copious extracts from the Chinese relatively to Cabul and the adjacent countries.—"Les témoignages des auteurs orientaux, et en particulier des historiens chinois, sur les monnaies des différents peuples qui ont successivement occupé les contrées de l'Asie centrale; les témoignages des mêmes auteurs, sur les langues et les écritures de ces peuples;"—these are included among the objects embraced by the learned author in his intended publication, 'Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum,' the appearance of which, our readers will regret to hear, is unavoidably delayed beyond the period at first indicated. It
is only to be hoped that the health of the single individual upon whom this mighty labor has devolved by the lamented death of M. Klapproth, will not succumb under so vast and important an undertaking.

We trust no apology is necessary for insertion of M. Jacquet's note in its original language.

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"Je trouve les renseignements suivants sur la contrée de Vallabhi et sur l'origine des rois de cette contrée dans la relation d'un religieux Bouddhiste chinois qui visita la Transoxiane, la Bactriane et l'Inde dans les années 632 et suivantes de notre ère.

"La contrée de Fa la pi, aussi nommée contrée septentrionale de Lolo, a plus de six mille li de tour. La ville capitale de la contrée a plus de trente li d'enceinte. Les productions du sol, les conditions de la température, les mœurs, et le naturel des habitants sont les mêmes que dans la contrée de Ma la pho. Le nombre des habitants est considérable; les familles sont opulentes; on y compte en effet plus de cent maisons qui ont cent laksha de fortune; d'immenses trezors viennent des pays les plus lointains s'accumuler dans ce royaume. On y trouve plus de cent kialan (monastères bouddhiques; les religieux y sont au nombre de plus de six mille; ils étudient pour la plupart la section des écritures nommée la parfaite mesure qui appartiennent au petit yāna. Il y a quelques centaines de temples consacrés aux dévas; les heritiques y sont en grand nombre. Bouddha, du temps qu'il était dans le monde des hommes, a plusieurs fois visité cette contrée; aussi le roi Wou-yeon a-t-il élevé des sthoupa auprès de tous les arbres sous lesquels Bouddha s'était reposé, pour les faire reconnaître. La dynastie actuelle est de la race des cha ti li; l'ancien roi était neveu de Che lo 'o ti to, roi de la contrée de Ma la pho; celui qui gouverne présentement est gendre de Che lo 'otio roi de la contrée de Kie no kieou tche; il se nomme Thou lou pho po tche..."

"Le religieux Chinois ajoute qui c' était un prince très généreux, très sage &c. car il avait une grande veneration pour les trois joyaux (Bouddha, la loi, et l'assemblée.)

"Fa la pi transcrit Vallabhi; et Lolo लो लाता Lāta ou Lāra, la Larique des anciens; Malapho est pour Mālava, et Cha ta li pour Khatriya; Chelo ô ti to est la forme Chinoise de Shilāditya; Kie no kieou-tche celle de Kanyakoubdja ou Kanoudj; et Thou lou pho potcha représente régulièrement Dhrouvabhatta. Quant au roi Wou yeon, c'est à dire sans chagrin, c'est Ashōka deguisé sous une traduction Chinoise.

"Je dois d'abord observer que nous avons ici un roi de Mālava et un roi de Kanyakoubdja tous deux nommés Shilāditya; (et ils paraiss-
sent distincts des rois de Vallabhi qui ont porté ce nom) qui ne sont pas cités dans les tables genealogiques des rois de l'Inde recueillies jusqu'à ce jour. La relation ne fournit aucun renseignement sur Shiladitya roi de Kanoudj; mais on lit dans un autre endroit que Shi-
laditya roi de Mûlava regnait soixante ans avant l'arrivée de notre religieux dans l'Inde. Dhrouvaséna est certainement le même nom que Dhrouvaséna; bhàtta, et sêna etant des titres de Kchatriya, de même valeur et presque synonymes, qui s'emploient indifféremment l'un pour l'autre, sans que l'identité du nom propre auquel ils s'ajou-
tent en puise être compromise. La liste genealogique des rois de Vallabhi, extraite par M. Wathen des inscriptions qu'il a si heureuse-
ment interpretées, nous fait connaitre deux Dhrouvaséna, dont l'un est le quatrieme et l'autre le onzieme prince de la dynastie des Bhâtárka. Il n'est pas probable que le Dhrouvabhàtta de la relation Chinoise soit Dhrouvaséna I: l'inscription que nous connaissons eût sans doute fait mention de l'honneur qu'avait eu ce prince d'être allié à la famille royale de Kanoudj; un etat qui n'avait été élevé au rang de royaume que sons le frère et le predecesseur de ce prince, n'eût pu d'ailleurs être parvenue si rapidement à la haute prosperité et à l'etat de puissance ou le trouva le voyageur Chinois. Ce qu'il rapporte de Dhrouvabhàtta s'applique donc à Dhrouvaséna II, et l'un des points chronologiques les plus importants de l'histoire de l'Inde occidentale peut être déterminé avec assez de précision par cette identification de deux noms dont un est daté. L'inscription publiée par Mr. Wathen, et redigée par l'ordre du septième prince de la dynastie, peut donc être approximativement rapportée à l'année 550 de notre ère; cette date s'acorde mieux avec les données paléographiques que celle de 328, deduite très ingenieusement d'ailleurs par l'auteur, des traditions singulièrement suspectes des Djaina.

II.—An account of some of the Petty States lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces; drawn up from the Journals and Reports of D. Richardson, Esq., Surgeon to the Commissioner of the Tenasserim Provinces. By E. A. Blundell, Esq., Commissioner.

[Continued from page 625.]

DR. RICHARDSON’S SECOND VISIT, 1834.

The object of the second visit was to ascertain the truth of the ru-
mours that had reached Maulamyne, of some dissatisfaction existing among the Shan traders on account of the bad market they had ex-
perienced latterly for their cattle, compared with former years, and to
obviate any bad feeling that might have arisen in consequence. None had visited Maulamyne that season, and it was said they declined bringing their cattle down any more. It was important that measures should be adopted to ensure the continuance of our supplies from that country, and Dr. R. was directed to extend his visit on this occasion to Zimmay.

He started on the 6th March, 1834, and travelling nearly the same route as that by which he had returned from his first visit, he reached Labong on the 1st April, having, when near that place, encountered the same petty delays as before, on the ground of preparing for his reception, and ascertaining from the astrologers a lucky day for his arrival.

"On the 1st of April started in the morning for Labong; and though the Thogyee of Passomy was with me at starting, neither he nor any of the neighbouring head-men accompanied me. One man ran before to shew me the road. Reached Labong about noon, and on arriving at the temporary houses or tays, for which I had waited three days, found only three small ones for the people, which might have been put up in three hours. No house for myself, and no one there to receive me. This was all so unlike my reception on my last visit, that I sent the interpreter to Chow-Houa to say, if they did not wish to see me, I was ready to return. He assumed auger and surprise that I had arrived without his being made aware of it; said he had ordered the head people of the villages to accompany me, and when half way to run out and let him know, when he would be at the tays in time to receive me. The same reason was given for not building me a house, as on my last visit; viz. that as I had a tent, they did not think I would occupy it; but he immediately called the people who had put up the sheds, and gave them orders to set about a house, which they commenced at once.

"The Chow-Houa sent some officers to wait on me, with a request to know when I wished to see Chow-Tche-Weet. I expressed a wish to see him to-morrow, as the approach of the rains would necessarily make my stay shorter than I wished. I hear loud complaints on all sides of the rascality of the Bengal people who have come up lately from Maulamyne to purchase cattle, and the people who last visited Maulamyne are very inveterate against the contractor (Shok Abdulla) for supplying cattle to the troops, and declare their determination never to return so long as he continues to be the "Gomanie,"—as the first bullocks were taken by the Commissariat on the Company's account; and he being now the only purchaser, they believe him to be the Company, (Gomanie).

"On the morning of the 5th, the officers of the court, and some people with silver calats (salvers) for the presents and Mr. Blundell's letter, came to conduct me to the Tso-Boas. They preceded me, followed by the people who accompanied me, about 40 in number, dressed in their gayest putsos, thirteen of them each carrying a musket. On arrival at my former place of audience, I found no sheds erected, and that I was to be received in the house (query, palace?) of the chief. I dismounted at the gate Chow Rajaboot; the Keint onc
An account of some of the Petty States

**Tso-boa** and others came out half way to meet me, (the whole distance about sixty paces,) and preceded by the letter, (the presents having stopped at the gate,) they led me to a seat on the chief's right. I bowed before taking my seat, and wearing my boots was never objected to. He was seated on a gilded pedestal (*yozaboilen*99) about two and a half or three feet high, and before him the chiefs of his principality on carpets spread on the mats with large triangular pillows to lean against, ornamented with gold embroidery. As soon as we were seated, the presents were brought in and placed before him. He put the usual questions respecting the King of England, the Governor General, &c. &c., the length of my journey, and the difficulties of the road; made some excuse for not meeting me on the road; mentioned the death of his son and nephew with much feeling; and expressed good-will and friendship towards us. Indeed, nothing could be more friendly or fatherly than my reception altogether, and certainly with every appearance of sincerity. It was evident at a glance his illness was no formal excuse for not seeing me; he was much emaciated, and evidently very weak. I was seated nearly opposite to the door of the private apartment, which was crowded with women and children, who sent me out a present of fruit. There was no dancing as on my former visit, but a male and two female singers seated immediately within the door of the private apartment, sung a sort of metrical history of the exploits of the Tso-boa and his six brothers, in which the successful insurrection of Kawela, the eldest brother, against the Burmese sixty years ago, and the carrying off the people from *Kewl-them*98, *Keintoung*97, and *Mein-Noaung*98, by the present chief, held the most conspicuous place; and though many of the unfortunate sufferers were present, any consideration for their feelings seemed never to enter the old man's mind: yet the expression of his countenance and manners altogether is benevolent; which character he bears among the people. The voices of the performers, both in sweetness and compass were, beyond comparison, superior to any thing I have heard out of Europe. After sitting about three-quarters of an hour, he retired on plea of weakness; his feet were swelled, and he tottered a good deal before reaching the door of the inner apartment. After spending some time in conversation with the chiefs I took my leave, intimating my intention of calling in the morning on Chow-Houa, by whom all business is now transacted.

The chief's house is situated near the middle of the town in a large stockade inclosure, and surrounded by a garden. The wooden hall in which I was received is about sixty feet long by thirty wide, and ornamented with three small China chandeliers, some paltry Chinese and India looking-glasses and China lanterns, some of glass and some of paper; a picture of the great pagoda of Rangoon; one of a Chinese joss, and a portrait much resembling one of our Royal Family. The most valuable ornaments were the muskets I took up in my last visit, which, with some Chinese-looking scimitars and swords with long silver handles, completed the decorations. The white umbrella was not unfurled; the floor in front of the *yozaboilen* or throne was covered by the carpets and triangular pillows of the chiefs, who assume a much more manly position than in the presence of some of the lowest chiefs of Bankok; though I am told that next to the Raja of Ligore, this is the highest Chief in the kingdom. On the 6th, according to my notice of yesterday, called on Chow-Houa, and had a long conversation on the duties being taken off their elephant-hunters in our pro-
vinces. He readily agreed to the free sale of buffaloes, paying an export duty of half a tical of coarse silver, and reducing that on bullocks to the old rate of one quarter. I brought to his notice the complaints of the Bengalee cattle-dealers, of the refusal of the court-officers to interfere in their complaints against each other, and called his attention to the 10th paragraph of Colonel Burney's treaty of Bangkok in 1826 on the subject. He complained of the total want of principle in these people, with one or two exceptions, (which all I have heard from themselves tends to confirm;) said he was glad the subject had been mentioned; as, though they had copies of the treaty, they were afraid to punish our people, and had, besides, another difficulty to contend with, in the offenders escaping from one territory to another; and that though they had the power, there was an indelicacy felt in apprehending them in the Zimmay district. They had now my opinion that they should act according to the treaty, and would do so in future, and hoped there would be no further cause of complaint. He said he had no objections to the Zimmay officers following offenders into this district, and that they would do the same from this; but begged me to impress the necessity of it on the Zimmay chief on my visit there, to prevent misunderstanding between relations; as Chow-tche-Weet is now a very old man. I found by this, that the visit I had intimated I intended to make to Zimmay was taken as a settled matter, though they had strenuously opposed it on my asking to do so in my last visit.

"On the 10th I received an invitation, or rather a request, from Chow-tche-Weet to attend his son's funeral. He begged I would come early, and see the whole ceremony. I accordingly went at 11 o'clock, and remained till 2. On my arrival, a Pounghiee was seated in the centre of the shed reciting, in a monotonous sort of chant, a blessing on all present. He ceased soon after my arrival, and a daughter of Chow Raja Woong of Lagon, a very pretty girl of 18 or 20 years of age, played for some time on the ke wine, (brazen circle,) an instrument composed of small graduated gongs hung horizontally in a circle, in the centre of which the musician sits and beats with small sticks. She played evidently as a proficient. This was followed by a boxing-match, in which the boys, when once come to blows, hammered away at each other's faces much like two little English fellows of the same age. There was a good deal of shuffling before the first blow was struck. They were followed by two men who flourished their arms about within a few inches of each other's faces under a most overpowering sun, for half an hour, without, however, hurting each other much, though they were exceeding serious and intent. Chow Raja Boot then, dressed in a white robe, ascended a small platform about seven feet from the ground, and showered, or rather pelted, a largess amongst the people. On the platform was an artificial bamboo-tree, with perhaps two hundred limes, in each of which was a small Siamese coin of two or three annas hanging from the branches, which he pulled off, and with them pelted the people below;—though there was, of course, great struggling for the limes, there was little noise, and not the least quarrelling. Chow-Hova's wife then begged I would allow the Burmese to exhibit their dance, and as there were two proficient dancers of the party and one or two musicians anxious to acquire merit by assisting in the amusement, she was gratified; after which they commenced to drag out the car with coffin. It was burned with rockets in the same manner as a Pounghiee,
outside the town, about 4 o'clock; most of the wives of the headmen were present, and the whole of the ceremonies were gone through without quarrel and in great good humour. The deceased was the same whose house was burnt during my last visit here, and who sent out to beg me to look through a small sextant I had been seen using, and tell him who had stolen a ring he lost on the occasion. I left the shed when the coffin was moved, and prepared to start for Zimmay in the morning, congratulating myself in getting off a day sooner than I had anticipated; but about 9 o'clock, Benya Tche came out to say Chow-tche-Weet begged me to remain one day, as he was anxious to see me to-morrow before starting for Zimmay. After many complaints of loss of time and fear of the rains, I was obliged to consent to remain; and on the morning of the 11th, an officer came out to the encampment to say Chow-tche-Weet wished to see me. I promised to wait on him immediately after breakfast. On arriving at the house found a large assembly, and the only communication the old man had to make, was a request to remain till after the new year*, a further loss of three days. I at first refused, but on his urging his request, and reflecting that nothing would be done at either place during the festival, I agreed to remain on condition I was not detained here on my return. The Tsoboa made some demur, as in duty bound, as a good Buddhist, about the sale of the cattle; he was, however, easily satisfied by transferring the sin to the sellers and Chow-Houa, who sanctioned it. He was as kind as usual, always addressing me as his "luck Chow Engrit," literally, "son chief English." He talked of a reference to Bangkok, which I said was unnecessary after the treaty of 1826, and he was again satisfied. He is quite in his dotage, and repeated the same things over and over: the people from their respect for him shew him, however, much consideration. He asked if there was any difference in the value of his presents and those to the Zimmay chief, and seemed pleased when told that his were the most valuable.

"After breakfast, on the 13th, two officers, dressed in white robes used in religious ceremonies, came out to my tent by the Chow's orders, to conduct me where the ceremony on his grandson entering the priesthood was to be performed. I found a large assembly of people in an old zayat near the pagoda. The Chow was seated on a mat near the centre of the place,—the other chiefs near him, his wives behind him—all dressed in white. I found a carpet and pillow for me close to Chow Raja Boot. A Pounghee was seated in the middle expounding the law, and Chow-tche-Weet had told him to continue till my arrival, as he wished me to see the whole ceremony. As I was told I would be expected to contribute, I sent the interpreter to the Chow with 10 rupees; and he soon afterwards went out to the open space before the zayat to inaugurate the boy (about 7 years of age) in his holy office. The ceremony is the same as in Burmah and other Buddhist countries, shaving the head, bathing, investing with the yellow garment. Whilst he was gone, his son told me a Rahan was also to be raised to the office of high priest, (See-dan); that the Chow before investing him with his office asks him if he will obey his lawful orders; which being answered in the affirmative, he makes over to him all

* I afterwards learnt that the reason of his requesting me to stop was a fear lest I should be insulted, or the people get into any quarrel with the Zimmay people, during the holidays at this joyous season.
authority over all ranks of the priesthood. The high-priest then asks the Tso-boa if he will listen to his intercession in favor of criminals condemned to death when it shall appear to him that the punishment is too severe for the offence; to which he assents. On the return of the Tso-boa to the zayat he called my interpreter and told him in a whisper the money I had given was too little for distribution, and desired him to ask me for 13 rupees more; which I immediately sent. In the meantime, an old priest invoked a blessing on all present by name, amongst which I discovered my own; and the Sea-dan who has been raised by the votes of the priests for his strict observance of the precepts of Budh, promulgated rules and ordinances for their guidance much stricter than those which have been known here for some years, where the discipline has been exceeding lax. Sent the interpreter to inquire how the Chow-Houa, who had been ill, was, and to request Benya Patoon to call on me. The former no better; the latter promised to call in the morning. Benya Patoon called on me this morning; he is about 50 years of age, and an exceedingly intelligent person. His father came originally from Pegu to Zimmay with about 3000 other Taliens on the destruction of that city by Alomptra, A. D. 1757.

A short time after their arrival here, an army of Burmans encamped to the northward with the intention of attacking Zimmay. The Taliens were promised this,—if they beat off the enemies, they should henceforth live free of taxes. They attacked them, and were successful, and for a time were well treated; but in three or four years, when gratitude began to cool, they were taxed without mercy; and on any expression of discontent, numbers were executed under pretence of secret conspiracy. The Taliens in fear and disgust removed farther northward to Keinthou under the Burmese;—the Benya and some other young men went afterwards to Ava, from whence he was sent to Keinthou on a royal message, and with twenty-five others was caught by a slave-catching party, and from this place sent to Bankok, where he soon came into favor with the king, who raised him to his present rank, and sent him up here to look after the Siamese interest at all the three towns. He gives a shocking account of the brutal rapine, and destructive waste of human life in the petty border-warfare and slave-catching incursions all along the frontiers, that has kept down population, laid entirely waste many large towns, and retarded civilization and all the arts of peaceful life in this unhappy country to a degree that could not be exceeded, I should hope, in the annals of any portion of Africa. All of this has been almost entirely put a stop to by our occupation of the provinces on the coast. He gives a somewhat different version of the Cochin-Chinese war from any I have heard. He said the Cochin-Chinese endeavoured to save the town of Wentian, Chandapora or Lingen, when the Siamese attacked it seven years ago. The Siamese would not attend to negotiations on the destruction of the city when horrid cruelty appeared to have been perpetrated. One of the sons of the king found his way to Hue. The King of Cochin-China sent an ambassador to Siam to say the prince had found his way to him; but as he wished to avoid a war, under certain conditions he would give him up. The Siamese treacherously murdered his ambassador, saying he had given protection and encouragement to rebels. The Cochin-Chinese, enraged at this piece of perfidy, had commenced the war. The latest accounts said the Siamese had the best of it, and were east of the Cambodia river.

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"Left Laboung this morning (15th), at 6 A.M., and in five hours and a half reached Zimmay about N. 30° West of the former place. The Mein Neaung Tso-boa came to see us off, and brought with him a person sent as a guide, though many of the people with me were known to be acquainted with the road. He took us through the fields, a path he evidently did not know himself, under pretence of breakfast being prepared for the people at some village by the way, and I ultimately regained the road by the direction of some Talien people we met. The whole of the road lay through a rich and cultivated country, irrigated by a water-course from the May-ping, the main trunk of which is some seven or eight miles in length, and thirty or forty feet in width, by eight or nine in depth, as far as we travelled along the bank of it. At 8 A.M. came on the banks of the water-course, and at 10 crossed the May-ping at a ford of considerable breadth, but at this season only reaching to the poney's saddle. On the Zimmay side found some officers waiting to conduct me to the zayat or tay, which we found to be a rattle-trap of a wooden building, forty-five feet by twenty-five, surround-
ed by an eight feet verandah a foot lower, with four small rooms on each side, in which the people were housed. These buildings shut out every breath of air; which, as the thermometer was 103° at mid-day and 80 at 8 P.M. was any thing but comfortable. The floor was of split planks laid on without rails or fastening, and as the people crowded up to look at me, the rattling was unsup-
torable. As I would get no relief from this annoyance by complaint, I was ultimately obliged to drive them down by force; after which they did not venture further than the steps of the zayat. The zayat, which is about a quarter of a mile from the town, was surrounded by drunken holiday-making people, singing, and hallooing, and shouting till about 12 o'clock, one of whom came close to the zayat and abused us. My people pursued him to a neighbouring house, which I was just in time to prevent them breaking into, and I denounced the occupier to the police in the morning.

"On the 16th, the brother-in-law of the Chow-Houa and some other officers paid me a visit of ceremony, bringing a present of rice, sugar-cane, &c. with the gratulations of the Tso-boa at my arrival, and expressing his and their good-will towards the English. They remained about an hour. Before they left, I com-
plained of the annoyance of the rabble, which they promised to remove. The forcible ejectment of the rabble yesterday left me at tolerable peace to-day till the evening, when the wife of the Ken-Toung Tso-boa came to visit me, and such a number of women came under her protection that the floor of one of the passages gave way with them, but fortunately no accident occurred. I hear nothing but complaints on all sides of the rascality of the cattle-merchants employed by the contractor to buy his cattle. They are old boat lascars, dis-
charged peons, and thieves from the jail, to whom he has had the folly to entrust more money than they ever saw before. Considering themselves rich, they have bought wives and slaves, and dissipated part of the money; and as they cannot return to Maulamyne, they sell the property at what they can get for it. Some of them have picked up the Shan language, and act as interpreters to strangers arriving from the coast, get their property into their hands and appro-
priate the proceeds. The presents they are enabled to make at this (to them) cheap rate, and the knowledge of the language, sets them above the fear of punishment. On the morning of the 17th, in consequence of my complaint of
yesterday, a person was sent out to keep the people from coming up in the zoyat, and a writer came to hang up a notice to the same effect. I have been left to myself all day. The poor woman into whose house the person who abused me on the night of our arrival ran for shelter, came to-day to beg my intercession. She is a stranger from Bankok, and, as she could not point out the offender, is threatened with a fine. As they have shown a disposition to punish the person, I promised to intercede for her.

At 10 a.m. on the 18th, Chow Ne Nam Maha Neut and some other officers came out to conduct me to the Tso-boa's house. They proposed that I should halt for some time at the court of justice, which was soon given up on my positive refusal to do so, and I proceeded in the same order as I had done at Laboung. The Tso-boa came in after a few minutes and seated himself on a cushion at the foot of the zoyabollen; I was seated immediately in front of him on a pretty large Persian carpet with pillows. I inquired after his health, age, prosperity, &c. and explained the purport of my visit to be a wish on our part to cultivate his friendship and open the gold and silver road, that, as at Laboung, we might exchange our superfluous produce to mutual advantage, &c. &c. He replied, that to all proper subjects of traffic there was no restriction. I said I was glad our customs agreed, and hoped that there would be now no further objections to the export of cattle and buffaloes, which was what we principally wanted from this country. The Chow-Houa, who as at Laboung, transacts all the business, and who is said to be the only one opposed to the trade in cattle, objected on the score of the great mortality which sometimes takes place among them, in which case I observed the price would rise, and still only surplus cattle would be sold; that I did not urge him to give the people an order to sell, but permission to do so. He made some objection, half expressed, on the score of fear of the Nats or presiding spirits of the country.

I pointed out the fact of their being sold to the Red Careens, to which he made no reply; but, Buddhists as they are, the question of the life or death of the animal has never been mooted by any one except Chow-tche-Weet in transferring the sin of selling to the Chow-Houa. The Tso-boa then heard the letter read, ordered in some sweetmeats, desired us his children to continue our business, and retired on plea of weariness. The hall I was received in, is a brick building about 100 feet by 50; the walls painted with an extraordinary jumble of clouds, trees, temples, &c.; on the window-shutters natives of different countries in the act of salutation. Among others I observed two Europeans in the costume of the time of George II. Below the windows a sea with boats and the white umbrella (emblem of royalty) of seven tiers of coarse cotton cloth, diminishing in size to the top (like an old fashioned dumb-waiter,) was fixed above the zoyabollen. I did not ascertain what chiefs were present, but the Tso-boa and the Chow-Houa were the only ones with whom I had any conversation. The Tso-boa is 80 years of age, but looks much more hale and robust than Chow-tche-Weet. He was raised to the Taoboaship by the king of Bankok, from his merit as a soldier, though he can neither read nor write,—a very unusual thing in this country.

"On my way to the fort this morning I called on Chow-Houa, and found him as much disposed to be friendly as he had been the reverse on the two former occasions. He agreed to the trade being perfectly free and unrestricted.
No duty will be levied on imports. The duties on cattle to be as at Labong:—
elephants one tical; horses free of duty; muskets and slaves are alone prohibit-
ed being taken out of the country;—offenders from Labong shall be given up,
and the people of this district harbouring them punished. He said our presents
of muskets was a certain mark of friendship, and that he intended to send fifty
cattle to the Commissioner; and as I could not take them with me, he request-
ed that I might arrange to leave some one to take charge of them.

"24th. I went to take leave of the Tso-rooa, who received me nearly alone
in an outer hall; gave me the letter for the Commissioner, and was most friend-
ly in his professions. His house consists of three wooden ranges of about fifty
feet wide, (their length I could not see,) the brick hall standing across the ends,
in which I was formerly received, and the small one in which I saw him to-day.
Soon after my return to the taydau or zayat, Chow Maha Neut came with
a message from Chow-Houa to set my mind at ease regarding the cattle and
trade generally; that every facility should be given to purchase cattle, and the
trade should be perfectly free and unrestricted; that it was not becoming to be
bounden by promises, but that we would see hereafter the strength of their friend-
ship. He regretted that he had not seen me on my last visit, that my stay this
time was so short, and requested I would return for a longer stay next fine wea-
ter, &c. &c. I left Zimmay at half past 4 p.m. on the 24th, and reached La-
bonq at 10. The walls of the inner town of Zimmay are 800 fathoms from east
by west and 1000 from north to south, all of brick, and a ditch and rampart all
round. The outer wall, which reaches from the north-east to the south-west
corner, is circular and upwards of 1800 fathoms, one-half of brick, the other of
wood with a rampart round the brick part, and a ditch surrounding the whole.
The ditches when in repair, (which they do not appear to be now,) can be filled
from the river. The town is situated four or five miles from the eastern foot of
the Bya-tha-Dykh hill, the highest in the range, and between it and the hill is
another small single-walled fort about the size of Laboung, called Moung-Soon-
dank, (city of the flower garden.) All the houses in Zimmay above the poor-
est of the people are surrounded by compounds fenced in, in which are cocoanut,
arica, betel, bamboo, and other useful trees, with a great variety of flowers and
flowering shrubs, which are watered by a stream of clear water brought from the
hill. The valley in which this town and Laboung both stand, is little less
than one day from east to west, and little more than three from north to south.
Much of the valley near the town is under cultivation, which is all prepared by
irrigation, and the grain is transplanted, yielding upwards of one hundred-fold,
though the fields are never left fallow."

Dr. R. quitted Laboung on the 29th. On the 9th May the rains
set in, and continued almost without intermission during the remain-
der of his journey. He arrived at Maulamyne on the 21st May,
suffering greatly from the exposure; most of his followers ill, (sever-
al of them died shortly after,) and the elephants completely knocked
up by the difficulties of the road.

DR. RICHARDSON'S THIRD VISIT, 1835.

Dr. R. was directed on this occasion to extend his visits to some
of the other Shan States, and also to the tribe of Red Kaffens on the
lying north of the Tenasserim Provinces.

The west bank of the Salween, who, sometime previous, had sent a message to Maulamyne to say they should be glad to see an European officer in their country, and to open an intercourse with us.

Dr. R. started on the 29th December, and arrived at Laboung on the 26th January, 1835. Here he found that his old friend the "Chow-tche-Weet," or "Lord of Life," was dangerously ill. The old man received him, however. Dr. R. says—"On entering his house, I found the chiefs and elders assembled and a curtain across the room. After some conversation, chiefly regarding the war to the eastward and the great blessings conferred on this country by our occupation of the Provinces, the curtain was drawn aside, and showed us the poor old man evidently on his death-bed, with his children and grand-children around him. He spoke but little; said he was glad to see me again, and handled one of the muskets I had brought with me to present to him."

After staying a few days at Laboung, Dr. R. proceeded to Zimmay. Here he had some long discussions with the Chow-Houa of that place relative to some impediments and restrictions he had placed on the trade in cattle, and to some late attempts on the part of the frontier Shan petty chiefs to levy tribute on the Kayens residing on our side the boundary river. These matters were, however, amicably adjusted, and much kindness and attention were shown him. It was the period of an annual festival, for which he was urgently pressed to stay. He says—

"One of the amusements at this festival was the letting off of large rockets—each rocket being honored with some name, and supposed to appertain to some chief or great personage. One was appropriated to me; and my coolies and servants being joined by a number of Maulamyne traders then in the place, who entered into the spirit of the thing, my rocket was well attended to the ground with dancing and singing, to the delight of the Shans, to whom Burmese music and dancing was quite a novelty. The rockets were all of wretched construction, but it so happened that mine performed its duty in a style infinitely superior to any on the ground; and such is the superstitious of these people, that I feel confident this incident has made an impression on their minds of the superiority of our nation which will not easily be effaced."

Here Dr. R. met a large portion of the annual caravan of Chinese traders, of whom he says—

"At Zimmay I found the caravan of Chinese traders, consisting of 200 mules and horses. Three hundred more were said to be at Mahngnan, where cotton is abundant. They had arrived in the country a considerable time before me, and were preparing shortly to return home. I had a good deal of conversation with the two heads of the caravan, who seemed to be intelligent, enterprising characters. They said they had long entertained the idea of visiting Maulamyne: and now that they were invited to do so, and were assured of protection, they would
undoubtedly do so next season; the present one being too far advanced to allow of their increasing their distance from home. They requested that an interpreter should meet them at Zimmay;—and from their repeated requests that he should be at Zimmay in all November, in order to accompany them down, I feel convinced these people will be at Maulamyne before the end of the year. With the chiefs I found no difficulty whatever in obtaining their consent to their passing through the country: no objection was ever hinted, nor have I reason to expect that any will hereafter arise.

"The imports by these caravans consist of copper and iron vessels, silk, (raw and manufactured,) satins, gold and silver thread and lace, musk, walnuts, carpets, and vermilion. They export from the Shan country cotton, ivory, skins, horns, &c. &c. From the information which I could collect, the caravan assembled at Moungkoo, distant from Zimmay about two months' journey. Their goods are conveyed by mules, and they would appear to travel rapidly; as they asserted they would not be more than twelve days from Zimmay to Maulamyne*. They allow nothing to detain them on their journeys. If a man fall sick, or is disabled, he is left behind; and if one dies, they do not even stop to bury him, but cover his body with a cloth and continue their route."

Dr. R. left Zimmay on the 23rd February for Lagon,¹⁰⁷ a town he had not hitherto visited. The following is his route:—

"23rd. Direction S. 65 E. Distance, 5 ½ miles.
"Started at 1 p.m. and reached Paboung¹⁰⁸ at 3.30. This is a small village of only twenty-four houses, but the Thongye, or head-man, has altogether about three hundred houses under his jurisdiction. The road was level, through paddy fields, intersected by small slips of jungle.
"24th. Direction S. 20 E. Distance, 16½ miles.
"Left Paboung at 7.35. At 9 crossed the May-quant, which runs past Laboung and falls into the Moypiny to the southward. At 11.40 we halted at the village of Ma-van-tchay¹⁰⁹. The road throughout the day was good and pleasant; considerable cultivation, and the inhabitants numerous. The people of the village where we have halted are all captives from Mein Neaung, who, never having seen an European, were very curious, but, at the same time, exceedingly civil and hospitable, having provided a dinner for my followers. An old man of the village remarked to me, after we had been encamped a few minutes only, that a Burman chief, travelling as I was doing, would ere this have tied up and flogged some of them to shew his authority, and that neither he nor his father had ever heard of a person travelling through a country merely to make friends. He wished I would open the road to his native place of Mein Neaung.
"25th. Direction S. 20 E. Distance, 13 miles.
"The road to-day was through a teak forest and over several small hills lying from a few yards to a mile distant from each other. Our guide to-day was a Doctor, who was quite an amateur in his profession, and spread out all his medicines under a tree and began prescribing gratis for our people. He had in his store of medicine the thigh-bone of a dog, the jaw of a monkey, the vertebrae of

* A small party of them have since arrived at Maulamyne in company with the men sent to meet them. They made the march in 15 days and express themselves satisfied with the market here.
a fish, part of a grinder of an elephant, the fore-tooth of a rhinoceros, some bone of a turtle, and two or three pieces of broken china. The rest of his collection consisted of little bits of sticks, and roots of all colors, to the number of two hundred and eighty-one, (I had the curiosity to count them,) the names and virtues of all which he professed to show. Not the least curious part of the collection was his mortar or substitute for one; it was a turned wooden bowl ten inches in diameter, with a handle to it, and inside opposite the handle a piece of coarse flinty sandstone fixed with lac about four inches square, and sloping towards the bottom of the bowl: on this the various articles are ground down, in sometimes a quart of water if the patient is very ill.

"26th. Direction S. 70 E. Distance, 16 miles.

"The road to-day was very tortuous and in some parts steep and rocky. No inhabitants or cultivation were to be seen.

"27th. Direction East. Distance, 15 miles.

"Started at 7 A. M. March lay along a good road in the jungle till 8.30 when we passed a last year's clearing with buffaloes and other signs of inhabited country. At 8. 45. crossed the Maytan, a considerable stream in the rains, now not ankle-deep, and on the eastern bank at Ban-hang-sat, a village of some size;—found they had received orders to have breakfast ready for the people, which was fortunate, as there was not rice for half of them at starting. Here we halted fifty minutes under the tamarind trees, whence two hours marching brought us to Boutue, on the banks of a stream of the same name about the size of the Maytan. The road has been good throughout and the country level. The people of this village have orders to supply us with every thing, and take us into the town to-morrow; they brought out dinner for the people soon after our arrival,—rice and vegetable stews, ready cooked, each house furnishing a portion, as is the custom in Burmah. These were brought out by the women of the village, young and old; the former, as usual, uncovered to the waist, and finer busts are not to be found in the world, and many of them fair as Europeans.

"28th. Direction S. 70 E. Distance, 4 miles.

"Reached Lagon at 8. 20 A. M. There are three towns close together, two on the north and one on the south side of the river Moy-Wang, in the last of which most of the chiefs live. The river between the towns has a course nearly east and west, and, dividing, forms a little sandy island nearer the south side, on which sheds had been prepared for our reception. The whole breadth of the river is about one hundred and forty-seven paces, but at this season there are only two small streams near each bank about knee-deep. During the rains even, it is seldom full, and consequently for the greater part of the year is not navigable for boats of any size. Neither is it favorable for purposes of irrigation, and as the rains are often insufficient, it is a far less favorable site for a town than Laboung or Zimmay, though containing an equally numerous population. As the trees in the town and neighbourhood are luxuriant, and the soil generally appears productive, it is probably the fault of the people themselves that provisions are scarce."

The following are Extracts from Dr. R.'s Journal during his stay at Lagon.
3rd March. Visited several of the chiefs to-day. They all expressed themselves most friendly to us, and spoke openly of a different feeling existing at Zimmay. As my visit was entirely conciliatory, I avoided the subject, merely saying, that we were grateful to our friends, and that I believed the general feeling of the people of Zimmay was friendly towards us, in which they agreed, and said they saw I was aware where the bad feeling lay. I spent several hours with the several chiefs, and altogether passed a very pleasant day, owing to their kind reception and the absence of all ceremony.

4th. Went over to one of the towns on the north side of the river to visit a chief residing there. The whole of the town is enclosed within old walls, the river face of which is mud, the remainder brick, but in a very rickety condition. The paths from one house to another, which are all far apart, are more like the paths in a common village than the streets of the town.

8th. There are fewer elephants here than at Zimmay. The king of Siam called for a return of these animals last year, when three hundred were found here and near one thousand at Zimmay, large and small. I learn that there are no taxes on specific articles here. Every cultivator, without exception, at the close of the harvest, pays into the Government granary a quantity of grain equal to what he may have sown, and each house pays half a tical of coarse grain on account of sacrifices to the Nats, or protecting spirits of the country. These sacrifices are another name for public feasts as the buffaloes, pigs &c., together with the spirits that are provided, are consumed by the people. The land is the property of him who clears it, and any one may cultivate unoccupied land, provided he pays the accustomed contribution to the public granary. The person so clearing and cultivating land may dispose of it in any way he likes, and cannot be arbitrarily dispossessed of it by the chiefs, as in Burmah the people are glad to place themselves under the protection of some chief and become followers of his family. They work for him, and are often sent by him on trading excursions, receiving occasionally a portion of the profits.

10th. Received a visit from No. 1 wife of the Chow-Houa, accompanied by her two daughters and several female attendants. She says she will be obliged to leave her daughters behind when she accompanies her husband to Bankok, (whither all the chiefs are bound, on the occasion of Chow-Tche-Weet's death,) as the king might take a fancy for one of them. This, she said, would be all very well for a year or two, after which she would be discarded and neglected, and then her life would be one of misery.

Dr. R. left Lagon on the 10th March, and arrived at Laboung on the 13th, a distance of 44 miles; direction N. 70 W.

Here I found the chiefs of all the associated States, assembled to perform the funeral rites over the body of Chow-Tche-Weet, the acknowledged head of their family. I had to enter into long and disagreeable discussions relative to the three elephants which had been stolen at Maulamyne on several occasions, and which had been traced to Laboung and the thieves discovered. The difficulty arose from the thieves being proteges or dependents of Chow-Houa of Laboung, who alone opposed restitution of the property, or the punishment of the thieves. I at last threatened, that unless I could report that this business was satisfactorily settled, it would be referred to Bankok. This alarmed them.
as, under present circumstances, they must deprecate any reference against them to the king of Siam, who might take advantage of the opportunity to place a stranger in the situation of the deceased chief. Still the settlement was put off till the arrival of the chief of Zimmay, who had returned to his town for a few days, and I was obliged to quit without knowing the result of their deliberation. I learnt, however, by a messenger who met me on my return from the Red Kayens, that the affair had been terminated to the satisfaction of the owners of the elephants, who had accompanied me from Maulamyn.

"At this assembly the chiefs seemed on very bad terms with each other, and their deliberations were conducted with much acrimony, and on one occasion with personal violence. The Chow-Houa of Labounz appeared to have given general dissatisfaction, though he again was full of complaints against the others. This mutual bad feeling was shewn in the inditing of the letter brought by me from the chiefs of Labounz. I was informed by one of them, that when it was read to Chow-Houa, he ordered his name to be struck out without assigning any reason. When I called on him to bid him farewell, I asked him why he had done this. He begged me to be assured that no disrespect was intended by it; that the letter had been written without, in the least, consulting him; and though it was a very good letter, yet he declined to have his name in it under such circumstances. He then went on to say, that the death of the old man, whose obsequies they were then celebrating would, he feared, be the cause of much evil and misery to the country, owing to their own dissensions.

"Having at last obtained the letter, and having been furnished with an order for guides from the frontier to the Red Kayen country, I left Labounz on the 25th March."

The route usually travelled from Labounz and Zimmay to the country of the Red Kayens on the west bank of the Salween, is through Mein-loon-gyee, towards which Dr. R. bent his course and arrived on the 31st March. Here he remained one day in order to procure rice and other articles for himself and followers during the remainder of the journey, as no villages would be fallen in with for some days.

"April 2nd. Direction N. 15 W. Distance 15 miles.

"The road lay generally along the banks of the Mein-loon-gyee river, crossing occasionally from one side to the other and through a magnificent teak-forest.

"3rd. Direction N. 39 W. Distance, 20 miles.

The road much the same as yesterday's march. Crossed the river twelve times during the day with the water sometimes over the saddle flaps.

"4th. Direction N. 75 W. Distance, 17 miles.

"Left the Mein-loon-gyee to the eastward, and proceeded along a road of much more rugged character, up a small stream which we crossed seventy or eighty times. The hills are here more close and precipitous, but the tops of many of them are cleared for grain cultivation, the only sign of the country being inhabited. Met fifteen elephants returning from the country we are about to visit, with stick-lac.

"5th. Direction S. 80 W. Distance, 12 miles.

Crossed the highest part of this range at 7 A. M. from whence the water
runs westward into the Salween and eastward into the Mein-loon-gyee. The road to-day has been the worst we have travelled; the hills very trying to the elephants, and the stony banks of the streams to the horses' feet. Met two poor little children recently purchased from the Red Kayens; one for six bullocks; and the other, a very interesting child, about 7 years of age, for 10.

"6th. Direction W. Distance, 11 miles."

"First part of the road over a steep hill; remainder over low land covered with grass, formerly cultivated."

"7th. Direction W. N. W. Distance, 15 miles."

"First part of the road the same as the last of yesterday's, along low reedy ground, following the course of an inconsiderable stream. At 8.30 came to a pass between two hills, which, in case of attack, is defended by the Kayens by securing large stones with ratans and bamboo work on the tops of the hills;—the ratans are cut, and the stones roll down on the invaders. It is about one-fifth of a mile in length."

"8th. Direction W. N. W. Distance, 12 miles."

"The country more level, with some occasional clearings and a few houses. The jungle to-day was unusually alive with pheasants, pea-fowl, partridges, &c."

"9th. Direction W. Distance, 14 miles."

"The country of the same character as yesterday. Halted on the banks of the Salween about four hundred yards wide, running a rapid stream in a narrow valley or ravine, except at the small plain where we are encamped, and another on the opposite side on which stands the village of Banong or Yongong, consisting of about twenty-five houses, having the appearance of a common Burman village. Met 20 or 30 bullocks to-day with stick-ice and eight slaves en route to the Shan country, making in all fifteen since leaving Laboung. One family of four were bought for ten bullocks, the father and mother and two children two and three years of age. There are some others for sale at the village. In the evening the son of Pha-bho, one of the chiefs of the Red Kayens, an exceedingly dirty, stupid-looking lad of about 18 or 20, came over with a relation who is headman of the village. They appeared to have some difficulty in making up their minds who was the proper representative of the tribe. At last it was decided that Pha-bong was too young and comes to Pha-bho to consult on state matters; and that as Pha-bho was the person who sent the message last year, it is determined I shall go to him. He resides three days' journey on the other side of the river. There have been about fifty or sixty Kayens about my tent this afternoon, (none of them appeared to come avowedly as the young gentleman's attendants;) they do not differ at all in personal appearance from the common Kayens of the hills, except that they are perhaps less good-looking. Their dress consists of a pair of short trousers of generally red (particularly the chief's), colored cotton of domestic manufacture, coming about half way down the thigh, and every one had either a piece of book muslin or an English cotton handkerchief round his head."

"10th. Waited some time for the boats. At last the young lad of yesterday crossed over, and on my interpreter complaining to him of the delay, he said the Kayens were never in a hurry. He succeeded, however, in getting them at 12 o'clock, and every thing was crossed over that evening. We were in apprehension of a scarcity of provisions, as the old head-man of the village declined
supplying any. Pha-bho's son however, procured some rice; as to eggs or fowls, they were out of the question.

"11th. Direction N. W. Distance, 9 miles.

"The road to-day was either rocky or covered with round water-worn pebbles, and lay among low rocky hills scantily covered with vegetation and stunted scattered trees. Pha-bho's son was engaged in eating a buffalo, which he had sacrificed to the Nats, and did not accompany us. He sent a guide, however, and is to follow us to-morrow,

"12th. Direction W. N. W. Distance, 15 miles.

"First part of the road rocky and bad as yesterday, but the latter part more level and less stony. Passed one or two small villages, around which was a little of the most slovenly cultivation, chiefly cholum. Halted at the village of Bantoe, 109 of about thirty houses under the nephew of the last Pha-Bang (a chief's title). At this village there was a poor woman brought in two days ago, from a party of about three hundred people seized by Pha-Bhong from the village of Tongpak 106 (Burman Shans) which they left a smoking ruin a few days ago. The story which she told in the fullness of her grief is replete with all the horrors that are attendant on such diabolical scenes. The Kayens attacked the village, it appears, with bravery, (but the Shans are cowards,) and her husband was cut to pieces in her arms, and she kicked by the savages from his bleeding body. Many of the Kayens were killed, but they succeeded in carrying off all the inhabitants. She saw her two daughters in their rapid flight, but was separated from them two days ago. The respectable individual at the head of this village took her as his tenth of the captives taken by his people. She does not know where her daughters are carried to. What adds to the helplessness of her situation, is that she is far gone with child, and is the only one of her village here.

"13th. Direction N. W. Distance, 14 miles.

"Reached Pha-bho's residence (called Dwon Talwee) 110 to-day after traveling over a succession of hills on the worst possible road.

"14th. Sent into the village to say I wished to-day to deliver the letter and presents from the Commissioner, and Pha-bho requested me to come when I felt inclined to do so. I accordingly went in after breakfast about two hundred yards to the village, which consists of seventy houses in the worst Burman style, the chief's much the same as the rest, but made of wood split and fastened together by wooden pegs. There is a sort of open verandah, if it may be so styled, without a roof, at which we arrived by a rough sort of wooden ladder of six or eight steps, all of which were loose. Here we stooped under the roof which reaches within four feet of the verandah or platform of loose boards, and two paces brought us into the door of his Majesty's mansion, from which one step landed us to the royal presence. This, however, I did not for some time discover, as the door at which I entered was the only opening in the room, or rather house, except the crevices between the boards, so that for some minutes after entering it was perfectly dark. I could absolutely see nothing but a little bit of fire that was in the middle of the floor. I seated myself on a carpet, and the people groped their way in with the presents, and after sitting a few minutes I was able to distinguish by degrees objects in the room; not, however, so as to have recognised the old gentleman if I had met him ten minutes afterwards.
in the day-light. I told him I had come as he had requested, and as the Commissioner of Maulamye had promised last year, from whom I had brought a letter and presents, and wished to open the gold and silver road between us, and be friends with the Kayen nation, &c. &c. He gave me an opportunity of talking, as he said nothing for a quarter of an hour. At last he requested to have the letter read and explained, which was done. He then said his object in requesting an officer to visit him was to know if the English would form an alliance with him,—for the purpose of making war on the Burmans! I declined the honor of a warlike alliance, but told him our views were all peaceable, and that we never made war unless injured, when vengeance was instantaneous. I begged his protection for our traders, &c. &c. &c. He said if we would not make war along with him, he must make friends with us, nevertheless; but that war with the Burmans was his object in asking a visit, and that he would send for some chiefs from Ngoay Down, and make known my visit, and the wish for a friendly intercourse. He promised his protection to traders, and was as friendly as possible. By this time I could see the size of the room—it was about thirty feet by forty, and a bow end where the door entered. The fire was in the middle of the room on a little square place insulated from the floor, being raised an inch or two from it and supported from below, the roof splendidly varnished with soot. The old man was alone when I went in; the room was, however, soon crowded, but their whole demeanour was civil and respectful,—very different from what the Zimmay chiefs wished me to believe. In the evening the old man's factotum came out to beg me to delay six or eight days, which I declined, and begged to be dismissed on the 17th. This old man, who is an up-country Shan, after giving a splendid account of the numbers of the Kayens and size of their towns, said some of their towns had four hundred houses, and the country was six days' journey from north to south, and four from east to west. Pha-bho discourages men-catching, but the people pay no regard to his counsels. There is something like law amongst them; for, on inquiring the cause of the firing of muskets that took place this morning, I was told it was a robber who had been ransomed by his friends for two ketsees (111) (copper drum, a sort of gong) and 100 tickals coarse silver. Found our height by the thermometer to-day to be 1021 feet. The flat on which we are encamped, and on which the village is situated, is about 610 paces wide and 600 or 650 long. There is another about 600 feet higher of the same size, and still further up is a third platform 2049 feet above the sea and about two miles square, perfectly level, with rich soil, all under cultivation, watered by two streams which rush down the perpendicular face of the mountain from above and irrigate the two lower platforms. The mountain is of limestone, and its steepest acclivity appears to be on this side, though the presence of the beautiful stream on this face would indicate the country.

15th. Had a visit from the old chief to-day, a dirty shabby old Kayen when seen by day-light. The only indications of his chieftainship were a gold sword and a silver betel-box, both of which he carried himself, and his only attendant was the old Shan mentioned yesterday. He was as silent as before for sometime. He at last began to speak, and continued talking for about an hour of the origin of the human race, to prove what I had said (on his questioning) that the English were the most powerful nation in the world, to be incorrect, or at
least uncertain. The pith of his story was, that we were all originally descend-
ed from Pha-Bee, a lady who lived at Ava. Who our other venerable progeni-
tor was, he did not know, or how the lady happened to come into the world; however, she had three sons, the elder the father of the Chinese, the second of the Kulas (all people not Chinese, Shans, Burmans, or Kayens), and the third of the Kayens. Of the country from which these ancient gentlemen obtained helpmates, he was ignorant. This story was altogether imperfect, and the inter-
preter a wretched one. However, there is a pagoda some days from this to the northward, on which no nation has yet appeared with sufficient power to put the Tee or ornamental covering, on the top; but there is to be a great feast and gathering of all the nations to take place, which he expects every day to be called to attend, when this will be achieved, and a Natthamee, or female spirit, will descend, to whom the Chinese, Kulas, and Kayens will each believe their claims equal, and will fight till they are up to the knees in blood. The demi-goddess will then inquire what is the matter. On its being explained, she will end the contest by espousing the chief who can draw her sword: it will then be known which is chief amongst nations, till which time he will not be-
lieve that we are much more powerful than the great nations named above, espe-
cially the Chinese. The magnificence of my tent and brass-bound bullock trunks had, however, their weight with him. He did me the honor to remain four of the longest hours I have spent amongst many very protracted ones in my present mission. He, however, as an equivalent, promised his protection to traders from Maulamyne and to people (Chinese included) from the northward, but was afraid they would not find provisions, which will be somewhat difficult, even if he has sufficient influence with his savages to prevent their molesting them. Some of our traders from Maulamyne came in to-day (ten) who had gone into the Shan territories subject to Ava to the north-east, where they had disposed of their cotton goods to some profit in exchange for horses. They met the Chinese traders who annually visit the town of Monk Maie, (which is only four days' journey from this,) who had expressed a wish to come to Maulamyne, and probably would accompany any of our people who may be there in proper time next year, unless deterred by the terror with which these detestable savages have inspired their neighbours, though I am convinced they are equally despi-
cable and detestable.

"16th. Several of the head people came out to the tent this morning, and in the evening I went to take leave of the head-man. They were vociferously discussing the propriety of returning a present to the Commissioner. As soon as I could obtain a hearing, I repeated all I had previously said about the traders, and was begged to explain to the traders coming here that they must not take forcibly what did not belong to them; they promising to do all on their part to protect them if their conduct was correct, but could not be answerable for of-
fences beyond their jurisdiction. They would tell them where they might go with safety; if they went beyond that, it must be at their own responsibility. The discussions were renewed more loudly than before, and I took my departure with a head-ache, partly from the noise, partly from the vile smell of the house. As the grand distinction between the chief and others is his not eating rice, the half of the room was filled with yams, some growing, some putrid and highly offensive. After I had returned some time, the old Shan came out and said, the chief wish
ed to know distinctly if we considered him our debtor for the things I had given, as he feared it might be brought against his children or grand-children; which is by no means a groundless fear amongst themselves, for I saw on my first visit to Zimmay a little child who had been seized and sold by a creditor for a debt contracted by his grandfather for a gong. I assured him his fears were perfectly groundless, and explained what was usual in other countries. He wished me to remain tomorrow, on the chance of his getting a horse to return for the presents. As we have the greatest difficulty in getting—in fact cannot get—rice, and should we be caught by the rains on this side of the eastern hills, we shall be obliged to halt without provisions till they are passable, I intimated my positive intention to start with the moon-light early in the morning to save the elephants crossing the hills in the heat of the day.

"17th. Last night at 11 o'clock the old Shan came out according to his promise, bringing a letter for the Commissioner written on two shabby leaves of an old Burman black book, and a little pony, for which my servant had been bargaining in the course of the day; its price was about forty-five rupees. I believe a man from Maulamyne who was robbed and is now seeking justice here, was the writer of the letter; and as they have no written character of their own, it was written in Burmese."

Dr. R. quitted Daung Talwee this day, and arrived at Maulamyne on the 10th May, having returned through Mein-loon-gyee by the route already described. He thus sums up the result of his last mission:

"I need not descant upon the great importance of opening a market with the frontiers of China for British goods by means of the caravans of Chinese traders. It is probable that on the first visit of these people to Maulamyne their numbers will be few, but when once aware of the safety and freedom from all vexations and exactions with which their visits will be attended, and of the extensive market existing for their goods, I think there can be no doubt we shall see them here in future years in great numbers. I learnt from the people, and also from other quarters during my travels, that no difficulty would exist in our traders visiting the frontier towns of China. The Chinese asserted there were no guards and no restrictions in their towns, and a person of some rank at Labon pressed me to accompany him next year on a trading expedition in that direction. I cannot but think this subject is worthy the consideration of Government; and should any thing of the kind be deemed advisable, I should be most happy to offer my services.

"An extensive opening for our inland trade has been made by securing the good-will towards us of the Red Kayens, and it is possible that the intercourse with these people now commenced may lead eventually towards their civilization, and that our influence with them may hereafter be successfully exerted in putting an end to their system of kidnapping and selling their neighbours which now forms their, I may say, sole occupation. I learnt that from three to four hundred unfortunate beings are annually caught by these people, and sold by them into perpetual slavery. I met many of them on my journey,—some just purchased, others on their way to be sold.

"The kind feeling of our north-eastern Shan neighbours towards us, have been increased by my late visit. The mixture of firmness and conciliation which
I had in my power to exhibit towards them on the points discussed, has tended to convince them that we are firm and consistent friends, not desirous of aggrandizing ourselves at their expense, but at the same time not to be imposed on or trifled with."


Bāmiān is situated in one of the Paropâmisan valleys, distant about 80 or 85 miles from Cabāl, bearing N. 75 W. The valley is deep, the enclosing hills on either side exhibiting, to a greater or less extent, perpendicular walls of rock, whence their convenience and adaptation for the construction of caves. The rock is called Mung, being a conglomerate of small pebbles, sand and divers colored earth, remarkably compact and hard. The length of the valley is about nine or ten miles, in direction from east to west. Its breadth is inconsiderable, but greatest at the particular spot in it, pre-eminently called Bāmiān, and where the statues and principal caves are found. At this point also the streams of Sūrkh Dur, and Jāt Fohidā, by their junction, form what is called the river of Bāmiān, which flowing eastward down the valley, receives at Zohūk the waters of Kūltā, after which winding to the westward of Irak, Bābūlāk, Shibr, Bitchīlīk, &c., and augmented by their rivulets, eventually escapes from the hills, and passing Ghorī falls into the river of Kundūz.

The appellation Bāmiān may perhaps be equivalent to high region in contradistinction to Damiān or Damān, the low region, or that at the skirts of the hilis—" Báṃ" signifies " roof," and when it is remembered that Asiatic roofs are flat, as are in general the summits of the mountains in this part of the country, we are at no loss to account for the name, once probably universally applied to it, though now retained by a particular locality;—and when we further consider its elevation above the surrounding regions, we may admit the figurative and emphatic interpretation of Bāmiān, as afforded by some of the inhabitants, who render it the " roof of the universe."

The mountains among which Bāmiān is situate, are no doubt those designated by the Greek historians and geographers Paropâmīsus, as opposed to the true Indian Caucasus or Hindu Kosh, from which they are distinct. The term has been cavilled at, but without justice. It was no creation of the Greeks, but the native name for the hills; nor need we doubt this, when we find it made up of par and pām, signifying "hill" and "flat." Paropâmīsus may therefore be translated the region of flat summited hills, and is a term peculiarly appropriate to the countries on which it was conferred. Know-
ing the etymology of *Paropámisus*, we learn that of *Pamir*, the lord of hills.

The principal antiquities of *Bámián* are its idols and caves, which have manifestly a connection with each other,—the castle of *Zohák*, so called—and the remains of the city and citadel of *Ghulgháleh*.

The evidences of *Ghulgháleh* are numerous and extensive, proving that it must have been an important city. Refraining from speculation as to its origin, we know from authentic history that it was destroyed by *Genghiz Khán* in 1220, A. D. The natives of *Bámián* have a tradition, that it was re-edified, and again fell into decay—which is probable, there being many Muhammedan tombs referring to it, which have a less antiquity than six centuries, if painted glazed tiles to be seen in them, were confined to China, until the era of *Genghiz Khán*, as supposed by some authors. The most striking of the remains of *Ghulgháleh* is the citadel or place, the walls of which encompass an isolated eminence.

The fortress of *Zohák*, so called by the natives and by *Abul Fazil*, occurs at the eastern extremity of the valley, where the rivulet of *Kalá* falls into the river of *Bámián*. We have not inspected it with sufficient attention, to decide upon its character, or to venture to advance an opinion on it, which future research may controvert—we therefore merely observe that, agreeing with *Abul Fazil* as to its antiquity, we differ both from his notion and that sanctioned by tradition that it was a place of defence.

The caves of *Bámián* are found in the cliffs or perpendicular fronts of the hills on either side of the valley, and on the northern side they uninterruptedly occur for a distance of six or seven miles. At the spot called *Bámián*, the elevation of the cliffs, being most considerable, there are found the greater number of caves, or *samuches* as called in these countries, congregated as in a focus. Among these caves stand in niches the two large idols long known in Europe, and between them are two other niches, in one of which are the fragments of a former idol, and the other as certainly once contained one. Opposite to these, diverging to the south-west is the valley through which flows the rivulet of *Jáí Fotádí*, and eastward of the citadel of *Ghulgháleh* is a valley stretching to the south—the hills to the north and east of both these valleys are also perforated with caves, and among those of the latter is a large idol inferior only in size to the two superior ones at *Bámián*.

The idols are cut or hewn in the rock, and have been covered with a surface of cement. They are erect figures, with their hands extend-
ed, and supporting the folds of drapery with which they have been clothed. Their features have been destroyed, by removing one-half of their heads, or as far as the lips, leaving the hinder halves with the ears, enormously large, appended.

The work of mutilation was one of some labor, and having been executed with precision, will have been directed by authority, possibly by that of the Arabian conquerors. A subsequent and less systematic mutilation has been practised on the idols, by breaking off their hands, and fracturing their legs, for the merits of which Jenghiz, Timu'r, Aurangze'b, and even Timu' r Shah Du'ran ni', who are all accused, may dispute.

The idols stand in vast niches formed in the rock, whose sides on a level with the necks of them have been embellished with paintings. These consist of busts and seated figures, both male and female. The niche of the superior idol has on each side a line of twelve female figures, and, what is of great importance, at its summit, over the idol’s head, is an inscription, obviously intended to unravel the mystery. The niche in which stands the second idol in importance has no inscription, but on either side has lines of twelve male and female busts, among which is one so valuable that we need not regret the absence of a literal testimony; over the head of this idol is a painted full length female figure. The niches of the other idols are also embellished with paintings.

On either side of the niches are series of stairs, cut in the rock, which conduct to their summits or to the heads of the idols—each series of steps leads to a small square apartment, and these several apartments have been superbly decorated with gilding and lapis lazuli. To illumine these passages, apertures have been cut through the rock towards the idols. We ascended to the summit of the second idol by the passage on the one side, and walking round the hinder part of its head, descended by the steps on the other side. Near the summit or above the lines of paintings the niches have been widened, and on either side has been formed a takht or sofa, obviously for the convenience of sitting upon. The superior idol has or had the same facilities of ascent to the summit, but at the time of our visit the lower caves near it were occupied by an unaccommodating Tajik, who had stowed in the passage his stock of provender. We could not prevail upon him by menace or entreaty to open the path, and he evasively affirmed that he had never heard of one. We did not insist with him, relying upon making a further visit, which until now has not happen-

* See a sketch of them published with Lieut. Burnes' Description, J. A. S. vol. ii. 561.
ed. It is a great point to gain these upper stations, as from them may be profitably inspected the paintings.

Between the legs of the superior idol are entrances conducting into spacious apartments surmounted with domes—and there are many other caves at Bāmiān which display the dome or cupola:—these we imagine to have been particularly temples. They, in common with all other caves, were covered with cement, in which the lines of moulding surrounding their circumferences, with the ornaments at the summits of the domes, have been formed. The interiors of all of them are of a glossy black color, from the smoke of fires which were or have been kept up in them. Many of the caves at Bāmiān are remarkable for their dimensions, and have other peculiarities in their form and embellishments. The most curious are found above the superior idol, but in another cliff rising backward; so that in walking from them to the front or south, we reach the edge of the perpendicular wall of rock in which that sculpture is carved. In these caves we saw the names written with charcoal of W. Moorcroft, W. Trebeck, and G. Guthrie! They are gained by an ascent a little to the left or west of the idol.

There can be little doubt but that of the vast number of caves, which do not terminate in cupolas, many were the residences of the priests connected with temples; others may have been the abodes of ascetics or monastic classes; and as we find in Afghānīstān that the cave is invariably the companion of the sepulchral tumulus, without reference to its nature, or whether it be a tomb or cenotaph, we may suppose the majority of the excavations at Bāmiān to be of the same character. When circumstances permitted the erection of a tumulus, it became necessary to excavate a cave—and we need not be surprised at the vast number of caves at Bāmiān, when we have under our eyes the ruins of a large and once flourishing city, or when we consider the spot was a sacred one, possibly the most sacred, of the professors of the then existing religion, and whether the dead of the surrounding regions might, from pious motives, be carried for deposit.

The inhabitants, in speaking of the three superior idols, call them the father, mother and son,—presuming the second in consequence to be a female; but there is no distinction in the figure to warrant the supposition that its sex varies from the others. Of whatever sex the whole may be, there is little reason to doubt but they are of one and the same.

We visited Bāmiān under the idea of meeting with Buddhist antiquities, but it became evident that they were of another character. The inscription was in characters unknown to us, and continued so
until we were favored by the alphabets of the Pehlevi and Zend from Mr. Prinsep, when we ascertained it to be a form of Pehlevi. The bust of the king among the paintings in the niche of the second idol, we had found to bear an exact resemblance to the busts on a series of coins constantly and numerously found at Beghrém, and which we called Parthian provisionally; but the characters of the legends on these coins were very different from those of the Bámíán inscription. At length, however, a coin was found of the same class, with the characters plainly similar—in fact comprising three of those forming the inscription (see Plate XLIV). We now began to suspect we had sufficient evidence to assign the idols of Bámíán.

Under the idea that the inscription might be rendered NANAIA, we had ventured to communicate our suspicions to Mr. Prinsep: should they be confirmed, the idol might be supposed to be an image of Diana or the moon, called by the old Persians NANAIA—but we are not yet confident of the reading; and viewing a succession of idols, it occurs to reflection that they may possibly commemorate a series of sovereigns: and this, even if the reading be allowed; for we find over the second idol which has no inscription, a full length female figure, which may be Nanaia, and the first idol has no figure, but a name in its place. We must confess, from the general appearance of the idols, we should suppose them to represent male personages.

The coins referred to are probably of that description marked by Colonel Tod, when he enumerates among his collection "rare ones of a Parthian dynasty unknown to history." The term Parthian may cease to be applicable, but we doubt whether the kings commemorated by these coins, and, as we suspect, by the idols of Bámíán, are unknown to history. We take them to be the Kiánian dynasty, whose records, more or less authentic, are to be found in Persian authors; and whose descendants, if their own accounts be credited, still exist in the persons of independent chiefs in Seistán. The Tájiks, so numerously dispersed over Afgánistán and Türkistán, and no doubt the more ancient inhabitants of the countries, represent the nation, in olden time, obedient to the princes of this dynasty. For a series of ages, in Afgánistán at least, the Tájik authority has been superseded; and, within memory, the proprietary rights of the Tájik to the soil have been seriously infringed by the encroachments of the Afgháns. He preserves few traces of his origin or descent, and as a convert to the uncompromising tenets of Islamism, recollects with horror that his country was once governed by infidels—while, as at Bámíán, he resides, and follows the ordinary occupations of life, in the temples,
from whence his ancestors, in all due solemnity, invoked the glorious
sun and dazzling hosts of heaven.

Admitting the evidence upon which we ascribe the idols of Bámtán
to the princes of the Kíámad race, without prejudice to their indi-
vidual character, or whether they be idols of Nanaída and other deities,
or statues of sovereigns—we naturally turn to consider the possible
epoch of their construction; and this, if not absolutely to be fixed, is
brought within a certain and comparatively recent period, or one sub-
sequent to the destruction of the Greek-Bactrian monarchy. This
monarchy, as Justin testifies, was overthrown by the Parthians, and
the fact is perhaps as easily to be credited as that its subversion was
effected by the Getae; though it must be allowed, that in support of
the latter opinion, Strabo is very grave authority, particularly when
he enumerates the hordes or nations that effected the subversion, the
Asii, Pasiani, Tochari, and Sacarauli. It may be, as Schefed hints,
that both had a hand in it; but the conclusion by the same learned
author that the Getae remained in possession, may be liable to doubt,
if we recognize the Bámtán idols to be memorials of the Parthian
(qy.) conquerors of Bactria. It is proper, however, to note, that
about this time, the Azoë dynasty, whose coins we have, seems entitled
to be considered; and if that appellation have any connection with the
name of the first of the four Getic hordes, as, we believe, Mr. Prinsep
suspects, both Justin and Strabo may be reconciled; for, according
to every appearance, the Azoë dynasty originated in the regions bor-
dering on the Indus towards its source. At the same time, it must
be remembered, that we suggest the possibility only that the Bámtán
idols may refer to the Parthian (qv.) conquerors of Bactria. We
have remarked that the year 56 B. C. has been mentioned as the
epoch of the construction of the idols, (that will be of the more anci-
ent one,) and this epoch might coincide with that of the supercession
of the Greek-Bactrian monarchy; but when this date is quoted as
being found in the Mahàbháràta, either the authority of that work has
been carelessly advanced, or the work itself must considerably abate
its pretensions to the antiquity conceded to it by some.

We feel repugnance to renounce old and favorite theories, but
they must yield to facts. We had plausibly enough given the Greeks
in Bactria for successors a race of Getic or Indo-Scythic sovereigns,
as we conveniently called them; and we concluded them to be of the
Buddhist faith, because we have read that such faith was prevalent
in Central Asia about the commencement of the Christian era. With-
out deeming it necessary to contest the latter fact, in favor of which,
indeed, some proof may be adduced, we have gradually, however,
grown sceptical as to that of Buddhist supremacy in these regions; and the term Indo-Scythic has yielded to that of Mithraic, which may safely be adopted, as clearly indicating the religion of the ruling powers, while it affects not the question of their race or descent. It may be observed, that the later antiquities in Afghanistán and the Panjáb, or in the countries along the course of the Indus, are apparently mixed Mithraic and Buddhist; nor is it improbable that the two systems, if they were really generically distinct ones, should have been blended in the limits to which both extended, and were both met—it being considered that Buddhism will have been propagated with vivacity when Mithraism was languishing in decline.

Our objections to the term Parthian, as applied to the coins provisionally so called, and to the princes commemorated by them, and possibly by the idols, arise principally from the impossibility of deeming them Arsakian. Under that powerful dynasty, which so long controlled Persia, it is generally understood that the worship of Mithra was discouraged:—we know not why it should have been, and might ask in return, of what religion besides the Mithraic could the Arsakian monarchs have been professors? It may be, that as Parthians, who have been supposed to be of Scythic origin, they were followers after the manner of their fore-fathers, whose rites it is one of the objects of the Zendavesta to depreciate and to condemn: while with the virulent feelings common to sectarians, and in possession of the necessary power to allow their exhibition, they might have neglected no occasion to discomfit the opposite rites and observances in vogue with the people of Cyrus—whence may be accounted for, during their sway, the neglect of Persepolis and the fire temples of Istakr. The fire-altar never occurs on any of the coins of the Arsakian princes, while it is seen on those we suspect to be referrible to the princes commemorated at Bámúán. The same emblem, indeed, distinguishes the coins of the Sassanian princes of Persia, successors in authority to the Arsakian line, and who rekindled the sacred fires throughout the land, which had been extinct for centuries—but on their coins, it is always accompanied by two guardians or defenders—which are wanting on the coins of our princes; and as the more simple may be presumed the more ancient form, we might deduce from the circumstance a corroborative proof, that they are prior in date to the Sassanian monarchs of Persia. Should this view be correct, we learn that cotemporaneous with a portion of the Arsakian dynasty, a powerful and independent sovereignty existed in Bactriana, whose princes became of the orthodox Mithraic faith, or that so lauded in the Zendavesta. It is obvious
also that they must have been subsequent to the Greek monarchy—and who they were, and whence they came, can only be profitably speculated upon, when we become acquainted with the antiquities hidden in the regions north of the Indian Caucasus. It is an advantage, however, to possess the knowledge of their existence, their coins and memorials, which display alike their language and religion.

The height of the larger idols has been estimated at 120 feet and 70 feet respectively; the third may be about 50 feet, and the two others were 35 and 25 feet in height. Surveying them, in connection with the theory that they serve to commemorate sovereigns, the gradations in size, as well as their numbers, may be turned to profit; the former denoting the degrees of prosperity under which they were formed, and the latter authorizing us to infer that there were at least as many sovereigns as idols. It is also probable that these idols, with their accompaniments of caves and temples, are not posthumous memorials, but that they were constructed during the lives of the monarchs who projected them. That they are the labors of a series of kings, is an inevitable conclusion, from the moral impossibility that they could have been formed by a single one.

Supposing that Bámún was peculiarly a sacred place, and on that account pre-eminently selected for the burial-place of the sovereigns of the age, we may inquire what evidences we have of their sepulchres. Some ancient authority,—we believe Ctesias or Diodorus,—describes the mode of interment of the old kings of Persia—which was by lowering down their remains from the summits of precipices into caves hewn in the rock, and then closing up their entrances. Some of the caves at Bámún are so situated, as exactly to come within this description; they are now inaccessible, and from their small apertures could scarcely have been intended for dwellings, while without some such contrivance, as lowering down workmen from the top of the eminence, it is difficult to imagine how they could have been hewn at all. It is proper to observe, that at Bámún there are none of the structures now familiarly known to us as topes, and which are so abundant in the regions east and west of the Indus; and their absence might suggest the idea that they were a later mode of distinguishing departed royalty, and originated at the period when the Mithraic and Buddhist practices became mixed. Such a conclusion might be convenient for adjusting that epoch, and to sanction it, the whole mass of Afghán topes might be adduced as proofs, exhibiting the chaitya and the cave: but there is no reason to suppose the chaitya exclusively a Buddhist form, and topes are not irreconcileable with the mode of commemorating Persian monarchs—if the monu-
ment at Murgháb, north of Persepolis, be really the cenotaph of Cyrus, it being nothing but a chaitya or dahgopa; and we hesitate to believe it not to be the tomb of Cyrus, having the hints of Arrian and Aris-
tobulus, and the interpretation of an inscription (we believe found on some contiguous monument, which renders the subject doubtful) by Professor Grotefend. Moreover, if it be, we may inquire, where are the dahgopes of the successors of Cyrus?

The most ancient of the topes of Afghánistán, which have been yet examined, we think may be referred to the close of the first or commence-
cement of the second century of the Christian era. While we suppose that Bámín may be the burial-place of a dynasty of kings, we mean not to infer that it was also their capital, rather supposing that it was not—although the comparatively recent Ghálgáleh may, nevertheless, be supposed to have been the representative of a preceed-
ing ancient and considerable city. The Paropámisus had been, pre-
vious to the conjectured period of the formation of the Bámín idols and caves, the seat of a considerable power,—that of the Pandava prince Subhág, whose son Gaj, the founder of Gajní (Ghuzí), lost his king-
dom to Euthydemus and his sons.

It has been usually conjectured that Bámín is the Drapsaca of Arrian, occurring in Alexander’s route from Bactra or Bulkh to Alex-
andria ad Caucasum. Drapsaca is called Drastoca by Ptolemy, which Wilford tells us is a substitute for the Sanscrit Drashatca, or “the stone city.” Admitting the etymology, we need not credit the ac-
companying assumption that “towns before were only assemblages of huts”—an assumption founded on the caves of Bámín being hewn, as indeed all caves are, in the rock—and thereby forming a stone city. If our preceding deductions be correct, they never, strictly speaking, formed a city at all; although one naturally, and as is proved by its remains, grew up and existed in their neighbourhood. Farther, if our con-
cclusions as to the epoch of the formation of the idols be well found-
ed, they consequently did not exist at the period of Alexander’s expe-
dition, which may account for no hints being given of them by the classical historians and geographers of the West. We are not certain therefore that Drapsaca was Bámín, or that a city existed there at all, admitting the probability that a valley so conveniently situated and fertile, was even at that time adequately peopled. The stone city was a term applicable to any substantial one. Timur in his march from Bulkh to India halted for some days, as Sherif-ú-dín says, at the “fine city” of Khúlm. This is an ancient site, and with Hybuk, Kunduz, and any other locality in the route, may have a claim to be considered Drapsaca. Bámín has also been suggested to represent
Alexandria ad Paropûmisum. The last word appears to be a careless introduction of the geographers for Caucasum. We believe it was not used by the original historians—excusable however, when we consider that the ancients deemed the Paropûmisus a continuation of Caucasus, and the passes of the hills between Cábul and Bâmiân, are to this day spoken of by the natives as passes of the Hindu Kosh, which, strictly speaking, they are not. Alexandria, it is clear, was built at the southern base of Caucasus, indications of its locality more fully answered by Ghurbond and Beghrám. Bâmiân may be termed south—but widely—of the true Hindu Kosh, and, we should think, has little pretension to be considered Alexandria ad Caucasum, beyond the doubtful one conferred by vicinity.

Examining the pretensions of Bâmiân to be considered in another point of view, as a sacred locality, implied perhaps by its being selected as the burial place of kings, we have Wilford’s authority, that it is represented in the books of the Buddhists as the source of holiness and purity. This may be of some value, as shewing that the same spot was held in the same venerated light by the followers of two religions generally understood to be very opposite; and as the antiquities are certainly Mithraic, we might draw the conclusion, that the Buddhists have appropriated the property of others, and that the books referring to Bâmiân are comparatively modern—or we may suspect that Buddhism was originally merely a modification of Mithraism. We judge it unnecessary to detail the Mahommedan traditions respecting Bâmiân, which ascribe, however, the idols to Sa’lsa’l, whom they generally assert to have been a giant infidel, first vanquished and then converted by Azaret Ali; nor need the Buddhist and Brahmanical traditions be noted, with a view to comment, which consider Sharma or the patriarch Shem to be the founder of Bâmiân,—because we have no proof that he was, or was not;—but when a writer so talented as Wilford asserts with apparent gravity, that Bâmiân is the Mosaic Eden, it may be useful to review the grounds on which he bases his opinion and makes an assertion so singular. He is compelled to recognize in the Landhi Sind Helmend, the rivers of Kundus and Balkh, the Phison, Gihon, Frat and Hiddekel of the Mosaic accounts—but it is plain that he depends upon the statements of the Purânas and Zendavesta. The former contain so many evidences of modern composition, that they surely ought not to be brought into competition or comparison with records of high antiquity, as are acknowledged to be those of the Pentateuch. The age of the Zendavesta has been much disputed, some conceiving it of unfathomable antiquity; others, among whom is our countryman Hyde, ascribing it to the epoch of Darius
Hystaspes; while others have deemed it of comparatively modern origin. We are free to confess that we espouse the latter opinion, and the very passages cited in favor of its remote age, we think, are decisive against it. We advert to this subject the more willingly, because we cannot help suspecting the possibility, that the Zendavesta was compiled in the court of the sovereigns commemorated at Bamian.

It is worthy of note, that the Brahmans, Buddhists and Mithraists have the same ideas as to the locality of paradise, shewing that they must have acquired them from each other, or from some common source. It is not improbable that the two first adopted them from the last, and it may be conjectured, though it will tell little for the antiquity of the Zendavesta, that Bamian may have been clothed with a sacred character, from the very circumstance of its having been made a burial-place of kings—for so the Zendavesta itself commemorates, when it describes Gorotman (Bamian or its vicinity) as a terrestrial paradise, and reveals its nature when it figuratively and significantly adds, "the abode of the Supreme Being and the Blessed." There can be no doubt but that the larger idol of Bamian is also the more ancient, and with its accompanying caves became the nucleus, around which all the other caves and idols were subsequently and successively formed; and it is a fair inference that, prior to the construction of the first idol, there was no burial place of kings at Bamian, and none worthy of emphatic panegyrism by the author of the Zendavesta.

The remote antiquity conferred by some antiquarians upon the Zendavesta is not claimed by its author; and why he should be called Zoroaster who called himself Zerdeshdt, is only to be accounted for by the desire of theorists to identify him with a celebrated person of that name, who existed, according to authentic history, some centuries before him. Zerdeshdt so clearly narrates the details of his career, that it is impossible to misunderstand them, and they cannot be more correctly or more concisely represented than in the elegant language of Professor Herren, one of the most able advocates of the impenetrable antiquity of the Zendavesta. The Professor writes—"The works of Zoroaster (Zerdeshdt) abound in details relating to his own person, as well as the countries and kingdom, which were the first scene of his career as a reformer. He proves by the clearest geographical data, that his native country was Northern Media, Azerbijan, or the territory between the river Kur or Cyrus and the Araxes, both of which empty themselves into the Caspian. Here he first appeared as a legislator and a reformer; but soon quitting this district, he passed into the countries east of the Caspian into Bactra, the residence
of king Gustasp, who became his disciple and admirer. The original seat therefore of his new religion or doctrine was Bactra, whence (under the protection of Gustasp) it was disseminated over Iran."

Zerdesht, in giving the name of the sovereign of Bactra, his patron, possibly gives that of one of the sovereigns commemorated at Bamian. If it be so, we may associate with him Lohrasp his predecessor, and it is deserving of particular notice that the romantic history of Persia ascribes to Lohrasp the construction of a hermitage, to which he retired, abdicating his throne in favor of Gustasp, and from which he was called forth to repel an invasion upon Balkh, (Gustasp being absent at the time in Seistan,) when he fell in battle. We perhaps gain from this history a hint as to the origin of the caves and idols of Bamian. Having coins with legends, which it is not too much to hope may be interpreted, we may ultimately ascertain these facts, when we shall be afforded triumphant evidence of the age of the Zendavesta; and it is cheering to reflect that records are preserved of these kings independent of the Zendavesta, itself a most important and valuable one. These records are within our reach, and we have only to distinguish fiction from reality, and history from romance, to acquire a full and satisfactory knowledge of a hitherto dark period.

Zerdesht has accurately described the extent and partitions of the kingdom in which he lived, as justly observed by Professor Heeren, and what he describes we shall allow the Professor also to state for us. "The opening of his Vendidad contains a catalogue of the provinces and principal cities of that kingdom; and this record, so invaluable to the historian, is so clear and complete as to leave no room for doubt. The chief provinces and places, sixteen in number, are registered according to their oriental appellations, and for the most part are easily to be recognized. We learn hence that, except Azerbijan, to the west of the Caspian, all the countries east of the same, as far as northern Hindustan, were, together with the latter country, subject to king Gustasp, at whose court the sage resided. The whole of Khurasan is here enumerated, with the several provinces of which it is composed—Bactriana and Sogdiana, Aria or Sehestan, Cabul, Arokhage, the confines of Hindustan, and finally Lahore in the Panjáb, are all successively mentioned."

The record of Zerdesht is indeed historically valuable, and describes the extended empire of Bactria as it probably existed under Eucratides, and as it may possibly have fallen into the hands of the Kianians—in many of the countries as we know, and very probably in all of them, are found their coins and memorials. It will be re-
membered that Ariana or Khorasan, formed a portion of the Bactrian empire, as recorded by Strabo. Professor Heeren remarks—"Nothing, however, is said of the two chief provinces of the Persian empire, Persis and Susiana, nor of their capitals, Persepolis and Susa, nor of Babylon, which, nevertheless, were the customary residences of the kings of Persia, and in particular of Darius Hystaspis." So remarkable an omission will cease to surprise, when probably at the epoch of Zerdesht, we may suspect those provinces, and also Babylon, were under the rule of the Arsakian princes—and therefore could not be enumerated by him as forming part of the kingdom of Gustasp. They were also under the spiritual influence of those false Magi, in the estimation of Zerdesht, against whom he is so severe, and whom he stigmatizes a kafraaster—a term for infidel preserved by Muhammadans of this-day in kafr. The possible fact of a powerful independent monarchy in Bactria subsequent to the Greek one, gives rise to many singular reflections on the probable relative position it occupied with respect to the Arsakian: and we may divine other reasons besides those already known, which induced some of the latter Arsakian princes to fix their capital at Babylon, or rather Ctesiphon. We feel, however, that the time has not arrived for delicate speculations, neither can we venture to fix with certainty the epoch of the Kaianian monarch, but we do feel confident that materials exist to fix it,—and we do cherish the hope that it is possible to destroy that flagrant monster of fiction and prodigy of national vanity, Persian history. If the Lohrasps and Gustasps prove to be Bactrian monarchs, as indeed Zerdesht tells us they are, we may ask whether Queen Homai may not be Semiramis, and Rustam may turn out to have flourished a little before the age of Muhammad. The same sources of information are open to us, as were to Shah Ismael when he wrote to Shreibani Khan, "That if the right of succession to a throne was decided by hereditary descent only, it was to him incomprehensible how the empire had descended through the various dynasties of Peshdians, Kaiániants and the family of Chengis to himself Shreibani."

As for the Zendavesta, however, it may be admitted that a Zerdesht flourished in the reign of Gustasp. It is by no means certain that that work as now preserved was written by him; on the contrary, the dialect in which it is written, would seem to be proof that it was not—for it must assuredly be the most recent of all the dialects of the Pehlevi—if Pehlevi at all; and accordingly on reference to coins, we discover the first traces of it on the very last of that series, (whether Sassanian or Peshdadian) which bears them, and then not in the legends of the coins, but as marks manifestly punched on them after they had been in circulation!
We submit these notes on the idols of Bamián, with the observations occasioned by them, in all due humility—and furnish the authorities in the inscription, figures, and coins, on which we have based our conjectures, that others may judge how far they may be correct; and it must be noted that the coins which bear legends in the characters of the Bamián inscription, do appear to us at least to be the most recent of the class to which they belong. This we consider rather fortunate than otherwise; for if they are still Kaianian or Pesh-dadian, we may be able to find other caves and hermitages for Lohrasp and Gustasp—it being remembered that we are yet standing only on the threshold of discovery.

Kabul, June, 1836.

IV.—New types of Bactrian and Indo-Scythic Coins, engraved as Plate XLIX. By James Prinsep, Sec. &c.

I did not expect to be again so soon summoned to resume the graver in the department of Bactrian medals; but to do so when such novel and interesting specimens are handed to me, is no less an obligation than a pleasure.

The two main attractions of my present plate are represented with scrupulous regard to fidelity, from the coins themselves, which were entrusted to me for the purpose by their fortunate possessors, as soon as they were discovered.

No. 1 is an unique of Amyntas, a name entirely new to Bactria; it is a square coin of bronze lately procured by Colonel Stacy from the Panjdb, in excellent preservation.

Obverse. Bust of the prince wearing a curious cap, which may possibly represent the head of an elephant, but from the worn surface cannot exactly be made out—legend on three sides of the square, ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΝΙΚΑΤΟΡΟΣ ΑΜΣΝΤ (ov).

Reverse. A standing figure of Minerva, with helmet, shield and spear—her right hand extended in token of peace. Square monograms Κ. Legend in Bactro-Pehlevi Προβεροειειονειον; quasi, malakio ojalade amido. It will be at once perceived that the native epithet corresponding to νικατορος is the same as that for νικινιοροου on the coin of Archelius published in my September number, (page 548,) and before on the coins of Antialkides and Antimachus, with exception only of the first letter. The word was there read ΠΙΛΑΝ; the initial ι a being substituted for ι, or broad α of the Archelius and Amyntas coins. The third letter in those cases is also rather an ι.
Bactrian Coins.
The value of $l$, of which the value is as yet unknown. I have called it $l$
ad interim.

Fig. 2 is, if possible, a more valuable acquisition than the above, being the first queen of Bactria yet discovered. Dr. Swinney ob-tained the coin among Keramati Ali's collection. It was thickly coated with the rust of ages, and, from the helmeted head on the obverse, was looked upon as a Menander, until the Doctor set about cleaning it carefully with a hard brush, and, perceiving a variation of the legend, shewed it to Captain Cunningham, who immediately recognized with a feeling of intense curiosity the undoubted title of a female sovereign BaziapEux THEOTPON (ης) ATAOEKAIAX—"of the queen Agathoclea, the god-nourisher." This very curious epithet THEOTPON, a word not to be found in the lexicon, must have been coined on purpose for the queen-mother, after the oriental style of flattery, in allusion to her royal offspring.

Reverse. Hercules seated on a rock (or a morha), resting his club on his right knee—monogram Ψ. The Pehlevi legend is most unfor-tunately so indistinct in one or two places, as to preclude the possi-bility of our making out the true reading. The first word seems to differ in no way from the ordinary ῥαδακό, king: and the second would appear to be ῥαδάκο, σωρηπος; then follow two short words ῥοθοί which I am totally at a loss to expound, though the individual letters are clear enough.

To these two uniques I have subjoined some new types of Euthy-demus, Menander, and Eucratides, which have not yet been engrave-d, though some have appeared in the lithographs of Masson's drawings.

Fig. 3. A silver tetradrachm of Euthydemus, now in Dr. Swinney's cabinet, having a standing Hercules on the reverse, in lieu of the seated figure. The coin must have been originally very beautiful, but we learn from the memorandum of Keramati Ali, who purchased it at Cabul, that it was taken to Dr. Gerard, who deemed it spurious or not silver*; this induced the vender to put it in the fire (cased in clay) to ascertain the fact, and the smoothness of surface, and clear-ness of outline were thus destroyed. The beaux restes are still suffi-cient to excite admiration.

Fig. 4 is from Masson's drawing of a small copper piece of Euthydemus. The reverse has a naked horse prancing. Legend as usual, BAZILANΣ ETOAHMOT. Masson has another similar, but larger.

* Probably it was covered with a coat of muriate, like my Euthydemus.
Fig. 5. A square copper coin of Menander, procured by Dr. Swiney at Agra; in good preservation.

Obverse, the usual helmeted head with the legend BAΣΙΑΕΛΣ ΣΩΘΠΟΣ MENANΑΠΟΤ.

Reverse, the circular shield of Minerva with Medusa's head: the features of the face only worn smooth: legend in Pehlevi ΠΗΛΩ ΠΗΡΩΡ ΠΗΝΩΤ.

Fig. 6, from Masson. The reverse here presents the bird of Minerva, so common on the Athenian coins; in all other respects the coin is similar to the last.

Fig. 7. Obverse of a smaller copper coin from Masson. In the centre is a wheel with eight spokes, distinctly so delineated, otherwise we might have supposed it the shield with Medusa's head; the Greek legend surrounds it. The reverse is the same as that of fig. 9.

Fig. 8. In this larger square copper coin Mr. Masson gives, as a new reverse, a dolphin; but from the appearance of the sketch it is possible that the original may have been an elephant's head—a common device on Menander's coins.

Fig. 9. On this the sovereign's portrait is replaced by a boar's head according to Mr. Masson's sketch, and on the reverse is a simple feather or palm branch: monogram H—legends Greek and Pehlevi as usual.

Figs. 10 and 11. Two specimens from Masson's collections, one silver, one copper, to shew that the coins of Eucratides sometimes bore the emblem peculiar to Antialkides*, two conical beehives and two feathers or palm branches.

Fig. 12. An addition to our Indo-Scythic group of the elephant rider, or Kenranos. Col. Stacy has just obtained four from the Panjāb; all evidently from the same die, but not one containing the legend complete. To save space I have filled it up from the united specimens, and there can be no doubt of a single letter, barbarous as the context appears. Obverse. Rāja astride on a small elephant, legend (commencing from the right of the head) ΟΛΩΗ ΟΙΑΡΟΛΗΙΑΗΡΩΑΙΗ, of which nothing can be imagined but a barbarous attempt at BAΣΙΑΕΛΣ ΒΑΣΙΑΕΝΣ ΣΩΘΠΟΣ, the syllables IA, ΣΩ, or AN, and PO being the only happy conjunctions seized by the ignorant die-cutter.

On the reverse the standing figure of ΑΘΠΟ is depicted, with the common monogram, but the legend differs; being ΑΟΗ, or inverted

* This name has hitherto been always written (on Masson's authority) Antilakides. M. Jacquet corrected it from the Ventura coins, and on re-examination of the silver coin in Dr. Swiney's possession, his reading is corroborated. It also corresponds better with the Pehlevi which is ΠΒΡΗΗΥΗ quasi, all-atikudo.
HOV. The same is met with on one of the couch-lounger coins extracted from the Manikyála tope, (see fig. 29, Pl. xxii. Vol. III.) It may possibly be a perversion of the tri-literal MAO. But the horns of the moon do not appear on the shoulders.

Fig. 13. A rare and valuable variety of the Kenranos coin in Dr. Swiney's cabinet, of which Captain Cunningham has a less perfect duplicate; the obverse legend, hardly legible, must be PAONANO PAO, &c. The reverse has the standing female figure with the horn of plenty, and legend APÄOXPO, as on the gold coins of the same device.

Fig. 14 should have been introduced in my last plate, among what I have supposed the fourth series of APÄOKPO imitations. This coin, of which Dr. Swiney possesses several equally legible, has the legend APÄOXPO quite distinct, proving that this group must be regarded, not as an imitation but as the direct descendant of the Mi-thraic series in the Kanerkan line. The appearance of Nágari on one of my coins must be regarded therefore as Greek. It is curious that Masson should not have detected a single letter on all the specimens he amassed. Some faint remains of them are traceable on those from Behat.

Fig. 15 is a duplicate of Masson's coin, fig. 15, of my last Bactrian plate, in Dr. Swiney's possession. A few of the Pehlevi characters are better made out, but the proprietor of this coin still eludes us.

Figs. 16, 17, 18. I terminate this plate with three coins of Kôdes in Capt. Cunningham's cabinet purchased from the late General Arnold's collection, of an entirely new reverse. They are all of silver, deeply indented to throw the head out. The letters KΩΔ. are visible on the smallest of the three, which is otherwise of the best execution. The horse's head of the reverse gradually deteriorates until it can be no longer recognized (as in 18) without the earlier coins as objects of comparison. On cleaning one of my Kôdes coins, it was found likewise to have the horse's head reverse; and the horse has been since traced to the Chouka Dooka, or degraded Saurashtra series, in some specimens also purchased from the estate of the late General Arnold.

Postscript. I cannot delay one moment announcing a very successful reading by Professor Lassen of Bonn, of the native legend on the coin of Agathocles depicted in Vol. III. Pl. ix. fig. 17, by Masson, and again engraved last month as fig. 9 of Pl. XXXV. The following is an extract from the Professor's letter this moment received. "The legend on the coin of Agathocles, is in my opinion, in another character, and I think we may recognize in ΗΛΘΛΕ
the letters स्मायज्ञराज, Agathukla rāja, reading from the left to the right. The first two letters are self-evident—the third is similar enough to the Tibetan and Pāli forms of th with u below: the fourth letter expresses kl quite in the Indian manner. If I am right in this, it will be necessary to give to Agathocles a very different position from that assigned to him by Mr. Raoul Rochette."

The principal objection to this highly plausible solution of the Agathoclean legend is, that nearly the same characters also appear on the coins of Pantaleon. There are differences to be sure, and it might be possible to assimilate the word to the Greek, on the supposition of the first syllable being wanting—thus अो will form .. talava or .. talao... the next letter on Masson’s coin is a ε, j, and on Dr. Swiney’s a t or n, but on both coins there are three letters to the left of the female which still remain an enigma.

I have also just had the opportunity of perusing M. Jacquet’s first paper on the Ventura coins, but as this merely enumerates their Greek legends, postponing the consideration of the Bactro-Pehlevi, there is nothing in alteration or correction of my own list excepting the termination of some of the names, Kodes, Lysias, Vonones (? ) for Nonus, Azes, &c. M. Jacquet had remarked the connection of the Hindu coins with their Indo-Scythic prototype when examining Col. Tod’s collection, but had not published his sentiments.

V.—Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions, lithographed. By James Prinsep, Sec. &c.

[Continued from page 661.]

Stone Slabs in the Society’s Museum.

Many of the inscriptions in our Museum bear no record, either of the places whence they come, or of their respective donors. Unless therefore they contain in themselves such information as may supply a clue to their origin, the greater part of their value is lost. Publication may in some cases lead to their recognition, and this is one of my motives for including them in my present series of lithographs; a stronger motive is, the example they furnish of the variation of Devanāgari character prevalent at different epochs; which it is desirable to place in an accessible position for reference, before we can undertake a comprehensive review of the palæography of India.

The inscription, marked No. 5, in the Museum (Pl. XXXIII.) is neatly cut on a stone, about 2½ feet long by 1½ feet broad. It is nearly in the same character as that of the Shekawati inscription, pub-
lished in my last volume. There are, however, some peculiar forms, as the \( kh \), the \( gh \), the \( a \), &c. Hardly any of the letters in the whole inscription can be regarded as uncertain; I have had therefore, no difficulty whatever in preparing the following transcript in modern Devanagari. But as to the interpretation, after receiving a formal certificate from the pandits of the College that, with exception of the verses at the commencement and conclusion, the body of the inscription was not Sanscrit, or was so ungrammatical as to be quite unintelligible, it may be conceived that I was somewhat staggered! However, on conning it over word by word, with a pandit better versed in the out-of-the-way terms employed, the general drift was readily made out, although the connection in many parts still remained broken, and the sense doubtful. As there is neither date nor allusion to any reigning monarch, the fragment is of no historical value; but it may be a curious study for the Sanscrit scholar.

Transcript in modern Devanagari character.

\[\text{Translation.}\]

Salutation to the divine son of Vasu Deva, (Krishna.) We adore with becoming reverence Nārāyana, lord of lords, creator of the three worlds, source of the holy precepts of the vedas, whose praise is beyond speech and thought.—For the abode of the eternal \(^1\) day by day the pious offer up lamps of oil; of saffron \(^2\) and asafetida four

\* This should be श्री.  
\^ A Vaishnavi temple so called.  
\(^1\) Kunkun-drdma; the whole of this passage is very obscure, and full of orthographical errors.
Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions.  

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pans*: of incense, dron flowers, ghee, amalika (myrobalan fruit) a sêr weight; masuri pulse, a sêr; of dry-wood perfume (indan); davaha (?), 16 pans.—(Here follows apparently an enumeration of landed property belonging to the temple or Vishnu-khêtram)—Allagamarika (?) a road.—Upa allaka, a small village, with a good tank having four pucka ghâts. They say on the south is a bar tree; on the east a boundary wall; on the north the wall of Upallika village; on the west a bazar and old tank, where is also a wall. Between the bar and a great many mango trees are 13 ketakî trees. Also hard by, a well with a cattle-trough attached. On two sides of the bar tree a chabutra is built, on the west a boundary wall: farther off to the south, a tamarind tree, on the south and west are two roads, and a police chaunki; further on a drinking trough. On the north of the tamarind tree, half a trough; item two rows (shops) built by Lokika; whose son, named Mitrata, built a row, a cistern, and a handsome dharmaîla. Another lane also, two houses and four bazars, for the Vishnu-khêtra, bounded to the west by several large hills,—four mauwa trees, two pottery and distiller's shops (?) were severally given by Siva Hari, another son. (Verse.) Whatever has been thus presented to Vishnu, may they for ever hold sacred; and let nobody abstract the house, the bazars, (300 ?) nor the numerous trees.

Seoni grant, Plate XXIII. et seq.

For this ancient document I am indebted to Mr. D. M. McLeod, assistant to the Commissioner of the Nerbudda territories, who stated, on sending me a copy of the first plate, some months ago, that it was one of five in the possession of a native zamindar in the Seoni district, supposed to be a jata or sanad confirming lands granted by former Goand chiefs, but wholly illegible to the pandits of the Nerbudda district. Recognizing the character as identical with that of the Chhattisgarh inscriptions, published by Mr. Wilson in the Asiatic Researches, vol. xv. page 507, I supplied Mr. McLeod with this alphabet and with a transcript of the plate in modern Nâgarî, of which the sense, however, could not be wholly made out for want of the context. Through absence of leisure, and illness of his pandit, the discoverer has been obliged to relinquish his laudable desire to decipher the document on the spot, (where he might, doubtless, have been aided by the names of the countries and villages mentioned in the grant,) and to entrust a faithful copy of the remainder, made with great care by his young native friend Mir Jâpir Ali, (who has performed his task remarkably well,) to our more hazardous attempts in Calcutta.

* 8 Tolas. † Pandanus odoratissimus. ‡ Bhath.
Fifth Plate.

Inscription on the Seal.

Letters peculiar in form.

J. Princep lith.

Printed at the Oriental Lit. Press, Calcutta
One of 5 Copper Plates in possession of a zamindar at Seoni.

Second Inscription from Chunar, in As. Soc. Museum.

Chattisgarh Alphabet, compared.
Second Plate of the Seoni Grant.

Third Plate, one side.
Received only within the last week, I have been so hurried in transcribing, translating, and lithographing, that I fear full justice has not been done. The order of the plates having been lost by taking them from their binding ring, I had to guess it from the connection of the reading—and on revising the first translation, with the aid of a second learned pandit (Kamala Kant), I found I had inverted the order of the two sides of the second plate in the lithograph, which I was unable to correct, before printing it off. I have also omitted the first syllable sthā of sthanē where this word is repeated in the first page of the lithograph. The rest is, I believe, pretty correct.

The character in which the Seoni plates are written, when deprived of the open parallelogram at the head of each letter, is so closely allied to No. 2 of the Allahabad lāth, that there could have been but little difficulty in deciphering it, even without the aid of Sri Varma Suri's alphabet, which Mr. Wilson seems from his words to have applied with considerable distrust at that period*. There are indeed notable deviations from the Chattisgarh type† in several letters, as well as invariably in the application of the vowels. I had inserted Varma Suri's alphabet in Plate XXXIII. with a few variations marked. I have now further noted some of the chief peculiarities at the foot of the last plate.

Concerning the purport of the inscription little need be said. It is an ordinary grant by one Rāja Pravara Sena, of a piece of ground in a conquered district to his officiating priest, in perpetuity:—but neither the country nor the boundary villages mentioned, nor any of the said Rāja's family can be recognized! The dynasties of Cuttack, the nearest resembling Vākitaka in sound, exhibit no such names as Pravara Sena, Rudra Sena, Prithivi Sena, Rudra Sena; and again Pravara Sena, who successively reigned over this unknown province. That they were of an inferior grade is shewn by their simple title of Maharāja, while Deva Gupta, whose daughter was married to one of the line, and was mother to Rudra Sena II. is styled the paramount sovereign (Maharāja Adhiraşu). This is the second instance within a year of our finding the record of a matrimonial alliance with a Gupta family, which we can suppose to be no other than the one now so well known to us through coins and pillars. The present name Deva Gupta, however, is an addition to our still growing catalogue.

* "After two months the pandit was again called on without previous notice or preparation to read his copy of the original, whilst his reading was checked by careful reference to the Devanāgarī transcript." As. Res. XV. 507.
† M. Jacquet has sent me from Paris the facsimile of a plate in the Tod collection, which corresponds more closely with the Chattisgarh plates.
What would have added still more to the value of the present document, is the exact date it cites, were it not unfortunately in an unknown era, entitled Pravardhamánarajya Samvat: it may, however, bear the interpretation of "date of the growing (or current) reign" which I have adopted in the translation. At any rate, the omission of the now common dates in all these early records proves that the Vikramádiyá Samvat was not then generally in use.

The omission of a benedictory invocation at the head of the inscription is a curious circumstance also noted in the Chattisgarh grant. The initial word Drísthamasi, may possibly be equivalent to "Take heed"— or "By these presents." Some of the epithets, especially those applied to the piece of ground, are too far-fetched even for a guess solution by Kamalà Kánt and Ram Govinda, whose ingenuity has good reason to be admired even in those I have attempted to render into English. They refer to practices of petty exaction not uncommon among feudal chieftains.

Transcript of the inscription in modern character.

On the seal...
1836.

Facsimiles of various Ancient Inscriptions.

Translation.

Of the seal. The irresistible edict (sásanam) of the illustrious prince of hereditary lineage, the ornament of Vákóta, Rája Pravara Sena.

Of the copper plates. Drishtamasi nama*. The illustrious Maharája Pravara Sena of the race of Vishnu-rudra the rishi, performer of the several sacrifices of Agnishtoma, Aptoryamekta, Shorasyatiratra, Vájapé, Vishpati, Sadyaskra, and the Chaturvasamédeha, ruled over the entire (province of) Vákóta. In his place (succeeded) the superlative lord, devoted to Bhairava—happy in being the vehicle of the moon-like† Siva—linga,—the great king of Vákóta, Sri Rudra Sena, grandson of Gotamí, the daughter of the great king Bhavana’ga‡ who was descended from a race of conquerors entitled to be inaugurated with the unsullied water of Bhagirathi, (the Ganges,) and who had bathed in the sanctified water of the Dassavamédeha sacrifice,—the Bharasiva race. To him succeeded the diligent worshipper of Mahésvarás, the just, upright, benevolent, brave, heroic, moral, humble, high-minded, strict in religious observances, victorious through faith, of a soul free from blemish,—endowed with all these virtues;—(who was) blessed with a century’s store

* This might possibly be an invocation in the usual form, but no divinity of the name of Drishtamasi, of which the letters are quite distinct, is known.
† White. The epithet signifies a devoted worshipper of Siva.
‡ Or Bhavanátha? § Siva.
of treasures, of the benefits of civil polity, of warlike armament, of children and grand-children—who was as celebrated as Yuddhisthira, the great prince of Vâkapûra, Sûryâ Bhastra. To whom succeeded, the protected of the discus-holding divinity, the most opulent Maharâja of Vâkapûra Sri Rudra Sena;—who was followed by the son of Prabhavati' Gupta', the daughter of the conformer to ancestral customs—the upright conqueror of his enemies—The great king of kings Sri Deva Gupta,—the protected of Siva,—possessing the firmness of the Râjas of the Satya yuga,—surpassing all of the race of Vâkapûra princes, Maharâja Sri Pravara Sena; whose edict is (as follows.)—

Ernna Kâryavaradat...in the 18th year of his reign on the 12th day of the light half of the month of Phalgun, to Deva Sarma Chârîya, chanter of the Sâma veda, of the Modgula tribe, and Taitriya sect, is granted with the ceremonies of sprinkling Ganges water, Kârata, and distribution of 100 pans,—the village of Brahmapura, situated to the north of Vatapûra, to the west of Kinauki-vâtak to the south of Pavarajja-vatâk, and to the east of Kolapuru; demarked by these several boundaries, and seated on the banks of Karanja rivulet.

Be it known to all our subjects, our functionaries, and agents, to all obedient ryots now and hereafter, soldiery, spies—That with the usual intent of such grants, for the increase of our virtue, life, power, wealth, and prosperity, here and hereafter, as well as for the divine favor; in the holy district recently conquered by us, (the said village is bestowed) free from military-billeting where the râja's deer and cattle shall not graze—subject to provide flowers and milk. Where shall be neither spy, nor royal-chair, nor magazine in which the inhabitants shall not be liable to begar or forced labour;—along with its buried treasures and such like:—and with all its stock and the like;—as long as the sun and moon shall endure, to be enjoyed by him, his sons and descendants. Let none prevent or oppose; but defend (his possession)—and let him enjoy all increase by cultivation. Whoever shall disobey this order, or make encroachment or abstraction by himself or through others, shall be liable to fine or punishment before the judicial authorities.

Written by the pandit of the general Bappa Deva in this court of justice (Dharmadikaranâ). Whatever pious fame has accrued to princes

* Vishnu. † The sense of this passage is obscure—one pandit by alteration to would make it express "at a solar eclipse"—a common period for dating similar documents.

† Pravardhaman rājya Samrat? § Bhartas chhâhôrâscha.

† Avatacchhatraprâvâsya—all the succeeding epithets laudatory of the jagir are equally far-fetched and obscure.

** Apâramparagobalivaridhah. †† Apashpakshtasandoha.

†† Achârâsanaarmangara (for agara). It was customary with râjas to keep an A'san or throne, a spy and armour at each village.

§§ Alivanatlinvakrenidhanatra? Sarvanishhti-parihara parihrita?
of yore from similar acts should be remembered, and those who come hereafter should uphold them—(?). The holy Vyās has the following two verses to this effect:

"He who bestoweth land on brahmans shall enjoy 60000 years’ happiness in heaven; and he who resumeth it shall abide an equal term in hell. If he take away either by himself or by others, his sin is equal to that of the slaughter of a hundred thousand cows."

**Inscription No. 6, of the Asiatic Society’s Museum.**

I have inserted this inscription in my series because it possesses an exact date, and because the original was not given in facsimile by Mr. Colebrooke when he transcribed its contents in his notice of various inscriptions in the ninth vol. of the Researches, page 433. There are, moreover, several letters misread in that copy from an imperfect acquaintance with the changes they have undergone in the course of ages: of these the bh is the most prominent, being taken from an s*.

The Śārnāth inscriptions of the same century have taught us its real value.

Still with these emendations the context hardly bears complete explanation, though the general object is clear. It states that in **Samvat 1093 (A. D. 1035)** on the 1st of the light half of Asādh, the paramount sovereign Yaso Pāla of Kota at the village of Payahāsa in the kingdom of Kausambhī (or Delhi) issues commands to the principal persons... The following is the transcript as recompared with the original on the stone.

**Śāmnat 1093 आशाप ब्रह्मदि 9**

चिवेह श्री सत्के श्रीराजाधिराजब्रह्माण्डवम्‌ प्रत्यासाध्यानि श्रीराजां

cṣa sugāla cṣa sugāla mūnisaśādāṇि यथापरंश्चेत्काशास्त्रकृष्णविद्या

शासनलं प्रत्यासाध्यानि मलभाम

भोजकरिष्णसमाधिकं संसारपत्यामिति दुर्धर्मेन सत्कग्रं भाष्ट्रं पेलाराम...

Inscriptions from Chunar.

The two fragments inserted in Plates XXXI. and XXXIII. were presented by Capt. Cunningham, along with the stone in more perfect preservation published in a former plate. All that can be said of either is, that as the name of Swa‘mi-ra‘Ja appears on one, they probably relate to similar objects described by the larger one, viz. the repairs of public buildings in the fort of Chunar.

The **Buddha gaya** inscription of Plate XXXIII. was alluded to in my last notice.

* The s of this character enabled me to read some Ceylon coins of the same century.

At the earliest period submitted to examination, and when the perianth scarcely exceeds half a line in length, the anthers are sessile and nearly perfectly formed. The cells, of which (as is perhaps the case in all bilocular anthers) there are four, contain a solid grumous semi-opaque mass, which is easily detached from the cell by slight pressure. This mass under a lens whose focal distance is one-twentieth of an inch, shews evident traces of cellularity, but the outlines of the cells are very faint. They are entirely filled with exceedingly minute granular matter. At a somewhat later period the cellularity of the mass is more obvious, but no separation of the component parts has taken place, and the cells are still entirely occupied by the granular matter.

When the perianth has attained the length of a line and a half, the mass will be found to have become externally of an orange colour, and traces of a proper enclosing membrane, the cells of which are extremely indistinctly marked, are now visible. The membrane appears to have no connection with the interior of the loculus. The cells composing the mass have undergone some separation. They consist of a hyaline membrane which appears to be of some thickness; it is generally of a globular form, but often attenuate at one or both ends. The granular molecular matter which originally filled the whole cavity of the cell, now occupies a portion only, and never appears to lose its spherical form. When the perianth is two lines long, the proper membrane of the mass has become more distinct; its cells contain a good deal of granular matter of a reddish orange colour. The cells of the mass have become more separated, but have otherwise undergone no change; the semi-opaque nucleus presents traces of division most frequently into four, often into three, and very rarely into two portions. The division is more distinct towards the circumference of each cell; it may be observed in the same mass in every stage, from the commencement of the dividing lines to their meeting in the centre. The smaller masses or nucelli resulting from this division are each enclosed in a proper cell, but as yet have undergone no separation.

In the next stage the perianth had increased two-thirds of a line in length; the mass presented externally the same appearance. The component cells had increased in size, and the divisions of the nucleus had in many cases undergone complete separation from each other,
and in all were separable by slight pressure. Each of these divisions is at this period a young grain of Pollen. On making their escape they leave their proper cells attached to the interior of the parent cell, which is hence divided into as many cells as there are divisions of the nucleus. The young grains are oblong-ovate, flattened on their contiguous or inner faces, and open along the centre throughout the whole length of their outer faces. They are even at this period reticulate, and have rather a papillose appearance; they are lined by an inner membrane in the form of a hyaline sac which bulges out slightly along the opening just mentioned.

When the perianth is three lines long, the grains of Pollen have undergone complete separation; no traces of their original envelopes being visible. They vary much in size, are rather opaque, minutely reticulate, and marked along one side by a longitudinal semi-transparent line, which indicates the situation of the original opening, now closed up by the inflection of its edges. Immersion in water produces scarcely any action on them. At a later period, the perianth measuring five lines in length, the grains are considerably increased in size. Immersion in water causes the inflected margins of the furrow to secede, until they become widely separate. Through this the inner membrane bulges out to a considerable extent.

Perianth about six lines in length: the Pollen is now perfectly formed; the grains vary much in size, the smaller being probably abortive, but they all undergo the same changes on immersion in water. This causes the outer coat to be pushed back by the expansion of the inner, which is now nearly filled with minute granular matter.

At the time of dehiscence of the anthers the grains vary much in size: the more perfect are lanceolate in outline, of an orange colour, distinctly reticulate or cellular, and open on one side along the centre. This, however, is perhaps to be attributed to the excessive moisture of the climate. Immersion in water causes the very rapid bulging out of the inner membrane, which pushes back, and at length nearly entirely off, the outer one. This is filled with minute granular matter, the fovilla and burst of the immersion is somewhat protracted.

Stigmatic action causes the production of a tube or boyau from the inner membrane, the head of which tube continues to be covered partially by the outer coat.

This instance is interesting as an example of the development of Pollen by the division of an originally simple nucleus and of perfect and almost spontaneous separation of the outer coat, and lastly as...
pointing out clearly the nature of the longitudinal furrows of such common occurrence in the ordinary forms of Pollen.

In the two other instances which I have selected as demonstrations, the steps are much the same. Care must be taken not to confound the appearance presented by the Pollen of *Luffia foetida* at a late period of its development, and which evidently arises from the strong inflection of the outer membrane, with that occasioned by the much earlier dividing process.

In *Hedychium* I have been unable to examine the development at a sufficiently early period, but it appears to me the divisions of the original or parent cell form the outer coats of the subsequent grains of Pollen: this is certainly not usually the case. The Pollen of this plant is remarkably simple, for it is neither provided with furrows nor apparent pores.

The inner coat,—for I am disposed to believe that it has one,—adheres strongly to the outer, and none of the ordinary means are sufficient to ensure its separation.

As I have, since a portion of the above was written, received numbers of the Annales des Sciences Naturelles for March and April 1835, in which occur extracts of considerable length from the writings of Mr. Hugo Mohl, who has published lately (1834) at full length on this important organ, it may not be amiss here to state the principal results to which this botanist has arrived; noticing, however, only those which relate to development and structure.

After pointing out that in by far the greater number of cases, the inner membrane, which contains the folvia, is enclosed in a second membrane, M. Mohl proceeds to a detailed account of the outer membrane. This is represented as being always finer than the inner, and as generally determining the form of the grain; and that it is to the liquid secreted by it that the colour and viscosity of the grain is to be attributed.

The punctuation which frequently exist in this membrane are supposed to be rudimentary cellules; hence the comparison of this coat to a simple cellule is altogether inexact; it should be considered as an organ composed of cellules or the rudiment of cellules, and a homogeneous uniting membrane, and hence it should be compared with compound membranes; such, for instance, as those of the ovule.

It is only in a small number of plants that this coat presents the form of a perfectly closed, continuous, sphaerical sac; in most cases it is either furnished with folds or pores, or both.

Up to the period of M. Mohl's publication nothing whatever was known of the nature, functions, or number of these folds; most bo-
tanists, so far at least as may be judged of from their descriptions, considering them to be solitary. M. Mohl remarks, that in monocotyledones they are generally single, but that in dicotyledones the number is generally increased, and occasionally exceeds twenty. The portion that is folded in has always a different structure from the remainder, and is generally smooth and transparent; and it rarely ever happens that in cellular Pollen the inflected portion is itself cellular. He supposes that in all cases the outer membrane forms a perfectly closed sac, although in some Pollen the inflected portion has more of a gelatinous than a membranous consistence, and is ruptured by immersion in water. The apparent pores visible in the Pollen of many plants, M. Mohl states to be in all cases covered over by a thin membrane—to the existence of this membrane over the larger pores he speaks positively. In those cases in which the membrane covering the pore separates in the form of an operculum, it is attenuated alone along the margin of function or continuation with the remainder of the outer coat. These statements accord with the author's views of the nature of the supposed pores of cellular tissue; views, however, which have not been generally received, and which in the case of cellular tissue are open to weighty objections. The inner membrane is represented as always having the same structure; it is always completely homogeneous, very thin, and hyaline, and always exists as a shut sac. It is particularly remarkable for the facility with which it absorbs water; this M. Mohl looks upon as a physical action and as attributable to endosmosis.

The production of tubes (boyaux) by immersion in water, (and which are prolongations in all cases, except perhaps in Coniferae, of the immediate covering of the fovilla) never takes place in those Pollens, the outer membrane of which is perfectly closed, or the folds or furrows of which are unprovided with pores. But in every Pollen they are produced by stigmatic action. The action likewise exerted on the grains by this portion of the female organ is more energetic than that of water, producing twelve or fifteen times the diameter of the grain; while the longest, M. Mohl observed, produced by the action of water only exceeded the grain in length once, or once and a half.

I may here state, that M. Mohl has understated the length of the tubes arising from stigmatic action. The length will depend upon the distance between the part of the stigma to which the grains are applied and the foramen of the ovulum to which they have to be applied. Thus, for example, in Zea mays, the length of the tubes must be enormous, since the style itself is about a span long. It may be
objected, that there is no proof of the universal necessity of the application of the tube to the foramen, or that portion of the ovulum corresponding to this. Still there is ample proof of this necessity in Asclepiadeae; and, as I have observed it in Solaneeae, Gentianaeae, Nelumboreae, and Leguminosae, I have no doubt that the application of the tube to the foramen is absolutely necessary to insure fecundation. And with regard to the length produced by the action of water, I have seen tubes produced from the grains of Pollen in a species of Impatiens, I believe the Impatiens tripetata of Roxburgh, exceeding six or eight times the long diameter of the grain; these tubes, however, never even after protracted immersion contained any granules. Their growth in the above instance may be actually watched, the apex of the tube creeping along with an excessively slow vermicular motion.

M. Mohl states, that Asclepiadeae alone have no outer membrane. The existence of this membrane as a distinct integument has been proved by Mr. Brown; although in almost all the species of this family, the outer coats are in a state of mutual adhesion*.

Conifera are said to have three coats; the intermediate one resembling the inner membrane of ordinary Pollen, especially in its great extensibility; in this property the innermost, although it has the ordinary structure of inner membranes of other Pollens, is deficient.

As I have mentioned before, this author considers the outer membrane as the secretary one, and he denies the possession of secretory powers by the papillae; an opinion stated to be advanced by Mr. Brown. M. Mohl proves that the secretion of oil is not limited to any papillosity of surface; of this Pardanthus Chinensis is an instance.

This botanist doubts the proper activity of the molecules or granules contained in the fovilla, and he adduces the authority of M. Fraunhofer as to the utter impossibility of preventing currents in liquids.

* I find that the cells of the anther of Oxystelma esculentum are at an extremely early period lined by a free simple sac containing irregular masses of opaque granular matter; soon after, this cell appears to be filled entirely with the granular matter, by which it is rendered somewhat turgid. In this state it is detachable with extreme difficulty. When the flower bud is two lines long, the mass has become cellular, and the granular matter correspondingly subdivided. The subsequent changes consist merely in the increase of size and consistency of the parts, and perhaps in the development of the inner membrane. We may hence be allowed to infer that the mass, from which all Pollen grains seem to be developed, is in Asclepiadeae reduced to a single cell: and that the grains are produced by its indefinite division. The only material objection to this view exists in the original cell itself entering into the composition of the grains of Pollen; and in its not disappearing, as appears to be generally the case.
Still I conceive it impossible to doubt the inherent mobility of these granules. In some oily Pollens granules may be observed by the sides of excessively minute drops of oil, certainly not exceeding the larger granules twice in diameter; and yet the granules will be seen in active motion, and the oil perfectly stationary. M. Mohl contradicts positively the curious fact advanced by M. Adolphe Brongniart, that the granules are in some plants of the same size. Of this I certainly have never met with an instance. He likewise doubts the curvature of some molecules; but as Mr. Brown and M. Brongniart speak positively on this point, I should prefer adopting their testimony.

It is, likewise, said, that the idea of the granules nourishing the tubes is untenable, and founded only on conjectures. But as it invariably happens that the longer the tube is the fewer the granules are, this opinion, which was I believe first indicated by the highest of all authorities, Mr. Brown, cannot be said to be destitute of foundation.

With regard to the development of Pollen, M. Mohl states that his observations entirely confirm those of M. Brongniart, and that the Pollen is formed from the granular matter contained in the cells of the parenchymatous mass, which exists in each cell of the anther. But although M. Brongniart certainly appears to have been the first to have observed the formation of pollen by division, yet his account in his “Memoire sur la generation et le developpement de l’embryon dans les vegetaux phanerogames,” is certainly not characterised by that precision which exists in the account of the development of the Pollen in *Tradescantia virginia* by Mr. Brown, and subsequently in that of *Cucurbita Pepo* by M. Mirbel.

This latter, indeed, was the first instance examined by M. Brongniart, who states that what are now known to be lines of division result from pressure. It still remains to be proved whether in any instance the formation takes place, as M. Brongniart says it does, in *Cucurbita Pepo*, by the cellules of the mass contained in the cavities of the anthers becoming directly grains of pollen. M. Mohl mentions many instances in which the quaternary division is resorted to; it is owing to the continuance of the original adhesion that the pollen of many plants is compound. The number, however, is not in every case thus limited: the generality of the species of *Mimosa, Acacia, Inga*, have pollen composed of sixteen cellules. But on the development of these no direct observations have as yet been given. The number of masses into which the originally simple nucleus may be divided, is almost as frequently three as four. Of the binary composition of the mature Pollen *Podostemon* affords the only instance as
yet known to me, but this may obviously arise as well from a quater-
nary as a binary division of the nucleus.

M. Mohl rejects very properly as highly improbable the opinion of
M. Brongniart, that the granules of the fovilla are secreted by some
part of the inner surface of the cells of the anther, and that they
reach their destination, the cavity of the inner membrane of each
grain, by absorption. It must, however, be remembered that M. Brongniart alludes to this mode of formation and transmission with
considerable doubt.

Lastly, M. Mohl notices the extreme similarity between the forma-
tion of the pollen and that of the sporules of the more developed
Cryptogamia. I am not aware who first pointed out this curious
analogy, which cannot well have escaped any one who has examined
both formations at a sufficiently early period. My first knowledge of
it is due to M. Mirbel, who pointed it out to me early in 1832*.

Explanation of the figures, Plate XLI.

1. Portion of a mass extracted from a loculus; perianth 1 line in length.
2. Ditto ditto; perianth 1¼ line in length.
3. Three of the component cells of a mass; perianth 1¾ line long.
4. Four similar cells more developed; perianth about 2 lines long.
5. Portion of a mass enveloped in its membrane, extracted from the cell of an
anther; perianth 2 lines in length.
5a. Two of the component cells detached.
6. Four of the cells detached; (perianth 2¾ lines long:) viewed in different
aspects:—from one, three nuclei have escaped, and the fourth is half exserted.

* Equisetaceae do not, as might be supposed from their late elevation into
an order of Gymnospermae, differ from the higher forms of Cryptogamia in the
development of their sporula. The spiral fibres, as might be expected, are of
comparatively late appearance, and they are developed on or in a loose mem-
branous coat, no traces of which are to be found until the sporula have assumed
their proper form. The fibres subsequently, and about the time of the de-
development of the fibres of the cells of the inner parietes of the capsules, become
free, the membrane to which they were attached remaining as an envelope to
the sporule, from which it subsequently becomes separable with facility. The
granules are of still later appearance.

To the correctness of the chief portions of the above statement I can speak
with tolerable confidence, but I only infer that the hyaline envelope of the per-
fert sporule is the mature state of the tunic, to which the spiral fibres are
originally attached.

There would hence appear to be no foundation whatever for the adoption of
the idea of the sexuality of Equisetaceae,—an idea very likely to meet with adva-
cates from its extreme ingenuity. The analogy of the fibres or supposed fila-
ments is to be looked for in the elaters, and of the tunic or envelope in the
tunic of the sporules of many Hepaticæ.
Sub-Himalayan Fossil Remains of Dūdāpur.

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6a. Lateral view of the nuclei or young grains of Pollen.
6b. Vertical view of ditto on its outer face.
7. Pollen immature: the perianth being 3 lines in length.
7a. Represents what was the inner face prior to the escape of the nucleus from the cell.
8. Pollen viewed variously; perianth 5 lines in length, shewing the various degrees of expansion of the fissure according to the length of immersion.

Plate XLII. A.

Pollen of Luffa fætida.
1. Portion of a mass extracted from one of the cells of an anther: flower-bud one and half line long.
2. Portion of a mass more advanced; the component cells adhering together firmly. Flower-bud about two lines long.
3. Cells of a mass more advanced: they cohere very slightly. Perianth two and half lines long.
4. The same submitted to slight pressure, shewing that each nucellus is contained in a separate cell.
5. Cells more advanced.
6. Pollen perfectly formed, but destitute of granules. Flower-bud about three and half lines long.
7. Three grains of Pollen considerably more developed; in the centre of each fold there exists a pore. Flower-bud four lines long.
8. Pollen: the folds have disappeared. Flower-bud five lines long.

All more or less magnified, and all examined in water.

Plate XLII. B.

Pollen of a species of Hedychium.

Fig. 1. Five original cells in various states of composition and cohesion. Perianth three lines long.
2. Grains of Pollen resulting from the complete separation of the above: an inner disc is visible at this period. One grain has burst by pressure.
3. Two grains of Pollen, one abortive. Perianth one inch long.
4. Perfect Pollen: one grain ruptured by pressure.

All more or less magnified, and all viewed in water.


QUADRUMANA.

Lyell, when combating the inconclusive evidence advanced in support of the theory of the progressive development of organic life, notices the absence of remains of quadrumanous species in a fossil state, and the hypothesis which this circumstance has by some geologists been considered to countenance. He, however, draws attention
to the fact, that the animals which are found in sub-aqueous deposits, are in general such as frequent marshes, rivers, or the borders of lakes, and that such as live in trees are very rarely discovered; he adds, moreover, that considerable progress must be made in ascertaining the contemporary pachydermata before it can be anticipated that skeletons of the quadrumanous tribes should occur. Considering the great number of relics assignable to the Pachydermata, Ruminantia, and Ferae, which the Sub-Himalayan field has produced, it is not therefore surprising that at length the half jaw of a quadrumanous animal should be brought to light: the circumstance, however, being interesting in several respects, we have not deferred its communication until further research should put us in possession of more perfect specimens; the chances are against the probability of more being brought in for some time—in the interval it may be as well at once to add to the Sub-Himalayan list of fossils one species belonging to the order of the quadruman.

The specimen in question was found in the hills near to the Sutlej, and it appears from the attached matrix to have been derived from a stratum very similar in composition to the one described as occurring at the Maginund deposit. The fragment consists of the right half of an upper jaw; the molars as to number are complete; but the first has lost some of its exterior enamel: and the fifth has likewise had a portion of the enamel from its hind side chipped off. The second and third molars are a good deal worn, and the state of the fourth and fifth such as to indicate that the animal was perfectly adult. The canine is small, but much mutilated, its insertion into the jaw and its section being all that is distinct.

From the inspection of the molar teeth, the order to which the animal belonged is sufficiently evident; but there is enough of the orbit remaining to afford additional and very satisfactory proof; the lower part of the orbit and the start of the zygomatic arch being very distinct, would alone remove all doubt from the subject; the orbits of the quadruman being peculiar and not easily to be confounded with those of other animals.

On comparison with the delineations of the dentition of this order of animals given by F. Cuvier, the fossil bears some resemblance to the genus Semnopithecus; the section of the canine and the form and size of the false molars are very similar to the exemplar taken by F. Cuvier from a head of the species Maurus, a species found in Java: had the drawing been taken from the Entellus, a species which inhabits India, the comparison would in this instance have been more
Sub Himalayan fossil Remains

fig. 1 nat. dim.

Quadruped

fig. 2

Baker des.  J. B. Hesp, 1846
satisfactory; the *Maurus* being chosen as the type, and no mention made of other difference except length of canines, the various species may be supposed to present no material departure from the type in form of molars. The third molar in the fossil is so much worn as not to admit of being compared with drawings from unworn teeth; the fourth is like that of the *Maurus*, but the fifth does not resemble the analogous molars of any of the existing species as represented by F. Cuvier, for the fossil tooth possesses a small interstitial point of enamel at the inner side, which does not appear to have place in any of those delineated. The incisors are absent, but the intermaxillary is clearly distinguishable.

Were it not for the size of the canine and the fifth molar, the specimen presents some resemblance to the genus *Macacus*, given as the type of the genera *Macacus* and *Cynocephalus*; the smallness of the canine and the large size of the molars causes the fossil to approach more nearly to the *Semnopithecus* than to the *Macacus*; the difference is, however, great between the two, for the *Entellus* is said to attain the length of three and a half feet, whereas the length of the fossil animal, if the space occupied by the molars and their size be deemed sufficient ground for a conjecture, must have been equal to that of the *Pithecus Satyrus*—the space taken up by the molars is 2.15 inches. This circumstance, and the differences before pointed out, clearly separate the fossil from the species belonging to the genera *Cynocephalus* or *Semnopithecus*. The specimen is imperfect, but it indicates the existence of a gigantic species of Quadrumanous animals contemporaneously with the Pachyderma of the Sub-Himálayas, and thus supplies what has hitherto been a desideratum in Palæontology—proof of the existence, in a fossil state, of the type of organization most nearly resembling that of man.

Note.—Fig. 2 in the Plate is a little foreshortened in order to show the bottom of the orbit at a, which in an accurate profile view is hidden by the ascending part of the orbit, the section of which is seen at b.

Both figures were taken with the camera lucida.


Part 2.—Fluviatilē Shells.

(Continued from page 358.)

19. Planorbis umbilicalis. Testa quasi dextrâ luteo-corneâ, politâ, leviter radiato-striatâ, infrâ excavato-depressâ, anfracitus omnibus versus umbilicum profundum spectantibus, ultimo interiores penē
This shell, belonging to the same division of Planorbis as the British species *Pl. fontanus*, (*Pl. nitidus*, *Lamarck,* ) in which the whorls on the inferior side are nearly covered by the succeeding ones, may easily be distinguished from that species, which it resembles also in colour, by the greater convexity of the last whorl towards the periphery, and by the slope towards the penultimate whorl, on the under side; while in *Pl. fontanus* the convexity is next to the penultimate whorl, and the slope tends towards the circumference. The disposition observed in *Pl. umbilicalis* occasions a great concavity on the under side of the shell. The superior margin of the aperture, as in most of the depressed Planorbes, projects much behind the inferior margin, occasioning a great obliquity from the plane of the axis. The North American species *Pl. deflexus* and *Pl. excavens* of Say, more especially the latter, have an affinity to this shell, which is probably an inhabitant of the streams of *Silhet*.


The last whorl altogether conceals the other whorls on the lower face of the shell, leaving merely a contracted umbilicus in the centre, towards which the flattened surface declines. On the upper side only a small portion of the depressed spire is shewn, the whorls being rather compactly wound. The species differs from all others hitherto described in the singular truncated form of the inferior surface, and in the circumstance of the last whorl winding closely round the axis, as in many Helices and Trochi, without the intervention of the preceding whorls, none of which are visible in the very contracted umbilicus. The only shell of the genus which bears any very near resemblance to it in the formation of the under side, is *Pl. fontanus* of British authors, (*Pl. nitidus* of *Lamarck,* ) the umbilicus of which is unusually contracted when compared with other species of the genus, but still exhibits within its vortex the whole of the preceding whorls, and so does not deviate from the recorded generic character; while the species now brought to notice renders nugatory, as far as it is concerned, two important characters of Planorbis, viz. “anfractibus omnibus utrinque conspicuis,” and “apertura ab axe remotissimā.” For the
present, considering that a similar variation of character in Trochus and Helix has not prevailed to separate species from those genera, I have not thought it necessary to detach *Pl. trochoideus* from Planorbis, but am inclined to consider it as one of the terminal species; merely prefixing to each of the characters above quoted the word "crebrius."

As this form does not belong to the *Silhet* collection, and is an inhabitant of the neighbourhood of Calcutta, I intended to have included it in a paper on some other new Bengal species; but as it is desirable, in consideration of its interesting and anomalous structure, that its publication should not be delayed until I can devote leisure to their description, I seize the present opportunity for making it known.

The only specimens met with were taken by me, in August 1835, in the gardens of Barrackpur Park, near a tank, on the margin of which are some artificial ruins. They inhabited large earthen vessels filled with water, containing aquatic plants, and adhered to the prone surfaces of the floating leaves in company with a small Planorbis*, and a small-lengthened Lymnaea which approaches in its characters to *L. chlamys* of this catalogue.


The *Silhet* specimens scarcely differ from weathered individuals of Lieut. Hutton’s shell, in which the extremely delicate carina, which margins the angular periphery in perfectly fresh specimens, is more usually found to be obliterated. The depressed whorls are equally visible on each side, and are highly polished in recent examples. They occur in great perfection near Banáras, adhering to the floating foliage of *Trapa natans*, and occasionally swimming at large on the surface of jhils. This is the species alluded to by me as *Planorbis B.* in page 264, vol. i. *Gleanings in Science*, and figured as No. 10, Plate VIII.


Testá discoidea, albidá vel corneá, supernè plano, suturis excavatis, umbilico depresso; substant planato-depressā, latē umbilicatā; anfractibus ventricosis transversē profundē et eleganter striatis etate vari-cibus munitis. Aperturā rotundatā, auriformi, minimē obliquā.

*Pl. Indicus* is scattered over the whole of the Gangetic provinces, and scarcely a pool of water can be found destitute of it. The *Silhet* specimens prove to be a small corneous variety occasionally to be

* I omitted to take specimens of this shell, which is either *Pl. compressus* of Hutton, or a new Calcutta species, *Pl. nanus* mihi, which is very similar to the British species *Pl. albus*. 

5 D 2
met with to the westward. In some waters the species attains a great size, being 0.9 of an inch in diameter, and nearly equaling in magnitude \textit{Pl. corn.}, which it resembles in general appearance, but from which it will be found to differ in the depth and regularity of the striae, in the comparatively less profound excavation of the sutures on the upper side, and less profoundly sunk apex, as well as in being somewhat less ventricose. The animal is most commonly of a black olive colour, occasionally dark maroon red.

In the foregoing descriptions of Planorbis I have used the words upper and lower with reference to the faces of the disc which adjoin respectively the back and foot of the animal when creeping. The animal of Planorbis is undoubtedly sinistral, but if the shell be viewed as such practically, and placed with the side which would in a sinistral shell be accounted the apex uppermost, it will be found that the animal is on its back, and that it will have to twist its body half round in order to gain the ground with its foot; and that in order to creep with any ease, it must reverse the position of its shell. This will be more especially observable in the flatter and more oblique mouthed species. I propose, therefore, to consider that face as containing the apex, in discoid shells, which is contiguous to the back of the animal. This side may invariably be known in Planorbis by the greater projection of the lip in that part, by the deeper depression of the central umbilicus, and by the more considerable involution of the whorls occasioning a greater depth of suture.

Observers have, in general, adhered to no fixed rule on the subject, and have been guided chiefly by the aspect of the shell. Turton's characters of \textit{Pl. fontanus} and \textit{Pl. contortus} afford an instance of the same side being considered the upper in one species, and the lower in another. Lamarck was more consistent, and while he rightly viewed the shell as sinistral, called, in every species, that side of the shell which is contiguous to the back of the animal, the lower face. On the other hand, it is evident, from Say's description of \textit{Pl. deflexus} and \textit{Pl. corpulentus}, and from his denoting those species dextral, that, in those shells at least, he has followed the contrary rule.

23. \textit{Lymnaea chlamys}. Testa translucente, corneà aut castaneà, elongato-ovatà; spira gracili, breviore, acuminatà; anfractu ultimo infra precipue ventricoso; suturis parce depressis; apertura infra patente, basi leviter evasa.

The Lymnae in the Silhet collection is the chestnut-coloured variety. The paler kind is met with in great perfection in Lehtára jhfl, near Bandras, in company with Planorbis compressus, and another fine Lymnae which I designate as \textit{Lymnaea Butta}. The Silhet shell has an
eroded spire, and consequently wants the graceful appearance of the western variety. I at first described it as a distinct species, but a comparison with a good series from Banáras, where the species is very variable, has led to their reunion.

Lieutenant Hutton has referred the species with a mark of doubt to *L. limosa*, which it in no wise resembles. In perfect specimens the spire occupies about one-fifth of the total length. Greatest length of the shell 1.4 inches.

24. *Paludina oxtropis*. Testá tenui ovato-conicâ olivacea, decussatim striatâ; anfractibus supernè carinis plurimis fuscis ornatis, ultimì carinâ mediâ saliente subacutâ; infernè fasciis quibusdam elevatiusculis fuscis; suturis inconspicuis; apice acutâ; canali umbilicali excavato; aperturâ intùs violaceâ, peristomate acuto, nigro. Long. 1.7 poll. Lat. 1.3.

This is a very remarkable and elegant species. Some of the specimens are, I believe, much larger than the one described.

25. *Paludina Lecythis*. Testá tenui, globoso-convexâ ampullacea, olivacea, glabrá, rugis obsoletis decussatâ; spirâ obtusiusculâ; anfractibus valdè ventricosis, rotundatis; suturis excavatis; aperturâ intùs violaceâ spiram longitudine superante; peristomate nigro, subflexo; umbilico evanescente.

The striæ of growth, or rather the indications of former lips, are very frequent and prominent near the back of the outer lip; the rest of the shell presents that facet-like appearance which is so remarkable in some *Lymnaeae*. I was at first inclined to consider this shell to be Gray’s *Pal. Chinensis*, figured, but not described, in Griffith’s *Cuvier*; but our shell is much more ventricose, the sutures are more pronounced, and it is deficient in the angular appearance observable at the base of the aperture in the Chinese species. It is a very thin shell in proportion to its volume. The epidermis is greenish olive in young specimens, reddish fuscous in the adult. Long. 2 poll. Lat. 1.7.


Testá ovato-conoideâ, ventricosâ, solidâ, pallidè virente, obsoletè fasciâtâ, rugis exilissimis decussatâ; anfractibus tumidis, suturis excavatis; spirâ obtusâ; umbilico subcanaliculato; aperturâ intùs laccentescente. Long. 1 poll.

This species varies in configuration even in the same waters, some specimens approaching to a subglobose form, while others have a
more lengthened conoid spire. It is very abundant in the river 
Gümüti at Jönpur, where it is paler, and has a more yellowish tinge
than the Silhet variety, which, from having an eroded summit, appears
to have inhabited stagnant water. It has a singular habit, for the
genus, of burying itself in the mud or sand in shallow water, often in
large societies; other species conceal themselves in the mud in the
season of drought, but P. crassa does so from choice, and is impelled
by no such necessity. The shell of the lately excluded young is so
depressed and globular, that it might be easily mistaken for a young
Ampullaria. The adult shell attains a degree of thickness unusual in
the genus.

p. 90.

Testà ovato-conicâ leviter striatâ, epidermide olivacea; anfractibus
rotundatis, suturis depressis. Aperturse peritremate nigrescente; umber
tico arcto. Long. 0.3 poll.

Aperture occupying half the length of the shell.

28. *Ampullaria*. The specimens of this shell, which is common
in Bengal, are much superior in size to any which I have met with
west of the Brahmaputra. As I have reason to believe that the species
is described, I shall content myself with this allusion to it. I should
have considered it to be *A. fasciata* of LAMARCK, were it not that
that species is said to have a corneous operculum.

29. *Melania variabilis*. Testà elongato-turrita solidà olivacea
vel picea, sub epidermide albidâ; anfractibus convexis transverse
liratis, longitudinaliter striatis et costatis; costulis anfractus ultimi
supernè nodulosis; apice plerumque truncate; suturis excavatis. Apert-
turâ intus violaceâ, columellae basi sinuatâ.

Inhabits the river Gümüti at Jönpur, and Tolly's nullah near
Calcutta.

Var. A. Anfractuum inferiorum liris elevatis, nodulis elevatoribus.
Inhabits river Hāghli at Calcutta.

Var. B. Liris, medianâ exceptâ, obsoletis; nodulis subspinosis
carinam humeralum coronantibus.

Var. C. Lævis liris costulisque obsoletis, anfractûs ultimi medio
subcarinato, adulti nodulis humeralibus frugaliter sparsis.

Var. D. Anfractuum superiorum costulis obsoletis, ultimi et penul-
timi liris transversis costulis longitudinalibusque supernè serie duplici
nodulosis.

Varieties B, C, and D are in the Silhet collection. The type spe-
cimens of several of these varieties would, if viewed apart, be easily
mistaken for distinct species, but they melt into each other so gradu-
ally, occasionally shewing the characters of more than one variety combined in the same shell, that no doubt remains of their blending in one species. In Tolly's Nullah I took larger specimens than any in the collection; though at least four twists of the spire were defec-
tive, one individual measured 3.4 inches in length. The Glumti' spec-
cimens are less liable to truncation, and in young specimens the apices are nearly perfect. I have not observed more than 12 whorls present in any specimen. I described the type of the species without a name as species A* in the 13th No. of the Gleanings in Science. It was figured as No. 7, in Plate VII. vol. i.

30. *Melania Stephanus*. Testá ovato-conicâ, gradatâ, plerumque deinde truncatâ globoso-ovatâ, olivaceá anfractibus obsolete fasciatis, transversè sulcatis, supernè planulatis, spiris brevibus validis coro-
natis; aperturâ albidâ subrotundatâ, supernè fere angulatâ; labro subdenticulato.

This shell, which is very solid, approaches in form to *M. Amarula*, but differs from it in the configuration of the aperture, and in the comparative shortness of the whorls, as well as by the denticulations on the inner edge of the labrum. Among the numerous specimens which I had an opportunity of inspecting, only a single individual was perfect, and the greater number exhibited only two whorls, the remainder being truncated. This character I find to be an usual indication of habituation in stagnant water. The sulcations on the whorls are sometimes obsolete.


This a very distinct and pretty species, with a strong epidermis. It is generally eroded at the apex.

32. *Melania Terebra*. Testá elongato-turritâ, olivaceo-brunneâ, lävi, politâ; anfractibus tumidis; suturis excavatis; sinu inter basin labri columellamque nullo. Long. 1.05. Testa truncata.

It is distinguished from the young of the smooth variety of *M. variabilis* by the want of angularity at the centre of the lower whorl, by its polished epidermis, more tumid whorls and more deeply sunk sutures, as well as by the absence of the sinuation of the inner lip which characterizes that species. The apex of the shell is more or less truncated.

33. *Melania conica*, Gray? Testá solidâ, globoso-conicâ, longitudinaliter striatâ plerumque transversè obsolete sulcatâ; anfractibus, ultimo ventricoso cæteris rapidè diminutis; suturis bene signatis; aperturâ
ovatâ, intùs albida, fasciis quibusdam castaneis ornatâ; labro intùs denticulato.

This species resembles so closely the figure given in Griffith's Cuvier, Pl. 14, f. 3, as *Melania conica* of Gray, that I am unwilling to describe it as new, in the absence of a specific character of that shell. Gray's figure, however, does not exhibit the obsolete sulcations of the shell under review,—an omission which may be attributed to the brown incrustation with which they are ordinarily obscured, nor the smoothed denticulations which ornament the interior margin of the right lip in our shell. Should it eventually prove to be distinct, it may be named *M. denticulata* from this character, which is also possessed in a minor degree by *M. Stephanus*. The spire is eroded in all the specimens which I have examined. Length one inch.

34. *Neritina depressa*. Testâ solidâ, sub-convolutâ transversè ovatâ, gibbosâ, olivacea, longitudinaliter purpureo-fusco latè strigatâ, strigis versus apicem angulato-flexuosis; spirâ depressâ; anfractibus sub-binis; peritremate integro acuto, sub-orbiculari; septo calloso magno; aperturâ parvâ, lunatâ, aurantiâ; labio sub-recto, medio emarginato, ibi denticulato.

Greatest transverse diameter 0.8 inch. The peritreme which surrounds the aperture and shelving callus is nearly free, and occupies nearly the whole face of the shell. All within it, including the septum as well as the aperture, is usually of a dull orange colour. When weathered the shell is whitish, with pink bands and zig-zag lines; the denticulations of the inner lip are occasionally obsolete. The individuals in the Society's collection are probably from the Sundarban rivers, as the species is common, adhering to wooden piles and brickwork in the Húghlí at Calcutta, as well as in waters which have periodical communication with it. The following species is so nearly allied to *N. depressa* that I shall describe it here for the purpose of instituting a comparison and pointing out the distinctive characters, although no example of it occurs in the collection.

35. *Neritina cornucopia*. Testâ solidiusculâ, convolutâ, subsymmetrical, transversè ovato-acutâ, gibbosâ, pallide virente, punctis minimis nigris, interdum confluentibus, lineis longitudinalibus dispositis ornatâ; sporâ valdè depressâ; anfractu pone callum compresso, sub-mediano, minimè obliquo; peritremate acuto, libero, ovato, pene totam testam circumcludente; callo magno ingrescente; aperturâ lunatâ mediocri; labio recto totâ longitudine denticulato, medio emarginato.

Greatest transverse breadth 0.7 inch. At the first glance this shell would probably be mistaken for the last described species, from
which it differs more especially in the greater proportionate size of
the aperture, in the perfect parallelism of the inner lip with the axis
of the shell, its denticulation nearly throughout its whole length, in-
stead of merely in the centre; in the compression of the whorl at the
back of the callus, and its subcentrical position, thereby occasioning
the approach of the shell to a symmetrical configuration, and finally
in its suite of colours. It is much less frequent than *N. depressa*. I
have met with only two specimens, in the Húglí at Fort William,
and in Tolly's Nullah, adhering to piles and bricks. The aperture is
livid white, with blackish shades. The operculum, following the form
of the aperture, is broader than in *N. depressa*, and its two costate
teeth are more developed.

36. *Neritina tigrina*. Testâ globoso-conoideâ, cornèa vel olivaceâ,
lineis subtilissimis, fasciis angulato-flexuosis, maculisque nigris longi-
tudinaliter strigatâ; suturis obsoleteis; anfractu ultimo ventricoso,
infrà suturam excavato-depresso; aperturâ obliquâ, intùs albâ; callo
columellari maculâ luteâ notato; labio medio emarginato, infrà pro-
jectâ, emarginatione projecturâque ambabus denticulâtis.

The specimens, in the collection, of this very handsome species are
of an ordinary size. A fine individual which I took adhering to the
piles which defend Fort William from the action of the Húglí,
measures 1.35 inches in length. The operculum is very strong, and
besides the two exserted mucrones at the lower part, have two strong
radiating curved ribs on the inner surface, the central one of which
forms, at its termination, a third mucro. In addition to the living
examples which I met with in the River Húglí, I have a beautiful
specimen which I captured in the aqueduct that supplies the old
Course at Calcutta. When decorticated the ground of the shell is
white; and the black markings assume a purplish hue.

Two other very distinct species of *Neritina* with oblique apertures
inhabit the waters around Calcutta. I propose shortly to describe
them as *N. retifera* and *N. obtusa*.

In all the species of *Neritina* of which I have seen the operculum,
that accessory piece is smooth and polished, exhibiting only faint
radiating striae or striae of growth; but in a ribbed *Nerita* which
occurs at the embouchure of the Húglí, the exterior surface of the
operculum is granulated like shagreen. Is this latter character per-
manent in the genus *Nerita*? if so, it will furnish an additional mark
to distinguish the two genera.

37. *Navicella compressa*. Testâ transversè elongatâ, compressâ,
luteâ, abidâ, vel cornèa, lineis munitissimis transversis diversè colo-
ratis, maculisque alternatis radiantibus decoloratis pictâ; dorso elevato; limbi extremitatibus emarginatis. Long. 0. 85, Lat. 0. 45 poll.

From the peculiar form of the aperture of this shell, it is evidently accustomed to adhere to the convex surfaces of cylindrical bodies of small diameter, probably the stems of shrubs growing in the water, to which the sinuous disk would exactly conform. The numerous specimens in the collection all possess the same feature, which is never observable in Navicella tessellata of Lamarck. The last mentioned shell I discovered adhering in abundance to piles in the Húghlí river under Fort William, and more rarely attached to bricks in Tolly’s Nullah. I have retained the name proposed for the new species by Dr. J. T. Pearson.

Acephala.

38. Anodonta soleniformis. Testâ elongatissimâ, posticè angustatâ, extremitate rotundatâ; anticè latiore, sub-alatâ, extremitate obliquè truncatâ: Natibus complanatis, inconspicuis, senectute obliteratis, decorticatis; epidermide junioris fulvida, prater angulum umbonis viridi, salcis iluc vinis impressâ, ætate fuscâ. Long. 6 poll. Lat. prope apicem 1. 2, Lat. prope alam 1.5 poll.

This is a very interesting shell, being, in proportion to its length, the most elongated of the genus. The pearl of the interior is bluish, with a salmon tinge in old specimens, which are likewise much worn on the exterior surface, and have their posterior muscular impression very deeply marked, and, as it were, carious. The anterior muscular impression is considerably elongated under the transverse direction. With the exception of a minute species which inhabits ponds in Bundelkhand, this is the only Anodonta hitherto met with in this Presidency.


40. Scaphula celox. Testâ elongatâ, tumidâ, læviuseculâ, anticè angulatâ, inter umbonem extremitatemque anticam subito evasâ; carino umbonali compresso, costulâ obsoletâ contiguâ.


One or two examples of this rare fluviatile genus of Arcacea which I first discovered in the Jumna, and subsequently met with in the river Cane, occur among the shells brought from the Eastern frontier.
IX.—Note on Zoological Nomenclature. By B. H. Hodgson, Esq.

If I revert to the comments of your anonymous correspondent upon my *Cervus Elaphoides*, (No. 52 for April,) it is because I think that a question of some moment hangs upon the judgment pronounced in this case, viz. the right to designate species, and the consequence of doing so from very imperfect knowledge.

According to your correspondent’s own shewing, Cuvier never procured more than the horns of this deer; and, so conscious was Cuvier, ultimately, of his inability to fix the species upon a just basis, that, in his last edition of the Regne*, all mention of it is omitted. Meanwhile, however, he gave it a name, upon retaining which your correspondent insists, although your correspondent, in the very same page, exhibits the following practical consequence of such proceedings.

The first writer of the age upon the tribe of animals to which our *Cervus* belongs (H. Smith) is entirely misled by Cuvier’s insufficient definition, or rather designation, and ascribes this deer to the *Rusa* group! Now, it is a well known fact, that, although the more skilful general writers upon zoology have, of late years, omitted half the recorded species from inability to verify them, yet that, amongst the species inserted, no careful student can satisfactorily refer to one in ten! Is this system to go on? and, if not, is there any cure for it but a general resolution to admit no names of species which the nomenclator has not, at the time, or subsequently, verified?

Your correspondent has only to turn to those recent and costly works upon Indian Zoology, Gould’s Century and Hardwicke’s Illustrations, and he will find that the multiplication of idle names and of fictitious species is still going on, under the auspices of persons who neither have, nor can have, competent means of at once undoing past errors and preventing future ones. Press or picture, it is the same thing. Neither ought to be devoted, in permanent style, to the propagation of delusion and inconvenience; nor any ad interim labours of any man recognised, (except such as he has ultimately himself completed), if their recognition have that effect, at the same time that it interferes with the just reward of the ripe and adequate labours of others. *Finis coronat opus*: and, though it may be reasonable to admit temporarily all names, as an index and stimulus to discovery, as well as to sustain eventual claims, if advanced, yet those names alone are entitled to permanence which the affixers, sooner or later, connect with indisputable species. Cuvier himself

* A new and amended list of all authentic species is given in this edition.
abandoned his name, because he could not eventually so connect it: and I confess I do not perceive upon what sound principle your correspondent insists upon the revival and retention of that name.

I beg to acknowledge the courtesy of your own note appended to the communication in question, and to state my conviction that Du Vaucel most probably obtained the horns of the Cervus Elaphoïdes from me.

The observation of your correspondent—that the "suborbitar depression on the skull of our deer is perforated by a very large oval hole, which is not found in the skull of the Jaraï"—wants, I believe, confirmation. Such holes are very usually found in the skulls of both species; but, so far as my experience goes, they are not proper to the perfect skull of either*. After considerable inquiry amongst my friends to the westward, I have determined to retain the name of Bara Siuka for the Cervus Elaphus; those of Maha and Bahraiya for Cervus Elaphoïdes; and that of Jaraï for the only type of the Rusa group known to me. This animal is the Cervus Jaraï of Hodgson, precisely because he has found it utterly impossible to fix the shifting and insufficient specific indications of H. Smith—a difficulty, by the way, which your correspondent seems to share, if I may judge by his somewhat loose allusion to "Cervus Hippelaphus and Aristotelis or Rusas" (in the plural.) May I hope for his valuable assistance in my endeavours to decide, whether there be really more than one species of Rusa in the Bengal Presidency? and which of the several named by H. Smith it or they be? Let me request your correspondent to test the above remarks on nomenclature by applying them to the very difficulty just cited. I am content to abide by the issue!

[We have to apologize for so long delaying the publication of Mr. Hodgson’s note, which has been lying in type at the printer’s some months. We are very sure the correspondent to whom he appeals will assist in the desirable object of identifying and fixing Indian Species.—Ed.]

* If they were, we should be in the way of ascertaining the probable or possible truth of that startling assertion, that breathing takes place through the suborbitar sinus. I have examined repeatedly fresh heads of several species with a view to this assertion: and my conclusion is that it cannot be true, unless breath can pass through bone and skin too; for, in the perfect skull there is no solution of continuity in either substance, within the limits of this sinus. Without and above the sinus, there is something extremely like such a solution, in the skulls of Elaphus, Ratwa, Jaraï and Elaphoïdes. But, even here, a perfectly fresh head will exhibit osseous or quasi osseous continuity; and the skin-fold is ever uninterruptedly carried through the sinus, though with much attenuation at the bottom of it.
X.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 7th December, 1836.

The Honorable Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair.

H. Walter, Esq. C. S., Principal Bramley, Dr. James Drummond, Nawab Tahawur Jung Behadur, Shah Qabir u'din, and Dr. R. A. Jackson, proposed at the last meeting, were balloted for, and duly elected Members of the Society.

Mr. W. Dent was proposed by Mr. H. T. Prinsep, seconded by the Secretary.

Mr. Manuk, proposed by Dr. Stewart, seconded by Mr. Bailie.

Babu Heramba Nath Thakur was appointed to officiate as Collector to the Society, during the absence of Babu Ram Comul Sen, on a visit to the Upper Provinces.

The following reply from Government regarding the Alif Leila was read:

To James Prinsep, Esq.

Genl. Dept.

Secretary to the Asiatic Society.

Sir,

I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, dated the 7th ultimo, relative to the proposition of Mr. C. Brownlow, to publish at his own private risk a complete edition of the Ulif Leila, or Arabian Nights' Entertainments, in the original Arabic, from a very complete manuscript purchased by him from the estate of the late Major Macan, and requesting the same support to this work as has usually been accorded both by the local Governments, and by the Honorable Court of Directors to literary undertakings of a similar description.

2. In reply, I am directed to state that in compliance with the recommendation of the Asiatic Society, and in consideration of the manner in which the publication of this work has been undertaken, and of the credit that will attach to its completion in the manner proposed, his Lordship has been induced to subscribe for fifty copies at the price stated, viz. 48 rupees per copy.

3. The copies when printed will be appropriated for distribution as prizes in the Seminaries of Education at which the study of Arabic is cultivated, with the reservation of such number as the Governor of Bengal may present to the Public Libraries and Institutions of Europe or of this country. Mr. Brownlow may be desired to deliver the fifty copies at this office, where his bill for them will be discharged.

4. But the Right Honorable the Governor of Bengal cannot close the reply to this reference from the Asiatic Society, without expressing a strong desire to learn that the translation of the complete work is likely to be undertaken by some competent scholar of this Presidency. His Lordship will be glad to be informed of any scheme for procuring the accomplishment of this desirable object, that the Asiatic Society may be able to suggest and think deserving of encouragement.

I have the honor to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

H. T. Prinsep,

See. to Govt.

Fort William, the 2nd Nov. 1836.

Resolved, that a copy of the reply be transmitted to Mr. C. Brownlow, the publisher of the work in question.

It was intimated that a gentleman in the Civil Service, eminently qualified for the task, had volunteered to make an English translation of the portions of the "Nights' Entertainments" as yet unedited.
The following letter from the Asiatic Society of Paris, brought out by the Chevalier General Allard, was also read:

Messieurs ;

Les encouragements que le Gouvernement Anglais dans l'Inde a accordés presque en tout temps à la publication des ouvrages classiques dans les langues savantes de l'orient ont toujours été regardés en Europe, comme un de ses plus beaux titres de gloire. Ces publications ont puissamment aidé au développement que les études historiques et philologiques ont pris depuis le commencement de ce siècle, et elles ont servi à répandre le goût des lettres orientales. Ainsi les ouvrages classiques publiés par le Comité d'Instruction publique de Calcutta, quoique destinés immédiatement aux écoles Indiennes ont rendu aux écoles de l'Europe les plus grands services. Ils ont commencé à ranimer à la rareté des manuscrits sanscrits en Europe, et ont facilité l'étude d'une littérature dont l'importance pour l'histoire de l'esprit humain n'a pas cessé de s'accroître.

Le Comité avait donné, dans les derniers temps, l'espoir que l'on verrait encore s'agrandir le cercle de ses entreprises. Il avait annoncé que le Mahâbharat, le Râja Tarangini et plusieurs autres ouvrages de la plus haute importance, étaient sous presse, et qu'il préparait des matériaux pour une édition des Vedas et des livres sacrés des Bouddhistes. Ces annonces ont été reçues en Europe avec un intérêt marqué, et les savans ont suivi avec une grande sollicitude les progrès de ces ouvrages. Mais on a appris dernièrement, que le Gouvernement du Bengale a cru devoir suspendre toutes les impressions en langues Orientales, et destine les fonds qui devaient y pourvoir, à un but différent.

Il n'appartient pas à une Société littéraire de juger des raisons politiques ou financières d'un gouvernement étranger, mais la Société Asiatique craint pouvoir exprimer ses regrets qu'on ait abandonné des entreprises qui auraient servi les intérêts de la science, et qui auraient honoré la nation qui les avaient commencées. Aussi, a-t-elle sincèrement applaudi à la détermination que vous avez annoncée, Messieurs, de reprendre la publication de ces ouvrages, et elle désire vivement pouvoir vous aider dans l'accomplissement de votre plan. Elle vous offre en conséquence de servir d'intermédiaire entre vous et les Savants du Continent. Elle espère pouvoir trouver un nombre plus ou moins considérable de souscripteurs aux différents ouvrages que vous avez l'intention de faire paraître.

Si vous agréez ce plan, elle vous prête de lui communiquer la liste des ouvrages à publier, et les prix approximatifs de chacun. La Société redigerais alors un programme et une circulaire, pour faire appel à ses membres et aux divers corps savans, a fin d'exécuter autant que possible l'intérêt du public pour les importantes publications de la Société.

It is impossible d'apprécier d'avance le résultat de cette démarche, mais la Société croit ne faire que son devoir en donnant aux savants Européens les moyens de s'associer à votre généreuse entreprise.

Nous avons l'honneur de vous offrir, Messieurs, l'assurance de notre haute considération.

P. AmiDEJ AuBERT, Président de la Société.
Eug. BURNOUF, Secrétairé de la Société.

Resolved, that an appropriate reply be returned in the same form to the Asiatic Society of Paris, accepting with pride and satisfaction its generous offer of aid in promoting the completion of the abandoned oriental works, and of acting as the channel of their circulation and sale on the continent of Europe.

A letter from Major Troyer, tendered, in the same spirit, his service as agent to the Society at Paris, and acknowledged receipt of presentation copies of Sanscrit works.

Extracts of letters from Messrs. Burnouf, Jaquet, and Professor Lassen, connected with the same topic, were read; also from Messrs. Cas-
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

sin, agent and bookseller to the Paris Society, suggesting arrangements regarding the prices of the several works.

A letter from M. Rouy de Rochelle, President of the Geographical Society of Paris, stated that a resolution of the Society had determined to present the Asiatic Society with a complete series of their Bulletin, anterior to the period when its relations with Calcutta had commenced.

Resolved, that the compliment be returned by presenting a copy of such
former volumes of the Researches as are in store.

A letter from Mr. Edward Thomas, C. S. at Almorah, presented three
manuscript volumes in short-hand of the late Mr. Laidlay.

They appear to be private note books, and memoranda of the author's read-
ing—not in the common form of stenography, and therefore illegible.

Dr. D. Stewart presented copies of the Proceedings of the Statistical
Society of London for 1835-36, and series of questions and forms for circu-
lation, with a view of extending its information on subjects connected
with the science.

The President founded upon these documents, a motion for the formation
of a Committee in the Society, which should direct its exclusive attention to
the Statistics of India, both by inviting returns to circulars modified to suit the
circumstances of the country, and by searching, with permission, the records of
Government.

Mr. H. T. Prinsep urged that the magnitude of the object was beyond the
power of a Committee; the Government had at one time expressly commenced
such a record, and had given it up after spending a lakh and a half of rupees on
three small districts.

Dr. Stewart thought that the materials collected might be examined and
abstracted by the Committee, and, without aiming at minute detail, much useful
information might be obtained on the population and mortality, for instance,
of the principal towns. He had himself lately roughly estimated the mortality
of Calcutta, and was appalled at finding it 1 in 26, the highest rate almost
on record. After some discussion it was

Resolved, that a Statistical Committee be formed, consisting of Sir B.
Malkin, Mr. J. G. Gordon, Mr. W. Adam, Mr. Baillie, and Dr. D.
Stewart, the latter gentleman kindly undertaking the duties of Secre-
tary.

Library.

The following books were presented.

The Archæologia, or Transactions of the Antiquarian Society of London—by
the Society.

iv. part 1—by the Society.

Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of London, No. 5—by the Society.

Proceedings of the Geological Society of London, Nos. 40, 41, 42, 43, 44,
and 45—by the Society.

Sir Phillip Grey Egerton's Catalogue of Fossil fish in his own and Lord
Cole's Collection—by the Author.
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Address delivered at the Anniversary Meeting of the Geological Society of London, on the 19th February, 1836, by CHARLES LYELL, M. A., F. R. S. President of the Society—by the Society.

Memoires de la Société de Physique et D'Histoire Naturelle de Genève, tome vii. pt. 1—by the Society.

Two Tibetan block-books, religious tracts, entitled Smon-lam-btschu-tham-ab-yorbaie-smon-bsngö-ba; and Behom-ldan-hdas-ma-sches-rab-kyi-pha-rol-tu-phy-inpai-sning-po; printed at Leipsig—by M. Jacquet.

Glagolita Clozianus; Codices Glagolitici Antiquissimi, Leipsanum folioriium servatum in Bibliotheca Paradis Cloz Tridentini, by Bart. Kopitar, Curator of the Imperial Library at Vienna—presented by the Author.

Gefchichte der Osmanifshen Dichtlung—by the Baron Von Hammer-Purgstall.

Lectures on Comparative Anatomy, by Dr. Robert E. Grant—by the Author. Bulletin de la Société de Geographie, vol. i. iii. iv. to x. and xvi. to xx. of the first series; and vol. iii. iv. of the second series—by the Society.

Abrégé du Roman Hindustani intitulé La Rose de Bakawali, par M. Garcin De Tassy—by the Translator.

Mode d'Expression Symbolique des Nombres employés par les Indiens, les Tibetains et les Javanais—by M. Jacquet.

Journal Asiatique, Nos. 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, and 96, for 1835, and Nos. 1, 2, and 3, of the New Series for 1836—by the Asiatic Society of Paris.


The Indian Journal of Medical Science and Scientific Review, No. 12—by Dr. F. Corbyn, the Editor.


Gay's Fables, translated into Urdu Poetry, by Raja Kalikissen Behadur—by the Translator.

"Mashtoz," or the Ritual of the Armenian Church; in two volumes, printed in Calcutta, and presented by the Editor, Mr. Avedall.

The Meteorological Register for October 1836—by the Surveyor General.

The following books, selected by Professor Wilson, were received from the Booksellers:

Freytag's Hamase Carmina, 4to. (in Arabic.)
Amrulkeisi Moallakah, Arab. et Lat, ed. J. A. Hengstenberg, Bonn, 1823.
Kosegarten, Amrui ben Keltum Taglebitae Moallakam Abn Abdallae, 4to. Humbert, Arabic Chrustomathia Facilior, 8vo.
Rosenmuller, Institutiones ad Fundamenta Linguæ Arabicae, 4to.
Bernstein, Hetapalaesi particula, edidit et Glossar. Sanscrit, 4to.
Wustenfeld, Abulfedæ Tabulae quædam, &c. 8vo. Gott. 1835.
Flugel, Corani Texitas Arabicos ad fidem lib. MSS. 4to. calf and lettered.
Pettigrew's Egyptian Mummies, 4to. ditto.
Gutshall's Voyage to China, post 8vo. ditto.
Aubert’s British Intercourse with China, 8vo. ditto.
McCulloch’s Commercial Dictionary, 8vo. ditto.
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Moore’s Oriental Fragments, post 8vo. ditto.
Wight and Arnott’s Prodromus, 1 vol. 8vo. ditto.
Gutzlaff’s History of China, 2 vols. 8vo. ditto.
Bennett’s Wanderings in New South Wales, 2 vols. 8vo. ditto.
Smith and Dwight’s Missionary Researches in Armenia, 8vo. ditto.
Robert’s Illustrations of Sacred Scriptures, 8vo. ditto.
Wilkinson’s Topography of Thebes, &c. 8vo. ditto.
Breton’s Scandinavian Sketches, 8vo. ditto.
Hoskin’s Travels in Ethiopia, 4to. ditto.
Robert’s Scenes &c. of Hindoostan, 3 vols. post 8vo. ditto.
Wellesley’s Dispatches, vol. 1. ditto.
Malcolm’s Memoir of Lord Clive, 3 vols. 8vo. ditto.
Lamar’s Mount Sinai and Petra, 8vo. ditto.
Carey’s Memoir of Dr. Carey, 8vo. ditto.
Rich’s Koordistan and Nineveh, 2 vols. 8vo. ditto.
Edinburgh Cabinet Library—China, 3 vols. 12mo. ditto.
Abeel’s Residence in China, 12mo. ditto.
Nala and Damayanti, by Milman, imperial 8vo. ditto.
Akermann’s Catalogue of Roman Coins, 2 vols. 8vo. ditto.
Madox’s Excursion in the Holy Land, 2 vols. 8vo. ditto.
Lang’s History of New South Wales, 2 vols. post 8vo. ditto.
Seale’s Geognosy of the Island of St. Helena, folio, cloth.
Wight’s Contributions to the Botany of India, 8vo. calf and lettered.
Davis’s Chinese, 2 vols. post 8vo. ditto.

Antiquities and Literature.

Mr. Walter Ewer, in a note, adverted to Mr. Traill’s drawing, of the Garhwal tridents.

The proportions of the trident of Barahát are incorrectly large for the staff, (see Plate XXIX.)—the edge of the axe should be at right angles to the trident, and consequently not visible laterally on the sketch:—the letters of the inscription also do not project from the surface, but are indented. The words are sufficiently correct.

Lieut. Barton, on his departure for Europe, begged the Society’s acceptance of a copy in manuscript of Bahadin’s Life of Saladin; also of Napoleon’s account of the Campaign of 1805, printed in Arabic at Alexandria.

Captain Jenkins forwarded a copy of the Ahom alphabet, compared with the Bor Khamti, Shyán, Laos, and Burmese, with explanatory notes by Rev. N. Brown.

This alphabet has been a desideratum for some time, and as very few indeed of the inhabitants of Assam are now acquainted with this extinct character, preserved chiefly on the coins of the indigenous rajas, an opportunity had been sought in vain for recovering it, until Mr. Brown’s residence and study brought him in communication with some pandits who have given the desired information. We hope to publish it in our January number.

Mr. J. G. Heatly submitted a second paper on Analytic Geometry.

Physical.

Geological specimens from Kemaon, with a descriptive catalogue.—
Also, a list of the rock specimens from the Kasiya range and Assam, formerly deposited in the Museum, presented by Dr. McClelland.

A fine series of butterflies, moths, and insects from Sagur was presented by the Secretary, being part of a rich collection forwarded to him by Major Hearsey, Commanding 2nd Local Horse.

Volcanic ashes picked up at sea by Captain Ferguson, of the ship Henry Tanner, presented by Mr. T. L. Henley.

"The position in which these ashes were picked up was 35 miles South lat. and 15° 50' west long. The sea was in violent agitation.

On a former voyage by the same commander, in nearly the same place (lat. 1° 35' S. and long. 20° 45') much alarm was created on board by a violent rumbling noise, the captain and officers believing the ship to have struck and gratling over a coral reef: no bottom, however, was found on sounding.

In the same latitude and about a degree more easterly, there is a shoal laid hearing the name of some vessel, but considered doubtful."

The ashes are black, and resemble cinders or pumice in consistence.

A collection of lichens from the Himalaya Mountains, was presented for the Museum, by Mrs. Siddons.

A specimen of Adjutant, (Ciconia Argala,) presented by Dr. O'Shaughnessy, and mounted in the Museum.

A specimen of the Modern Crane of Latham, purchased and mounted in the Museum.

Note.—The latter of the above specimens is generally considered as the young bird of the former, although Latham thinks it a distinct species. The attention of observers is requested to the point.

A skeleton of the Hindustaní Bullock, presented by Captain Cartwright, and articulated in the Museum.

A ditto ditto, presented by Major Tennant.

A stuffed specimen of Albatros, (Diomedea exulans,) presented by Mr. J. W. Linton of Howrah.

A specimen of the Nipal Musk Deer, and of the Apilurus Fulgens or "Wah" of the Bhotiabs, by Dr. A. Campbell, of Katmandhú. Papers Communicated.

Notice of Balantium, a genus of Pteropodous Mollusca inhabiting the Southern Indian Ocean, by W. H. Benson, Esq.

Notice of the Musk deer of Nepal, taken at a postmortem examination, by Dr. A. Campbell.

Observations on the anatomy of the plants of the order Hepaticae, accompanied with a series of beautiful Iconographic drawings of specimens of the three sections. Jangermannia, Marchantia, and Riccioideæ, by Dr. Wm. Griffiths, Assam.

Remarks on the Silk-worms and silks of Assam, with specimens of the moth, worm, chrysalis, cocoon and silk, by Mr. Thomas Hugon, illustrated with drawings by Mr. Hudson, Deputy Revenue Surveyor, were forwarded by Major Jenkins, Governor General's Agent in Assam.

Having been placed in the hands of Dr. J. H. Helder for arrangement and examination, that gentleman read at the close of the Meeting a paper on the indigenous silk-worms of India.
Dr. Helfer commenced by a series of observations on the importance of silk as an article of wearing apparel throughout the globe. He stated that the discovery of India and China was valuable to the ancient Greeks and Romans, chiefly on account of the precious web of the Bombyxia, called Se or Ser, whence the newly discovered countries derived their name of Serira. Justinian, said Dr. H., obtained an insight into the secret of its manufacture from two Persian monks, the first silk being fabricated at Byzantium. Dr. Helfer followed up his subject by stating, that the Sicilians in the time of Roger I. became wealthy by the introduction of silk into Palermo,—that the Venetians acquired riches by the trade of silk with the Levant, and that in our days it is an unlimited source of income to countries cultivating it on a large scale. France alone exported in the year 1820, 130 millions of francs worth of silk, and England consumes annually 4,700,000 pounds, for which it is chiefly indebted to foreign countries.

Dr. Helfer considers India particularly suited for the cultivation of silk, and deems it very interesting and important, that this country possesses already eleven known different kinds of silk-worms, producing in abundance silk of different qualities, and having by this the internal means of providing all Europe with this precious material. He enumerated the eleven different species, of which seven (though silk from them has been manufactured), never have been mentioned before. (The subject was illustrated by the exhibition of all the different qualities of silk, the preserved moths, cocoons, chrysalis, and eggs.) Two of the silk-worm species, the Tusseh and Arrindy, were known in India, and their silk was considered singular enough in Europe, and regarded as inferior quality of the mulberry silk-worm,—though Dr. Roxburgh and Dr. Buchanan, had long ago published an account of them, which Dr. H. quoted. Two different species were discovered by Dr. H.; four others were mentioned as problematic, and three other new species sent from Assam by Capt. Jenkins, accompanied by a very interesting memorandum. Dr. H. deems those sent from Assam exceedingly valuable, as the cocoons which they produce are considered by Mr. W. Prinsep, exceedingly fine.

Dr. Helfer then, after giving a systematic description of all the new species, went into the question as to whether the silk of India is naturally inferior to that of other countries. He regards the question as undecided, and considers that everything must depend upon the rearing of the worm in houses—upon the quality of their food—upon the first chrysalic operations—and upon the manner of working the silk. He proposed that all moths producing cocoons—which, judging by analogy, he computed at upwards of 130 kinds in India,—should be examined, and specimens of raw and wrought silk sent to Europe; and he thinks it certain, that, by the manufacture of silk on a large scale, a vast revenue will accrue to this country. He referred to the value set in Europe upon the coarsest material produced by the Arrindy silk worm. The Doctor concluded his very interesting discourse by narrating a fact communicated by Dr. Glass of Boglipur. It appeared that Dr. G. had sent specimens of the silk to England: when it was shewn to the different manufacturers they answered, that the people in India had been deceiving them by stating that the fine Cashmere shawls are manufactured from the wool of the goat: it was plain to them that the shawls were composed of the silk, and they said, that, with that material, they, the English manufacturers, could make better shawls than any which came from India.

The President, on behalf of the Society, acknowledged their obligations to Dr. Helfer for his interesting paper.

(We shall hasten to print it when the drawings of Mr. Hudson can be engraved.)
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New Standard Barometer lower than old at 10 A.M., 0.006 and at 4 P.M., 0.007 inch. Captain Henning of the Windsor has obligingly afforded me another opportunity of comparison with the Royal Society's Standard Barometer, by his new and excellent marine Barometer which had been found to stand too low on a mean of 5 observations, 0.026 (at 32°), the same stood higher than my old standard at 10 A.M., 0.003 and at 4 P.M., lower 0.009; making my old standard lower than the Royal Society's instrument 0.026. No correction is applied for capillarity. My new Standard stands in like manner too low, at 10 A.M., 0.063, at 4 P.M., 0.002 inch. The hygrometer this month was unfortunately broken.
I.—Geological Notes on the Northern Conkan, and a small portion of Guzerat and Kattywár. By Charles Lush, M. D.

[Communicated by the Medical and Physical Society of Bombay.]

In a paper which recently appeared in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal by Dr. Benza, on the Geology of the Nilgherry hills, it is remarked that "the elevation of this plateau, and probably the whole chain of the Western Ghats, of which the Nilgherries are the southern termination, happened at a period long anterior to the existence of life on our planet."

This appears, at first sight, a bold and sweeping conclusion: but I apprehend that those who have travelled in the Dekhan, the Southern Conkan, and that part of the Carnatic termed with us "Southern Maratha country," will not only be ready to concur in this opinion, but perhaps to extend it so far as to doubt the existence of any formation containing fossil remains in any part of Western India to the southward of Cutch.

In that province, it has been stated that oolite occurs. I believe, however, that no sufficient investigation has been made into this fact, to entitle us to assume the identity of such shell-stone with the recognized oolitic formations of other countries, so as to satisfy the rigorous views of a modern geologist.

There is a new era in geology. It is now in the power of any person who travels through countries where "the crust of the globe is untouched by the hammer of the geologist," to contribute to the advancement of this, the youngest of the sciences. By avoiding
speculations, not even giving a name to that which is found,—by carefully noting the site of specimens collected, according to the directions published by the Geological Society of London,—by forwarding collections to those persons who are best capable of comparing and identifying fossil remains,—materials will gradually be formed for a geological map of India, as well as for the development of sound doctrine regarding the mode and date of deposits. Let the traveller who goes northward over the plateau of the Dekhan, or who follows up the coast of the Conkan, conclude with Dr. Benza that the primary, the trap and the laterite rocks—nay, even the alluvial covering these, are antecedent to the existence of animal life on our planet. But, on finding in parts of the Southern Conkan, and especially in the island of Bombay, horizontal strata of sandstone containing shells, it would be well to look with more suspicion to the northward, and to be prepared to doubt the non-fossiliferous character of the rocks. The shell-stone of Bombay will, I hope, be investigated agreeably to modern rules, and materials furnished to those who are capable of deciding whether any, or what proportion of the shells belong to extinct species. It is easy to name this stone "coral rag," and it would cost no labour to speculate upon its being simply a deposit actually going on at the bottom of the Bombay harbour; a deposit here and there brought to light in consequence of portions of the present island having been gained from the sea since the place became a settlement. This question can only be determined in one mode;—by the examination and comparison of a few hundreds of species of shells. Decide then whether all are existing, or part extinct. Leaving this important matter for the investigation of some persons at the Presidency, I proceed to copy a few notes collected in a tour through the Northern Conkan, part of Guzerat, and Kattywár.

The most remarkable geological feature in the Northern Conkan between Bassein and Surat, is the extensive degradation and partial reproduction of land at different periods. Occasionally, denuded-strata are met with, the date of which can alone be determined by the nature of their organic remains. The first place at which I remarked strata of sandstone similar to those of Bombay, was at Mahim, (Northern Conkan.) There is a low cliff of from ten to twelve feet in height, composed of horizontal strata from one to three or four inches in thickness. On leaving the town of Mahim the road passes over a tract of some extent formed of these shell strata, which after some intermediate alluvial, which conceals the nature of the subjacent formation, reappear at the coast under the fort and public bungalow of Seergaum.
As there has been a great destruction of land at this place, the
cliff under the bungalow may be viewed with interest. It averages
about 20 feet in height above the ordinary level of the tides. The
upper five feet is alluvial, the lower fifteen feet consisting of horizon-
tal strata of sandstone in different states of aggregation. Nearly at
right angles with the fort of Seergaum, a point of land runs out
towards the sea, of the same general aspect as the strata just describ-
ed. This seems to have been once continuous with another portion
reaching out from the coast, at a distance of about five miles to the
northward. The natives state that the whole bay was once land.
The destruction seems to have stopped for the present at a Mussul-
man burying ground, where human bones may now be seen exposed;
and which the fossil seeker must be careful to distinguish from
"organic remains of a former world." If after another shifting of
place between sea and land, a deposit should be formed above, so as to
press and solidify the sand, containing skeletons, a mistake of this
kind may as easily occur here, as it did at Guadalupe.

The road through Tarapúr, Dannú and Jyebárdí affords many
opportunities of seeing sections of these strata,—all horizontal and
evidently above the trap. Trap rocks still form the gradually dimin-
ishing hills inland, being the continuation of the Western Ghat
range. Where the trap is exposed, as in some of the numerous
creeks, it presents the same weather and water-worn appearance as
the rivers of the Dekhan.

It has been assumed (seemingly by Professor Jameson*) in a late
summary of the geology of India, that the trap formation reaches to
the Nerbudda. I therefore presume that there exists no written
evidence to the contrary. This mistake has probably arisen from
rolled pebbles of trap having been seen in the bed of the Nerbudda,
opposite the Kábír Bar a few miles above Broach; or it may have
been a simple conjecture. The fact is, that the trap ceases on the
coast between Balsúr and Gandávie. The last hills being those called
Dúngri, a low range near the village so called, scarcely more than
100 feet in height and composed of porphyritic trap. The well known
hill fort of Fumura, near the town of Balda Páíri, is the last trap hill of
any height in this direction. At Gandávie are strata of clay, contain-
ing kankar, and from this point we take leave of trap, as well as of shell
sandstone: kankar, and clay of various forms now present themselves in
the only sections seen from Gandávie to Surat. The form and situa-
tion of the kankar at Dámus demands future notice. The point of
geo logical interest about Surat is the constant destruction and partial

* Vide British India, vol. iii. Art. Geology.
renovation of land. But especially we note here destruction and degradation by freshes and spring tides, where the water is all powerful, and there are no "antagonist forces," such as are imagined by those who are inclined to slight actual causes, and to controvert the principles so ably developed by Mr. Lyell. I cannot avoid here remarking; as it is a point so apropos to the country under consideration, that a strange assumption has gone forth with regard to the powers and magnitude of tropical vegetation and its agency on the crust of the globe; as if it were a general law of nature that the nearer we approach to the equator, the thicker the vegetation. So that tropical vegetation must have essentially a greater power of resistance to the destruction of land than extra-tropical. Such a position is manifestly untenable on the old continent, whatever ground there may be for the opinion in the West Indies and South America. In Guzerat and in the Dekhan bareness of natural vegetation is the prevailing character; while even in Malabar, where the most rank vegetation exists, I have been shewn such devastation from the sea alone, that I am inclined to think that no "antagonist power" of vegetation can be worth considering. An eminent geologist, advertising to the doctrines of Mr. Lyell, asks, "Are there no antagonist powers in nature to oppose these mighty ravages? no conservative principles to meet this destructive agency? The single operation of vegetation is a vast counterpoise to all." (!)

Should we interrogate nature in Guzerat, especially about the Tapti and Nerbudda, we shall find that the conservative principles of vegetation stand no chance against the destructive agency of water.

On the plateau of the Dekhan, degradation can only be slightly repaired in one place, by the operation of degradation from a higher level and subsequent deposit below. At the level of the sea in the Northern Conkan and in Guzerat the rains carry away vegetable mould and vegetation with it. The denuded tracts support no vegetation capable of protecting the land on which it grows from farther loss. The tides with the small portion of sediment they deposit, bring no contribution to vegetable soil. Should they throw up a shoal between the periodical rains, the next fresh would certainly carry it away. The "antagonist powers" are here freshes and tides, but they both tend to the destruction of vegetation, and to throw insuperable obstacles in the way of its renewal.

Proceeding from Surat through Oolpar to the Kim river, nothing but black cotton soil occurs until you cross the Kim, at the village

* Professor Sedgwick.
of Kudrama,—there sandstone and conglomerate are exposed at the surface.

River Kim, section of the right bank at Sawal.

No. 1. Alluvial containing irregularly imbedded masses of conglomerate, 6 feet.

No. 2. Three feet of horizontal strata of sandstone from one to two inches in thickness.

No. 3. Five feet of sandstone varying in hardness.

No. 4. Bed of the river, consisting of coarse conglomerate, coarser than the imbedded masses No. 1.

There is no sign of stone of any kind on the left Oolpar bank of the Kim. This formation of conglomerate and sandstones, is only known in this tract of country to extend from the village of Koba, through Elao and Sawal to Súnú.

There is reason to believe that the same rocks form the Raj-pípla range of hills and portions of the peninsula of Kattywár. The central ridge of Kattywár, of which the celebrated hill of Politana forms a part, is undoubtedly trap, the usual varieties of which are met with at Baunagar. The most remarkable part of this formation (of sandstone, &c.) is the cornelian deposit at the celebrated mines near the Nerbudda at Rattanpúr. These mines were described by Mr. Cółland, Trans. Lit. Soc. Bombay. The general account is correct, but Mr. C. is in error with respect to the appearance of igneous action upon the hill of Bawa Gorea, which consists of sandstone and conglomerate rocks,—but not a trace of trap.

Leaving the town of Okleysir on the south bank of the Nerbudda*, on the road to the cornelian mines through Saropúr, Clareville and Rappalsári, the flat black cotton soil plain gradually begins to undulate; and in a nullah near the new village of Clareville I saw the first appearance of stone (kankar of course excepted) even in fragments since crossing the Kim. The masses were sandstone and conglomerate. The soil now mixed with sand here gradually loses its tenacity and fitness for cotton cultivation. At length, under Rattanpúr, the place where the cornelians are brought to undergo the process of baking, a clear section occurs on the bank of a nullah or small river of rather saltish water opposite the village, shewing under a superficial stratum of alluvial, 5 feet thick strata of sandstone, 25 feet deep, inclined at an angle of about 70°.

* From Hansít to Sujød (and I presume farther) may be seen a deserted bed of the Nerbudda, the bank varying in height, consisting of clay with regular horizontal deposits of kankar. The large tank at Sujød is evidently a portion of the old bed of the river.
The direction of these highly inclined strata is N. E. and S. W., corresponding to similar strata on the opposite or *Rattanpār* side of the nullah,—dip N. W. The extent of this section, as far as it is well exposed, is about 40 feet of the bank.

The banks of the nullah above *Rattanpār* shew irregularly stratified masses of a compact earthy rock with dendritic figuring; also a conglomerate containing some appearances, though not quite unequivocal, of fossil bone. These are not accompanied, as far as I could observe, by fossil shells, and it is only from having since found undoubted fossil matter in similar deposits that I have thought them worth forwarding for comparison.

This nullah contains rolled masses of jaspers, various agates, &c. &c., but no trace of a rolled piece of any variety of trap as may be seen in the bed of the *Nerbudda* near the *Kabbīr Bar*.

In the village of *Rattanpār* the cornelians are collected and exposed to the air for a month or two. If on being chipped they are found likely to be worth working, they are put into earthen pots (the usual water pots) with some earth and sand, and exposed to a fire for a day and night. At the end of the hot season they are sent down the *Nerbudda* by way of *Broach* to *Cambay*, to be cut and polished.

The cornelian mines are about four miles from *Rattanpār* in a thick jungle. The people who work them return every night to *Rattanpār*, there being no habitations near the mines. From the principal spot now working the following small hamlets are thus distanced.

_Damlāe_, one mile south.
_Ahmod_, one and half mile north.
_Padvana_, 3 miles south-east.

To the eastward all is jungle.

The stones are said to be found over a space of about four miles.

The formation containing cornelians is a deep bed of red gravel, very like the London gravel: in it are found pebbles of various form and size, of the different species or varieties of chalcedony,—irregularly imbedded, and not in layers like flints in chalk.

The mines are usually sunk to about thirty feet, but on digging to sixty feet neither hard rock nor water is met with. I therefore conclude that this is a partial deposit entirely above the sandstone-conglomerate formation, which is denuded at the surface of the nullah before mentioned, which forms also the *Bawā Gorea* hill, and I believe the general range of the *Raj-pīplas*.

As far as I could observe, there is no sign of organic remains in these gravel beds,—but every thing hereabouts should be examined carefully, as the building stones in several of the villages contain
fossil shells; so that if the people could trace them to the quarries, it might lead to some interesting discoveries in the Raj-pipla range.

I saw no sign of this formation from Broach to the Maihi river, opposite Cambay, nor on the Tankeria Bander side of the gulf.

The next point at which I found conglomerate rock was at Gogo in Kattywár, where masses of rock containing shells are dug out from the beach, the upper portions having been carried away by the encroachments of the sea.

This formation will, I hope, be soon traced up the south-eastern to the western coast of Kattywár. I before observed that the rocks at Baunagar are trap. Now these conglomerates appear to contain fragments of a great variety of mountain rocks, always excepting trap. This circumstance affords suspicion that the trap was thrown up subsequently to the deposit of the conglomerates. I say merely suspicion, as I know of no evidence of upheaving, nor the nature of the strata at the points of junction. These, between Gogo and Baunogal, are either obliterated by extensive degradation, or concealed by deposits of mud.

The island of Perim in the gulf of Cambay, afforded me a better opportunity of examining the conglomerate than the denuded beach of Gogo.

Perim is about three miles in circumference. About half the island, proceeding round the western side towards the southernmost point, consists of strata of conglomerate rock much acted upon, but forming cliffs in several parts to a height of about 30 feet above the sea, the upper strata being of compact sandstone,—all perfectly horizontal. The conglomerate contains shells and other fossils, some undoubted bones, &c. which have been forwarded for identification to Calcutta.

Fine sand,—partly from the decomposition of these rocks, but chiefly, perhaps, thrown up by the tides from the opposite coast,—appears to have been blown by the south-west monsoon, so as to form dunes of very singular aspect, mostly rounded at the top. In one place a sand hill has a quadrangular platform-like summit. These sand-mounts seem to have formed a barrier to the farther encroachments of the sea. There is a valley to the eastern side of the island partly in turf, and some part cultivated open to the sea, where one may walk with a firm footing, while the sandy dunes of the higher level give way in every direction.

Proceeding from the south point towards the eastward (the open valley), layers of kankar are met with below the sandstone,—beyond this is a low cliff of sand,—the valley completing the circuit.
In the hope that some of our members stationed in Guzerat will carry on the investigation of the fossils, not only of Perim, but of other parts of the formation in Kattywîr, I have hastened to lay before them this imperfect sketch, without waiting for a report on the nature of the fossils found, or presuming myself to offer any opinion, or to draw a conclusion on that part of the subject.


In the present state of the researches into the fossil remains of the Sewaliks, it will be interesting to note any discovery of peculiar interest, without entering upon a description in detail. Such a description may, with propriety, be reserved, until the possession of a more perfect and a more numerous collection of remains enables us to enter upon the description with greater confidence: whilst, in the mean time, to those who are interested in the study, the periodical announcement of progress made in our operations, cannot be devoid of interest; under this idea I did myself the pleasure of forwarding to your Society the note on the dentition of the Mastodon Angustidens (variety of), and now send you one on a skull of another variety of Mastodon which has been lately received. The sketches are drawn on transfer paper, and will, I hope, be intelligible.

Fig. 1 and 2, are representations of the fossil skull—Fig. 1 being the front, and Fig. 2, the profile or side view. Fig. 3 and 4, are similar outlines of the existing elephant, on a scale of one-eighth on linear measurement.

The fossil is exceedingly perfect in some respects. The left orbit and maxillaries are as sharp and well defined as in the recent skull; the frontal and nasals are tolerably perfect, the specimen is fractured obliquely, removing the temporal swellings and diploe of the cranium, together with the occipital condyles and foramen magnum; the curve of the occipital on its external surface is however retained, and although sutures are altogether wanting, and the alveoli of the tusks are mutilated, the specimen may be considered as sufficient to give a perfect idea of the form of skull; and, as a form perfectly unique amongst the proboscidean pachydermata, will be looked upon with satisfaction by all those who take interest in the additions that have of late years been so rapidly made to palæontology, and the catalogue of animals now no longer existing on the globe. The present skull derives additional interest from its being so different from the only
type of the same genus or co-genus (for it may be permitted so to designate the elephant) which has been left to us—so different indeed, as to completely modify the construction of the head, and the arrangement of the muscular and fleshy matter that must have belonged to it.

Without entering into any minutiae of detail on the peculiarities of the head, of which the drawings will give a representation, and which detail will be reserved until our collections enable us to bring under one view all the varieties of this genus that the Sewaliks may contain, it will be sufficient, in announcing this very interesting addition to our cabinet, to draw attention to a few leading points.

In the skull of the existing elephant, the excess of longitudinal measurement, over that in the contrary direction, owing to the great development of the superior portion of the cranium, is one of the most marked peculiarities of its form; the height from the external nasal opening to the top or apex of the cranium is immense, although undergoing modification from age; this excessive development not being derived from any increase of size to the cerebral cavity, but to a wide space composed of cellular bone or diploe, giving an external and deep covering to all that space occupied by the brain; the size of the orbit is small with comparison to the temporal region; the large external nasal aperture is situated between the orbits; and the front in the Indian species is slightly depressed:—now in turning to the fossil, we find that the whole of these peculiarities, are either reversed, or modified in an extraordinary degree.

The elevated and massive cranium does not exist, the slope towards the occipital and foramen magnum commencing from the top of the external nasal opening, and falling off to the rear in an abrupt angle; the size of the orbit is large, and its encircling bones massive and prominent; the space between the orbits to the front continued up to the nasal opening, is depressed to an enormous extent, and the two lines of alveoli of the tusks strongly marked; the temporal fossae are comparatively small with those of the existing elephant, and the temporal bones; which although broken off in the specimen from which the drawing is taken, exists in another skull in our possession, appearing to be large and composed of cellular bone. The angle formed by the tusks with the grinding surface is more obtuse than in the existing elephant, and the form of head, instead of possessing the proportion assimilating the skull of the elephant to that of man, may be considered as nearly square, or perhaps possessing a breadth in greater proportion than the length. The height of the maxillary bones which is great in the elephant, is here much exaggerated, and
the form and profile especially is so peculiar, that a glance at the sketch will, by comparison with that of the existing elephant also given, be sufficiently striking.

The suborbitary foramen is by no means large; the proportion of diploe in the upper part of the cranium bears no comparison with that in the existing elephant, these differences combined with the peculiarity of form and position of the external nasal aperture, may, in all probability, modify the extent to which this variety of Mastodon was provided with trunk; but to forbear from surmisises or speculations in the present imperfect state of the inquiry, it will be sufficient to place this as a second to the angustidens formerly noted.

P. S.—A letter this moment received from Captain Cautley announces the discovery of a superb specimen of the Mastodon angustidens, a skull with both lines of molars, palate, and one orbit entire: he adds—"We have much still to learn of these Mastodons; with regard to the Mastodon elephantoides of Clift, there are evidently two species, of the same character as to dentition, but with a remarkable difference in the form of cranium, one of which has the flat and the other the elevated crown." A very perfect head of a horse has also just been extracted by the Sewalik working parties, from the hard sandstone.—Ed.


1. Indication of a new Genus of Insessorial Birds.

Conirostres, Sturnidae, Lamprotorninae? Dentirostres, Merulidae, Crateropodinae?

In the suite of specimens of Nipalese birds forwarded by me, three years ago, to the Zoological Society of London, were three or four of the subject of the present article. They were marked in the imperfect list obligingly returned to me as "a new form nearly allied to Pastor." But, if Pastor roseus be the type of that genus, I confess I cannot perceive much affinity with our bird, either in structure or in manners. And, if a strong, arched, solid and compressed bill, united with gradated wings, and very strong feet, be the marks of the Crateropodinae, to that sub-family, I conceive that our bird should be referred; the more especially as its shy and retiring habits are alien to those of the whole Corvidae, and in a yet more particular manner, to those of the Sturnine branch of it. The Indian Stares seem to have perplexed systematists most woefully, though, I fancy, there is not one of us exiles 'in the land of the sun,' but readily
recognises the propriety of the native genus *Maina*. All the *Mainas* have a preponderant similitude of general structure and of habits, constituting generic unity, if such a thing there be; and placing these birds, in a natural system, close to the European genus *Sturnus* (secundum Linnaeum); unless indeed that single genus should not rather embrace the whole of the *Mainas* sub-generically. Yet, according to the latest and most accredited systems, these birds are scattered at random amongst the *Lamprotorninae*, the *Pastorinae* and the *Coraciinae*, constituting the Sturnine genera *Dilophus, Acridotheres*, and *Pastor*, and the Corvine genus *Gracula vel Eulabes*! Should we feel disposed to turn from English to French systems, the matter is no way mended: for Cuvier's *Dentirostral* and Meruline *Grakles* are sundered, toto cælo, from his Conirostral and Corvine *Stares*; and Temminck's *type* of the genus *Pastor* is dissevered widely from all its congeners! If the first men of the age can so err for want of local information, it is to be hoped that some of them will, ere long, see the necessity of *methodical co-operation* with those who are capable of supplying that information, and who, I will add, are most anxious to supply it, upon fair and gentlemanly terms of participation.

* We have seven species, all abundant in Nipal.
  1. *Religiosa*.
  2. *Cristellooides*, (nob.)
  3. *Tristoides*, (nob.)
  4. *Sylvestris*, (nob.)
  5. *Affinis*, (nob.)
  6. *Communis*, (nob.)
  7. *Terricolor*, (nob.)

Of these, 2 and 3 are very nearly allied to Cristatella and Tristis; 4 and 5 to Pagodorum and Malabarica. The 6th inclines much to Sturnus; and the 7th, a very osculant species, has very considerable resemblance in the form of its wings, tail and legs, to Cinelosoma.

† So subtle and various are the relations of birds to one another, that no success can attend the ambitious project of a general classification conformable to nature, unless, to the intimations derived from external structure be added those derivable from internal structure and from habits and manners.

But how shall the most able man of science at home procure an adequate supply of the latter sort of information, unless he will associate to himself some intelligent and persevering local students? Dried skins are but dried skins! And why have we Zoological Societies, unprovided with travelling naturalists, if not to accomplish some sort of adequate union between domestic skill and foreign opportunity?

So long as the closet and field departments continue separated, so long will the multiplication of idle names and vague species go on, whilst no effectual progress will be made in the noble attempt at a natural classification.

5 H 2
What adds to my difficulty in attempting to class the birds now in question is, that the so-called *Pastor Trailli* (very abundant in Nepal) is, in my judgment, a typical Oriole; whilst the *Lamprotornis spilopterus* (also common here) is not easily referable to Temminck's genus *Lamprotornis*.

Mr. Swainson, who has very recently revised the *Sturnidae* of our modern English school, characterises the sub-typical or *Lamprotornine* group of them thus. "Bill more compressed and thrush-like, its base not angulated; the tip of the upper mandible distinctly notched." In the above characters I perceive some faint traces of our bird: but when I turn to the indication of the entire family, those traces seem obliterated, for "the conic straight bill, naked nostrils, and lengthened pointed wings," of the *Sturnidae*, essentially conflict with the structure of our subject.

With these preliminary remarks I shall now attempt to characterise our bird, as the type of a new genus or sub-genus, either of the *Lamprotorninia* or of the *Crateropodina*, as the learned shall please.

*Cútia* nobis. *Khuya* (quasi *Pedatus*) of the Nipalese.

Bill equal to the head, at base higher than broad, sub-arched and much compressed throughout; strong, entire, obtuse. Culmen considerably carinated between the nares, but not much produced among the soft and simple frontal plumes. Tomia erect, rather obtuse, and near to the palate. Nares broad-lunate, sub-basal closed above by a nude un-arched scale. Rictus moderate, smooth. Orbits and head plumose. Wings short, but firm; 5th quill usually longest; 2 first strongly—2 next, slightly gradated up to it. Tail short, quadrate and firm. Tarsi sub-elevate, very strong, nearly smooth. Toes compressed and ambulatory; lateral fores unequal, connected basally, the outer one as far as the joint; central not elongated; hind very large, sub-depressed and exceeding either of the lateral fores. Nails, compressed, strong, moderately bent, rather blunt.

* Entire in the majority of my full grown specimens, but in others there is a faint notch. This liability to vary perpetually occurs in *Cinclus*, in *Cinclosa*, in *Cuculus*, and in *Timalia* (not to mention more); rendering the task of characterising *justly*, a work of time and labour in comparisons.

† So soon as the family and sub-family of our genus be determined, a great part of the above generic definition may be omitted relatively to such determination. At present the larger divisions sadly outrun the characters which should accompany and designate them. Vide Shaw's General Zoology, vols. 13 and 14, where few of the larger divisions have any characters attached to them. Vide also the Regne Animal, Aves, wherein the subdivisions are indicated, *passim*, by two or three vague words!
Type Cáitia Nipalensis, nobis.
Nos. 254, 255, of the new specimens and drawings in the possession of the Zoological Society. In order to illustrate the affinities of our bird, I proceed to compare it with Pastor roseus and with Lamprotornis spilopterus.

In Pastor roseus (as in all the typical Pastors in my possession) the bill is longer than the head, straight, conico-cylindric, and soft and feeble towards the base. Its gape is angulated; and the plumes of the head, carried forwards to the antean extremitity of the oval nares, are pointed, glossed, and elongated. The ample and pointed wings, have the 1st quill bastard; the 2nd, very long and nearly equal to the 3rd, which is always the longest. The tarsi are strong, elevated and heavily scaled. The toes have the laterals and hind equal, and the central fore considerably elongated. The outer fore toe has a basal connexion with the central, but the inner is free.

In Lamprotornis spilopterus the wings have exactly the same form as in Pastor roseus; and, as this identical form is also found in Eulabes religiosa, (not to mention more typical Pastors,) it would seem to be characteristically and extensively significant*. The bill of Lamp. spilopterus, which is scarcely longer than the head, uniformly sub-arcurated and not angulated at the gape, so far agrees with our Cátia. But its base is distinctly depressed, whilst forward it has a very slight compression and sub-cylindric outline. It is, besides, sharply pointed, saliently notched, and its trenchant fine tomia are deeply interlocked. Carry these peculiarities a little further and you have the bill of Chloropsis, which genus further agrees with Lamprotornis spilopterus almost entirely in the nature of the food of

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* The generic character of Pastor gives 'remex prima longissima:' but it is not so in my specimen of the type or Roseus: nor in any other typical Pastor, if Pastor be the equivalent for Maina. On the other hand, if Acridotheres be held to be that equivalent, the 'genæ plus minusve nudæ' is true of Tristoides, not true of Cristelloides, which two species are, however, as nearly allied as possible and perpetually associate together, every large flock of the former having many individuals of the latter. In other words, these genera are artificial and false; neither of them being capable of comprising consistently half a dozen of the most similar birds. The cheek piece cannot be an influential character, or one of the above named two species would not have it, and the other want it. By consequence, I should say, the genus Eulabes is purely artificial; for, bating the cheek piece, there is nothing left to distinguish the single species ranged under it, but a greater degree of thickness in a bill of exactly the same essential character.

Commend me to the old genus Gracula, sub-generically divided.

Our Maina is the prototype of the French Martin and of the English Minor.
the species, and in the structure of their stomachs. On the other hand, the harder, blunter, more solid, and uniformly compressed bill of *Cúttia*, associated as it is with a subtriturating stomach and a diet consisting of hard insects and seeds, seems to affiliate our bird to *Pomatorhinus* and its allies.

In *Lamprotornis spilopterus* the nares are still short and round, though there be somewhat more approach to a nude membranous tect than in *Pastor roseus*.

In *Lamprotornis spilopterus* the tarsi are rather low, and the feet suited more to perching than to walking, the soles being flattish and the nails very acute. The lateral fores (of which the outer one only has a basal connexion) are shorter in proportion to the central, and longer in relation to the hind, than in our bird, which, by its longer legs, and full soled stout toes, provided with straighter and blunter nails, proclaims its more terrestrial habits, notwithstanding the basal connexion of the fore toes. Lastly, the pointed and burnished feathers upon the head of *Spilopterus* are wholly wanting in our bird.

In *Spilopterus* they seem to intimate relationship with the *Stares*: nor is the intimation unrequired; for the habits and essential structure of this species*, when viewed in relation to whatever hath been, or can be justly, alleged of the *Sturnidae*, savour more of contrast than of similitude. As for our *Cúttia*, amidst all its anomalies (so to speak) of external structure, there is certainly something *Sturnine* in its aspect; and, by the formation of its feet and wings, as well as by its variegated plumage, it bears some resemblance to *Sturnella*; a genus “leading directly to the true starlings.”

Species new. *Nipalensis* nobis. *Nipales* *Cúttia*, nobis.

Habitat, central and northern regions: adheres to the wilds, and feeds on hard seeds and hard ground insects.

*Colour and Size.* Male. Above, brilliant rusty yellow, with jet black remiges and rectrices: cap, and a large apert central portion of the wings, slaty; the former, confined all round by a black band

* Quod est, structure of the chylopoetic viscera of the bill, and of the tongue, taken collectively.

In all these respects there is a strong tendency towards *Ixos*, *Chloropsis*, *Hypsipetes*, and others of the frugivorous arboreal and short-legged section of those most anomalous thrushes, the other or long-legged division of which seem to make some such approximation to the Conirostres, as the short-legged section does to the Tenuirostres. Cuvier’s Philedones, of which our Sibia may be taken as a perfect type—appear to unite these two very opposite sections. *Sibia Picoides* has the tail and feet of *Pica*; and the bill and tongue of *Chloropsis*! But these are mysteries for the amply stored Museum and Library to solve!
proceeding through the eyes and ears from the nares. Below, from chin to legs pure white, from legs inclusively to tail, flavescent: the flanks broadly cross-barred with black: a spot of the same hue at the base of the maxilla: most of the quills and the lateral rectrices, tipped with white: lining of the wings and quills internally towards their bases, albescent: bill above blackish, below plumbeous: legs orange yellow: iris brown, 7 inches long by 11 wide, and 2 oz. in weight: bill 1/4: tarsus 1 1/2: central toe 1 1/2: hind toe 1/3. The female is a trifle less in size: her mantle is variegated by longitudinal black drops; and her cheek-band is brown instead of black.

2. Indication of a new Genus of Waders, belonging to the Charadriatic Family.

Most Indian sportsmen are aware that there are two species of wader, known to the natives by the common name of Carvának or Carbának; one of which frequents dry sandy plains, and the other, sandy banks of rivers.

The former bird belongs to the genus Ædicnemus or Thick-knee, scarcely differing, as a variety, from the European type of that genus. But the latter, though possessing the same figure (even to the large head, with abrupt elevated forehead and great staring eye), as the other; and though, moreover, resembling the other strictly in the form of the legs, wings and tail, yet differs from it totally in the structure of the bill.

This member, which in Ædicnemus has very much of the Plover form, in the river-haunting Carvának exhibits the strength and size so conspicuous in the Storks and Jabirus.

I find no generic mention of such a form in the works of Ornithology accessible to me; and I therefore propose to characterise it as a new genus; subject to the correction of those whose access to libraries and museums qualifies them to lay down the law in matters of this sort.


Character.

Bill twice as long as the head, sub-recurved, strong, convex above, considerably compressed; the base thickish and rounded; the tomiæ very trenchant, locked, and denticulated and notched towards the tip, as in Arđea. Nares broad-linear and placed forward in a wide membranous fosse, extending 1/3 from the base to the tip of the culmen. Tongue long, narrow, fleshy: towards the point cartilaginous, and the point itself sub-bifid. Form of the head and body, of the feet, wings and tail, as in Ædicnemus.
Type Carvánaca Grisea, nobis. *Edicenemus Magnirostris*, Hardwicke?

Specific character.

Carvánac. Above, a sky grey: below, together with the frontal zone, white. Brows, ear-coverts and mustaches, blackish. Shoulders, false wing, and coverts next them, together with the quills and tip of the tail, blackish. Wings and tail irregularly but largely banded with white, and both white for the most part, below. Length of the bird 20 inches, width 36, weight 1½ lbs.

The marks. This species inhabits the Bengal Presidency, very generally, being always found on the wide sandy banks of the larger rivers during the cold months of the year. It migrates to Tibet in summer, and passes over Népal on its way to and fro. Its food consists of crabs and other hard-shelled fish. Its intestines are from 22 to 25 inches long, with two caeca, each 3¾ inches, placed at 5 inches from the lower end of the gut. The stomach is a strong triturating gizzard, fitted with the aid of gravel, to grind the hard parts of the bird’s food.

Manners cannot well be more dissimilar than those of the desert and ripuary Carvánacs: the former adhering to dry arid plains, very much like the Indian Bustards*; and the latter, as exclusively to the beds of rivers. Whoever will refer to the English Cuvier, (Aves. III. 307,) will perceive that our species is probably not unknown to science. Is it not the *Edicenemus Magnirostris* of Hardwicke?

At the place quoted, two other allied species are cited, and these three may constitute the new genus or sub-genus Carvánaca, distinguished from *Edicenemus* by totally different manners, and by a truly cultrirostral bill.

It were well, indeed, if all new genera rested on diversities so marked as these—the manners so admirably tallying with the structure of that grand instrument of sustentation, the rostrum. Our genus, moreover, appears to me to constitute a remarkable and distinct link of connexion between the *Ardeidae*, by means of *Mycteria* and the *Charadriidae* through *Edicenemus*. And it would, in my judgment, be quite as consonant to nature to confound *Edicenemus* with *Charadrius*, as Carvánaca (nobis) with *Edicenemus*.

The only consequence of Hardwicke’s species proving to be the same with ours, ought therefore to be—not the rejection of the new genus, but—the merging of my specific name of *Grisea* in his of *Magnirostris*: unless indeed, the latter term be not held to have lost

* It is frequently called by us the Bastard Florican.
its significance in relation to a genus as much distinguished for the strength and size of the bill, as any one of the whole order.

3.—Indication of a new Genus of the Falconidae.


*Generic character.* Bill as in *Ierax*, but somewhat longer: upper mandible, with two sharp teeth on either side the hook, directed forwards: lower mandible with three or four smaller ones, on each side, correspondent to the former. Nares transverse, long, and linear, with the cere behind them membranous and free to base of bill. Legs and feet short and thick. Tarsi low, half plumed, coarsely reticulate. Toes short, cleft, inner fore and hind somewhat depressed and the latter large. Aeropodia wholly reticulate. Talons sub-equal, acute, squared below.

Wings long, equal to tail: 3rd quill longest.

*Type.* Būza Śyāma, nobis.

In addition to the above significant particulars, (some of which may hereafter be omitted in the generic character,) I may add that the orbits, lore, and sides of the cere are clad in soft, composed plumage; that the cere is short and nude above; that the bill has great breadth and depth at the base, corresponding with the broad flat head and large eye of the true *Falcon*, and, both of which distinguish our bird no less; that the first and second quills are but moderately gradated*, and all three pretty sharply margined towards their tips, though not so near as in *Falco* or in *Ierax*; that the tail is of mediolength and square; that the tongue is bifid; and that, lastly, the feeble feet are remarkable for the sub-equality of the toes and talons, the roughness and levelness of the soles, and the size and depression of the thumbs. The complex affinities of this singular genus are obviously with *Cymindis*, *Harpagus* and *Ierax*. It is more nearly allied to the last, and its position (in Vigors’ arrangement of the *Falconidae*) clearly is at the head of the *Falconinae*, and leading from the genus *Campsonix* to the genus *Ierax*. It differs from *Ierax* by its cymindian nares, its long wings, and its cleft toes, with unballed and depressed soles.

Species new. Būza Śyāma, nobis.

Black, glossed with changeable blue or green: the belly and sides, rufous white, crossed by five or six broad bars of lake tinged ochreous red: outer web of the secondaries, the same hue—of the tertials,

* 1st is 1½ inches, and the 2nd ¼ an inch, less the 3rd; the rest rapidly fall off; and the primaries exceed the secondaries by nearly three inches. The scapulars are of good length.
white: scapulars and long coverts nearest them, whitened internally: a broad white gorget on the breast: remiges and rectrices plumbeous, for the most part, on the lower surface: legs and bill plumbeous: talons and tip of the bill, black: iris brown: a long slender drooping crest from the occiput: 13 inches long by 30 wide and 7 to 8 oz. in weight: bill, \( \frac{1}{4} \): tarsus, \( \frac{1}{6} \): central toe, 1.

Remarks. These birds are peculiar to the great forests of the lower region, so far as I yet know. The sexes are alike both in size and colours: both in young and moultling birds the leaden colour of the legs is lost in fleshy grey—that of the bill, in dusky grey; and the powerful complex dentation of the bill, (both mandibles) is in the juniors only traceable as a festoon upon the upper mandible.

4.—Indication of a new Genus of the Picidae, with description of the type.

A new species, also, of two new species of the Genus Sitta.

Yunxine, Swainson. Genus new; Sasia, nobis. Sasya of Nipal.

Generic character.

Bill equal to the head, conico-compressed, pointed and entire: the base furnished with tufts of hair as in Bucco.

Nares round, basal, lateral, remote, and concealed. Tail short, soft and square; wings equal to the tail, full, soft, first quill sub-bastard, 5 and 6, longest and equal; tertials sub-equal to primaries. Feet three-toed, hind toe stoutest, sub-equal in length to outer fore; inner fore connected to first joint. Nails somewhat straightened and obtuse.

Tongue as in Picus.

Type, Sasia ochracea, nobis.

Species new. Ochracea; Ochreous red Sasia.

Form. It has been described above. In further illustration of it we may, however, add that this singular bird has a close relationship with our Vivia, from which it differs by its rather longer and perfectly unangulated bill; by its shorter, even tail; by the Bucco-like tufts of its bill; and, above all, by its three-toed feet, the nails of which have hardly any of the scansorial falcation and acuteness. Its orbits are nude, and it has a transverse corneous operculum before the eye.

Colour and Size. Subocherous red, with greenish yellow cap and wings; a white streak from behind each eye; and jet black unmarked tail.

Wings, internally, dusky; on their lower surface towards the bases of the quills, as well as the lining of the wings, buff. Legs fleshy yellow: bill plumbeous with a dusky ridge: orbitar skin plumbeous: iris brown: size very minute, 3\( \frac{1}{2} \) inches by 7, and \( \frac{1}{3} \) oz. in weight;
tarsus \( \frac{1}{4} \): antel outer toe \( \frac{3}{4} \); its nail \( \frac{1}{4} \): sexes alike: Habitat, forests of lower region.

Remarks. On a recent occasion I quoted *Vivia Nipalensis*, (nobis) as the smallest of the family*. The above singular bird is still smaller, and both by its extraordinary form, and by its diminutive size, confirms the assertion then hazarded, that the vast forests of Nipal yield to none in the world in the number and variety of the Woodpecker tribe.

**Certhiade.** Genus *Sitta* auctorum. Species new; *Corallina*, coral-billed *Sitta*, nobis.

Form, as in *Castaneoventris†*, but considerably smaller in size. Above, soft sub-cerulean blue, tinged with lilac on the cap: below, sordid greyish: chin white: forehead black: great quills and lateral rectrices, blackish; the latter, white-tipped: legs plumbeous grey: bill intense coral red: iris straw yellow: \( 4\frac{3}{4} \) inches long by \( 8\frac{1}{2} \) wide, and \( \frac{1}{2} \) oz. in weight: sexes alike. Habitat, central and northern regions.

Species 2nd, *Nipalensis*, nobis.

Above, saturate blue, darker than in *Castaneoventris* and with a purplish tinge: below, rufescent deepening as you descend the body, and showing full rusty on the lower flanks, vent, and inferior tail coverts: from the nostrils through the eyes to the shoulders, a black band: quills and lateral tail feathers, blackish: a white spot at the base of the two central rectrices; and the lateral ones blanched towards their tips: legs fleshy grey: bill dusky blue, changing to fleshy grey towards the base: iris dark brown: sexes alike: size of the precedent, and habitat the same.

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5.—**New species of Hirundinidae.**

**Cypselus.** *Chatura*.

Species 1st. *Nudipes*, nobis.

Form and size. Bill typically cypseline with large vertical nares, wings exceedingly firm and long; 1st quill longest, more than two inches beyond the tail: tail shortish, quadrate, longer than the coverts, composed of ten very firm square-pointed feathers, the rigid straight shafts of which are produced into naked acute spines. Tarsi longer than any toe, nude, smooth. Toes longer and more unequal

* A mistake, I find: for *Picus Minutus* is but \( 3\frac{1}{2} \) inches long, or, precisely the size of our present subject.
† Also a Nipalese species: and these hills have therefore afforded three species to a genus previously limited to one—or, at most, two, if *Pectoralis* prove to be distinct.

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than in *Cypselus*, with the hind one distinctly versatile. Talons strong and scansorial; 8\(\frac{1}{2}\) inches from tip of bill to tip of tail, and 20 inches between the wings. **Weight 4\(\frac{1}{2}\) oz. Tarsus 1\(\frac{1}{2}\), central toe 1\(\frac{1}{2}\).**

**Colour,** head as far as the eyes and ears (inclusive), dorsal neck, sides, rump, upper tail coverts, wings and tail, dusky-black with a changeable blue or green gloss: chin, throat, and most part of the neck in front, confluently white: bottom of the neck, on the antecal surface, breast, and body below, sooty brown: vent, inferior tail-coverts, and a lateral stripe from the thighs, backwards to them, white, more or less picked out with blue glossed black: back and scapulars, whitey-brown: inner web of the last tertaries, pure white: legs purpurescent dusky: bill black: iris dark-brown: sexes alike. The young want the blue or green gloss of maturity: the clear whitey-brown of the back and pure sooty brown of the belly are in them blended into an uniform dusky hue; and their throat is of a very sordid white.

**Remark.** This singular species, by the structure of its feet, opens a passage from *Hirundo* to *Cypselus*. Though variously allied to *Pelasia, Acuta, Caudacuta*, and *Gigantea*, it exhibits, I believe, a distinct type of form—being certainly not a *Chattura* as defined by Stevens, nor a *Cypselus* of Illiger; far less a swallow. It climbs with great power aided equally by its talons and its tail. Its habitat is the northern region, whence it sometimes wanders into the mountains of the central, avoiding however the open and level country. I have set it down in my note book as the type of a new genus, called *Hirundo*.

**Species 2nd. Cypselus Nipalensis,* nobis.**

Sooty black, glossed with green: chin, throat, and top of the neck in front, confluently white: a white bar across the rump: talons and bill, black: iris brown: nude part of toes, dusky-grey. **Size small; 5\(\frac{1}{2}\) by 12\(\frac{1}{2}\) inches; and barely one oz. in weight: sexes alike: structure typical: tail, short and even.**

**Remark.** This is the common Swift of the central region, where it remains all the year, building under thatched roofs, and against the beams of flat roofs. It lays two white eggs and breeds repeatedly.

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**Genus Hirundo. Species 1st. Nipalensis,* nobis.**

Cap, back, scapulars and wing-coverts, brilliant deep blue: quills, tail feathers, and the longer tail coverts above and below, dusky: a narrow frontal zone, cheeks, neck, and body below, as well as the rump and lesser tail coverts above, rusty; paler and striped with narrow lines of dusky hue on the whole abdominal surface: dorsal
neck, more or less blotched with blue; rump, immaculate: bill, black: iris, dull brown: legs, fleshy-grey: sexes exactly alike: structure typical: tail long and deeply forked: size of H. Rustica.

Remark. This is the common Swallow of the central region, a household creature remaining with us for seven or eight months of the year.


Earthly grey brown: below, from the chin to the vent (exclusively), rufescent white: legs fleshy grey: bill black: iris brown: sexes alike: larger than the last, 6½ by 14½ inches, and weight 1½ oz.: structure typical: wings exceeding the short and subfurcate tail. Habitat, the central and northern regions: not migratory: adheres to the mountains, preferring rocky situations.

N. B. The remaining Hirundine birds of Nepal are Hirundo Rustica and the Sand-Martín; both of which, but especially the latter, are common.

IV.—*Description of the Shell and Animal of Nematura, a new Genus of Mollusca, inhabiting situations subject to alternations of fresh and brackish water*. By W. H. Benson, Esq. B. C. S.

Animal.—Caput tentaculis duobus setaceis oculis posticè prope bases tentaculorum sessilibus; proboscide elongatâ, cylindraccâ, extensili.

Pes ovato-oblongus, medio ventricosus, posticè angustatus, acuminatus, processu brevi filiformi subito desinens; anticè expansus, medio profunde emarginatus; alæ utroque latere porrectâ latè angustatâ, acuminatâ.

Testâ ovatâ, ventricosâ, à latere compressâ, ultimo anfractu insuper aperturam angulato, deflexo. Aperturâ integrâ constrictâ, orbiculari, superâ vix angulatâ; peritremate acuto leviter intus incrassato. Operculo tenui in spiram planam convoluto.

The snout is capable of great extension, and the animal is able to lick the summit of the shell with its extremity, which is armed within the mouth with a pair of strong vertical jaws, each apparently consisting of two pieces: these are constantly in motion in a vertical direction. The centre of the foot has a rounded peltate appearance, occasioned by the adaptation of its form to that of the operculum, which is visible through the transparent foot when viewed on the under side. The singular short filiform process attached to the extremity of the foot appears to be the termination of a nerve or minute canal, which is seen extending directly up the centre of the foot until it is lost under the operculum. The excrement is voided from the right side of the animal.
The shell is compressed laterally in a direction parallel to the axis and to the plane of the aperture, as in scarabrus, but the prominent edges are rounded, and the former lips do not leave a ridge or keel at each semi-turn as in that genus. The sudden deflexion of the last whorl above the aperture, and the consequent depression and constriction of the aperture is a singular feature in the shell, and, in conjunction with its compressed form, led to my pronouncing the species to be a type of a distinct genus before I became acquainted with the animal or the operculum.

The first specimens which I saw, were shewn to me by Mr. Croft, who found them destitute of inhabitant or operculum in the Sunderbans east of the Jabuna river. He was unable to state whether they were land or water shells. Their occurrence in the delta of the Ganges so near to Calcutta, spurred me to diligence in the search after the species, and, about a couple of months subsequently, I discovered it alive between high and low water mark in pools, and on wet mud recently left by the tide in the river Hooghly, immediately opposite to the Esplanade. Here they were accompanied by Melania tigrata* and Melania pyramis*. Dr. Pearson subsequently found them in the mud deposited by the aqueduct which passes in front of the Town Hall. Here we found them accompanied by assiminia fasciata, and by small specimens of novaculina gangetica. I also took specimens attached to a floating bamboo in the Salt-water Lake in company with Neritina depressa.

Though found between high and low water mark like assiminia fasciata, nematura does not otherwise resemble it in its habits, as it never attempts to creep out of the water in which it is placed, but ascending to the surface swims with the foot reversed in the same manner as lymnaea, planorbis, paludina, and the smaller melania use to do.

I have named the species on which the genus is founded

Nematura† Deltae. Testá ovato-conicá, à lateribus tumidá, lute-scente, ultimo anfractu ventricoso, majori omnibus obliquè minutè striatis; spirá brevi; apice acuto; umbilico evanescentc. Long. 0.25 poll.

* Melania tigrata, described as species D, and melanía pyramis as species B, in Gleanings in Science, vol. ii. p. 22. Species A of that paper, I have elsewhere more fully described as M. variabilis, and I have named species C M. elegans.

† Lamarck has a genus of insects named Nemura from ἱμα filum and ὀφρα canda; but as he neglected the rules of composition the appellation of the present genus, while it expresses a singular feature in the animal, will run no risk of being confounded with that of the eminent naturalist.
V.—Note on the Genus Pterocyclos of Mr. Benson and Spiraculum of Mr. Pearson. By Dr. William Bland.

On the 27th of May last, I was fortunate enough to fall in with a shell of this genus, on the islet of Susson, one of the Boontin group, opposite to the peak of Queda, and in sight of Pulo-Pinang. Although the general description of my specimen answers to those above-mentioned, yet in some particulars it differs from both. The mouth is circular, its upper half marked inside by a double slightly raised line, from whence the pterygoid process is sent off which overhangs and forms the sinus, but the inside edge of this process does not touch the penultimate whorl as in Mr. Benson's shell, and it certainly differs from those of Mr. Pearson. In the specimen of Pulo-Susson, the sinus is \( \frac{1}{7} \) of an inch from the rings above-mentioned to the outside arch, and from this arch to the extremity of the wing which overhangs and forms the sinus is \( \frac{1}{9} \) th of an inch; the wing in breadth is \( \frac{5}{6} \) th, mouth thickened, which thickening is carried on to strengthen the wing on its upper part. Shell one inch in diameter, with dark orange zig-zag lines across the whorls, and a band of a darker colour running longitudinally on the centre of the last whorl. Animal recently dead, but in a state of decay, so that nothing could be made out of it.

As one drawing is worth many descriptions, I have cut a leaf out of my book, having two figures of the natural size of the shell in question, No. 1, for your inspection; and, to assist in elucidating the history of this genus of beautiful shells, I have added another figure, No. 2, found at Trincomalee.

This shell has a small pterygoid process bending down, and in contact with the penultimate whorl, extending \( \frac{3}{4} \) th of an inch in front of the circular mouth, but no vestige of tube or sinus obtains in this specimen; lip thickened and reflected; the shell having all the appearance of maturity; diameter \( \frac{5}{6} \) th of an inch; operculum convex, horny-formed, of circular layers.

Note on Dr. Bland's Paper.

The Susson species appears, from the drawing forwarded with the description, to belong to the typical group of Pterocyclos, which includes \( P. parvus \) and \( rupestris \), and to be intermediate between the latter species and \( hispidus \), to the last of which it exhibits an approach in the irregular aperture and dilated and thickened wing; but in the absence of a specimen for comparison, no specific character can be assigned with safety.
The *Trincomalee* shell is interesting as an arboration form, indicating the passage to *Cyclostoma*, which it approaches through the alate species, *C. petiocrium* of Gray. It appears to possess the convex operculum composed of spirally concentric and exserted laminae which characterizes the typical species of *pterocyclus*. This character seems to be gradually developed in the opercula of the *Cyclostomade* as the umbilicus widens, and the shell becomes more discoid; varying from the flat operculum of *C. elegans* through that of *C. involucrus*, where the edges of the laminae are partially disengaged, and that of *C. semistriatum*, which is thickened and shews a strong spiral keel, to the convex and spirally laminar structure of the *pterocycloid* group.

The species of *Cyclostoma* from Neenuch, described by Lieutenant Hutton as No. 26, in page 520, vol. iii. J. A. S. I have ascertained by a comparison of specimens to be *C. semistriatum* of Sowerby, whose examples were procured from Poona.

Query. May not the impression of a supposed species of *Cirrus* noticed in Dr. Ward’s paper on the geology of the Elephant Rock in the Queda country, printed in the second part Trans. Phys. Class, p. 166, be that of one of Dr. Bland’s species of *Pterocyclus* from Pulo-Susson? A reference to the specimen No. 4 will decide.

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VI.—*Note on the Nautical Instruments of the Arabs*. By James Prinsep, Sec.

Since the arrival of the Arab vessels which annually frequent the port of Calcutta, I have made diligent inquiries concerning the instrument in use among them for the measurement of the latitude, in hopes of elucidating thereby the Baron Von Hammer’s translation of the “Mohit” (see p. 442). I have been hitherto unsuccessful, the English quadrant or sextant having generally superseded the more ancient and clumsy apparatus. One *Muallim*, however, seemed to recognize the instrument perfectly by my description, though he could not explain its construction; and promised to bring me one on his next voyage:—he stretched out his arms, when I inquired about the *issabah* division, and placing his fingers together horizontally, counted with them the height of the polar star, just as I guessed must have been the early and rude method of the Arab navigators.

At length in a vessel from the Maldive islands I met with an intelligent navigator who brought me the primitive instruments with which he was accustomed to work his way to Calcutta,—and as I do not think they are generally known, while it is certain they are of Arabic origin, I hasten to describe them as lithographed in Plate XLVIII.
Fig. 1. is the کنال kamdl, an instrument for taking the altitude of the polar and circumpolar stars*, in its most elementary shape.

It consists of a small parallelogram of horn (about two inches by one) with a string (or a couple of strings, in some instances), inserted in the centre. On the string are nine knots. To use the instrument for taking the height of polaris, the string is held between the teeth, with the horn at such a distance from the eye, that while the lower edge seems to touch the oceanic horizon, the upper edge just meets the star: the division or knot is then read off as the required latitude.

The mode of marking off these knots is curious. Five times the length of the horn is first taken, as unity, and divided into twelve parts: then at the distance of six of these parts from the horn, the first knot is made which is called "12." Again the unit is divided into eleven parts, and six of these being measured on the string from the horn as before, the second knot is tied and denominated "11." The unit is thus successively divided into 10, 9, 8, 7, and 6 parts, when the knot tied will of course exactly meet the original point of five diameters: this point is numbered "6." Beyond it one diameter of the horn is laid off for the "5" division, and one and a half again beyond that for the "4" division, which usually terminates the scale.

It is easy to determine by calculation the value of these several divisions, measured from the centre of the horn or diameter b d, and at right angles to it. They represent the tangents of the angle c b a, to radius b c, or cotangents to the complementary angle e b a: but e b a is equal to b a c, which is half of d a b, therefore the divisions represent cotangents of half the angle of observation. To judge then of their actual value, expressed in altitude, we have but to convert their numerical ratio to radius, by a table of natural cotangents, into degrees and minutes; and to take the double as the latitude in each case: thus, the horn being equal to double radius b c, we have

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<tr>
<th>The first division, No. 12</th>
<th>2 × 5 = 10</th>
<th>12 × 6 = 72</th>
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<td>15 12</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7 × 6</td>
<td>8.57</td>
<td>13 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6 × 6</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>11 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5 × 6</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>9 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5 × 6</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>7 36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Diff. | 1.52 |

It will be seen by the last column that the harmonic progression of the divisions obtained by this simple rule, agrees very closely with

* The man assured me it was for taking the longitude, and promised to come one night and use it in my presence, but failed.
equable increments of the angle of elevation, falling somewhat short of
two degrees for each division. Further the highest number, 12, gives
nearly the latitude of Calcutta, or 22° 38', the most northerly latitude
for which the Maldive navigators have any occasion; while the lowest
mark, 4, gives the latitude (nearly) of the southern point of Ceylon, or
the average of the Maldive islands.

It is a circumstance worth noting, that if the unit had been assumed
at 6 diameters instead of 5, there would have been obtained a series
of divisions almost identical with the issabah of 1° 36' used by the na-
vigators of the fifteenth century* according to the Mohit. The series
may also be extended both ways without very much deviating from
the same progression: thus, commencing with

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lat.</th>
<th>Diff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25°04'</td>
<td>i°32'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 32</td>
<td>1°31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 01</td>
<td>1°33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 28</td>
<td>1°32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 56</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 24</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 48</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 14</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 40</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 06</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 32</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 56</td>
<td>1°36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 22</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 46</td>
<td>1°36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 10</td>
<td>1°36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 36</td>
<td>1°34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>1°36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this manner a string, or a staff, may be marked off into tangen-
tial divisions, equivalent to the issabah, from zero or sixteen issabah,
or up to an altitude of 25 degrees, within a limit of error by no
means appreciable to the Arab nakhoda, and hardly of consequence
to the refined navigator of modern times. Whether the practical rule
thus developed was or was not resorted to, it is very plain that it
might have been so adapted; and all the latitudes in Sinh's work
might have been worked thereby; and the lower series of divisions
might be nothing more than the same divisions numbered inversely
on the lower side of the square staff, as will presently be noticed.

Fig. 2, the bilisty† is an evident improvement upon the original cord;
a square rod of ebony being substituted for the stretching cord, and the
radius being made to slide thereon at right angles. There is economy of
space also,—the four sides of the wooden rod admitting of four series
of divisions, adapted to four sliders of different sizes, so as to increase
the scale without lengthening the rod inconveniently. Still the string

* See page 445.   † بلستي
has the advantage in point of portability. The rules for dividing the wooden bar are the same as for the string, but the marks must be laid off invertedly, beginning at the eye end, which is in this the fixed point.

*Fig. 3* is an instrument still used by the Arabs for taking the sun's altitude. It is exactly the same in principle as the above, but to obviate the inconvenience of looking at the sun, the eye is directed to the opposite point of the horizon, from the lower end of the cross bar, while it brings the solar shadow of the upper end of the same to meet the horizon by adjusting the slider *d* to or fro on the divided arm. The mode of dividing this arm, as performed in my presence by the *muallim*, or pilot, is represented in the plate; but it is obviously incorrect. A space *c e* is laid off equal to radius *a c*; from *e* a perpendicular *e f* is raised, and with the same radius a quadrant *e g* is drawn, which is divided into eighteen equal portions (of five degrees each); through these points are drawn radii to meet the tangential line; and the subdivision into simple degrees, and sixths, is either done by the eye, or by a continuation of the same rule. It will be seen on inspection of the figure, that as the angle *g f d* is equal to the sum of the angles *f d b* and *b d e*, while *b d e* is equal to half the angle of observation, angle *g f d* can only be equal to angle of observation when *f d b* and *b d e* are equal, and that the 90° point is therefore the only true one on the scale of divisions. The true mode of division is, as in the case of the string, to describe a quadrant from centre *b*, and to draw radii through each semi-degree of the arc from 45° downward, because the angle of observation *a d b* is, as before, equal to twice the angle *f b d*, of which *c d* (*c 0, c 10, c 20, c 30, &c.*) are respectively cotangents.

To ascertain whether the fault lay with my Arab informant, or with the instrument, I compared the actual divisions on the latter with a scale of cotangents, and found the following results, calling the radius *a c* = 1.00.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Angle of altitude marked.</th>
<th>Angle of cot. 1/4 angle.</th>
<th>Length c d or True angle deduced.</th>
<th>Error of division.</th>
<th>Error if false mode had been used.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90°</td>
<td>0°</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>90°</td>
<td>0°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.096</td>
<td>84.46</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.196</td>
<td>79.48</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.308</td>
<td>74.46</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.435</td>
<td>69.44</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.557</td>
<td>65.26</td>
<td>+0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.719</td>
<td>60.22</td>
<td>+0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1.911</td>
<td>55.14</td>
<td>+0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.142</td>
<td>50.04</td>
<td>+0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2.418</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.759</td>
<td>39.50</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from this comparison, that the instrument was divided on correct principles, and that the *muallim* had ventured upon an expan-
tion without duly qualifying himself by consulting his books. It is also
clear that the same set of divisions may be made to serve for night
observations by placing the eye at $d$; but as they only embrace alti-
tudes exceeding 40 degrees, the instrument would not be applicable to
the polar star in equatorial latitudes.

In conversing with the same muallim on the track taken in different
monsoons, I remarked that he always talked of sailing upon different
stars, in lieu of different points of the compass, as we should express
ourselves. It immediately occurred to me, that this might explain some
of the obscurities of the Mohit, where, for instance, that work directs
the polar altitude to be found 7½ inches at the "setting of Aquila;" it
might mean that the ship should steer upon the setting point of Aquila,
until the pole should be depressed or raised to the altitude indicated.

I endeavoured therefore to procure an Arabic compass, but not one
could be met with in all the vessels—at length my friend Syed Hosein
Syed found a drawing of it in one of the practical works on navigation,
(the majid kitāb*) in possession of a nakhoda, and without ceremony tore
out the leaf to shew it to me, as the captain was afraid of parting
with the volume, without which doubtless he would have been greatly
at a loss on his return voyage. I immediately made a lithograph
drawing of it (fig. 5) exactly as I found it, with the circle of English
numbers, shewing it to have been copied from a European card, around
which the names by which the Arabs "box the compass," had been
entered as more conformable to their own practice.

These names would seem to point to a time anterior to the inven-
tion of the magnetic compass, when indeed the only way of ascertaining
the relative position of a ship at night in the broad ocean was by
observing the points of the horizon where prominent stars rose and
set. The system could only have been adapted to intertropical naviga-
tion, wherein no very great variation occurs in these azimuths, and
it is necessarily but an approximation to truth, as hardly any of the
prominent stars selected rise or set at the precise azimuth named from
them. By the positions assigned to some of the southern stars, we
must suppose that it was framed rather to suit places northward of the
equator; but in drawing out the following comparative view, I have
thought it preferable to enter the azimuth of each star on an equato-
rial projection, when of course the azimuth is equal to the polar dis-
tance, and the compass card thus affords to the Arab nakhoda a rude

* ماجدكتاب or, as my Maldivian friend facetiously expressed it, the "John
Hamilton kitāb" of the Arabs. It would be a work of great utility to print an
edition of this volume, with emendations and additions suited to the people, who
depend upon it as we do on our Greenwich Ephemeris!
table of N. P. D. by which he may, if he please, take his latitude, with the simple instruments above described.

The card may be divided into two great portions, the eastern and western, in which the same names of stars occur in a direct and inverse order—on the east with the prefix مطلع mutsla, or "rising place of;" on the west with that of مغيب maghib, "setting place of:" the north-eastern quarter has written on its circumference،

"From the north towards the east, Mutaldu Shimâlī,—(the north-eastern quarter,)—latitude increasing, longitude increasing."

The south-eastern in like manner has the words:

"From the east towards the south, Mutaldu Janubī, (or the south-eastern quarter,) the latitude diminishes, longitude increases."

The north-western:

"From the west to the north, the north-western quarter, Maghibi Shimâlī, latitude increasing, longitude decreasing."

The south-western:

"From the south towards the west, Maghibi Janubī, the south-western quarter; longitude decreases and latitude decreases;—when you are to the north of the line."

The final words, when you are to the north of the line, apply equally to the remarks on all four quadrants; for example, when you sail on any point of the compass between north and west, you increase your latitude and longitude—and so forth.

The north point, or pole, is called, as in Sîdî Ali's work جِان jâh, a word not to be found with this acceptation in our dictionaries; nor is نَطَب qutb, generally confined to the south pole, but rather the contrary. مطلع mutâl, the rising place, and مغيب maghib, the setting place (to wit, of the sun) are the terms used for the east and west cardinal points. It will be sufficient to enumerate one series of the intermediate stars in the order of their occurrence on the card.

1. N. by W. 11° 15°. مغيب فَرَقّ, the setting point of farqad, the calf; one of the two stars known by the name of farqadain, (β et γ ursæ minoris.) ν approaches nearest to the required north polar distance.
2. N. N. W. 22° 30'. مغيب نعش, the setting of nāsh, the bier. This constellation comprises the four stars of the belly, both of the small and the great bear, but generally and in the present instance, the name applies to the latter, of which, however, the position is nearer 30 degrees than 22½ in azimuth.

3. N. by N. 30° 45'. مغيب ناقة, the setting of nāqēh, the she-camel, probably the same as العذاق, the goat, of Dr. Dorn's celestial globe, the middle star of the tail of the great bear, N. P. D. 34°.

4. N. W. 45° 0. مغيب بعوق, the setting of ḍuq, the kitten, اینوونک of the Greeks, or capella; whose north polar distance is in fact 44½ degrees.

5. N. W. by W. 56° 15'. مغيب واقع, the setting of ṣiwa, the vulture, ṣeṣa of our astronomy or a lyra, N. P. D. 51½ degrees. This is the star translated by the Baron Hammer as Aquila; but the azimuth shews it to be Lyra.

6. W. N. W. 67° 30'. مطلع سماء, the setting of simak, contracted for سماك الرامي simāk al rūmē, the spear-bearer, Arcturus, N. P. D. 70°. It is Ascimech aremeah of the Alphonsine tables.

7. W. by N. 78° 45'. مطلع الغزاء, the setting of surayā, the Pleiades. The north polar distance of these stars differs so much from the azimuth here assigned, (being only 67°,) that the name is possibly applied to Aldebaran, (N. P. D. 73° 50') although the latter is the true Arabic denomination of a Tauri.

8. W. 90°. مغيب, the setting place (of the sun), nearly constant in the equatorial regions.

9. W. by S. 101° 15'. مغيب الجوزاء, the setting of jozd, a contraction for رجل الجوزاء یوز رجل of the giant's foot, known to Europeans as Rigel in the right foot of Orion, N. P. D. 98.24.

10. W. S. W. 112° 30'. مغيب النير, the setting of tir. I do not find any star of this name on the celestial globe described by Dr. Dorn in the Roy. As. Soc. Trans., nor is the word Arabic. The similarity of sound and near coincidence of azimuth might incline me to consider it as Antares, (115° 40'), were it possible that the word نير, bright, in the passage quoted by Dorn from Ebn Muhammed, could be changed to نير the name of the star before us: the passage is as follows:

"The constellation of the scorpion is known to every one; on the buttock there is a bright reddish star of the second magnitude,
which is the scorpion’s heart.’’ If the Arabic name of this star be *galb ul dgrab*, whence was our name of Antares derived?

The only other resembling * Tir* in sound is the Arabic name *Atair* which is marked as the crown of Aquila; but the position of this constellation puts it out of the question.

11. S. W. by W. 123° 45'. **مَغِيبَةٌ أَكَلِيلٍ**, the setting of *Akleil*, the crown. There are several constellations so named. *Corona borealis* is called *الكوكَة*, and is much too far north. There is another *akleil* (*janubi*) the southern crown, situated about azim. 130° which is nearer the mark; but the constellation intended may possibly be the crown of the scorpion, the 17th lunar mansion of *Ulugh Beg*; notwithstanding its error of azimuth. In position, the bright star *Fomalhaut* (**فُومالهاوت** (نَمْ أَلْهُرِ)) of Pisces Australis comes much nearer the mark, (121°) and it seems curious that it should have been set aside for a less conspicuous group.

12. S. W. 135°. **مَغِيبَةٌ عَقْرَبٍ**, the setting of *dgrab*, the Scorpion. We shall see presently that *Antares* is the star of this constellation here intended; although it is far too northerly for the position. But for such confirmation we might have suspected *dgrab* to be a corruption of *الخَرَاب* *alghorâb*; the crow (**κοπετ**) which lies in 134° azimuth.

13. S. W. by S. 146° 15’. **مَغِيبَةٌ حَمَاردِن**, the setting of *Hamârein* the two asses. This name is not to be found in the globe. The nearest to it in situation are α and β *Gruis*.

14. S. S. W. 157° 30’. **مَغِيبَةٌ سِعْدِيل**, the setting of *Soheil*, the well-known star Canopus in the constellation *Argo, Alsafinah* of the Arabs. The north polar distance of this star, however, is only 143½ in lieu of 157½. It would set in azimuth 157½ at a place situated in north latitude 28°; so that if this be taken as a clue, we may trace the origin of the compass scheme to *Lower Egypt* or *Syria*.

15. S. by W. 168° 45’. **مَغِيبَةٌ سَلِبَدَار**， the setting of *Salibâr*. As we proceed southwards it becomes more and more difficult to find the stars intended. Canopus indeed is almost the only one familiar to us. *Salibâr* is not to be found on the globe, nor in the dictionaries: but it is the very word translated *Lyra* by the Baron *Hammer*, a northern constellation, which would be quite inadmissible in the southernmost situation of the compass. There is a constellation somewhat similar in sound on the brass globe described by Dr. *Dorn*, called *AlSabâd*, the beast, lying close to the Centaur with which its stars are mixed.— Again, should a Centauri be the star intended, it would be about the right distance in azimuth from Canopus—but this star is called
with its fellow in the other leg of the Centaur, حضار وذورأ. Hazár-o-
ulwazn on the globe. The only other star of note falling within moder-
ate limit of distance is α Eridani, or Achernar of our globe, which is a
corruption of اخیر الاله، akhir-ulnahr, 'the end of the river.'—What-
ever star may be meant by salibár, it is surely more southerly than
Canopus, and by no means Lyra. The two or three translated passages
from the Mohit equally confirm this, and receive illustration from it.
In the voyage to Gujerát (page 456) the translation says—"In
this measure (the kiás, or lat. 16° 54' north) Lyra (salibár) is five
inches (13° 30'), or Sagitta (sahm awal) six inches (15° 6'), or Canopus
and Lyra are equal to three inches and a half (11° 6')." The second
paragraph in page 457 is expressed almost in the same words. Now
if for اخیر الاله, ul sahm be read الاله, ul nahr (α Eridani), and for sali-
bár we take η Argonavis, the above conditions may very nearly
be complied with; for, in north latitude 17°, Canopus and η Argo
will be seen at an altitude of 12° together, on opposite sides of the
south pole at the hour of 10 p.m. in the beginning of March.
The north polar distance of α Centauri (150°) would better suit the
given meridional elevation (13° 30') than that of Argonavis: but in
this case it must be alnahr and not salibár which must be coupled with
Canopus at the equal altitude 11° 6': and the text would need a
second alteration.
Again, in page 456 (the latitude by position being about 18°) the
translation says—"If it be not time for taking the polar star, take the
height at the setting of Aquila (nasr-wágá) by the Lyra (salibár) which
gives 7½ inches (or 17° 30')." Now first correcting vega, which we
know to be α Lyrae, and not Aquila, we shall find that at his setting,
the star above pointed out as akhir-ulnahr, Achernar, comes to the
southern meridian, and bears very nearly the altitude required.
Here then salibár would seem to be α Eridani, whereas in the other
two cases it may be η Argo. Until we get somebody to point out the
actual star in the heavens, it will be impossible to decide between the
two; but a considerable step towards the solution of the Mohit pro-
blem has, at any rate, been made by the discovery that salibár belongs
to the southern hemisphere.
If the Baron will favor us with a translation of the first chapter
which treats of the names of the stars, the division of the circle of the
skies, and, above all, of the cardinal points of the compass, we shall
doubtless be able to clear up all these points in a satisfactory manner.

The navigators of the Maldive islands follow the Arabs in their di-
vision of the compass which they call samagd وام. a name apparently
Note on the Nautical Instruments of the Arabs.

taken from the Malabar word, samoukká, for which M. Klaproth is at a loss to discover the origin*, though it seems obviously a corruption of the Sanscrit term चुंबक chumbaka, the loadstone. The Maldivés alter a few of the names, particularly towards the south. Some of these variations serve to throw light upon the doubtful parts of the Arabic list. The orthography also, as written in my presence by my intelligent friend Muhammed, better known among his island countrymen as Ustád-muallim, the master-pilot, differs considerably, being more of the Malay style: one letter an  with a dot under it, is, he tells me, peculiar to his islands; it has the pronunciation of gh, not of ĝ, while ĝ is pronounced more like g. The following is his catalogue:

**ghao, the north pole—of unknown derivation.**

farghadém, a corruption of farkadain.

nás, the alif substituted for ain.

dáyouk, ditto.

gásil, used for a Lyrae in lieu of wáqîd or Wega.

simág, the ĝ used for k.

therián, a corruption from suraya.

murgh, the west—derivation unknown, perhaps corrupted from maghib,—irua is the east.

jozâ, the star Rigel.

tîr. Can this be Sirius, which is the next conspicuous star more southerly than Rigel? Its Arabic name is الشماع.

agrab, in lieu of akleil, shewing that the crown intended is the akleil ul dâgrab of the globe, which consists, according to Ulugh Beg, of β, δ, η and χ of Scorpio; β has a N. P. D. of 112° only, which would give an azimuth of 115° in latitude 28° north.

galb. If this be correct in orthography, it would denote the scorpion's heart, or Antares: but if intended for the dog, it may stand for Sirius. The former is, however, most probable, because it confirms the Arabic name for the same point which is الور, or simply the scorpion, of which the principal star is Antares.

hamárîm, the final m substituted for n.

sil, pronounced silli, an unknown substitute for soheil, which will be seen to be removed further south; perhaps it is the local name of Canopus, corrupted from the Arabic.

* Klaproth sur l'invention de la boussole, p. 32.
Note on the Nautical Instruments of the Arabs. [Dec.

سليو، the $w$ substituted for $b$. 

سهاي، Canopus, is used by the Maldive sailors as the south cardinal point,—for what reason I was unable to discover. They also use the Indian word $dakhan$.

**Note on the Maldive Alphabet.**

While conversing with the *Ustád-muallim* one day on the above subject, I got him to write down the names as seen above in the Arabic character: being curious, however, about the modification of the $⇒$ introduced, I inquired whether the Maldive population had any distinct alphabet of their own, to which he replied in the affirmative, and gave it me in writing just as I have lithographed it in Plate XLIX—a most whimsical system, and calculated to puzzle antiquarians egregiously should they chance to stumble upon an inscription in the Maldives without possessing the key to it!

At first he told me they had but nine letters, (the second row in the plate,) $m$, $ph$, $d$, $t$, $l$, $g$, $n$, $s$, $d$; but on my observing that he made use of a letter not in this list for the $k$ of *Calcutta*, he said—"Oh yes, there are the other nine" (the upper row)—meaning, as I presumed, that they were not indigenous but extraneous signs introduced to express foreign sounds: they are, in fact, the nine Arabic numerals with a dash above them to distinguish them from the ciphers. He wrote with greater fluency in these his native characters than in the Arabic.

The system of vowel marks is partly an imitation of the Arabic and partly of the Indian method; the long vowels being denoted by doubling the diacritical stroke: the nasal $n$ is marked like the Sanscrit *anuswara*, but the letter $\mathfrak{f}$ is also inserted. It was striking to observe how readily his ear distinguished the sound of a diphthong, and how correctly he expressed it with a double character. The order of writing is from left to right, contrary to the Arabic mode, and none of the letters admit of being joined together or abbreviated; but I pretend to no more knowledge of the alphabet, or language, than is comprehended in the plate itself, and need not, therefore, attempt to expand the materials of a short interview between two parties but imperfectly understanding one another, into a treatise on the unknown and, perchance, non-existent literature of these simple islanders.—It will, doubtless, surprise many that they should have arrived at all at the possession of an alphabet of their own. Among the specimens in the plate I have introduced the names of the cardinal points as given above.
.Maldive Alphabet.

ha tha na ra ba la ka á sa
ma pha dha ta la ga na sa da
ma ma mi mí me nè mu mí mœ m, mau mai
aá i e é ë u ú o ang king

Máhaldí Kalkatá Sítigam (or Chittagong)
Samugá gao iruwá suhil kulagu
compass north east south west
odi (a ship) dhoni (a sail)

Inscription on a Cannon at Lisbon, (sent thither from Goa), in Sanskrit letters.

Inscription on an ancient unfinished temple on a rock near Alīgarkh, in Cuttack.
VII.—Facsimiles of Ancient Inscriptions, lithographed.

(Continued from page 731.)

Inscription on a Cannon from Goa.

At the foot of Plate XLIX. I have inserted the copy of an inscription which, it seems has long puzzled the savans of Lisbon. Mr. J. Gaudart, chief interpreter and sworn translator to the British Government at Penang, Singapur, and Malacca, has addressed the Rev. Anselmo Yegros, Vicar General of the Singapur Mission, on the subject, affording, as he conceives, a full explanation of its purport; but either the characters must be exceedingly perverted in the copy, or Mr. Gaudart must have a powerful imagination, to convert, as he does, such hieroglyphics into the following Sanscrit sentence:

\[ \text{श्रीव भाष्ष उनम राज राम} \\
\text{स्त्रीक्ष री बें बर २१८} \]

which he translates, "(cette) heureux (et) puissant manufacture appartient au bon Roi Rām le 12 de Bélier 728."

The rāja here designated as the proprietor of the gun (if the reading be conceded) the translator explains to be Rāma varma vira Martanda Perumal Tamuri, who reigned at Calicut from the year 718, (A. D. 1542,) to 736 (A. D. 1561,) of the Parasurāma cycle. He was engaged in severe struggles with the Portuguese, and it is probable that the piece of ordnance thus fell into the hands of his enemies.

Of the letters themselves those only that bear resemblance to old Sanscrit, are the 1st, 3rd, and 4th. The rest appear purely conjectural.

Inscription at Kandharpur.

Lieutenant Kittoe, already well known to my readers for his antiquarian and architectural zeal, has, on his recent march with his regiment towards Gumsur, taken every opportunity of examining objects of antiquity in his route. The only inscription he has yet met with is shewn at the foot of Pl. XLIX. "It is (he writes from Cuttack) contained in two compartments of a very ancient and unfinished temple on a rock in an island near Atgarh; at a place called Kandharpur or Kandalpur." The characters are of the old Bengālī or Gaur type: and may be thus transcribed in modern Deva Nāgarī; श्रीविनिस्नि:\ श्रीविनिस्नि भूमण: --"the divine lord of beauteous variety, the variegated ornament"—being the epithet, doubtless, given to the form of Siva, established or intended to be sthūpan'd in the temple.
VIII.—Description of Uch-Sharif. By Munshi Mohan Lal.

Uch, surnamed Uch-Sharif, or holy Uch, which being near the junction of the united streams Hesudrus, Hyphasis, and Hydraotes, Acesines, and Hydaspes, attracts the notice of geographers, contains numerous sepulchres of the Muhammadan saints. The oldest of all is that of Sháh Sai'if Ul Háqqári, but it dwindles into obscurity. A miserable wall without the roof environs the dust of the above saint.

If I write the respective names of the saints of Uch, along with their incredible miracles, I fear to enlarge my remarks: however, I presume to lay before you the endeavors of my feeble pen in regard to Sháh Siád Jaláí and his reputed descendants. He died 600 years ago, and is said to have lived to the age of 150. His tomb, which is inside a large but gloomy room, is elevated about five spans from the surface of the ground. It is a very simple building, adorned with the poor frail and old canopy. Both of his sides have ten graves of his offspring. They are distinguished by one rising above the other, which fill the entire position of the room. None of them have any kind of inscription.

Sháh Siád Jaláí acquired a very great fame by defeating the Halássu', and converting his son Boláqu' into Islamism. He was the ruler of Betáwáli, near Baháwalpur.

Jaláí had three sons, Ahmad Kabir, Baha'uddin, and Siád Muhammad. When the first of the three was about ten years old, he happened to meet a man in the bazaar, whose son had died of some disease. He applied to Ahmad Kabir to restore his dead son to life. The young saint, after making ablution, turned his face towards Mecca, and repeated the words “Qum bi izn Alláh*,” which literally means, Get up by the command of God.

Such is the wonderful miracle described of Ahmad Kabir. When he grew older, he became the father of the two reputed sons, Siád Jaláí uddin and Siád Muhammad Ráju'. The former was called by the name of Makhdu'm Jahanián Jaháin Gasht, (or the traveller and the Lord of all beings;) and the latter, Ráju' Qattál, (or the Rájú slayer.) Numerous miracles were wrought by these two brothers. They went to pilgrimage through Persia, &c. &c. &c., marrying a great number of wives, and leaving children in every country, which, tradition says, amounted to 12,000; but I doubt the authenticity of the information.

* The power of raising the dead by saying the above mentioned word, I hitherto knew was only peculiar to Jesus Christ.
When the Makhdu'm reached Madina he was suspected to be a common Musalmán and not a Siad. On this he stood out of the door, and, looking at the tomb of Muhammed, cried as follows: "Assalám alaikiki yá jaddi" (or, Peace be with you, O grandfather); when came the answer "Va alaikí uussalám yá valdí," (or, Peace be with you, O son) out of Muhammed's tomb, which convinced the men of the shrine that he was a real Siad. People assert that this proves his being the respected and first saint of the Musalmáns. On receiving the intelligence, I desired to visit the monument of such a renowned holy man of Uch.

In company with my countryman and school-fellow, Pandit Kashináth, we proceeded to the town of Uch, and passed through a few narrow streets on our way to the shrine.

On coming to the door, which has dwindled into the most ruinous state, we descended towards the west, and turning to the south entered the room where the body of the Makhdu'm rests. The tomb is a very poor structure, but raised about seven feet high from the ground, which is concealed by numerous other graves. There is nothing admirable in the shrine of the Makhdu'm. Three small openings give light inside the apartment.

The following Persian inscription written on the door, presents us with the date of the Makhdu'm's death.

تاریخ گشته جمله جهان بن جمال شاہ تاریخ بند هفتصد و هشتم ذریعه

"Tárik gasht jumlah jahán be jamál Sháh, Tárikh búd haft o hashtád o panj sál."

When the world was covered by darkness without the countenance of the Sháh, (or Makhddám.) The date was 785 of the Hijri era.

The mausoleum of Makhdu'm Jahánián Jahán Gasht is annually visited by the pilgrims of the distant country. It is a popular belief in this region, that a fool can get restored to perfect sense by eating the earth of this tomb.

It is very odd that the tombs of the saints of the holy Uch, who possessed such boundless reputation and respect in days of old, have been not adorned with any kind of architectural beauty, either by their posterity or believers, except that of "Bibi Jind Vádi," (or the lady of the long life.) It is situate on the verge of a precipice which commands the old bed of the Panjáb rivers, and gives a romantic view.

The southern part of this magnificent sepulchre has been unfortunately swept away by the late inundation of the above streams,
Besides this, it suffers a good deal by the neglect of the Musalmáns, who do not repair it. The door, which has been entirely eaten by worms, opens towards the east, and has a sight of the other two cupolas. They excel in material and handsomeness the others of Uch, except that of "Bíbi Jind Vădi."

"Bíbi Jind Vădi" was one of the descendants of Sháh Síád Ja-lál, of whom I have already spoken. The dome in which she sleeps is erected of burnt bricks, which are cemented by mortar. The whole of the edifice is ornamented by various hues and lapis lazuli of the celebrated mines of Badakhshán. The size of this grand building may be estimated at about 50 feet high, and the circumference 25.

Though the clouds had unluckily obscured the light of the day, still we endeavoured to take a sketch of the Bíbi Jind Vădi's mausoleum by means of the camera obscura. I herewith enclose a copy of it—[which we omit for reasons given on a former occasion.—Ed.]

IX.—Specimens of the Soil and Salt from the Sámăr, or Sumbhur lake salt-works. Collected by Lieut. Arthur Conolly, and analyzed by Mr. J. Stephenson.

It is now more than a year since I received from my friend Lieut. A. Conolly the specimens named at the head of this article. They were on a very large scale, and packed up so carefully as to exhibit on arrival, almost as perfect a picture of the process and progress of the salt manufacture at the celebrated lakes of Sámăr, as could be obtained by a personal visit to the spot.

At my request, Mr. Stephenson submitted such of the specimens as seemed to require it, to chemical examination in my laboratory, and where the results were unexpected, I verified them myself by re-examination. My sole reason for delaying the publication of these very interesting memoranda was, that I was in hopes Lieut. Conolly would favor me with a full account of the manufacture, which, however, public business and subsequently ill health obliged him to postpone—and thus time has crept on until the specimens themselves have nearly dissolved away in the damp air of the last rains; and unless I place on record what I already possess, there will hereafter be no means of consulting the perishable materials to prepare another report.

The labels which accompanied the parcel were so full and explicit, that, when followed by the chemical notes referring to the numbered specimens, they formed nearly as comprehensive a view of the opera-
tion as could be wished: I will therefore first place these before the reader.

Note on Sámara lake salt and earth, by Lieut. A. Conolly.

While acting as Salt Collector for two months at Sambahur, I employed part of my time in putting together officially some interesting notes, historical (semi-fabulous rather) and statistical, concerning this marvellous spot, collected by my friend N. B. Edmonstone, Esq. Superintendent of Ajmir, when he went to take possession for the Honorable Company at the beginning of the year (1835). Connected therewith it would be desirable to have scientific examination of the produce of the mines, for which purpose I send them to you under charge of a servant; and will here detail the contents of the boxes.

A 1.—A long box containing a quantity of the mud which forms the bed of Sambahur lake, and which yields as often as it is covered by (a few inches depth of) water, and acted upon by a hot atmosphere. This mud was dug out before me from the bed of a "kiyár" (or vat) just after it had yielded a good crust of salt crystals, when it was of the consistency of a stiff jelly. The mud nearest to the surface was put next to the part of the box at which the lid is laid hold of, (in order that it may be drawn out,) and so on downwards till the box was filled.

A 2.—A box divided into three parts, containing as many sorts of earth. 1st. Some of the black mud just mentioned, which has the depth of about half a gaz below the surface of the lake. 2nd. A bluish earth which soon hardens into a friable cake and seems a compound of what lies above and below it. This has a depth of half a gaz under the black mud. 3rd. A white sandy earth, which has a depth of from five to six gaz under the second strata. This I learned from the Sambahur Sherishtahdar who sent the specimens after me to Jaipur on the 10th July. He wrote "under strata No. 3 lies white stone from which chunam is made." I immediately sent off an express to say that I would make the fortune of any enterprisingigger who would dive for some of this stone, but the Serishtahdar returned for answer that the attempt had been made in vain, (rain) water having covered the whole surface of the marsh. He dug on the very edge of the lake, where there was no black mud, but only the earth No. 2, and he found nothing but this (he wrote) to the depth of 6 gaz, when the influx of water obliged the diggers to give over work. He wrote moreover, some of the "oldest inhabitants say that all parts of the lake are not alike; that in some places you dig and find the three sorts of earth sent; in others, below the mud only 'sang i kuchet' (?) In others again only mud that has no bottom."

I may further mention that the Serishtahdar wrote—"The people call the gil i saflid, Pendole (H.) and make whitewash from it." This inducing a belief that it contained lime, I poured vinegar on a bit which immediately effervesced. I fancy this sort of earth is used to make the very delicate porous vessels out of which the better sort of natives drink in summer.

A 3.—Three pieces from the surface of a kiyár (vat) off which a crop (crust) of salt had just been raked.
4. A piece of ditto, on which, apparently, the salt did not come out well.
5. A piece of ditto, near the edge on which the salt did not form.
6. A piece of ditto, the salt of which got mixed with scum while forming.
7. A piece which seems to have been similarly mixed, but which was cut from another kiyár, and said to be five or six years old. It has evidently been rained upon, and it was taken from under a sheet of rain water, by which more of it would have been melted had it not been old and pakkú.

8 a.—A piece on the scum of which crystals were formed after rain had fallen upon it.
8 b.—A ditto ditto.
8 c.—A ditto ditto.
9. A piece the salt of which got somewhat mixed with mud when being formed, (probably from its being agitated by a strong wind) and on which a crust of scum settled.
10. A piece of crust, chiefly scum, such as is thrown aside as useless.
11. Other refuse pieces taken from a kiyár in which they had been lying neglected for, perhaps, some years.
12. Pieces of crust of salt from the surface of a kiyár.
13. Ditto ditto. N. B. These have been more or less smoothed and thinned by having been rained upon.
14. Bits of a fine crust of salt with a little scum on the top. This was cut with a phaurá from the surface of a kiyár.
14 a. Three other bits of a different kiyár.
14 b. Another of another.
The above five items are merely varieties to enable you to trace the process of formation.

A 15.—“Bacheh,” or infant crystals, about the smallest size in which the mineral particles come to view on the surface of the salt mud, after the partial evaporation of a body of water covering it. These were taken from under a sheet of water six fingers (or three inches) deep.
16. Crystals about two days old (after first formation) six fingers’ depth of water at first, 1½ fingers’ depth evaporated when crystals taken out.
17. Ditto about three days old; or when two of six fingers’ depth of water had evaporated.
18. Ditto about four days after first formation, or when three of six fingers’ water had evaporated.
19. Ditto of a fair (common) size, produced after about eight days’ evaporation of six fingers deep water.—N. B. These crystals were found during the hot winds, when the day’s heat was intense, and that of the night considerable.
20. Crystals which formed on a stick after it had lain seven days in the six finger water from which the last mentioned (19) were taken after eight days.
21. Ditto. The concretion is more rapid on a thread, or stick, or any thing that the water can get round, than on the surface of the mud.
22. Crystals made in a kiyár in 20 days during the hottest season. 12 fingers’ depth of water at first, four remaining when crystals were taken out.
23. Crystals taken from the lake after a complete and uninterrupted evaporation of a body of water five or six, or perhaps more, inches deep.
24. Pink crystals from the surface of the marsh; formed by the rapid evaporation of a shallow deposit (or puddle) of water.
A 25.—Good Sambur salt, such as a byopári would call pakká, and read-
dily buy.

26. Superior ditto, such as a byopári would covet—a year or so old.

B 1.—"The grandfather of all salt" (the literal expression of the man
who brought it.) A lump taken out of an old pit eight cubits deep, said to have
been re-opened after a lapse of 100 years. In this may be observed several
layers, but for which I should have been ready to believe that the diggers
had arrived at the top of an under ground chain of salt mountains, such as those
beyond the Indus, which Elphinstone describes, and that they had just chip-
ped off a peak. You must know that the bed of the Sambur lake is, for the most
part, as shallow as a dish, and that after the rains it gradually becomes dry;
when dry the natives dig pits a few cubits' depth in the bed of the marsh, and
pour the salt water that they thus obtain into vats (made with large stakes,
grass, and earth), in which it evaporates in from eight to fifteen days, according
to the depth of its sheet, and the state of the weather. A pit is dug for a few
rupees, so an old one is not usually restored after the rains: the water deposit-
ed in it dries into a cake of salt at its bottom; then a little sand is blown in,
and then another rainy season comes, and a second layer is formed, and so on
for perhaps many seasons, when, the pit becoming filled, all traces of its con-
tents disappear till the sinker of a fresh well hits upon them.

2. Another lump taken out of another pit three or four cubits deep.

B 3.—Another from another.

4. Another bit from another pit.—N. B. All four specimens were extracted
when water was above them.

5, 6, 7. Lump crystals and intermediate strata of earth from other pits.

8 and 9. Loose crystals from a pit four cubits deep.—Ditto from ditto, eight
cubits deep.—N. B. You will observe that nearly all the Sambur salt crystals
grow into the shape of a four-sided pyramid. I see in the Cyclopedia that the
cube is given as the ascertained primitive form of 11 minerals, of which salt is
one; please to dissect a crystal till you arrive at its nucleus, and if you have
leisure, tell me the process of structure, for "Sakambéri ji," the tutelary
goddess of the Chouhan Rajpúts, for one of whom she in the year 608 S. mira-
culously made the lake, appears to reverse the order of architecture in put-
ting together her mineral particles, causing them to rise from a point to a base*.

10. A piece from a pit, the crystals of which are slightly coloured.

Examination of selected Specimens from the above. By J. Stephenson.

A No. 1.—Mud from the bed of Sambur Lake.

An average portion digested in distilled water, and the filtered solution
(which appeared of a reddish brown colour), subjected to the usual tests, gave
the following results.

Nitré of barytes, ..................... Copious white precipitate.
Nitré of silvér, ...................... Ditto flambent grey ditto.
Prussiaté of potash, ..................... No change.
Oxalate of ammonia, ..................... Ditto ditto.
Litmus paper, ......................... Ditto ditto.
Turmeric ditto, ........................ Ditto ditto.

* The pyramidal appearance is merely from truncation of the cube. The solid
angle of the cube seems to resist solution more than the rest of the crystal.—Ed.
300 grains exposed to a gentle heat in order to drive off the moisture lost
107 = 35, 6 per cent.

100 grains of the dry mud was now put into solution, and the insoluble matter
collected on the filter, washed, dried, and weighed, gave 70 grains.
The filtered solution treated with nitrate of barytes threw down a precipitate
of sulphate of barytes, together with the colouring matter, which after washing,
drying, and weighing, gave 17 grains = 10.4 sulphate of soda.
The solution now freed from the sulphate was next treated with nitrate of
silver, from which a precipitate of muriate of silver was obtained, weighing 42
grains = 19.5 muriate of soda.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{Insoluble matter,} \quad \text{70} \quad 0 \\
\text{Sulphate of soda,} \quad \text{10} \quad 4 \\
\text{Muriate of soda,} \quad \text{19} \quad 5 \\
\text{Loss,} \quad \text{0} \quad 1 \\
\hline
\text{100} \quad 0
\end{array}
\]

Examination of the insoluble matter from A No. 1, after the separation,
as above, of the sulphates and muriates.

Fifty grains of the insoluble earthy matter now freed from the extraneous
salts was treated with muriatic acid. A strong effervescence took place, and
the digestion was continued for 12 hours, as there was reason to suppose that
carbonate of lime was present. It was now repeatedly washed with pure water,
and the remaining earthy matter, which the acid had not dissolved, separated
and collected on the filter, well dried and weighed; it amounted to 37 grains.
The muriatic solution was now treated with oxalate of ammonia, which threw
down a copious precipitate of oxalate of lime. This being well washed, and
dried, weighed 11 grains = 8.6 carbonate of lime.
The remaining solution contained a considerable portion of loose muriatic
acid, which being neutralized with pure liquid ammonia, a portion of alumina
(tinged with yellow oxide of iron) was precipitated. This being separated by
the filter, washed, dried, and weighed, gave 4 grains.
Calculating then for per centage, the composition of this earthy matter will
stand as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{Matter insoluble in muriatic acid (silica,)} \quad 74 \quad 0 \\
\text{Carbonate of lime,} \quad 17 \quad 2 \\
\text{Alumina and oxide of iron,} \quad 8 \quad 0 \\
\text{Loss,} \quad 0 \quad 3 \\
\hline
\text{100} \quad 0
\end{array}
\]

A No. 10.—This I found to be chiefly composed of sulphate of soda, with
the carbonate and muriate of soda in considerable proportion.
A No. 15.—This gave a trace of sulphate; otherwise good salt; though the
crystals are small.
A No. 22.—When tasted gave traces of sulphate.
A No. 24.—Crystals of a pink colour, which disappear in the filtered solution;
the colouring matter appears to be volatile—sulphate of soda predominates in
this sample; no carbonate of soda present.
B No. 1, from an old deep pit re-opened after 100 years. Examination by tests.

Nitr~te of silver, ........................................ Copious precipitate.
Nitr~te of barytes, ....................................... Very copious ditto.
Oxalate of ammonia, ...................................... No change.
Prussiate of potash, ...................................... Ditto ditto.
Litmus paper, ................................................ Ditto ditto.
Turmeric ditto, ............................................ Ditto ditto.

A fair average sample was taken through the whole thickness of the lump.
100 grains exposed to a gentle heat lost 5.5 grains moisture.
100 grains treated with nitr~te of barytes gave a precipitate, which after having been well washed and dried, weighed 136 = 83 sulphate of soda.
The filtered solution treated with nitr~te of silver produced a precipitate of chloride of silver, which after having been well washed and dried, weighed 22 grains = 10.4 muriate of soda.

The composition of this sample is then as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Insoluble matter</th>
<th>1 0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moisture</td>
<td>5 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulphate of soda, (and carbonate?)</td>
<td>83 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muriate of soda</td>
<td>10 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss</td>
<td>0 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

100 0

A No. 6.—The salt of which got mixed with scum while forming, appeared very wet.

When tested, this sample appeared to contain a considerable portion of alkali, especially the reddish coloured part called scum in the list.

100 grains dissolved, and the insoluble matter separated by the filter, washed and dried, gave 2 grains.

To the filtered solution was added acetic acid till the alkali became neutralized; after which it was treated with nitr~te of barytes; the sulphate of barytes was precipitated, and having been well washed and dried, weighed 84 grains = 51 sulphate of soda.

Nitr~te of silver threw down a precipitate of chloride of silver that weighed (after washing and drying) 30 grains = 14 muriate of soda.

In order to ascertain the quantity of alkali in this sample, 100 grains were dissolved in pure water, and treated (drop by drop) with sulphuric acid of specific gravity 1.116 till the exact point of saturation was ascertained, by frequently testing with litmus paper. Towards the point of saturation a strong effervescence took place. The solution was neutralized after 96 grains of the acid test liquor had been used, which is equal to 10 per cent. of carbonate of soda.

This sample being very wet, the moisture was ascertained in the usual way, and amounted to 23 per cent.

This sample, or rather what is called scum in the list, is composed of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sulphate of soda</th>
<th>51 0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Muriate of soda</td>
<td>14 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbonate of soda</td>
<td>10 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insoluble matter</td>
<td>2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moisture</td>
<td>23 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

100 0
Specimens A Nos. 25 and 26, called good and superior salt in the list, when tested, gave traces of sulphate; with this exception the crystals are good and pure.

The conclusions to be drawn from the preceding details are somewhat at variance with the general impression regarding the Sambhur salt lakes. At least my own idea, derived from conversation with natives engaged in the salt traffic, was, that the lake water was a deep saturated brine, which left so thick a cake of salt on evaporation in the hot weather, that it was cut out in blocks on the margin and brought away on bullocks.

It would seem, however, that the shallow lake, or inundation would of itself, leave a deposit too thin to be profitably worked; and that it is customary to dig reservoirs or kiyârâs wherein several feet depth of water already nearly concentrated to brine, are allowed to deposit their crystals on drying; or the evaporation is aided by the introduction of sticks, up which the saline incrustation rapidly creeps.

The velocity of the spontaneous evaporation under the fierce sun and scorching winds of the western desert, is well exemplified by specimens A 15, the bacheh or infant crystals of one day's growth, through 16, 17, 18, to 19, the 8th day's produce; in the last the crystals are cubes of full half an inch base. Again we find crystals of the same size in No. 22, from the evaporation of 8 out of 12 fingers' depth of water in 20 days of the hottest season. In No. 23 the crystals from 6 inches depth of water are of \( \frac{3}{4} \) inch base. The size, however, of the crystals depends greatly upon the undisturbed continuation of the process, and does not give us a clue to the quantity of salt deposited from a given depth of water, whence we might calculate the saltness of the lake itself at various periods of the season. The rate of evaporation itself may be estimated from the above data tolerably well; thus—"6 fingers in 8 days"—"12 fingers in 20 days"—will be nearly half an inch in depth per diem! The pits dug for the reception of the brine seem sometimes to be very deep, 10 or 12 feet; in these when deserted the deposit proceeds for several years, forming solid strata of salt separated by a streak of earth washed in during the rainy season. The accumulation is then dug out in mass; but in general the salt for sale is collected as it forms in the brine pits in a granular state, by which means it is freed from the more soluble salts with which it is accompanied. The pakkâ salt of the byopâris or traders (Nos. 25, 26), is of a large grain—the latter indeed in half-inch crystals,—and not very clean.
A circumstance of chief importance elicited by Lieut. Conolly's specimens, is the presence of the carbonate and sulphate of soda in considerable abundance among the saline products of the Sambhur lake. The greater part of the substance described by the manufacturers as refuse or scum, which is stated to be thrown away as useless, turns out on analysis to be carbonate of soda, contaminated with sulphate and muriate; and it is well deserving of inquiry, whether the discovery of so extensive a store of natron in a state of great purity, may not be turned to profitable account. In all the strata cut from the neglected kiyârs the carbonate is seen overlying the mixed sulphate and muriate, of an efflorescent snowy consistence. Sometimes the formation of the salt is prevented by its abundance as (in A 4, 5, 6); No. 5, I find on analysis to contain 40 per cent. of carbonate, with 30 of each of the other salts—and a little care in separating the crystals of these would leave it nearly pure.

Spicular crystals resembling nitre are seen in some of the specimens (A 11); they bear a very small proportion to the general mass. It is but necessary to refer to Mr. Stephenson's examination of other specimens, to form a clear idea of the conditions best suited for the separation and collection of the different salts; thus in the old desert-pits (B,No. 1), the sulphate is obtained nearly pure: in A 6, 10, it is mixed with carbonate; in A 5, the latter predominates. As for the muriate, from its inferior solubility, this salt is readily separated in a state of purity from the brine.

The small proportion of lime in the earthy residue of A 1, from the bed of the lake, rather militates against the expectation entertained by Lieutenant Conolly from native report, of a subjacent stratum of this mineral.

The points now wanted to complete Lieutenant Conolly's description of the Sambhur salt manufacture, and the questions naturally induced from the information he has already given, are:

1. A topographical account of the lakes, their extent, general depth, position relatively to adjacent plains, sands, or hills.
2. The extent of the manufacture, produce, possible increase, price, and other statistical data.
3. Whether the carbonate and sulphate are worked and used? the quantity and price of these.
4. The exact process followed by the native manufacturers or collectors.
5. The specific gravity of the water, both of the lake and of the brine pits, at different seasons; which may be found in the absence of the means of determining it on the spot, by bottling off a portion
at stated times. This would also enable us to ascertain whether the carbonate existed in the water, or whether it was formed during the evaporation, by the action of the lime or other earths. The presence of magnesia, of potash, and of iodine also remains an undecided point, as well as the nature of the pink or amethystine colouring matter remarked in some of the specimens (A No. 24).

To conclude this hasty note, I may mention that I have found M. Gay Lussac’s alkalimeter a very convenient instrument for examining these mixed salts. By preparing three standard bottles of dilute nitric acid, nitrate of barytes, and nitrate of silver, adapted to his centesimally-divided dropping glass, the per centage of carbonate, sulphate, and muriate, is obtained successively from the same specimen with great ease and rapidity.

J. P.

X.—Remarks on a collection of Plants, made at Sadiyd, Upper Assam, from April to September, 1836. By William Griffith, Assistant Surgeon, Madras Establishment, on duty in Upper Assam.

The following remarks may not be uninteresting, as they concern a portion of India of which, especially so far as regards its natural productions, but little is known. I must beg, however, to point out that they must be considered as outlines only of a slight sketch; since the amount of plants collected in Assam does not probably exceed 1,500, and this can scarcely be considered more than one-fourth of its whole Flora.

The greater portion of Assam that I have seen, may be compared to an extensive plain, intersected in various manners by belts of jungle, the breadth of which, although extremely variable, does not, except towards the hills enclosing the valley, seem to be often very great. But as we approach towards the eastern boundary, the spots unoccupied by jungle become fewer and less spacious: so that between Kujoo Ghat on the Noa Dehing, and Nungroo on the Booree Dehing, and in the whole of that direction, the country is almost exclusively occupied by jungle. The characters of a plain intersected by narrow belts of jungle is very obvious about Sadiyd, at which place the collection was almost entirely formed.

The peculiar feature of Assam, especially its lower and central divisions, consists in the vegetation of its churs, or tracts of sand, very often of great extent, which are stretched along the Burhampootur. The breadth of these tracts, taken together, is, in some places, from 8
to 10 miles. They may be said to be throughout their whole extent exclusively clothed with dense grass jungle.

Up to Rungpoo they eye meets nothing but grasses, and an occasional Bombax, a tree remarkable for its ramification, the branches being nearly approximated in whorls, and forming right angles with the trunk. About Buggooa Mookh belts of jungle begin to appear, here and there approaching to the banks of the river. From this place upwards the belts increase in extent and number, and from Seloni Mookh, just below the confluence of the Dihong with the Burhampootur to Sadiyt, they preponderate much over the grassy tracts. Above Sadiyt these tracts recommence at least on the northern bank, but they disappear soon entirely: the grasses that clothe the churs are, especially throughout Lower and Central Assam, of gigantic size, some of them often measuring 20 feet in height. They consist of four or five species of Saccharum, the kuggra, mog, (white,) molaha, (red) and telee, (blackish,) of the Assamese, and a species of Arundo, which is perhaps the longest of all, the nul (or podomolee*) of the natives. Towards Sadiyt, however, very large tracts are covered with Imperata Cylindrica, the ooolo-kher of Assam, which grows to the height of 5 to 7 feet. As the genus Saccharum far preponderates over the others, and is perhaps during its inflorescence one of the most conspicuous genera of the order, the appearance presented by the churs during the flowering of their occupants, can be more easily conceived than described.

It may perhaps be convenient to consider the botany of Assam under the following heads.

I. Botany of the Burhampootur, including the churs.

Of these, Gramineæ form, as I have said, almost exclusively the Flora. Of the immediate banks, the predominant order is,—Compositæ, Polygonææ, Scrophulariææ, Gramineææ, (among which is a species of Alopecurus,) Boragineææ, have several representatives: from Jorhath upwards to Diboroo Mookh, a large annual Ranunculus occurs extensively, and throughout the same distance large patches not uncommonly occur of a species of Irematodon, (I. sabulosus, mihi,) a species of Polentilla is also not uncommonly met with.

II. Botany of the plains.

Predominant plants, Gramineæ; of these the most common about Sadiyt are Imperata cylindrica, Saccharum spontaneum, Saccharum fuscum (Roxb.) in wet places, and a probably new, large and coarse species of Panicum. Among these may be found two or three Orchidææ, Polygonææ, Leguminosææ, Cyperaceææ, one Viola, and a species of Exacum which is particularly conspicuous from its bright blue flowers.

* See Buchanan's Dinajpur, p. 168.—Ed.
Remarks on a collection of Plants, [Dec.

Those parts of the plains which have at a previous period been cleared for cultivation, but are now unoccupied, present the usual tropical features; and are occupied chiefly by Cyperaceæ, among which occur one or two Gramineæ, several annual Scrophularineæ, and small Alismaceæ.

III. Botany of the belts of jungle.

IV. Botany of the foot of the boundary hills.

On this last I am not able to offer any remarks. It will be found excessively rich in ferns, and next to these perhaps in Cyrthandraceæ. The only opportunity that has hitherto been allowed me of visiting any portion of these boundaries above Gawahatti, occurred at Gubroo Purbut; and I was then fortunate enough to meet with an Alsophila 30 feet high, a Sollyana, (mihi,) and Kaulfussia Asamica. Of the third division, the botany is very varied; so much so, that no one prominent feature seems to present itself. It is to this section that by far the greater number of species contained in the collection will be found to belong; and I shall hence pass in review the orders composing it—reserving the few observations I have to make on the most interesting plants to a subsequent part of this paper.

To those orders, the presence of which indicates the climate of northern latitudes, or of a tropical one at considerable elevations, I have appended an asterisk; and to those which, though usually tropical, include plants which have hitherto only been found at comparatively high elevations, I have appended a cross.

**Dicotyledones.**

*Ranunculaceæ* .......... 3 *Dipterocarpaceæ* .......... 2
*Magnoliaceæ* .......... 1 *Tiliaceæ* .......... 5
Anonaceæ .......... 6 *Elmocarpaceæ* .......... 1
*Umbelliferæ* .......... 7 *Lythraceæ* .......... 1
Araliaceæ .......... 3 *Meliaceæ* .......... 8
Ampelidaceæ .......... 15 *Aurantiaceæ* .......... 7
Onagraceæ .......... 1 *Rhamnaceæ* .......... 5
Loranthaceæ .......... 1 *Euphorbiaceæ* .......... 15
Alangiæ .......... 1 *Hippocrateaceæ* .......... 1
Meliaceæ .......... 5 *Malpighiaceæ* .......... 2
Menecyclæ .......... 2 *Conarizeæ* .......... 1
Myrtaceæ .......... 4 *Tranthoxylaceæ* .......... 5
Cucurbitaceæ .......... 12 *Balsaminaceæ* .......... 5
Begoniaceæ .......... 5 *Casaphylaceæ* .......... 4
*Crucifereæ* .......... 3 *Rosaceæ* .......... 6
Capparideæ .......... 3 *Leguminoseæ* .......... 41
*Violaceæ* .......... 3 *Conrazeæ* .......... 2
Guttiferæ .......... 2 *Cupuliferæ* .......... 2
*Teinostémiaceæ* .......... 3 *Urticeæ* .......... 24
Sapindaceæ .......... 3 *Artocarpaceæ* .......... 18
*Hippocastaneæ* .......... 1 *Stilagineæ* .......... 2
Herculaceæ .......... 1 *Chlorantheæ* .......... 1
Bythmeriaceæ .......... 1 *Saururaceæ* .......... 1
Malvaceæ .......... 4 *Piperaceæ* .......... 5
1836.]
made at Sadiya, Upper Assam. 809

*Thymeaceae, ........................................... 1 Acanthaceae, ........................................... 8
Proteaceae, ........................................... 1 Scrophulariaceae, ........................................... 20
Lauriaceae, ............................................. 6 Orobancheae, ............................................ 1
Amaranthaceae, .......................................... 5 Composite, ............................................. 39
†Polygonaceae, ........................................ 12 *Plantagineae, ........................................ 1
†Menispermeae, ........................................ 19 *Gentianaceae, ........................................ 1
*Primulaceae, .......................................... 1 Apocynaceae, ........................................... 8
Myrsinaceae, ........................................... 6 Asclepiadaceae, ......................................... 9
Styraceae, ............................................... 3 Oleaceae, ............................................... 5
Convovulaceae, .......................................... 6 Jasmineae, ................................................ 2
Rubiaceae, ............................................... 36 *Boraginaceae, .......................................... 3
Labiaceae, ............................................... 14 Cordiaceae, ............................................. 1
Total, .................................................... 523
†Menispermeae, ........................................ 19 *Gentianaceae, ........................................ 1

Monocotyledones.

Scitamineae, ........................................... 9 *Juncaceae, ............................................. 2
Cannaceae, ............................................... 1 Palmae, .................................................. 3
Hypoxidaceae, .......................................... 1 Tupistra, ............................................... 1
Amaryllidaceae, ......................................... 1 †Butomaceae, ........................................... 1
Hydrocharitaceae, ...................................... 2 Ehreliaceae, ............................................. 4
Aroideae, ............................................... 3 Solanaceae, ............................................ 6
†Smilaceae, ............................................... 7 Gnetaceae, .............................................. 1
Dioscoreaceae, .......................................... 2 *Viburnaceae, .......................................... 2
Ponederaceae, ........................................... 2 Incertae sedis, including Roydsia, 31
*Orchidaceae, ........................................... 15
Total, .................................................... 126

Acotyledones.

Equisetaceae, ........................................... 1 Filices‡, .................................................. 34
Lycopsidaceae, .......................................... 5
Total, .................................................... 40

Of Anonaceae I shall only notice Sphorostemma, Blume. In this genus the connectivum is highly dilated, and the cells of the anther at a considerable distance from each other; and yet from the arrangement of the stamina, bilocular anthers with contiguous loculi result.

It affords another instance of the existence of the peculiar tissue, until lately supposed to be characteristic of Gymnospermae. In addition to this singularity, its medulla is traversed longitudinally by bundles of dense, occasionally branched, woody fibre, which consists of a superposition or "emboitement" of several layers.

Cucurbitaceae. Among these plants occur two genera which appear to be new, so far at least as the Prodromus of M. De Candolle is concerned; in which book the article on Cucurbitaceae, (by M. Seringii,) appears to me to be very unsatisfactory. Of one of the above genera, I have only seen the male; it is remarkable for the involute, or rather gyrate involvation of the petals. The second I propose calling Actinostemma: it is chiefly remarkable for the complete separation of its sta-

‡ Chiefly from the foot of the Abor Hills, on the Dihong.
Remarks on a collection of Plants, [Dec.

mina; for the "dehiscentia circumcisa" of the fruit; and, above all, for the pendulous direction of the seeds. It approaches in some points to Zanonia. I am not aware whether the peculiar nature of the arillus of this order has been explained or not; it is a separation of that portion of the tissue originally surrounding and in close contact with the ovula. Hence it is a shut sac; and hence, too, it is wanting in Actinostemma, in which the cavity of the ovarium is not filled by a production from the placentae.

Conarie. In Conaria, of which I have one species from the Abor Hills, the raphe is certainly external with regard to the axis. I have not been able to ascertain whether this depends upon any torsion of the funiculus, which Mr. Brown has stated to be the case in other instances of a similar anomalous situation.

Of Saurureæ Houttuynia is the only example. This plant, which was originally described by Thunberg, appears latterly to have been more misunderstood than by the original describer. I have had no opportunity, however, of examining the work of Thunberg in which the plant is described. And I ought, perhaps, to except M. Meyer, who has published "De Houttuynia atque Saurureis," with which work I am unacquainted. I find each flower throughout the spike, except perhaps the terminal one, to be subtended by a very small bracte. Of these, the four lowermost, rarely only three, are highly developed and petaloid, forming the spatha.

The number of stamina to each flower is, excepting those at the apex of the spike, almost invariably three, and always equal to the carpella entering into the formation of the female organ; and of these the third is always next the axis. The terminal flower has from five to seven stamina; the space between this and the uppermost triandrous hermaphrodite (?) flowers is occupied by an assemblage of male flowers, with a variable number of stamina, but never greater than three, and usually, I think, two. That such is the structure of this portion is proved by the presence of bractea, similar to those of the lower portion, interspersed among the stamina. Dr. Wallich says, in Flora Indica, I. 362—"In the numerous spadices which I have examined, I have with Father Loureiro invariably found three staminæ, and as many styles attached to each ovarium: the former above the base, the latter at the apex of its angles. I have not, therefore, hesitated continuing this most interesting plant in the very class and order where it has been placed in the Flora of Cochinchina. As there is no reason for considering it at all different from the original Japan plant, I am at a loss to account for the difficulty which the celebrated Chevalier Thunberg experienced in determining its
station in the sexual system; nor can there be at present any doubt of its neither belonging to Heptandria, Polyandria, or Monàcia."

Thunbér was, however, so far as I can see, right; for he paid, in all probability, exclusive attention to the composition of the terminal flower, on which, in certain cases, the Linnaean rules lay much stress. Taking this into consideration, Houttuynia may be referred to Heptandria, Polyandria, or Monàcia; most correctly to the latter, and least correctly to Polyandria. But as,—so far at least as regards the Linnaean system,—the most obvious characters are the best, it is advisable to keep the plants still in Triandria Trigyna. The structure of the seed has been likewise totally mistaken. In the Flora Indica, loc. cit. the embryo is placed at the wrong end of the albumen, and is mistaken for the embryonary sac. The real embryo is a much more minute organ contained in this, "the vitellus," or membrane of the amnios of Mr. Brown. Dr. Hooker describes Dr. Wallîch's account as most correct; but he does not define the situation of the embryo otherwise than by saying that it is situated at one end of the seed. Lastly, the plant does not belong to Aroidæ, nor even to Monocotyledones. Notwithstanding the apparent solidity of true embryo, yet the more important nature of the structure of the stem is sufficient to point out that it is Dicotyledonous, or rather Exogenous; and among these, its true place is, beyond doubt, Sauruææ.

Of Thymeæae one species only occurs, which is apparently referrible to no published species of the order. To this I have attached the MSS. name of Jenkinsia, in compliment to Captain F. Jenkins, Agent to the Governor General on the North-East Frontier, to whom Botany, among other sciences, is considerably indebted.

Of Menispermææ the majority are interesting. Cissampelos is the only genus with which I am acquainted, in which the ventral suture of the ovary is anticus, or not next the axis. I am not certain whether the most correct way of understanding the curious structure of the female flowers is not to assume the aggregation of four flowers, which, in the only species I have examined, appears constant, as a complete quaternary division of one only. It remains to be ascertained whether the singular reversion of the situation of the ventral suture is more uncommon in aggregate than in solitary carpella.

Of the genus Stauntonia, Assam has two species, but only one is contained in my collection. The anomalous structure of the fruit has no doubt been explained by Dr. Wallîch in his Tentamen Floræ Nipalensis, in which it is published under the name Holbollia, but which I am at present unable to consult. I find that the placenta of this genus is similar to that of Flacourtianæ, with which
order I am not acquainted, and to that of Butomae; and hence the anomalous situation of the seeds. At the period of expansion of the flower, the ovula are much less developed than is almost universally the case: they present indeed the appearance of ovula at the earliest stages of development. I refer to this order a plant with long racemes of ternarily aggregate fruits, notwithstanding that it has milky juice, and that the Cotyledons are large, foliaceous and obliquely situated with regard to each other.

Among the Cyrtandraecea a species occurs, (Chiliandra obovata, mihi,) remarkable for the structure of its mature anthers. These dehisce in a labiate and incompletely bivalvular manner, the lower and smaller valve being alone half reflexed. This valve is compound, and due to the mutual adhesion of the originally distinct inner locellus of each loculus. To this formation I have adverted in a short memoir on Rhizophoreae, published in the Transactions of the Medical and Physical Society of Calcutta, although I was at the time ignorant of the existence of an example. Assam contains another interesting species of this family: this, which is remarkable for its pentangular petaloid calyx, and the "dehiscentia circumcisca," of its fruit, in which it approaches to Aikinia of Mr. Brown, I propose calling Cyananthus.

Scrophularianee afford one new genus, (Synphyllum torenioides, mihi,) an account of which will appear in the Journal of the Madras Literary Society, edited by my friend Mr. Cole.

Asclepiadea contain some interesting species, of which one constitutes probably a new genus, unless, indeed, it is referrible to Dr. Wight's Heterostemma, from which it would appear to differ in the valvular aestivation of the corolla. This species is remarkable for the aliform processes running along the larger veins of the under surface of the leaves.

To this order, or to Apocyneæ, is to be referred a remarkable plant, distinguished by the numerous longitudinal foliaceous alæ of its follicles, and, I speak from memory, its serrated leaves. This plant, which I have seen near Mergui on the Tenasserim coast, seems to have been sent by Captain Jenkins to Dr. Wallich with many others, none of which appear, however, to have excited much attention.

Among the Boragineæ we find one Myosotis and a species which, with the habit of some Anchusa, appears to be not referrible to any genus of the order. The "umbilicus" occupies the centre of each carpellum, and is surrounded by an osseous elevated margin. The origin of this is totally distinct from that of Myosotis, and is wholly independent of secundation. The radicle is in addition inferior.
The Monocotyledonous forms are chiefly those of other parts of India. Among the Orchideæ two species of Calanthe, and two of Pogonia occur, as well as one species of Spiranthæ. Among the Gramineæ the most interesting is a Diandrous species of Alopecurus, which genus is, I believe, new to India; at least to any portion of the plains.

Of the Cyperaceæ, I shall only advert to the existence of four species of Carex, two of which are, however, from the Abor Hills; a third, which was originally sent by Captain Jenkins to Dr. Wallich, appears to be widely distributed, extending from Gawahati to Jorhâth; the fourth; I have only met with about Sadiyâ.

But perhaps the most interesting plants of the whole collection are contained among those "incertæ sedis," a division, always to a beginner, of great extent. Most of these are from the lower ranges of the Abor Hills; and the appearance of these is quite sufficient to ensure their being of great interest.

Note on a Remnant of the Hun Nation. [Vide Chap. 26 of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" under the head of "Original Seat of the Huns." ] By Captain W. Foley.

"One of the princes of the nation (Hun) was urged by fear and ambition to retire towards the south with eight hordes, which composed between forty and fifty thousand families; he obtained under the title of 'Tanjou' a convenient territory on the verge of the Chinese Empire." (A.D. 48.)

Now, there are a people located in various parts of the Bama (Burmese) and Shan (Siamese) empires, who are distinguished by the appellation of "Ton-soo" or "Ton-dzo"; they have a language of their own, and differ in feature, dress, and domestic manners from the inhabitants of the country in which they reside; they never intermarry with their neighbours, and assert their descent from "a people who came from the north;" they are an ugly, swarthy race; both men and women closely resembling the picture of the Huns drawn by Gibbon in his immortal history. Broad faces, flat noses, small eyes, short, squat (but athletic) figures, are the most prominent beauties. The men wear their hair long in common with the Bama, but their dress, which is always of a dark colour, much resembles the garb of the Chinese: the women have a fillet of dark-coloured cloth (generally with a red or white border) tastefully arranged as a head-dress, and falling down over the back; a mantle of the same colour and material extending from the shoulders to a little beyond.
the knee, is the only remaining garment. Their legs, which are extremely thick, are covered with a number of metal bangles; these, with the exception of the ear-ring (nad-dán) are the only ornaments worn by the females of the Ton-soo race.

I am persuaded that these people are the descendants of the "Tanjou" described by Gibbon, a remnant of the ancient Huns! preserved during a lapse of 1788 years uncontaminated with the blood of strangers!

Turning over the pages of Gibbon very lately, I happened to notice the subject. I regret exceedingly that I was not aware of this singular coincidence during the time of my temporary residence in the neighbourhood of this people—how much might have been elicited!

XII.—Table shewing the breadth of the river Satlaj and the rate of its current at different stages from Harrike Pattan to its junction with the Indus at Mithankot.

[Communicated by Capt. C. M. Wade*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of the Stages</th>
<th>Breadth of the river Satlaj, In yards</th>
<th>Rate of the current, Kts.Ft.</th>
<th>Names of the Stages</th>
<th>Breadth of the river Satlaj, In yards</th>
<th>Rate of the current, Kts.Ft.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At Harrike,</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>1 32</td>
<td>At Pala,</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>1 05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bundali,</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>1 24</td>
<td>Núr pur,</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>2 03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firozpur,</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>1 32</td>
<td>Khypur,</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>1 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maidot,</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>1 30</td>
<td>Núr Mohamad kí goth,</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>1 04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khágái,</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>Gúl déra,</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>1 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kharián,</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>1 22</td>
<td>Bahawalpur, or Bin-driwalá,</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>1 06</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ladúké,</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>1 40</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jagvairá Salemká,</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>2 00</td>
<td>Náharwalá,</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>2 01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jwónda Búngá,</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>1 13</td>
<td>Buddha,</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>2 00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chúntá,</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>1 35</td>
<td>Múpúr,</td>
<td>572</td>
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<td>Bachawalí,</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>1 13</td>
<td>Makkhanbélá,</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>2 00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Sítpur,</td>
<td>577</td>
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<tr>
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<td>572</td>
<td>2 00</td>
<td>Shýdaná,</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>2 01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khají Bazlápúr,</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>1 41</td>
<td>Mithankot,</td>
<td>858</td>
<td>1 13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Núnkeh,</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>2 00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* We were in hopes ere this to have been favored with a copy of Captain Wade’s journal and survey of the river Satlaj, for publication. Specimens of the soil and rocks on the banks have been long in our possession, awaiting further illustration, which want of leisure has doubtless prevented.—Ed.
TABLE, No. 2.
Shewing the distance of the Stages in Miles, and the Soundings* of the River from stage to stage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of Stages</th>
<th>Sounding</th>
<th>Av.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Harrike to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bundáí to</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14 feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firozpur to</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10,8,13,16,12,11,12,10,11,9,12,14,12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mándot to</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11,12,14,14,14,12,12,6,5,6,7,8,12,11,14,6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khágghi to</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8,8,12,6,6,6,5,13,8,8,5,5,12,14,10.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Karjian to</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10,18,16,22,11,10,11,9,12,2.</td>
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<td>Ladúke to</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12,12,9,9,7,14,12,9,11,15,6,15,11,15,8,7,15,17,14.</td>
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<td>Jagvíláná to</td>
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<td>Júwunda Bángá,</td>
<td>83</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chúhání to</td>
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<td>Bachawálí to</td>
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<tr>
<td>JhúÍání to</td>
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<tr>
<td>Akóíí to</td>
<td>13</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khájh Bazídíír,</td>
<td>15</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Núnkéí to</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pála to</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14,14,11,7,16,16,5,11,8,9,9,7,12,13,18,11.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Núrpúr to</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11,16,0,7,6,7,13,14,15,6,7,9,7,8,6,12,14,15,6,7,9,15,9,10,11,7,14,16,16.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khýrprúr to</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7,10,6,11,12,18,14,12,18,8,16,12,11,12,11,6,8,12,11,7,5,12,10,11,11,9,14,11,13.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Núrmohamad,</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9,11,14,15,14,15,11,11,11,12,16,7,6,15,8,7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gúlárí to</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7,5,11,6,7,11,16,9,12,18,10,9,11,9,7,9,8,20,9.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahawaínprúr to</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11,9,8,16,13,9,9,13,14,18,18,9,9,12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Náhráwaráí to</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12,13,7,12,11,9,6,9,7,6,9,9,12,19,9.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddayí to</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>9,12,16,16,13,7,6,14.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mirpúr to</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7,6,14,17,16,15,7,11,20,16,12,13,14,12,18,12,18,11,14,12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makkhanbelá,</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9,7,15,9,7,9,12,19,15,9,18,14,18,24,21,19.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sítpúr to</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14,1,17,18,14,12,14,18,7,9,12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sýdáná to</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24,24,15,13,14,9,14,17,24,13,12,12,12,12,12,12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mítbánhkót,</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11,9,8,14,12,12,13,24,17,12,13,14,17,15,18,24,27.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE, No. 3.
Shewing the distances both by water and land from Ropar to the principal towns on the Satlaj as far as Mithankot.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of places with their distance from Ropar</th>
<th>Akbarí Kos.</th>
<th>Statute Miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By water.</td>
<td>By land.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By water.</td>
<td>By land.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Ropar to Lodíáná or Filór Ghát,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Harrike,</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Firozpur,</td>
<td>86½</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Mándot,</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Gaurjáná,</td>
<td>118½</td>
<td>105½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Fatehpúr,</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>148½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Bahawaínprúr,</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>216½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Cuch,</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Ditto to Mítbánhkót,</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>351</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These soundings were taken between the 1st of Jan. and 7th of March, when the river is at its lowest depth throughout.
XIII.—A Comparative view of the daily range of the Barometer in different parts of India. By James Prinsep, Sec. As. Soc. &c.

The friends who have for the last two years favored me with copies of their Meteorological Registers, have doubtless accused me of a most ungracious requital of their labours, in the long slumber to which they have apparently been devoted in my editorial escritoire! Such is not absolutely the true state of the case; but the number attached to the accompanying plate* will, I fear, testify against me to the extent of having kept back for nearly a year, the curious facts that had been elicited from the possession of so many valuable records of the weather.

The fact is, that the prompt attention with which my appeal was answered by observers of the weather in numerous parts of India, served as a check to the immediate publication of the materials supplied. The very voluminous dimensions of such registers, and their dry and unperusable nature, even by the few who would like well to consult them, set me about contriving some method of condensing their results into convenient compass, and exhibiting them to the eye in a manner more perspicuous than could possibly be accomplished by a mass of mere figures.

The usual form of a diagram of zigzag lines from point to point would apply tolerably well to a series of single daily observations, taken at a particular hour, and would trace out in a gently undulating curve, the course of annual variation; but if made to embrace the double daily oscillation, now well known to be steadily pursued by the Barometer in intertropical climates, it was evident that the alternations would be too confused on a small scale to be followed pleasantly by the eye. A slight modification suggested itself, as calculated to remove all objections to this mode of displaying the phenomena, without taking in any degree from the accurate notation of the fixed points of observation, while it represented more palpably the amount of daily oscillation. The modification to which I allude will be readily understood by inspection of Plate XIV. It consists in breaking the connection between the consecutive days, and merely laying off, in short parallel lines, the interval between the maximum and minimum readings of the instrument. The proximity of the lines enables the eye to fancy an imaginary line drawn centrally through them to represent the mean course, without the necessity of drawing it, while errors of the tenth of an inch, so liable to occur, and so difficult of detection in a series of figures, became at once obvious and remediable. The chief

* It was first printed as Plate IX. subsequently altered to XIV.
advantage, however, of the plan of parallel lines was, that type might be adapted to express the observations with as much facility as to a figured statement. Having the brass rules of my calendric scales already divided according to the days of the year, it only would be requisite to cast a quantity of rules of the thickness of one day, and exactly one-tenth of an inch in breadth; the printing surface of some being retained of the full length, and that of others reduced successively one hundredth, two hundredths, three hundredths, &c., so that nine varieties, and a large supply of blanks or quadrates of the same dimensions, would be sufficient to lay off any series correct to the hundredth of an inch, which is ample for most purposes. I here give a sample of this mode of registry in type, although, as I had previous-ly engraved a copper-plate divided for the purpose, I have not, on the present occasion, made any use of the typographic plan, in spite of the far greater expedition and precision of which it is capable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Madras</th>
<th>Calcutta</th>
<th>Tirhut</th>
<th>Cawnpore</th>
<th>Simla</th>
<th>Nipal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is merely necessary to denote by figures at the top, the value of the neutral line from which each set of readings is to be estimated right and left, in some even division of the inch, as 29.50 inch for Calcutta; 29.00 inch for Tirhut, or 25.00 for Nipal, &c. To reduce the lines into figures when requisite, an ivory inch scale may be applied, but this will seldom be necessary if such linear tables are accompanied by monthly abstracts in the ordinary form: the chief advantage of the lines being to shew at a glance the variations of pressure or other phenomena, during the month, in a very small compass, and for many localities at the same time.

Having thus explained the principles upon which the accompanying plate was filled up,—a work of no small patience by the way, seeing that it contains 13 columns of 365 double entries, or nearly 10,000 individual measurements laid off by scale to the hundredth of an inch,—I will proceed to notice, first, the authorities whence the various columns are derived; and, secondly, the instructive and highly curious facts it discloses.

The Madras column is extracted from the registers published by Mr. Taylor, the H. C.'s Astronomer at Madras, in the Journal of the Literary Society at that place. For the Bombay column I am indebted
to my brother Assay Master, Mr. Noton, who kindly sent me copies of some registers made mostly during his absence. The series is broken in many places, and the observations between June and October, 1834, were evidently taken by an inexperienced hand. The single line marked Socotra is from the register kept by Captain Haines while engaged in the survey of the island. As the hours chosen by him were not those of the maximum and minimum, I thought it best to confine myself to the noon readings as a mean of the day. The Calcutta columns are taken from my own registers, published in this Journal. The Tirhut diary was kept at my request by my cousin, the late Mr. Thomas Dashwood, Judge at Mozafferpur, who kept it up unremittedly for three years and a half, indeed until a very few days before his sudden and lamented death*. One year of this series has already been published at length in the 2nd and 3rd volumes of the Journal. For the Cawnpore register I am beholden to Colonel G. Pollock, C. B. of the artillery. This series is unfortunately intermittent, from his having been obliged to send his barometer to Calcutta, in December, 1834: which, however, furnished an opportunity of comparing it with my own standard. A little to the right of the Cawnpore line for 1834, are entered the observations of Mr. Ritchie at Bancoora, for April and May, also abruptly terminated by his falling an untimely victim to the climate.

The last series to the right I owe to Captain Robinson of the Nipal Residency; it was made partly with his own and partly with Mr. Hodgson's instrument, which will account for the shifting of the index point in June, 1834. In March also two adjustments were attempted by boiling the tube. These do not affect the utility of the register, when once noted. Captain Robinson's tables are invaluable from the number of periods during the day they embrace, but these will be alluded to hereafter in summing up the figured abstracts.

I was disappointed of getting any observations from the western hills, (the seat of the grand trigonometrical operations still going forward in those parts,) until after the plate had been long finished and the whole edition struck off, when Mr. H. S. Boulderson of Moradabad kindly transmitted me a file of observations taken by his brother, Mr. S. M. Boulderson, at Simla, between May and November, 1834. Rather than lose the valuable additional evidence which this register, at a position elevated about 7000 feet, and situated 400 miles to the west of Katmandhu, would afford, I have caused it to be

* An apoplectic fit terminated his life of exemplary public service and private worth, at the very moment of his quitting employment, and retiring home to devote his latter days to the education of his family in England.
Abstract of Meteorological Tables.

1836.

inserted, under the Bancoora column, heading the index line 23.50, to correspond with the average range of the barometer at Simla* and have reprinted the plate.

The first feature in the table that attracts attention is an almost perfect parallelism in the march of the barometer at Calcutta, Bancoora, Mozafferpur, Cawnpore, Nipal and Simla—places situated many hundred miles asunder from 22°f to 28° north latitude, and 80° to 88° east longitude, with altogether differently prevailing winds and climates, and opposite geographical features. The same parallelism continues even as far south as Madras, but the excursions are there much subdued in every respect, and occasional deviations are observable, which seldom or never occur in the three Gangetic lines, except from such a local hurricane as that experienced in the immediate neighbourhood of Calcutta on the 3rd August, 1834. Between Bombay and Calcutta, little conformity of detail can be perceived, though the general direction is symmetrical. There is, however, considerable accordance between Bombay and Madras, the former having from its higher latitude a wider range of oscillation, both annual and intermediate.

The direction of the wind (at least of the lower stratum) alone seems quite insufficient to account for the barometrical variations, although it is generally true that the mercury rises with the prevalence of northerly, and falls with that of southerly winds, as might be expected from the different specific gravity of a warmer or colder atmospheric column. That the moon also has no regular influence appreciable on the scale of my table, must be, I think, also granted; for as many instances occur of a falling as of a rising barometer at the changes of lunar phases. The course of the thermometer, on the contrary, seems to have a decided connection with that of the barometer. This is exemplified in the comparative uniformity of the Madras line, and the increased curvature at other places. For convenience of division I assumed the tenth of an inch, as representing 10 Fahrenheit degrees of temperature. Had I taken double that amount, the general thermometrical variations would have been better preserved.

* Having the former copy of the plate at hand, I have distributed it detached along with the other, hoping it may attract notice and procure me a fuller collection for some future year.

I have been also favored with a daily barometrical series for 1836 at Bangalore, by Dr. Mouat, but I have reason to think that the instrument used was sluggish in its movements. I trust, however, for the ensuing year, the labours of this zealous observer will be made available by the possession of better instruments. I have further many other broken series from Assam, Kyook Phyoo, Candy, &c. but they are generally wanting in the barometer. A short series was also kept for me by Lieutenant Montrion, I. N. at the head of the bay in January and February, 1833.
tric curve for the year would have been nearly symmetrical with that of the barometer, except during the rainy season.

It should be remarked, that the daily undulations of temperature for Calcutta and Tirhut, are the extremes indicated by a register thermometer exposed to night radiation and noonday sun: those for Madras are only the variations of morning and afternoon heat in the shaded air. They both, however, but the former more distinctly, shew to the eye the influence of clouds and rain diminishing the diurnal excursion; and in this respect a direct accordance is also observable in the reduced diurnal motion of the barometer; as I long since pointed out to be the case in regard to the Benares tables published in the Asiatic Researches, vol. XV.

Another material point to be noticed in the plate is the gale of the 3rd of August, when the Calcutta barometer dropt down to 28.8 inches passing (on the plate) through the Tirhut column, which is only partially affected. There is in all the lines a decided fall at the same period, but only of an ordinary extent, apparently unconnected with the disturbing cause of the Calcutta storm. Any who have witnessed the gathering of a north-wester during the calm serenity of a sultry evening, and have watched the turbulence of the clouds and commixture of upper currents prior to the sudden and furious generation of the whirlwind below, will be prepared to consider the hurricanes and gales of longer duration as equally insulated in their origin, only upon a much larger scale of operation. A sudden condensation of aqueous, or perhaps of gaseous matter, whether by electricity or simple cold, would, by drawing upwards toward the vacuous space, the under air, cause a fall in the barometer as certainly as if there were an absolute removal of superincumbent weight, for which there would be no mode of accounting; and this upward current could not take effect without the production of a horizontal current of corresponding degree and velocity.

The last point of instruction to be gained from the present plate,—and it is a very important one,—is the reliance that may be placed on the measurement of barometrical altitudes taken by comparing the observed height at places so distant as Cawnpore, or in the mountainous regions of the Himalayas with the register of a stationary instrument at Calcutta. I confess I always had misgivings on the comparability inter se of such distant readings, until as it were my hand refuted the doubts of my mind. The engraving shews that a dozen contemporaneous observations (that is, observations not made at the same instant, but at the same relative hour), would be ample for fixing the altitude of a place within moderate limits. Moreover, it shews that no reference of an observed height to a fixed unit (as 30 inches), as-
sumed as the barometric zero at the level of the sea, can possibly be trusted: hence the advantage of maintaining a constant register at one or several fixed spots; nay, it may be almost regarded as a public desideratum, where, as in India, the Government has so much to learn of the physical geography of its vast territories.

Want of space has prevented my including in the plate the thermometric columns for 1835; but the temperature does not require such minute discussion as the pressure, for obvious reasons. The hygrometrical phenomena also are rather unsuitable to graphic illustration. The monthly averages to which we must now pass will, it is hoped, be sufficiently comprehensive in these departments to cause no regret at the unavoidable suppression of the daily registers.

Beginning, then, with the Bombay and Socotra series we have the following

Abstract of Bombay Observations for part of 1834, by Mr. Henderson:
for 1835, by Mr. S. Frazier.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barometer uncorrected.</th>
<th>Thermometer.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 A.M.</td>
<td>Noon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1834.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January, ...</td>
<td>30.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February, ...</td>
<td>30.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March, ...</td>
<td>30.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Barometer reduced to 32°.

| 1835. |   |   |   |   |
| January, ... | 29.974 | 29.930 | 29.889 | ... Sunday Obs. carent. |
| February, ... | .898 | .907 | .853 | ditto. |
| March, ... | .875 | .537 | .788 | from 12th to 16th carent. |
| April, ... | .890 | .831 | .790 | 16 to 20 ditto. |
| May, ... | .779 | .753 | .736 | 2, 3, 8 to 10 ditto. |
| June, ... | .682 | .639 | .613 | |
| July, ... | .610 | .685 | .579 | |
| August, ... | .668 | .663 | .630 | |
| September, ... | .730 | .727 | .696 | |
| October, ... | .823 | .786 | .729 | |
| November, ... | .935 | .941 | .900 | |
| December, ... | .989 | .957 | .902 | |

Means, ... | 29.924 | 29.800 | 29.753 |

Mr. Noton, fancying I was only in want of the barometrical series, has omitted to send that of the thermometer or of the weather in general. His own observations for many years on the climate of Bombay are, however, published, and will supply the deficiency when we come to take a general review.

Abstract of Observations taken on the coast of Socotra, on board the H. C. S. Palinurus, H. B. Haines, Commander, in 1834.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 A.M.</td>
<td>Noon.</td>
<td>3 P.M.</td>
<td>8 A.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January, ...</td>
<td>29.429</td>
<td>29.416</td>
<td>29.414</td>
<td>76.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February, ...</td>
<td>.403</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>77.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March, ...</td>
<td>.935</td>
<td>.377</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>75.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June, ...</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>.972</td>
<td>.972</td>
<td>86.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July, ...</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.992</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last two months' journal contains also the readings at 4 A.M. sunrise, 3 P.M. and sunset; but necessarily on board a ship in heavy weather, the diurnal oscillations cannot fairly be estimated.
Abstract of Meteorological Tables.

We may now pursue the same course with Mr. Dashwood's tables for Tirhut, from December, 1833, (prior to which they have already been inserted,) first only reducing the barometric altitudes to 32°. Mr. Dashwood, following my recommendation of tapping the tube before reading off, has, as I expected, made the daily oscillation considerably greater than in his first register. Thus also my new standard barometer is found to oscillate a full fifth more than the old, so that the real external change of pressure during the day is hitherto only approximately known, and may perhaps be nearer 1\(\frac{1}{10}\) than 1-tenth of an inch.

**Monthly Abstract of Meteorological Observations, kept daily at Mozafferpur in Tirhut, from the 1st December, 1833, to the 31st May, 1836, by the late Thomas Dashwood, Esq. C. S.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Barometer reduced to 32°</th>
<th>Thermometer in doors.</th>
<th>Thermometer outside</th>
<th>Winds Number of days</th>
<th>Days Rain</th>
<th>Weather</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9(\frac{1}{4}) A.M 1(\frac{1}{4}) P.M</td>
<td>9(\frac{1}{4}) A.M 1(\frac{1}{4}) P.M</td>
<td>Max.</td>
<td>Min.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>29.662</td>
<td>29.570</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>29.670</td>
<td>29.572</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>29.670</td>
<td>29.572</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>29.470</td>
<td>29.367</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>91.2</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>29.281</td>
<td>29.195</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>108.6</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>29.200</td>
<td>29.133</td>
<td>83.7</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>76.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>29.232</td>
<td>29.167</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>92.3</td>
<td>77.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>29.280</td>
<td>29.194</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>90.3</td>
<td>77.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>29.373</td>
<td>29.264</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>89.6</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>29.525</td>
<td>29.450</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>85.2</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>29.722</td>
<td>29.621</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>29.762</td>
<td>29.660</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1835</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>29.775</td>
<td>29.667</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>29.761</td>
<td>29.672</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>52.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>81.9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>January</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means, 1833</td>
<td>29.433</td>
<td>29.348</td>
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<td>79.0</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>67.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Means, 1835</td>
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<td>29.593</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>62.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean of 3 yrs. 29.501 29.411 75.9 77.9 85.4 66.4

General mean, 29.456 76.9 75.9 8 W. S. E.

The Tirhut Barometer had not been compared with my standard.
Abstract of Meteorological Tables.

The Cawnpore table needs no particular remark. The daily notices of the weather are very full, but unfortunately there is no possibility of abbreviating them. I have attempted in some measure to meet this difficulty, as in the Tirhut tables, by numbering the days of each prevailing wind, and of rain. The predominance of easterly winds strikes me as rather anomalous during the hot season; but I have witnessed the same irregularity at Benares. The hot westerly wind is purely a day breeze, and very rarely extends to the night, which is generally calm, or has a light air in the opposite direction.

Abstract of a daily Register of the Weather at Cawnpore, kept by Col. G. Pollock, C. B., during the years 1834 and 1835.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>10 A.M. Barometer.</th>
<th>Thermometer.</th>
<th>4 P.M. Barometer.</th>
<th>Thermometer.</th>
<th>Wind, days.</th>
<th>Rain days.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>inches</td>
<td></td>
<td>inches</td>
<td></td>
<td>N. E. S. W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jan...</td>
<td>29.693</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>29.114</td>
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<tr>
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<td>77.1</td>
<td>—</td>
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<td>29.403</td>
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<td>86.5</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>29.518</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>29.114</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>May...</td>
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<td>85.0</td>
<td>29.055</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
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<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>29.330</td>
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<td>29.055</td>
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<td>14.0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>29.055</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>29.186</td>
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<td>13.0</td>
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<tr>
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<td>29.375</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
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<td>29.570</td>
<td>75.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td>71.0</td>
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<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1835.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>10 A.M. Barometer.</th>
<th>Thermometer.</th>
<th>4 P.M. Barometer.</th>
<th>Thermometer.</th>
<th>Wind, days.</th>
<th>Rain days.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>inches</td>
<td></td>
<td>inches</td>
<td></td>
<td>N. E. S. W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan...</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>67.7</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb...</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>84.3</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>74.7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>73.9</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>89.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>82.0</td>
<td>93.0</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>29.435</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>29.237</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>29.285</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>29.267</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>29.432</td>
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<td>29.360</td>
<td>85.4</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>29.445</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>29.656</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>29.573</td>
<td></td>
<td>Col. Pollock's Barom.</td>
<td>Dr. Dempster's do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>Mr. Campbell's do.</td>
<td>Col. Pollock's do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>.956</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>Dr. Dempster's do.</td>
<td>Mr. Campbell's do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(9dys.) .988

The error of Colonel Pollock's instrument when compared with my standard in April, 1835, was only — .059. It is difficult therefore to account for its standing so much lower than Dr. Dempster's, and Mr. Campbell's, unless some accident happened to it on its return to Cawnpore.

The Bancoora series, being limited to two months, will not admit of an abstract; we may therefore pass to the Nipal tables.
Abstract of Meteorological Tables.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Mean height of Barometer reduced to 32° for the hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1833.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>25.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>.325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1835.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>.401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>.505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>.142</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>.233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>.457</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Abstract of Thermometrical Observations, made simultaneously with the above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Thermometer inside the house.</th>
<th>Thermometer outside.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A.M.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1833.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>73.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1834.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>73.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>66.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>61.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1835.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>*73.8</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>*75.0</td>
<td>72.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>*71.4</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>*61.0</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>*55.4</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The items marked with an asterisk were taken half an hour later than the hour indicated at the top of the column.

In July, August and September, 1833, the register notes only the minima and maxima temperatures, but to save room I have supposed these to accord with the hours of 7 A.M. and 2 P.M.
Of the two barometers registered at Katmandhu, that of the Resident has been preferred, for 1834. Capt. Robinson’s tube for that year stood a quarter of an inch lower, and was hardly sensible to the diurnal oscillation. After boiling it in the month of September, however, it rose to within .02 of H.’s, and exceeded the latter in oscillation by .03. This and the circumstance of the hour of maximum 9 to 10 A.M. being unfortunately omitted among the numerous periods of the day selected for register, render not only the absolute amount of diurnal motion still uncertain for Nipál, but also prevent our calculating the annual average. I hope the series I am now promised by Dr. A. Campbell for 1837 will supply the want.

I reserve for a separate notice the calculated elevations connected with the Nipál series, as they are affected by the error alluded to in the preceding remarks, of assuming 30 inches for the barometric zero at the level of the sea.

The state of the wind in the valley has not been noted, but the fall of rain is recorded with precision, the average amount being about 50 inches.

The series for Simla does not comprehend an entire year, and will not therefore furnish averages. The temperature appears to be that of the interior of the house.

Abstract of Meteorological Register kept at Simla, from the 15th May to the 21st November, 1834. By S. M. Boulderson, Esq.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Barometer at 32°</th>
<th>Thermometer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 A.M.</td>
<td>4 P.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>23.816</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>.784</td>
<td>.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td>.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>.905</td>
<td>.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>24.013</td>
<td>.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The range at 7½ A.M. is also given for the month of May, the mean of the barometer being 23.793; which proves the regularity of the nocturnal tide in these elevated regions.

I must, for want of time, leave to a future opportunity the further analysis of the above tables, and the deduction of general average results from the Calcutta tables for the past five years. Meantime, I will conclude with the insertion of a table of the temperature at Kandy in Ceylon, obligingly contributed by Captain Ord, R. E., and a note on the temperature of the Brahmaputra in Assam, compared with that of the air at the same time by Dr. W. Griffith.
Abstract of Meteorological Tables.

Extract from a Meteorological Journal kept at Kandy, Island of Ceylon, by Captain Ord, R. E.

(To complete the year 1834, broken off in the Extract published in Journal, No. 48, December 1835, page 799.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Thermometric Range</th>
<th>Rain-gauge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>57 27</td>
<td>76 57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>81 18</td>
<td>63 18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N. B. Highest range in the shade during the year 1834, 88°, lowest 57°, mean temp. 73° 1.

Total quantity of rain fallen during the year, 96.7 inches.

Extract from the same Journal for the year 1835.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Thermometric Range</th>
<th>Rain-gauge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan.</td>
<td>50 19</td>
<td>89 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb.</td>
<td>52 28</td>
<td>85 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>61 16</td>
<td>62 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>62 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May.</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>65 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>84 54</td>
<td>84 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>66 54</td>
<td>66 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>65 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept.</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>65 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>65 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov.</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>65 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec.</td>
<td>65 54</td>
<td>65 54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N. B. Highest range in the shade during the year 1835, 85°, lowest, 58°, mean temp. 72° 44.

Mean of max. and min. for the 2 years, 72° 125.

Ditto of calculated mean temp. for ditto, 72° 77.

(Too high, in consequence of employing the hours of 8 instead of 10.)

Total quantity of rain fallen during the year, 76'2 inches.
Temperature of the Air and of the Water at Sadiya in Assam, by Dr. W. Griffith.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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* The Kundeeit is a small nullah joining the Burhumpootur at Sadiya.

Partial fogs over Burhumpootur.

Slight and partial fogs over do.

Burhumpootur risen two feet.

Slight fogs over Burhumpootur.

Partial fogs over do.

River falling.

General fog over do.

Slight fog over do. Considerable rise.

General fog: thickest over B.

Rise in Burhumpootur of 2 feet.

Fall of Burhumpootur, slight fog over do.

Light fog over B.

River B. rising considerably.

Taken with a Thermometer, graduated in scales of 2 degrees each; the instrument was nearly immersed in the water. The temperatures of both rivers are taken some distance from the banks of the Burhumpootur at about 40 yards. Scarcely any difference, however, is to be found between the temperature at some distance out and that near the banks.
XIV.—Postscript to the Memoir on the Depression of the Wet-bulb Thermometer, published in the July number. By JAS. PRINSEP, Sec. &c.

I have only found leisure to repeat the experiments forming the final section of my former paper, on one more of the simple gases, namely oxygen; of which the specific heat, calculated from the data thus supplied, has not been found to differ materially from that of common atmospheric air. It follows necessarily, that azote must have the same specific heat, since the mixture of the two causes no alteration in the observed depression. The experiments were conducted in the same order as before, except that the glass exit tube was somewhat narrower, and the dry thermometer was fixed in it half an inch below the wetted bulb. Some trials, with common air, were first made to ascertain whether this arrangement produced any material difference of result.

Depressions with Oxygen gas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bar.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>t'</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>h</th>
<th>Max. dep. for hyg.</th>
<th>Tabular max. dep.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 21 Common air,</td>
<td>29.65</td>
<td>92.0</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>6?</td>
<td>39.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oct. 2 Ditto,</td>
<td>29.78</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 Ditto,</td>
<td>29.75</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>35.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 Oxygen,</td>
<td>29.81</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Ditto,</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nov. 3 Ditto,</td>
<td>29.90</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 Ditto,</td>
<td>29.83</td>
<td>83.4</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>0</td>
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In the first experiment it is evident, that the hair hygrometer had not reached its full contraction for the actual siccity of the air enclosed in the gasometer. The trifling inferiority in the depressions for oxygen, I am inclined to attribute to the more sparing hand with which it was expended:—the difference of four per cent. is certainly larger than ought to be conceded to experimental error, but I feel sure that a more careful and longer series would have brought out a nearer approach to the depressions observed in common air.

XV.—Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

Wednesday Evening, the 4th January, 1837.

The Honorable Sir Edward Ryan, President, in the chair.
Messrs. W. Dent and M. Manuk, proposed at the last meeting, were ballotted for, and duly elected Members of the Society.
Captain Edward Sanders was proposed by Major Taylor, seconded by Mr. W. H. Macnaghten.
Mr. John Curnin was proposed by the Secretary, seconded by Mr. Bagshaw.
Captain F. Jenkins, proposed by the Secretary, seconded by Sir E. Ryan.
Mr. George Hill, proposed by Dr. Pearson, seconded by the Secretary.
Mr. Richard Walker, proposed by Mr. Bell, seconded by the President.
Bâbu Ramna'eth Tagore and Prasannakuma'r Tagore, proposed by Bâbu Ru-omov Dutt, seconded by the Secretary.
Mr. P. A. Lair was proposed a corresponding member by Mr. James Prinsep; the nomination was referred to the Committee of Papers.
The meeting then proceeded to the annual election of office-bearers, when the following gentlemen were elected.

Vice-Presidents.

Committee of Papers.
The Secretary read minutes from the Report of the Committee of papers on the Honorable Mr. Turnour's proposed publication of the Mahâ-vansi.

Minute by Dr. Mill.
In presenting to the world both the text and the translation of these extensive historical works—and in thus rescuing them from what is in many respects worse than total oblivion, the confusion and misapprehension of their real testimony which a former very erroneous publication on the subject in England was calculated to produce,—Mr. Turnour would have conferred a very great benefit on the historical literature of the East, had his merits even stopped at this point, and had he not further shewn by his comments, how admirably qualified he is to illustrate the work he edites, and enable every reader to profit by its contents. The literary benefit is very far from being confined to the single subject of Ceylon: it extends to the whole of India: and yields in importance to nothing that has yet been produced on that most perplexed and generally unproductive subject, the history of India prior to the thousandth year of our era.

How these documents bear on the general history of the country, will be very evident to any one who follows the able editor in his preliminary remarks, as well as in the specimen he has already given us of the first book of his series, the Mahâvansi. It is enough to remark, that the peculiarly interesting connexion between the history of Ceylon before the Christian era, with that of Magadha, or that part of Northern India which we now call Behar, is attested by the
very language* in which all these books are written: and that it originates with what is undoubtedly the most striking and important moral phenomena in the history of Eastern Asia, the rise of Buddhism from the centre of that great Gangetic kingdom. And it is observable, that the same dynasty of sovereigns of that large district, reigning at Pataliputra, or Palibothra, the present Patna, —from the midst of whom Gautama Buddha arose nearly six centuries before our Lord,—presents us not two centuries afterwards, in the age of Alexander and Sandracottus with the one solitary point in which the history of India

* The Pālī in which these historical books are written, and which is the language of Buddhist literature and religion, as well in Siam, Ava, Nipāl, and Tibet, as in Ceylon,—is in fact no other, as Mr. Turnour shews, and the text of his originals exhibits to every Sanscrit scholar, than the Magadha Pracrit,—the classical form in ancient Behar, of that very peculiar modification of Sanscrit speech which enters as largely into the drama of the Hindus (though in a different way) as did the Doric dialect into the Attic tragedy in ancient Greece. Now, all the variations of Sanscrit words that occur in these Pracrit dialects, answer closely to the forms which the same words exhibit in the vernacular Hindui of that province, and the yet more northern districts of India, as far as the Himalaya: (e.g. the omission of the r, the changing of bh to h, &c. &c.) and are totally unlike the forms of the same words even in the province of Bengal, or as infused into the languages of the Southern peninsula, and of Ceylon itself. And whenever corresponding words in the Pālī and Singhalese occur, as they do every where, I believe it will be invariably found that the latter, (the vernacular words of the people of the Kandian and maritime provinces of Ceylon,) resemble most closely the Sanscrit original of both:—whereas the former, the sacred language, takes in all words that admit of it, the same sort of peculiar variation which belongs to the tongues of northernmost India,—shewing evidently that it was thence, and not from Ceylon, that the peculiar language as well as institutions of Buddhism came to the island,—as the Mahāvansi itself distinctly asserts. To take but one out of the many instances that might be alleged, we may give one of the most remarkable and early names of the island, viz Tamba-pannya, as the Pālī name is given in p. 35 of this specimen of the Mahāvansi, viz. the "copper-palmed," in Sanscrit Tamra-pāṇi. Now this Sanscrit form, so different from the Pali, is actually the present Singhalese for the same thing, as I was assured by a competent scholar on the island: and a very convincing proof that it has ever been so, may be seen in the name by which the island was universally known to the ancients and to Cosmas Indicopleustes when he visited it, viz. ταγρώσευν. The Greeks would be just as unlikely to introduce this r where it did not exist, as any other languages of India beside the northernmost ones would be to drop it where it before existed: but this is a universal character of the Pracrit and of the present Hindui, (as seen in this word, tamba, copper—kām "work" for karm, &c. &c. &c.)

This real origin of the celebrated name Tamraprabha (whatever may be thought of the story connected with it in the Mahāvansi, and which may seem with greater probability to have arisen from the tamra-varna, or copper colour, of its southern cliffs near Matura, so well known to navigators)—is one of the points of curious and interesting information which we owe mainly to this publication of Mr. Turnour. Whatever had been before suggested as the probable origin of that name, so little now known except in these Buddhist books, as one of the proper names of the great island of Lanka or Singhala-duīpa, was in the highest degree forced and improbable, (ex. gr. the Hindvi Tūpī-Raban, or the island of Rāvana.)
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

The great value of these works, as containing correct chronological history, is well established from this unerring test by Mr. Turnour. And he most ably vindicates the Buddhist authors of Ceylon at least, from the general censure passed on them by Professor Horace Wilson,—in reviewing the Tibet documents of M. Csoma Körösé,—of being, if possible, more regardless of chronology than even the Brāhmans. The degree of accuracy, indeed, with which, in the midst of this long series of kings, the age of Chandra-Gupta Maurya is marked,—even admitting an error of sixty years from his proper age, as a contemporary of Alexander and Seleucus,—is yet most wonderful, when compared with the only other chronological Indian history yet produced—the history of Kashmir, called the Rāja Tarangini, (which we owe to the eminently learned orientalist just named,) whose lists would go to antedate that celebrated king by nearly twelve centuries.—On all these points, Mr. Turnour's observations are very valuable: and even when they may fail to produce conviction (as in some parts of the dissertation inserted in the Journal As. Soc. of September last), the learning and candour with which he prosecutes the inquiry, and the absence of all undue prepossession in favor of those authors with whom he is necessarily most conversant, ever entitle them to the utmost consideration.

It would be undervaluing these works to suppose them to be merely a dry chronological catalogue of sovereigns and dynasties: though this is frequently all that an inquirer into ancient India is able to meet with; where, between fable on the one hand, and the strong national tendency to abstract speculation on the other, the literature of the country has so little to aid a historical student. These works apparently contain much that may well be deemed valuable by a philosophical inquirer into history: and the details, in particular, of the contest between the antagonist principles of Brāhmanism and Buddhism, are often curiously illustrative of the genius of these two systems, which have held, and still hold, such sway over large portions of mankind.

W. H. Mill.

Minute by the Secretary.

Fully subscribing to the eulogy recorded by our Vice-President on Mr. Turnour's labours, which all who have read his specimen-volume and preliminary treatise will acknowledge to be most just and well deserved, I have merely to notice, that the typographical execution of his Pāli text in Roman character has been examined by a competent native scholar residing in Calcutta, and found to contain but a trifling list of errors, and those chiefly of the accented letters. There are blanks in the manuscript which it might be possible to restore by collation with the copies of the Mahāvansi in the Burmese character, easily procurable at Ava. I have sent the specimen to Colonel H. Burney, who will, doubtless, be happy to contribute his collateral aid to this meritorious undertaking.

An opportunity has lately fallen in my way of verifying a portion not of the great Pāli History, but of its Singhalese continuation translated in Mr. Turnour's Tabular Epitome of Ceylon Dynasties. Captain Ord having lately
called my attention to the form of a letter* on one of the ancient coins of Dambadinn̄a hitherto but imperfectly deciphered, at the moment when I was transcribing a Delhi inscription of the eleventh century; the form of other letters struck me as very similar to that type, and hence, on re-examining all the coins I possessed, and the drawings of others sent me by Captain Ord, I was forthwith enabled to recognise the names of no less than six kings, all occurring in Mr. Turnour’s list within the two centuries immediately subsequent to the Sholian conquest†, and thus forming a chronological link with one of the dynasties of Southern India, which has been but very imperfectly lifted from obscurity by the researches of Colonel Mackenzie and others in India proper.

J. Prinsep.

The Society concurring entirely in the Committee’s view of the value of Mr. Turnour’s intended publication, particularly in regard to the light it throws on the early history of India, it was resolved to advocate its patronage by the Government of India, to the fullest extent that it may have been usual for Government to subscribe to private enterprizes of similar importance in India itself.

Library.

The following books were presented.

Catalogue of 7385 Stars, chiefly in the southern hemisphere, by Mr. W. Richardson—presented by the Lords of the Admiralty.

Memoires de l’Academie Royale de Caen, 1825—1829.


Essai sur les Combustions Humaines, par Pierre-Aîmé Lair, 1 vol. (3 copies) and various tracts, essays, notices, by Mr. Lair and other Members—presented by the Royal Society of Caen.


Extract of a letter from Dr. Walne to Captain Crawfurd (recently arrived from Egypt) was read, expressing a desire to place the Literary and Antiquarian Society at Cairo, instituted by himself, in correspondence with the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

The Secretary stated that he had opened the desired intercourse by addressing to Dr. Walne copies of the Arabic works printed by the Society, and of the Ethiopian inscriptions printed in the Journal, in hopes of their being deciphered.

Museum.

A variety of specimens of Native ornaments were presented by Bābu Herambanaṭh Tha’kur.

* The first letter of the 3rd line in the coin fig. 22 of Pl. L., in vol. iv. which was read tr, but ought to be ṭ, being joined on the left and open on the right.
† Sri Vijaya Vahu 1071, Sri Parākrama Vahu 1153, Sri rāja Lilavati 1197, Sri Krithi Nikanga 1187, Sri mat Sahāsa Malla 1200, and Sri Lokēswara 1210.
Extracts of letters from Lieutenant G. Fulljames and Captain A. Burnes were read, announcing the dispatch of further fossils from Perim, in the gulf of Cambay.

Mr. H. Walters presented a very large fragment of a fossil tree from Birbhām, upon which there appeared a cut as of a hatchet, made before the wood was petrified. (?)

A letter was read from M. Jules Desjardins, dated Maurice 29th September, 1836, forwarding meteorological observations made from April to August inclusive, and promising to continue the series if acceptable.

A note from Dr. Spilsbury explained that the large fossil acetabulum of the elephant, presented at a former meeting, was not found at Segoundi, (whence the femur of 1834 was extracted,) but from the hill close to Jabalpur, which Captain Sleeman first brought to notice. The positions, therefore, of these large fragments were 60 miles asunder.

Another fragment on a still more gigantic scale, the lower end of the humerus, was now presented: and Dr. S. announces three more large fossils on their way to Calcutta, from two spots visited by Major Ouseley.

The skeleton of the Sumatran Orang-otang which lately died in Calcutta (wanting the hands and feet) was presented by Mr. R. W. Frith.

A large ostraceous shell was presented by the Rev. M. Hill.

The Secretary read his Report on the past year's proceedings, of which the following is the substance.

The number of new Members added to the list in 1836 had been

| Ordinary Members | 24 |
| Associate Members | 2 |
| Honorary Member | 1 |

The loss by death, 2; by departure to Europe, 1; and withdrawal, 3; in all 6

The financial operations of the year were as follows:

<table>
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<th>Payments</th>
<th>Receipts</th>
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<tr>
<td>To house establishment and contingencies, from December, 1835, to October, 1836,</td>
<td>By balance of past year's account, 406 5 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To salary of the Curator, and museum contingent, from December, 1835, to 30th November, 1836,</td>
<td>By quarterly collections and admission fees realised, 651 9 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To copies of the Journal supplied to the Members to 31st December,</td>
<td>By 3rd Dividend on the Estate of Mackintosh and Co., 382 13 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Sheriffand Co.'s bill for repairs,</td>
<td>By Government for establishment retained by the Society for keeping in custody the Oriental books transferred from the College of Fort William, from April to November, 1836, at 7s per month, 624 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To matting the hall and part of the museum with rattan,</td>
<td>By Interest on Government Securities deposited with the Government Agent, 2093 0 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To new almirahs, shelves, tables, &amp;c.</td>
<td>By balance in deficit, 193 11 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Orphan Press bill for printing 1st part, 20th vol., including authors' copies, &amp;c.</td>
<td>Total, 10,251 8 6</td>
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<tr>
<td>To lithography and printing plates of Physical volume xix.</td>
<td>Contributions due.</td>
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<tr>
<td>To freight to Madras, &amp;c.</td>
<td>3rd Quarterly Subs. to Sept. 1705 1 5</td>
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<td>4th Ditto to Dec. 1290 0 0</td>
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Outstanding Bills due.

For the XIXth vol. 1st part, with authors' extra copies, 1646 8 8
For Journal supplied to Members, 1284 0 0
Establishment, Curator, &c. 2 months, 1150 0 0
Oriental Publications.

Payments.
To paid several bills for printing Sanscrit and Arabic, ... 6900 8 6
To Pandits and Maulavis for correcting press, ... 160 0 0
To writer and cashier, ... 150 0 0
To expense of removing College Library, and sundries, ... 18 10 6
To purchase of four book cases from the Education Committee, ... 59 11 8
To cash realised by sale of Inaya transferred to Ramdhan Sen, on his engaging to complete the work, 300 0 0
To freight to Europe, packing, &c., 192 15 7
To postage, cooly hire, &c., 55 9 3
To balance in hand, ... 2174 8 7

Outstanding Bills due to the end of 1836, ... ... ... 2294 9 11

Receipts.
By cash balance of last year, ... 118 10 2
By amount realised from public subscriptions to the Alamgiri, ... 5796 10 8
By private subscriptions for that and other works realised, ... 500 2 4
By sale of books, ... 615 8 7
By ditto to Education Committee, ... 504 0 0
By establishment for care of books allowed by Government for March, (afterwards entered in general account,) ... ... 78 0 0

Co.'s Rs. 10,012 0 1

Subscriptions to be realised for works delivered, say, ... ... 1000 0 0

Co.'s Rs. 10,012 0 1

The publications by the Society and under its auspices have been this year unprecedentedly numerous. Of the Researches, two half volumes have been completed, one literary and one physical: the latter containing no less than 21 plates. Thirty, indeed, have been engraved, but nine are necessarily kept back, from the text being yet unfinished. It is my duty to bring to the notice of Members in what manner I have been enabled to publish so many finished plates, engraved in a style much superior to those of former volumes, without entailing an expense much beyond that of the paper on which they are printed.

The lithographs of the snakes and some of the botanical plates were kindly drawn by Dr. Cantor; the remainder of the latter by the artists of Dr. Wallich’s establishment: one or two have also been executed by myself: but by far the greater portion, including nine mezzotint and six line engravings, have been executed on holidays and at early leisure hours, by Ka’sina’th, the chief die engraver of the Mint, who most liberally refuses to accept any remuneration for them, considering himself under some little obligation to the Society and to myself for having brought his talents to notice. I trust the Society will testify in an appropriate manner their acknowledgment of such a disinterested and noble act.

Besides these works, the Society has witnessed in the course of the past year, the completion of the Fatawa Alamgiri, the second volume of the Mahabharata, (of which the third volume is also far advanced,) the Raja Tarangini, the Susruta, the Naishadha, and the Anis ul Musharrahin, leaving only the remainder of the Mahabharata and a few pages of the Khaizzat ul Ilm, to be accomplished, of all the works transferred from the Committee of Public Instruction.

Collaterally the Society has taken under its auspices the publication of the Cochin-Chinese Dictionary, of the Alif Leila, and of an Anglo-Burmese Dictionary of which the manuscript ordered to be printed under the patronage of Government, has been placed in my hands by Mr. Lane its compiler, on his departure for England; meantime our representative in England, Professor Wilson, is engaged in passing the Moorcroft journals through the press at the risk and credit of the Society.

In this sketch I do not allude to the journal and the appendices published therewith, although it must be well known to all that this work owes its principal and most valuable contributions to its acknowledged connection with the Society.

In reference to the expectation held out in last year’s report, the Government

The Inaya has been transferred to the Editor, Babu Ramdhan Sen, under agreement that he should complete it.
Proceedings of the Asiatic Society.

has, in the course of the present year, transferred to the Society the two branches of the Oriental Library of Fort William, manuscripts and printed works, and has liberally granted a monthly allowance for their preservation. Further donations of a valuable nature have been made by the French Government; the Lords of the Admiralty, the Commissioners of Parliamentary Records, (through the Government,) and by Dr. Lumqua and other private individuals, in addition to the customary tribute from the learned Societies of Europe and America.

"The Museum has continued to increase rapidly; but its means of doing justice to objects presented has been limited for want of funds. The fossils particularly require more cabinets and more space. Captain Cunningham's present of Sarnath sculptures forms the chief object of notice in the antiquarian museum. Depredations to an unfortunate extent have been lately made by some of the servants of the house, in articles ornamented in silver and gold; which the Librarian partly attributes to the opening of the rooms at so early an hour. Inquiry is now pending at the police, and measures must be devised for better securing our increasing property.

"Some propositions have to be submitted for the publication of further oriental works—but the first to which I would beg the Society's attention are the catalogues of the College manuscripts which have been prepared for the purpose by the Pandit and Maulavi in their respective languages. To the former of these I would recommend that Mr. Hodgson's revised catalogue of Buddhist works extant in Nipal should be added.

"There are in the Society's portfolios a considerable number of original drawings and inscriptions, (besides several bound MS. volumes of the Mackenzie drawings) which it would be extremely desirable to publish at the present time, when an effort seems to be simultaneously making in India and in Europe to read the history of ancient India through the medium of her monumental records. The Ceylon portion would serve to illustrate the great work upon which Mr. Turnour is engaged; while those of the peninsula would form an appropriate appendix to the review of the Mackenzie MSS. at Madras, which the Society has recommended to be undertaken by Mr. Taylor. Were a single competent native draughtsman added to the Government Lithographic Establishment, this object might be attained at a comparatively trifling cost: and I think it would be worthy the Committee of Papers to suggest some measure of the sort to the present Ruler of India, who has accepted, not as an idle honor, the high post of Patron to our Society.

"The last act of the past year has been the establishment of a Committee for statistical inquiries, of the success of which it is yet too early to speak, but not too early to augur well from the known zeal of those who have undertaken the Herculean task."

An application signed by all the students of the Sanscrit College, for the Society to print the Magh kavya (of which the edition published by Mr. Colebrooke some years ago is now extinct) was referred to the Committee of Papers.

The same measure was taken regarding an application from Madhusudana Gupta pandit, in favor of printing the Sanscrit translation of Hooper's Vade Mecum, suspended by the Education Committee.

Fifty copies of the Susruta (2 vols.) were voted to Madhusudana for his trouble in correcting the proofs of that work.
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*Note: The difference of the old and new Hygrometers this month has been 08 and 02 at 10 and 12*.5.0 and 5.0. The gas supplies have since arrived. The gas hygrometer is a new instrument not yet very correctly graduated.
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USEFUL TABLES
OF INDIAN METROLOGY AND CHRONOLOGY.

COMPILED BY
JAMES PRINSEJP,
F. R. S. Sec. As. S., &c.
1835.
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FORMING
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PART THE SECOND.

CHRONOLOGICAL AND GENEALOGICAL TABLES

OF
Ancient and Modern India;

INCLUDING A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS OF
BRITISH CONNECTION WITH INDIA.

CALCUTTA:
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* In the text Surat is put as the modern synonyme of Saurashtra; this is a mistake. Saurastrene of ancient geography is the equivalent term.
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GENEALOGICAL TABLES.

The purpose of the present division of our Appendix is by no means to attempt any improvement, nor even a critical adjustment, of the catalogues of princes preserved in the legendary records of the brahmans, but merely to afford a succinct synopsis of the principal ancient and modern dynasties of India, and of the neighbouring countries, for reference as to names, and, where accessible, as to dates.

For the early or mythological history of the Hindús, little can be done beyond enumerating the mere names, and marking the few variations in the lists of Sir Wm. Jones, Wilford, Bentley, Hamilton, Wilson, and latterly, Col. Tod, who have endeavoured, successively, to trace the parallelism of the solar and lunar races, and assign to them more probable dates than those extravagantly put forth in the Puránas. As the regular succession from father to son is given in them it was not a difficult task to apply the ordinary term of human generation, derived from the authentic histories of other countries, to the adjustment of the Hindu Chronology. Thus Ráma in the solar line, who is placed by the brahmans between the silver and brazen ages, (867102 B. C.) was brought down by Sir Wm. Jones to B. C. 2029, and reconciled with the Rama of Scripture: Pradyota, of the lunarrace, in whose reign the last Buddha appeared, was brought down to B. C. 1029, the assumed epoch of Sákya in Tibet and China: and Nanda to 699, &c. In the case of the Magadha Rájas this adjustment was the more easy, because the length of each dynasty is given in reasonable terms from Jarasandha, the contemporary of Yudhishthira, downwards; and the error might be only in the wrong assumption of the initial date, the epoch of the Kali Yuga, which the pandits allotted to the year 3101 B. C. After the discovery of the identity of Chandragupta with Sandracottus, pointed out by Sir Wm. Jones, (As. Res. iv. 26,) and followed up by Wilford, (v. 262,) a further reduction of 250 years in the position assigned to him in Sir William's first list became necessary; and the diminished rate of generations, applied backwards, brought Yudhishthira, and his con-
Progressive adjustment of ancient Hindu dates.

temporaries Arjun, Krishna, and Jarasandha, within the twelfth or thirteenth century before Christ. A most satisfactory confirmation of the modified epochs of Nanda, Chandragupta, and Asoka has been since derived from the chronological tables of the Buddhists in Ava, published in Crawfurd's Embassy, and again in those of the Ceylon princes, made known by the Honorable G. Turnour: their near concurrence with Greek history, in the only available point of comparison, reflects back equal confidence upon the epoch assigned to the founder of their religion, (B. C. 544,) in spite of the Chinese and Tibetan authorities, most (though not all) of which place Buddha 500 years earlier. It was this that misled Sir Wm. Jones in the epoch of Pradyota.

There are some discrepancies in the Burmese tables difficult to be explained, such as the placing of Ajatasatru 80 years prior to Sisunaga, and the occurrence of Chandragupta still 50 years too soon; but we must refer those who would investigate this, and all other branches of the intricate subject of Hindu and Baudha chronology, to the learned authors we have above mentioned, satisfying ourselves here with exhibiting a comparative table of the gradual changes effected by the progress of research in a few of the principal epochs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names</th>
<th>Pauranic date</th>
<th>Jones B.C.</th>
<th>Wilford, Bentley, Wilson B.C.</th>
<th>Tod. Burmese list B.C.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ikswaku and Buddha</td>
<td>2183102</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>2700 1528</td>
<td>2200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rama,</td>
<td>867102</td>
<td>2929</td>
<td>1360 950</td>
<td>1100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yudhisthira,</td>
<td>3102</td>
<td>2929</td>
<td>1360 576 1430</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumitra and Pradyota</td>
<td>2100 1029</td>
<td>700 119 915</td>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sisunaga,</td>
<td>1952 870</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>777</td>
<td>600 472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanda,</td>
<td>1600 699</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandragupta,</td>
<td>1502 600</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>320 392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asoka,</td>
<td>1470 640</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balin,</td>
<td>908 149</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandrabija,</td>
<td>B.C. 452</td>
<td>300 A.D.</td>
<td></td>
<td>428 A. D. 546 A. D.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aid of astronomy has been successfully called in to fix such epochs as afforded the requisite data; thus the situation of the equinoctial close in the time of the astronomer Parásara, who flourished under Yudhisthira, is fixed by Davis in 1391 B. C.; by Sir Wm. Jones, Colebrooke, and Bentley, in 1180; which latter closely accords with the epoch of the Cycle of Parasuráma, used in the Dakhan, and apparently unknown to these authors, B. C. 1176. Bentley, on another occasion, alters this date to 575 B. C. ! he also places Ráma in 950 B. C.; but there is great uncertainty and incongruity in many of his determinations of the dates of native princes and of books, from the prejudices he exhibits, although he is entitled to every con-
idence in his ingenious mode of calculating the period at which the various improvements in astronomy were introduced, and the Siddhántas written or revised, by the time when the positions of the planets, as assigned by their tables, accorded best with the more accurate results of European astronomy. From the minimum errors, and the precession of the equinoxes, (first applied to such a purpose by Sir Isaac Newton,) we have the following epochs substantially ascertained:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Epochs fixed on Astronomical data.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Invention of the Nacchatras or Hindu Lunar mansions, B. C. 1425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mahâbhârat war, according to Wilford, 1367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Solar Zodiac formed by Parasara, (under Yudhisthira,) 1180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Era of Parasurâma commences (see page 25) 7 August 1176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Lunar Cycle invented, and precession discovered (Ra'ma?) 945 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Yugas, founded on Jupiter's motions, 215 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven Manwantaras, founded on Saturn's revolutions, A. D. 31 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Râmâyana, written by Valmîkî, 291 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VARA'HA MIHIRA, flourished, according to Telugu astronomers, (also Sir W. Jones, Colebrooke, &amp;c. from precession of the equinoxes,) 499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables of the Brahma Siddhânta, fixation of the sidereal Zodiac, and new system of Chronology, with extravagant antiquity, compiled, 538 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mahâbhârat written, from Krishnâ's janampatra, 609 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Javanese translation of ditto, according to Raffles, in 1079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vishnu Purâna, whence genealogies of Andhra kings, 4955 K. Y. or 954 W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origin of the Kala Chakra, or Jovian Cycle, (See prec. sect. p. 29,) 965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables of the Surya Siddhânta, by VARA'HA MIHIRA, 1068-91 B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Varahi Sankhita, supposed by the same author, gives its own date, 1049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Lîlāvatî of Bha'̄skar ACHA'RYA, bears its own date, 1088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Bhdvatis of SATANANDA, pupil of VARA'HA, Saca 1021, 1109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Bhâgavat, supposed by Colebrooke to be written by a grammarian in, 1200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The A'̄rya Siddhânta, compiled by A'̄RYA BHATTĀ, 1322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GANADHAR'S Comment on Bha'̄skar A'CHA'RYA, 1420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Works of KEŚAVA, 1440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Grahā Lāghava, by GONESH, his son, 1520</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mr. Bentley would rob the seven last of a few centuries upon very insufficient grounds; he also ventures to place the authorship of the Râmâyana in A. D. 291, and that of the Mahábhârata in A. D. 600, on far too slender astronomical data: but his mania for modernizing renders his testimony of the advanced knowledge of the Hindus in astronomy, at so remote a period as the fifteenth century before Christ, the more valuable; and we can have little hesitation in giving credit to the lines of princes assigned to this space, and even to further antiquity, although their history has been mixed up with incredible mythos, and a falsified chronology. The more moderate and rational dates preserved by the Baudhā priests would lead to a
supposition that the brahmans had purposely antiquated theirs, to confound their rivals in the contest for ascendency over the minds of princes and people. That they should have suspended their histories with Sumitra of the solar, and Chandrabija of the lunar line, in the fifth century, might be naturally accounted for by the predominance of the Buddhists at that period, or more probably by the destruction of the Hindu monarchies by the incursions of the Huns and Tartars. The Puránas, or at least the prophetical supplements describing their genealogies, must have been compiled long afterwards, and the relative dates then falsified. But the principal blame in the business seems to fall upon the astronomers, who are accused of throwing back the commencement of their era: for, taking the data of the Pauránic tables, and allowing, with them, 1015 years from Yudhisthira to Nanda; and from the latter prince to Puliman 836 years, (which name is identified with Pouломиен of the Chinese by Wilford, and placed in the year A. D. 648,) the highest estimate of the Bhágavat gives 1857 B. C. for the epoch of the Kali yuga, instead of the 3101 assigned in the astronomical works; while in the Brahmánta Purána, it is brought down to B. C. 1775; and in the Váyu Purána, to B. C. 1729. The Jains, it is said, adopt the still more modern epoch of 1078 B. C.; and if Anjana of Crawfurd’s Burmese chronology, founder of the sacred epoch, be Arjuna, this contemporary of Yudhisthira is placed by the Baudháhas so late as 691 B. C.!

The Jains are generally also the most trust-worthy authorities for the middle ages. To them it is asserted, that Abul Fazl is indebted for the series of Bengal, Malwa, and other princes published in the Ayin Akbery with every appearance of accurate detail. The Rája Taringini of Cashmir also, the only Indian history of any antiquity, begins with Buddhist theogony. The Rájávali collection of genealogies is quite modern, having been compiled by Siwai Jaya Sinh of Ambír, in 1650. Neither that nor the native bards and chroniclers, whence the valuable data for the more modern history of Hindustan were furnished to Col. Tod for his Annals of Rájasthán, are to be trusted when they trace the ancestry of their princes back, and strive to connect them with the latter heroes of the Puránas; nor even to the earlier centuries of the Christian era, in which we find hardly any of their names confirmed either by grants, coins, or by the historians of neighbouring countries.

More authentic in every respect are the copper-plate grants, dug up in many parts of India; and the Sanscrit inscriptions on columns and temples; of which many have been decyphered and published, although the subject is by no means yet exhausted. Owing to a
fortunate pride of ancestry, most of these records of kingly grants recite a long train of antecedent Rājas, which serve to confirm or to supply vacuities in the more scanty written records. Of the value of these to history we cannot adduce a better instance, than the confirmation of the Bhupāla dynasty of the Rājas of Gaur, as given by Abul Fazl in the occurrence of the names of Devapāla, Dhermapāla, Rājapāla, &c., on the several monuments at Monghir, Buddh, Dindjpur, Amgachi, and Sārnāth near Benares, where also the date and the Buddha religion of the prince are manifested. It was supposed by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Wilkins, that the two first inscriptions referred to the first century of the Samvat era; but, as shown by Mr. Colebrooke, as well as by actual date at Sārnāth, they rise no earlier than the tenth. Indeed, the occurrence of inscriptions bearing unequivocal dates, anterior to that period, is very rare. Col. Tod adduces one of the fifth century (S. 597) discovered near Kota. Mr. Wathen has also recently produced two of the 4th and 6th centuries, dug up in Gujerat, which confirm, or rather correct, the early records of the Saurasrtra dynasty. The oldest, however, exist in Ceylon, where they have been brought to light by Captain Forbes and the Honorable Mr. Turnour: some of these, of which translations are published by the latter author in the Ceylon Almanac for 1834, are ascribed, on evidence of facts mentioned in them, to the year A.D. 262; but they bear no actual date. The period most prolific of inscriptions is from the 9th to the 13th century; when an anxiety seems to have prevailed among the priests to possess graven records of grants from the reigning or from former sovereigns, in order probably to secure their temples and estates from spoliation or resumption in those turbulent times. One of Col. Tod's inscriptions, translated by Mr. Colebrooke, in the Roy. As. Soc. Trans. vol. i. expressly declares a rival grant to be futile, and derived from an unauthorized source.

The value of inscriptions, as elucidations of history, cannot better be exemplified than by the circumstance of the Burmese inscription in the Pāli character found at Gaya, on the visit of the envoys from Ava, in 1827, of which a translation was printed in the Journal As. Soc. iii. 214. It records the frequent destructions and attempts to repair the Buddhist temple there, and the successful completion of it in the Sacaraj year 667, A. D. 1306*. Now Col. Tod's Rajput annals of Méwár make particular mention of expeditions to recover Gaya from the infidels, in 1200-50, which might not but for this record have been capable of explanation.

* Col. Burney reads the date, which is rather indistinct, 467, or A. D. 1106; but the above evidence tends to confirm the original reading.
Where dates are not given in inscriptions, the style of the Nāgārī character will frequently serve to determine their antiquity. The cave temples of the west of India exhibit the most ancient form; the Gujerāt type, above alluded to, of the 4th century, has a part connection with them, and part with an inscription at Gya, and another on the Allahābād lāth:—these again are linked by intervening gradations to the Tibetan alphabet, of which we know from Tibetan authors the existing Nāgārī of Maγadha was taken as the basis in the seventh century. We shall soon be able to furnish a tolerably accurate palæographical series of the Devanāgarī, but can here only allude to the subject.—In the tenth and eleventh centuries, it undergoes the modification observable on the Gaur, Sārnāth, and Shekāwati inscriptions, resembling very nearly the Bengālī type, of which it is doubtless the parent. The modern Nāgārī is found on monuments of the 13th century, when the irruption of the Moghuls prevented any further change. There is also a still earlier character on the Delhi, Allahābād, and Tirhut lāths, which remains yet undecyphered; strong reasons have been advanced for its alliance to the Sanscrit group, if it contain not indeed the original symbols of that language. (See Journal As. Soc. vols. iii. iv.)

In all other countries, coins and medals have been esteemed the most legitimate archives and proofs of their ancient history. In India, little recourse to such evidence has hitherto been available. The few Hindu coins discovered have been neglected or deemed illegible. The subject is however now attracting more attention, from the recent discovery of Bactrian and Indo-Scythic coins in great abundance in the Pān-jāb, bearing names hitherto quite unknown, in Greek, and on the reverse side in a form of Pehlevi character. The series is continued down to, and passes insensibly into, the purely Hindu coins of Kanouj, and some are in our possession, with Greek and Sanscrit on the same field. This very circumstance tends to bear out Colonel Top’s supposition of the Kanouj princes having an Indo-Scythic origin. Yavan-Asva, their progenitor, may indeed be “the Greek Azo,” of whose coins we have so plentiful a supply*. The Sanscrit characters on the Kanouj coins are of the earlier type belonging to the fourth or fifth century:—they will soon, it is hoped, be read, and put us in possession of several new names.

Other coins, in a still more ancient character, and nearly resembling the undecyphered letters of the lāths or the cave-sculptures†, are dug up in the Delhi district:—they are found in company with Buddhist relics, and will hereafter, doubtless, lead to historical information.

A third series of coins, with devices of a brahmani bull, and a horse-

* See Journal As. Soc. June 1835. † See Journal As. Soc. vol. iii. p. 495.
Different groups of Indian Coins. 83

man, bears the Gaur Nāgari of the 10th century; on this several names have been made out, Bhīmadeva, &c.; and on some, the Persian titles of the first Musalman conquerors are impressed.

A fourth series, with a sitting female figure, is in the modern Nāgari, and is probably the latest of the Kanouj coins. The early Muhammedan coins of Sābaktegin, Mahmud, &c. frequently have a partial admixture of Nāgari, which will aid in locating the rest; for while this provoking dearth exists with regard to Hindu coins, we find coins with legible names and Hejri dates for the whole line of their Muhammedan conquerors, whose history is amply preserved without their aid.

One confirmation of a historical fact from numismatic aid has been remarked in the discovery of the name of Vāsu Deva or Bas-Deo, on a Sassanian coin. Ferishta states, that Bas-Deo, of Kanouj, gave his daughter in marriage to Bahram of Persia, A. D. 330:—the coin marks exactly such an alliance; but the Hindu chronicles admit no such name until, much later, one occurs in the Malwa catalogue of Abul Fazl.

In the dynasties of Nepal and Assam, (at least from the middle of the seventeenth century,) we have been wholly guided by coins in our possession; and it might be possible, by persevering search, to obtain from the same source the names of many Rājas antecedent to this period, which are now doubtful or wholly unknown.

From the time of the subversion of the Moghul empire in the middle of the last century, the historical train of their coins ceases to be available; all the native states having, in imitation of the English, struck their money in the name of a nominal sovereign of Delhi, with no regard to dates, or even to the existence of the monarch; and up to the present time, we have had the names of Muhammed Shah, Alemgīr II., and Shah Alem, issuing simultaneously from the native and the Company's Mint, while a second Akber sways the pageant sceptre of the seven climes! (See first part of Appendix.)

It must be confessed that a large field still remains open, for the re-investigation of the middle ages of Hindu history, in judicious hands; for independently of the new materials now before us in the numerous coins lately discovered, and in many new inscriptions, we have the aid of the foreign histories of Ceylon, Ava, Tibet and China; we have access to the native volumes before only consulted through interested pandits; and we have Col. Tod's ample traditions and real archives of the principal portion of the Indian continent, the seat of all its important history. To say nothing of the minute and circumstantial numismatic histories of Greece and Rome, it is principally to coins that we owe the history of the Arsacidæ of Persia,
through Vailant's investigation. The Sassanid dynasty has also been illustrated from similar materials by Froehn and de Sacy. Marsden has extended the same principle to the Muhammadan princes of Persia and India, and to some few Hindu states, in his Numismata Orientalia; and its application may be still further urged in the latter line with the greater success, in proportion to the greater dearth of other materials for history, as is exemplified in the coins of the Bactrian provinces. The first thing to be done will be to expunge and lose sight of the learned but entangled accounts of Col. Wilford and others, which, while they have confused, have frightened critics at the perplexity of the subject. The three Vikramadityas, and three Rája Bhójas, invented to reconcile discrepancies in dates, will perhaps be found as little needed as the multiplication of Buddhas, the two principal of which are now seen by the identity of their biography to be the same personage.

Of the confirmation of the testimony of inscriptions by that of coins, we have remarkable instance in the Chandragupta and Samudragupta of Kanouj, names first discovered on the Allahabad pillar, and now fully made out, along with several others of the same dynasty, on the gold coins found in the ruins of that ancient town. In no other record have we any mention of these sovereigns*, who must have been several centuries anterior to Chandra Deva, the founder of the last reigning dynasty, which was overthrown by the Muhammadans.

The native dates of events, as has been already stated, are most vague and uncertain; still there are instances in which they have undergone further perplexity from their European commentators.

The looseness with which the chronology of the Pauránic genealogies has been investigated, is pointed out in Mr. Wilson's remarks on the Vishnu Purána, the authority whence Sir Wm. Jones' list was furnished by his Pandit (Journal As. Soc. i. 437.) By some mistake he gave 345 years to the Kanwa dynasty of four Rájás, and in this he was blindly followed by Wilford and Bentley, both professing to consult the original. Now all the manuscripts examined by Mr. Wilson give only 45 years! Indeed, when the epoch of Chandragupta is adjusted, the periods given in this Purána from Parikshit (B. C. 1400) down to the termination of the list in A. D. 436, are quite rational.

A more glaring instance of error, sanctioned, nay almost perpetuated, by the extent to which it has been spread, has originated in blindly following the authority of the pioneers of our Sanscrit researches; and it is strange that it has never been detected, that we are aware of, up to the present day! We allude to the mode of converting the Sam-

* See Journal As. Soc. vol. iii. 141-4.
vat of Vikramaditya into the Christian era by subtracting 56 instead of 57, thereby inducing a constant error of one year in all dates of chronicles, deeds, and inscriptions so read. We have taken some trouble to trace the origin of this mistake, from curiosity, and it shews how subject we are to rest upon the assertions of others without duly scrutinizing the data on which they may be grounded.

Vikramaditya died in the Kali yuga year 3044, according to Wilford, whose essays in the 9th and 10th vols. of the Asiatic Researches contain the fullest information on the history of the three supposed princes of this name, and of their common rival Sālivāhana. The 1st Samvat, therefore, concurs with the year 3045 K. Y.; and to convert the latter into the former, 3044 must be uniformly deducted. This calculation agrees with Warren's Kāla Sankalita, (see prec. Sec., p. 25, and tab. 71,) also with Abul Fazl's statement, that "in the fortieth year of Akber's reign (A. H. 1003, commencing 5th Dec. 1594, and ending 25th Nov. 1595, A. D.) there had elapsed 4696 years of the era of Yuddhishthira (Kali yuga)," making its commencement, 3101 B. C.

Also 1652 years of the era of Vikramaditya (1652-1595=57 B. C.) and 1517 years of the era of Sālivāhana, (1595-1517=78 A. D.)

The Bengāli Almanacs, published at Nadiyā, give precisely the same agreement*. The Almanac of the Sadar Dewāni, and the statements at the head of all the regulations of Government, coincide therewith: thus, the Samvat year 1877 began on the 15th March, 1820 = 57 years difference. If further evidence is required of the knowledge of the true era in possession of English authors, we have in Buchanan's Mysore, vol. iii. 112:—"3786 years of the Kali yuga had now elapsed, of which the particulars are, 3044 years of Yuddhishthira.

135 years of Vikrama.

607 years of Sālivāhana.

3786 K. Y., or A. D. 685."

Here the interval between 3044, whence the Samvat commenced, to the Saca, is 135, or 57+78 years; (or 135 — 685=607=57).

Again, Dr. Hunter, in his account of the Astronomical labours of Rāja Jai Sinh, dates them in "1750 Samvat, or 1693 A. D.," making the interval 57 years.

Sir Wm. Jones, residing in Calcutta, where the Samvat is not used,

* One Bengāli Almanac, however, printed in Calcutta, which was brought to us for comparison, had both the Samvat and the Saca era one year in defect! the Bengāli san being the only era now used in Bengal, little care is taken in regard to the rest. The Kali yuga, the foundation of all, was however correct.
in his speculations on Hindu chronology only alluded to the *Kali yuga*. Davis, in his account of the native method of eclipse calculations, used the *Saca* only; but he frequently alluded to the *Kali yuga*, the first year of which he correctly placed in 3101 B. C.

Whence then can the now common, nay almost universal, application of the subtrahend 56 have proceeded? Simply from Wilford's having placed the *Kali yuga* epoch in 3100, instead of 3101 B. C., in his essay expressly written to settle the eras of Vikramāditya and Sālivāhana, to which too much confidence has been given by subsequent writers. Having every where assumed this erroneous datum, it followed, that the *Samvat* epoch, which he rightly placed 3044 after Yudhishthira, would concur with 3100—3044=56 B. C.* But whence did he get his erroneous epoch of the *Kali yuga*? This also we may conjecture, having already seen him convicted, on another count, of blindly adopting Sir W. Jones' data. Sir William, in his Essay on Hindu Chronology, (As. Res. ii. 126,) says, "4888 years of the *Kali yuga* are passed up to the present time;" and his table of comparative epochs is calculated from 1788 A. D. leaving an obvious difference of 4888—1788 = 3100 B. C. which Wilford seems to have adopted. Had he however looked to the heading of the article, he would have found the date "January, 1788," consequently the K. Y. year commencing in April, 1787, had not yet expired: the true difference therefore was 4888—1787=3101, or more exactly 3100 3/4 years; or for the *Samvat*, —56 3/4, in nearest round terms 57†. (See page 25.)

Wilford is not the only author who was thus led to adopt the wrong equation. Colebrooke and Wilson always use 56. Jervis's Chronological Tables have the same interval; and Colonel ToD employs it throughout his voluminous chronicles of the Rājputs; thereby throwing all the events forward one year, excepting such as fall in the months Pausha, Māgha, Phālugun, and half of Chaitra, subsequent to A. D. 1752. He himself notices here and there a discrepancy of one year with the Musalmán historians, which is generally attributable to this cause alone.

Capt. Fell always uses the correct formula, having had access to

* In a previous part of the very same volume, p. 47, Wilford had used 57. In some places he makes the epoch of the *Kali yuga* 3001 instead of 3101.

† There is another advantage in adhering to the difference 57 in general terms rather than the now correcter number 56¼, namely, that before the year 1752 it was customary, in England and most parts of Europe, to commence the year in the month of March, or on the Easter moon; so that for all dates anterior to that period the European year may be accounted to have agreed with the Hindu luni-solar reckoning precisely.
native almanacs or to pandits. Mr. Stirling, in his Account of Orissa, has the right epoch of the Kali yuga; but he applies a wrong equation (+77) to the Saca era of his Orissa rajas. It is possible that this may be the mode of reckoning in that province; for we find the Saca vary a year or two also in Burmah and Java, if these variations are not indeed attributable to our English references; for, as we have seen above, they are by no means infallible!

The term Samvat does not apply exclusively to the era of Vikrama'ditya. Colebrooke first corrected this erroneous supposition in regard to the Samvat of the Gaur inscriptions, which probably commenced with the Bhupala dynasty, about 1000 A. D. Colonel Tod has also established the fact of a Balabhi Samvat in Gujerat, dating in 318 A. D., and a Siva Singha Samvat, in the same country, coinciding with 1113 A. D. This circumstance must be particularly attended to in examining ancient documents.

Kirkpatrick mentions, that Raghava Deva introduced the Samvat era into Nepal; adding, that the Newar era is however generally used there, its origin being unknown. Now in the list of Nepal rajas, from Harasinha Deva, A. D. 1323, back to Raghava Deva, there are but three reigns of extravagant lengths, viz. of 88, 85, and 80 years: if these be cut down to the usual average, the date of Raghava will fall about 880, which is the epoch of the Newar era, so that in all probability the term Samvat in this case merely applied to the latter era, and not to that of Vikrama'ditya.

It is frequently the custom in eastern authors to estimate dates backwards from the epoch of the writer or compiler. Thus, in the Buddhist chronology of Tibet, translated in M. Csoma’s Tibetan Grammar, we find “from the incarnation of Shánya 2647 years,” meaning anterior to A. D. 1686. In these cases, and particularly where time is estimated in cycles, great caution is necessary in fixing the initial date, and it is not improbable that from this source has arisen much of the confusion of Hindu chronology; as, for instance, from throwing back the origin of the Kálu chakra system, or Jovian cycle of 60 years, which is traced (see page 29) to the year A. D. 965, as far as regards its introduction into India. Individual inaccuracies are hardly to be wondered at where events are chiefly chronicled from after-recollection. Thus the bard Chand is 100 years out in one place, according to Tod. Ameer Khan’s Biography is one year out for a long period, and endless instances of the same inaccuracy might be adduced. The Muhammadans are generally very particular in their dates, and so are the Hindus where they inscribe a deed on brass;—in
this case they frequently allude to some eclipse or full moon, the act of donation being more pious for its occurrence on a religious festival.

It is hardly necessary to enumerate the authorities for the different catalogues to which we may now proceed, since they will be mentioned under each dynasty: but it may be as well to premise, that A. A. against a name or date denotes Ayin Akberi; F. Ferishta's history; J. Jones; Wd. Wilford; B. Bentley; T. Tod; H. Hamilton; and W. Wilson.

All dates, for uniformity sake, been expressed in Christian years, which can readily be converted into the various native reckonings by the rules given in page 40.

As a convenient preface to the mythological catalogues of the Solar and Lunar dynasties, a tabular sketch of the Hindu Theogony, with a few additional memoranda regarding their sacred works, &c. have been inserted. For more ample details on this subject, Moore's Hindu Pantheon, and Coleman's Mythology, or the standard work of Ward on the Hindus may be consulted; while for the Pauranic genealogies at length, the elaborate tables published by Dr. Hamilton, at Edinburgh, in 1819, although inconveniently expanded in dimensions, will be found the most complete and authentic reference. The tables of Sir Wm. Jones, Wilford, and Bentley, in the Asiatic Researches, have the addition of dates; but as before remarked, these are hardly admissible in the earlier periods of fabulous history.

In regard to the tables of the Muhommadan sovereigns, it has been thought sufficient, as their history is so readily accessible, to insert merely their names and titles at length, to facilitate the identification of coins, &c. where frequently only a part of the title is visible. To connect the line of these intruders into Hindusthán, it was also unavoidable to carry back the list to the Persian, the Arsacidan, Syrian, and Bactrian monarchies; for, although properly speaking beyond the limits of India, their history is, from the time of Alexander, continually mixed up with that of the rich and fruitful country so constantly the prey to their invasions and plunder.

For the concluding catalogue of important events in the history of British India, we are indebted to Captain Henderson's list, published in the Calcutta Quarterly Magazine, which has been kindly revised for our work by the author himself.
Hindu Theogony.

Table XV. Hindu Theogony.

1. The Infinite Almighty Creator, of the Vedas, BRAHM.

The Hindu Trinity, or Trimurti;
Their consorts, .............. \{ \begin{align*}
\text{BRAHM',} & \quad \text{VISHNU,} \\
\text{Sarasawati,} & \quad \text{Lakshmi,} \\
\text{Sakti, or} & \quad \text{Padmâ, or} \\
\text{Mâyâ,} & \quad \text{Śri,} \\
\end{align*} \}

Their attributes, .............. \{ \begin{align*}
\text{Creator,} & \quad \text{Preserver,} \\
\text{time,} & \quad \text{Destroyer,} \\
\end{align*} \}

Their attendant vahan or vehicle, \begin{align*}
\text{hansa, a goose,} & \quad \text{garuda, bird,} \\
\text{water,} & \quad \text{vani, bull,} \\
\end{align*} \}

Their symbols, .............. \{ \begin{align*}
\text{time,} & \quad \text{water,} \\
\text{fire,} & \quad \text{fire,} \\
\end{align*} \}

Their stations, .............. \{ \begin{align*}
\text{Meru,} & \quad \text{the Sun,} \\
\text{Jupiter,} & \quad \text{Jupiter,} \\
\end{align*} \}

Their common titles, ...... \text{AUM.} \\
\text{Parameswara,} \\
\text{Narayana,} \\
\text{Mahâdeva.} \\

Figure under which they are \text{worshipped,} \{ \begin{align*}
\text{mentally,} & \quad \text{aurârak, million epithets.} \\
\end{align*} \}

Analognes in Western Mythology, \text{SATURN,} \text{JUPITER,} \text{JUPITER.}

2. Other members of the Hindu Pantheon, and their supposed analogues in western mythology, according to Sir WM. JONES.

\begin{align*}
\text{SARESватI,} & \quad \text{Minerva, patroness of learning,} \\
\text{GÂNES'A,} & \quad \text{Janus, god of wisdom.} [\text{Sc.}]
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{INDRA,} & \quad \text{Jupiter, god of airmament.} \\
\text{VARUNA,} & \quad \text{Neptune, god of water.} \\
\text{PRITHIVI,} & \quad \text{Cybele, goddess of earth.} \\
\text{VISWÂKARMA,} & \quad \text{Vulcan, architect of gods.}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{KA'RTIKeya, or SKANDA,} & \quad \text{Mars, god of war.} \\
\text{KA'MA,} & \quad \text{Cupid, god of love.} \\
\text{SURYA, or ARKA,} & \quad \text{Sol, the Sun.} \\
\text{HANUMA'n, son of PAVANA,} & \quad \text{Mithra, the same.} \\
\text{RA'MA,} & \quad \text{Pan, the monkey god.} \\
\text{YAMA,} & \quad \text{Bacchus, god of wine.} \\
\text{HERAGULA,} & \quad \text{Hercules.} \\
\text{ASWIGULAPA,} & \quad \text{Æsculapius? (genii)} \\
\text{VAITARINI,} & \quad \text{The river Styx.}
\end{align*}

3. The ten BRAHMâ'dicas, children of Brahû, or PRÂJAPATI, lords of created beings.

\begin{align*}
1 \text{Marichi,} & \quad \text{morality.} \\
2 \text{Atri,} & \quad \text{deceit.} \\
3 \text{Angirasa,} & \quad \text{charity.} \\
4 \text{Pulastya,} & \quad \text{patience.} \\
5 \text{Pulaha,} & \quad \text{pride.} \\
6 \text{Kritu,} & \quad \text{piety.} \\
7 \text{Daksha,} & \quad \text{ingenuity.} \\
8 \text{Vasishtha,} & \quad \text{ emulation.} \\
9 \text{Bhrigu,} & \quad \text{humility.} \\
10 \text{Nârada,} & \quad \text{reason.}
\end{align*}

4. The seven Menus, of the present creation.

\begin{align*}
1 \text{Swayambhuva,} & \quad \text{Adam? 4006 B. C.} \\
2 \text{Swarochesh,} & \quad \text{Swayambhuva.} \\
3 \text{Uttama,} & \quad \text{Adam? 4006 B. C.} \\
4 \text{Támasa,} & \quad \text{Chaos, Thaumaz of Egypt?} \\
5 \text{Raivata,} & \quad \text{Adam? 4006 B. C.} \\
6 \text{Chakshusha,} & \quad \text{Adam? 4006 B. C.} \\
7 \text{Vaivasvata, or Satyavrata,} & \quad \text{Adam? 4006 B. C.}
\end{align*}

5. The seven Ri'shis, sprung direct from Brahû.

\begin{align*}
1 \text{Kasyapa,} & \quad \text{Muni.} \\
2 \text{Atri,} & \quad \text{Muni.} \\
3 \text{Vasishtha.} & \quad \text{Muni.} \\
4 \text{Vivasmita.} & \quad \text{Muni.} \\
5 \text{Gautama.} & \quad \text{Muni.} \\
6 \text{Jamadagni.} & \quad \text{Muni.} \\
7 \text{Bharudâwa.} & \quad \text{Muni.}
\end{align*}
6. **The ten Avata'ras, or incarnations of Vishnu.**

1. Matsya, the fish.
2. Kurma, the tortoise.
3. Váráha, the boar.
4. Narasimha, the lion.
5. Váman'a, the dwarf.
6. Parasuráma, son of Jamadagni.
7. Ráma, of the solar race.
8. Krishna, of the lunar race.
10. Dharma-bhushana or Kalki-avatar, to appear at the close of the Kali yuga.

7. **The eleven Rudras, or forms of Siva.**

1. Ajaikapada.
2. Kurma.
3. VaVaha.
5. Váman'a.
6. Parasuráma.
7. Ráma.
8. Krishna.
10. Dharma-bhushana or Kalki-avatar.
11. Isha.

The names are differently given in the Bhagavat.

8. **The eight Vasus; a kind of demi-god.**

1. Dhava.
2. Druya.
3. Sóma, the moon.
4. Vishnu.
5. Anila, or wind.
6. Anala, or fire.
7. Prabhusha.
8. Prabhava.

9. **The ten Vishwas, a class of deity worshipped in funeral obsequies.**

1. Vasu.
2. Satya.
4. Daksha.
5. Kála.
7. Dhriti.
10. Madrava.

10. **The eight Dikpa'las, guardians, and the eight Dikpatis, lords, of the cardinal points.**

1. Indra, east.
2. Agni, (or Vahni,) south-east.
3. Yama, south.
4. Nairrita, south-west.
5. Varuna, west.
8. Isána, (Prithivi,) north-east.
9. Surya, the Sun.
10. Sukra, Venus.
11. Mangala, Mars.
12. Ráhu, asc. node.
14. Chandra, the Moon.
15. Budha, Mercury.

11. **The twelve A'dityas; monthly names or emblems of the Sun.**

1. Varuna.
2. Surya.
3. Vedanga.
5. Indra.
6. Ravi.
7. Gabhasti.
8. Yama.
10. Divakara.
11. Mitra.
12. Vishnu.

12. **The 27 Nakshatras, daughters of Daksha, or lunar mansions.**

1. Asvini.
2. Bharani.
4. Rohini.
5. Mrigasira.
6. Ardra.
7. Punarvasu.
8. Pushya.
10. Maghá.
11. Purva Phálguni.
12. Uttar Phálgu. i.
15. Swati.
17. Anuradha.
18. Jayeshtha.
19. Múla.
20. Purva A'sárha.
22. Dravanas.
23. Dhaneshtha.
25. Purva Bhadrapada.
27. Revati.
13. The names of Buddha.

Buddha, Sákya-muni or Sinha, Gautama, Tathágata, Mahá-sramaña; Sudhodani, from his father Sudhodhana; Arkabandhu, or kinsman of the Sun; Máyá-devi-suta, or child of Máyá.

But, of the Musalmáns.

Buddas and Sarmanes, of the Greeks.

Mercurius Maye filius, of Horace.

Bud or Wud, of the pagan Arabs.

Woden, of the Scandinavians.

Toth, of the Egyptians.

Fo, Foe, or Fo-hi, and Sa-ka, of the Chinese.

Buddha System of Theogony.

Adi-Buddha, the Supreme Being, created by dhyan five divine Buddhas, who are quiescent: viz.

1 Vairochana Akshobhya.
2 Ratna.
3 Sambhava.
4 Amitabha.
5 Amogha Siddha.

The Buddhist Triad, or mystic syllable A U M, is interpreted:—

A, the Vija mantra of the male Buddha, the generative power.

U, ditto of the female Dhárma or Adi Prajñi, the type of productive power.

M, ditto of Sanga, the union of the essences of both.

The seven human or earth-born Buddhas.

1 Vipasya.
2 Sikhi.
3 Viswa Bhu.
4 Karkut Chand.
5 Kanaka Muni.
6 Kasyapa.
7 Sákya Sinha.
8 A'rya Maitri, the future Buddha.

14. The 24 Jinas or Tirthankaras, of the Jains.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Where born</th>
<th>Where died</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A'dináth or Rishabhanáth</td>
<td>Ayodhya</td>
<td>Gujarát</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ajitánáth</td>
<td>Ayodhya</td>
<td>Mt. Sikhar [lod.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sambhunáth</td>
<td>Sáwanta</td>
<td>Parisnáth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Abhinandananáth</td>
<td>Ayodhya</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sumatínáth</td>
<td>Kausambhi</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Padmaprabhunáth</td>
<td>Benares</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Suparswanáth</td>
<td>Chandrapuri</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chandraprablia</td>
<td>Kakeudrapuri</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Suvidhanáth or Pushpadanta</td>
<td>Bhadalpur</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sitalanáth</td>
<td>Sindh</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Śri Ansanáth</td>
<td>Kampilapuri</td>
<td>Mt. Sikhar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Vasupádyá</td>
<td>Champapuri</td>
<td>Champapuri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Vimalanáth</td>
<td>Kumphalapuri</td>
<td>Mt. Sikhar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Anantánáth</td>
<td>Ayodhya</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Dharmánáth</td>
<td>Kapatpuri</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Santanáth</td>
<td>Hastinapuri</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Kunthusánáth</td>
<td>do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Aranáth</td>
<td>do.</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Mallínáth</td>
<td>Mithila</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Munisuvrata</td>
<td>Rijgrhva</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Neminánáth</td>
<td>Mithila</td>
<td>do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Naminánáth</td>
<td>Dwárika</td>
<td>Mt. Girinára.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Parswanáth</td>
<td>Benares</td>
<td>Mt. Sikhar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Vardhamána or Mohávira Swámi</td>
<td>Chitrakot.</td>
<td>Pawapuri.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15. THE SAPTA DWIPAŚ or divisions of the ancient world, ruled by the sons of PRIYABRATA, king of ANTARVE'A.

Older division.

Jambudwipa, India.
Angadwipa, Nipal.
Yamadwipa, Assam, Ava.
Yamaladwipa, Malay.
Sankhadwipa, Africa.
Kushadwipa, Assyria.
Varadhadwipa, Europe.

Newer division.

Jambudwipa, India.
Plakshadwipa, Asia minor, W.
Salmatidwipa, Assyria, Persia, &c.
Kushadwipa, part of Kushadwipa, Britain? W.
Karanchadwipa, near the Baltic? W.
Yamaladwipa, Malaya.
Yamadwipa, near Ceylon? W.
Kushadwipa, Assyria.

16. THE FOUR VEDAS.
1. The Rig veda.
2. The Yajur veda.
3. The Sāma veda.
4. The Atharva veda.

17. THE FOUR UPAVE'ĐAS.
1. The Ayush, medicine.
2. The Gândharva, music.
3. The Dhanush, warfare.
4. The Sthópatya, mechanics.

18. THE SIX ANGAS, or bodies of learning.
1. Siksha, pronunciation.
2. Kalpa, religious acts.
3. Vyékarana, grammar.
4. Khandas, prosody.
5. Jyotish, astronomy.

19. THE FOUR UPA'NGAS.
1. Purána, history, comprising the 18 puránas.
2. Nyáya, logic, and the principles of knowledge.
3. Mimánsá, religious principles and duties.
4. Dharma shástra, law, human and divine.

20. THE EIGHTEEN PURA'NJAS.
2. Padma, or lotus.
4. Agneya, or Agni, fire.
5. Vaishnava, or Vishnu-purána.
7. Brahmagvavarta, or transformations of Krishna (as the supreme).
8. Saiva, or of Siva.
9. Linga purána.
11. Scanda.
12. Márkandéya.
14. Mát'sya, or the fish.
15. Váráha, or boar.
17. Vámaná, or dwarf.
18. Bhágavat, or life of Krishna.

21. THE SIX PRINCIPAL SECTS OF THE HINDUS.
1. Saiva, worshippers of Siva, in his thousand forms.
2. Vaisnava, Vishnu.
3. Sauriya, Surya, or the Sun.
5. Sacta, Bhaváni, or Párvati.
6. Bhágavat, who recognize all 5 divinities equally.
### Table XVI. Descendants of Swayambhuva, the first Manu, King of Brahmavarta, and progenitor of mankind, (Adam ? J.) according to the Bhagavat Purana, H.

#### BRAHMA.

**SWAYAMBHUVA.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uttamapada, king of Bharatkhanda.</th>
<th>Priyavrata, king of Antarveda*</th>
<th>Agnihidra, king of Jambudwipa.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>(From whom descended the Kings of Brahmavarta.)</em></td>
<td><em>(From whom descended the Kings of Bharatkhanda.)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhruva.</td>
<td>Nabhi.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatsara.</td>
<td>Rishabha-deva†.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pusparna.</td>
<td>Bharata.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vyushta.</td>
<td>Vridhasena.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarvatajas.</td>
<td>Devatajit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaxusha.</td>
<td>Devadyumna.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulmuka.</td>
<td>Purmeshti.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angga.</td>
<td>Pritiha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vena-adhiarmarata.</td>
<td>Pritiharta.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prithu.</td>
<td>Bluma.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vijilaswa, or Antardhyana.</td>
<td>Udghita.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Havirdhana.</td>
<td>Prastawa.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varhishata, or Prachinkarhi.</td>
<td>Bibhu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pracheta, and 9 brothers.</td>
<td>Prathusena.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daksha Prajapati, among whose numerous progeny were, 10 daughters, married to Dharma:</td>
<td>Naktas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 daughters, married to Kasyapa Muni, the son of Marichi, (see Solar race,) progenitors of men, animals, vegetables, &amp;c.</td>
<td>Gaya.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danah, mother of evil genii, comets, &amp;c.</td>
<td>Chitraratha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditf, mother of the Dailyas, or Asuras.</td>
<td>Sumrata.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aditf, mother of the gods and Suras, 27 daughters, the Nakshatras, married to the Moon.</td>
<td>Mariclih. (See Solar race.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 daughter, mother of the 11 Rudras, and others of less importance.</td>
<td>Binduma.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Madhu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Viravrata.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manthu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bivhavana.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twasitha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Viraja, and 100 sons, whose names are unknown.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Priyavrata was also father of Idhmajabha, king of Plaxa dwipa; Yagyabahu, of Sabnala dwipa; Hiranyarita, of Kusa dwipa; Ghitaprisutha, of Karangche dwipa; Medhatithi, of Saka dwipa, and Bithothra, of Puskara dwipa; of whom the descendants are not traced farther than the first generation.

† Rishabha-deva was also father of the kings of various other nations, viz.: Kus-warta, of Kus-warta-des; Ila-warta, Brahma-warta, Malayana, Ketu, Bhadra-sena, Indrasanip, Bidharbha, and Kikata, of ilwa, or countries, bearing the same names: besides the nine immortal sidhas, Kabiya, Hari, Antarixa, Prabuddha, Pippulayana, Abhirothra, Dranila, Chumusa, and Karubhajana: also 81 brahmans, names unknown.
Descendants of the Sun,

**TABLE XVII. The Surya-vansa, or Solar Dynasty, collated from the lists of Jones, Wilson, Tod, and Hamilton.**

**MARICHI.**

KASYAPA Muni, married ADITI, Daksha’s daughter, (see Table xvi.)

VIVASWANA, or SURYA, the Sun.

SRADHAEVA, or VAIVASWATA, (the sun) king of Ayodhya.

IXWAKU, in the Treta yuga.—B. C. 3500, J.—2200, T.

From whom sprang the two Solar Dynasties

---

**Of Ayodhya, (Oude.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vikuxi</td>
<td>(did not reign, W.)</td>
<td>Daksha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kukuts‘ha,</td>
<td>Anandhagona,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anénas</td>
<td>An-Prithú, T.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prit‘hu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viswagandhi</td>
<td>Visvagasa, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandra</td>
<td>Arda, T. W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yuvanáswa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Svéva, Svásava,</td>
<td>H.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vrihadas‘wa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhundhumara</td>
<td>Kuvalayáswa, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drid‘has‘wa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryas‘wa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nikumbha</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cris‘áswa</td>
<td>Varunaswa, T. H.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sánkataswa, W.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senajit</td>
<td>Prasenajit, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yuvanáswa</td>
<td>H. W. car. J.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mándháta</td>
<td>Suvinthu, T.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purukutsa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trasadasyu,</td>
<td>car. T.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anaranya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prishadaswa,</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryas‘wa,</td>
<td>H. W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praruna, Aruna,</td>
<td>H.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trivindhana</td>
<td>Tridhanwa, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satyavratā</td>
<td>Trayaruna, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suvritha, T.</td>
<td>car. J. H. W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triśāanku,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harispanda</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Róhita, Kohitaswa,</td>
<td>H.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Háríta,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Champa, Chunchu, W.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudēra, car. T. W.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vijaya, (his brother; Kurm. Pur.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bharuca,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vrika,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bāhuka, Bulu, W.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sāgara, had 10,000 sons.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asamanjasá, only survivor.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ansumán,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dūlīpa, W. T. H. car. J.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhagirathá, brought down Ganges river.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sruta,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nábhaga,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambarisha, T. W.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sindhudwipa,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Of Maithila, (Tirhut.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nimi.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janaka, built Janakpur.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Udvasu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nandiverdhana.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suketu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dewarata.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vrindirathā.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahabirya.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudhrīta.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhristaketu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryaswa.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maru.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prājapāka.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiritirathā.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devamirha.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visruta.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahadhrīti.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhritirātu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharoma.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swarnaoma.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haraswaroma.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This list is imperfect in number, if the father of Śītā, the bride of RāMA be correctly placed.

father of Śītā, who married Swadha, (see the parallel line of Ayodhya.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kesidhaja.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dharmadhwaja.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kritadhwaja.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kesidhwa.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhanuman.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satadyumna.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suchi.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunadhwa.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urdhaketu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purajit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arishtanemi.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Srutayu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supanswaka.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chitraratha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kshemadhi.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samaratha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satyaratha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upa guru.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upajupta.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baswananta.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugudhana.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ayodhya rājas, continued.

Ayutāyush,  
Ritataparna,  
Nala, T.  
Sawākama, W. T.  
Saudāsa,  
Kalmāshapāda, W. H. car. J. T.  
Asmaka,  
Mūlaca, Harikavacha, W.  
Das'arātha,  
Aīdabida, Illivita, W.  
Vis'wasala,  
K'hatwānga, Kharbhanga, T.  
Dirghabāhu,  
Raghu,  
Aja,  
Das'arātha, II. W.  

Rā'ma, A. C. 2029, J.  
Bharata,  
950, B. 1100, T.  
Lakshmana,  
Satroghana,  

Dvāpār yuga or brazen age,

Kusha, Lava, T.  
Atithi,  
Nishadha,  
Nabhas, or Nala, T.  
Pandarika,  
Xemadhanwas,  
Dēvānica, Dwarika, W.  
Ah'inagū, Ahinaja, W. Hina, H.  
Kuru, W. car. J. H.  
Pariputra,  
Dāla, W. Bala, H.  
Rana-ohhala,  
Uktha, W. car. J. H.  
Vajranabha,  
Arca, car. W. T. H.  
Sugana, Sankhanaibhi, W.  
Vidhiriti, Vijuthitābhi, W.  
Viswasaha, II. W. Visitaswa, T.  
Hiranyaniabha,  
Pushpa, Pushya, H.  
Dhrusvandhi, car. T.  
Suders'ana, car. W.  
Agnierna, Apaverma, W.  
Sighra,  
Manu, Maru, W. T. H.  
Prasuruta,  
Sandhi, .. Susandhi, W.  
Amers'ana, Amersha, W.  
Mahasvat, Avaswana, T.  
Vis'wabhihū, Viswasava, T.  
Prasēṇājīt,  
Tachhaca,  
Vrihadbala,  
Vrihadasan'a, B. C. 1300 JONES.

Mithila rājas, continued.

Subhasana,  
Sruta.  
Jaya,  
Vijaya,  
Ritu,  
Sunaka,  
Bitahalya,  
Dhriti,  
Bahulaswa,  
Kriti,  
Mahabasi.

Solar line of Vesala, (also descended from Sradha-deva.)

Dishta, king of Vesala.  
Nabhaga,  
Bhalandana,  
Vatsapriti.  
Prangso,  
Pranati,  
Khanitra,  
Chaxusha,  
Bibingsati,  
Rambhu,  
Khaninetra,  
Dharunika,  
Karandhama,  
Adixita,  
Maruta,  
Dama,  
Rajyavarodhana,  
Sudhriti,  
Nara, car. do.  
Kebala,  
Dhundhumana, or Bandhuman,  
Begawan,  
Budha,  
Trinavindhu.*  
Besabiraja, or Visala, who founded Vaisali, (Allahabad.)  
Hemachandra,  
Dhurmaraza,  
Sangyam,  
Sahadeva, car. V. L.  
Krisawsa,  
Somadatta,  
Sumati, (ends V. L.)  
Janamejaya.

* His daughter, Brabira, married Visvarawa Muni, the father, (by another wife, Nikāxā,) of Rā'vana the demon king of Lanka or Ceylon, afterwards killed by Rā'ma.
Solar line concluded—Chandra vansa or

Kali yuga—iron, or fourth age, 3101 B.C.

Urukriya, Uruxepa, W.
Vatsa, W. car. J.
Vatsa-vrittdha, Vytha, W.
Pratiydyuma,
Bhānu, car. W.
Dēvāc. car. T.
Sahadēva,
Vīra, car. W. T.
Viśadas'wa.

Bhānumat, Bahman, Longimans of Persia? T.
Prat'ac'wa, car. W.
Supratīca,
Marudēva,
Sunaxatra,
Pushcara, Kesinara, W.
Antarīxa, Rekha, T.
Suta, Sutapas, Suverna, W.
Amitrajit,
Viśhadrajā,
Barhi, Dherma, W.
Kritanjaya, first emigrant from Kosala, (Oude) and founder of the Suryas in Saurashtra, T.

Rananjaya,
Sanjaya,
Sācyā, Sakya, W. T.
Suddhōda, Kroddhodana, W. Sudipa, T.
Lāṅgalada, Sangala, T. Ratula, W.
Prasēnajit,
Xudraka, Romika, T.
Kundaka, W. car. J.
Surita, W. car. J.

Sumitra, B. C. 2100, J. 57, T. The last name in the Bhāgarat Purāṇa, said to be contemporary with Vikrama'ditya? T. from this Prince the Mewar chronicles commence their series of Rajās of Saurashtra; see Table xxvi.

Table XVIII. Chandra-vansa, Indu-vansa, or Lunar Race, who reigned in Antarveda and Kāśi; afterwards in Magadhā, (Behar,) and Indraprsthā, (Delhi.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atri'</th>
<th>Muni.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soma'</td>
<td>(Lunus, the Moon.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddha</td>
<td>(Mercury) married Ilā daughter of the Sun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ailaś</td>
<td>Pururavas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayu</td>
<td>Kings of Kāśi also descended from him, (see below.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nahusha</td>
<td>(Devanahusha, Dionysos, Bacchus, Wnd.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yayati</td>
<td>father of Puru and Yadu, (see next page.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kings of Kāśi, (Benares.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Xetravridhha, son of Ayu.</th>
<th>Ritadwāja.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suhatra.</td>
<td>Alarka.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kāśi.</td>
<td>Santati.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kāśi.</td>
<td>Sunitha.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rashtra.</td>
<td>Suketana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirghatama.</td>
<td>Dharmaketu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhanwantra.</td>
<td>Satyaketu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ketumana.</td>
<td>Dhruvakeetu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhimaratha.</td>
<td>Sukamara.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divoda'as, becomes a Buddhist.</td>
<td>Bitihotra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyamana.</td>
<td>Bharga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pratardan.</td>
<td>Bhargabhumi, (end in Bhāgarat, P.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lunar Race—Lines of Puru and Yadu.

Line of Puru.
Puru, king of Pratīṣṭhānā. Janamejaya, king of Antarveda.

Bharata, king of Antarveda and India.
Samvarana.
Kuru, from whom also descended the Māgadha princes, see tab. xx.

Jahnu, Suratha, Viduratha, Sarvabhauma, Jayatēśa, Raddica, Arāvi, W. Ayuta, Ajita, H. Krodhana, Devatīthi, car. W. Rixa, Bhūrāśeṇa, car. J. Dilīpa, Pratīpa,

Santanu, incarnation of Varuna, from whom 2 sons.

Dhritarishtha, Vichitravirya, whose Pratīṣṭhānā, daughter married Swayamāvṛtava, Vyāsa, and bore Pandu, whose wife Devamīda, bore the five Pandavas, viz:

1 Yuddhishṭhira, (see Table xix.)
2 Arjuna, father of Parīxita, (see do.)
3 Bhīma, no descendants.
4 Nakul, and founded the Māgadha race.
5 Sahadeva, j dhā line, (Tab. xx.)

Synchronisms of the Solar and Lunar races, T.
[ Budha of the Lunar race married Ilā, the sister of Ixwaku, s. l.
T. Harischandra, s. l. cotemporary of Parasurāma, of Lunar line.
Sagara, cot. of Taljanga, of do.
Ambārisha, cot. of Gauḍi, founder of Cauṇj.]
**TABLE XIX. Pandu Dynasty of Indrapreṣṭha, or Delhi.**

Continued from the line of Puru of the Chandra vansa, or Lunar line, and collateral with the Magadha Princes, descending from Jārasandha, of Tab. xx. According to the Bhāgavat Purāṇa, H. According to the Rājāvali, T.

Yuddhīthrika, 1st King of Indrapreṣṭha—no issue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.C. 3101 J.</th>
<th>Parixita, son of Arjun, succeeds.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1300 W. Janamejaya, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1100 T. Satanika,</td>
<td>Sahasranika, car. W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aswamedhāja,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asimakrishna, Nichakra, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nemi, king of Hastinapura, (washed away.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chakra, built Kausambhi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ukata, king of Kausambhi, Ushna, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chitraratha,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kābiratha, car. W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vrishnemana, Dhirohitmān, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Susena,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mahipati, car. W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunītha,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sukhinīla,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pariplawa,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunaya,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Medhābi,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nripanjaya,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Durba, Mridu, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Timi, Tīguna, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vrihadraṇa,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sūdasa, Vasudāna, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satānīka,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Durdamana, Udayana, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bahinara, Ahinara, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dandapāni,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nimi, Niramitra, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Xemaka, car. W.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Rājāvali continues the Indrapreṣṭha sovereigns of the Lunar race, through three more Dynasties, T. viz.:

**Second Dynasty, 14 princes, reigned 500 years.**

| Viserwa, (contemporary with Sisunāga? T.) | Mahraje, Maharaje of Ferishta? T. |
| Surien. | Srisena. |
| Srsah. | Mahipāla. |
| Aḥangsal. | Mahāvali. |
| Vyergita. | Srupvarti. |
| Durbara. | Netruṣena. |
| Sodpala. | Samukdana. |
| Sursana. | Jetmala. |
| Singraja. | Kālanka. |
| Amargoda. | Kalmana. |
| Amarpāla. | Sirmandan. |
| Sērbēhēc. | Jeywanga. |
| Padharat. | Hergūja. |
| Madpāl, slain by his Rajput minister. | Hiraspēna. |

**Third Dynasty.**

| Sēndhwaja. | Mahāgangā. |
| Nāda. | Jewana. |
| Udiya. | Jehala. |
| Ananda. | Rājḍāla, invaded Kemaon, and killed by Sukwanti, who seized on Indrapreṣṭha, whence he was expelled by Vikramādi-tya, T. |

**Fourth Dynasty.**
Lunar Dynasty of Magadha.

Table XX. Kings of Magadha, or Central India, hud. Behar, of the Indu, or Chandra Vansa, Capital, Rajagriha.

Barhadratha Dynasty, (see Tab. xviii.)

| Line of Pandu, (brought on from page 97.) | Barhadratha Dynasty, (see Tab. xviii.) |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ceru.</th>
<th>Cushágra.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sudhanu.</td>
<td>Vrishabha.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suhottra.</td>
<td>Pushpavana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chyavana.</td>
<td>Satyasahite.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kritadha.</td>
<td>Urja.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visruta.</td>
<td>Sambhava.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uparichara.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. C. 1400, W. SAHADE'VA, Parixita born, great war ends.

Sahadeva, or Somapi, W.

Srutaman.

Ayutaya.

Niramitra.

Suxatra.

Vrihat-karma, or -séna.

Senajit.

Srutanjaya.

Vipra.

Suchi.

Xemyma.

Suvartha.

Dhera-sutra.

Nribhrata, Wd.

Susrama.

Drirhaséna, Vrihadséna, Wd.

Sumanti.

Suvala, Suddhamva, Wd.

Sunita.

Satyájit.

Viswajit.

915. Ripunjaya, 700 Wd. a Buddha born in his reign, As. Rs. II. 138.

Sunaka Dynasty, Kings of Bharatkhanda, reigned 128 years.

B. C. 1340, W. Sahade'va, Parixita born, great war ends.

Sahadeva, or Somapi, W.

Srutaman.

Ayutaya.

Niramitra.

Suxatra.

Vrihat-karma, or -séna.

Senajit.

Srutanjaya.

Vipra.

Suchi.

Xemyma.

Suvartha.

Dhera-sutra.

Nribhrata, Wd.

Susrama.

Drirhaséna, Vrihadséna, Wd.

Sumanti.

Suvala, Suddhamva, Wd.

Sunita.

Satyájit.

Viswajit.

915. Ripunjaya, 700 Wd. a Buddha born in his reign, As. Rs. II. 138.

Sunaka Dynasty, Kings of Bharatkhanda, reigned 128 years.


Pálaka.

Visákhyapa.

Janaka, Rajaca or Ajaca, Wd.

Nandiverddhana, or Takshac, T.

Sisundgas or S'esnágs, reigned 360 years.


Káka verma, ................. 3 car. Wd.

Xemadherma.

Xetranja.

Vidhisára.

Ajata satru, 450 Wd. 551 Bud. Chron. of Ava.

Darbhaka, Dásaca.

Udayaswa, Udási, Ajaya.

Nandiverddhana.

Maha nandi, Mahabali, Wd. 355.

Sumalya, or Vikhyaat, T.

415. Nanda, 1602 J. 340, W.

The nine Nandas, reigned 100 years.
Lunar Dynasty of Magadha—of Andhra.

Maurya Dynasty, governed 137 years.

B. C. 315. W. Chandragupta, Sandracottus of Greeks, 1502 J.

Vāršāra, Vindusāra.


Suyāsas, Sujāswa, T. Cūlāta, Wd.

Dasaratha, car. T. Wd.

Sangata, Bandupālita, Wd.

Sālsukha, Indrapālita, Wd.

Devadharmā, Wd.

Somasermā.

Satadhanwa.

Vribhadratha.

Śunga Dynasty, 110 years.

178. Pushpamitra, 1365, J. Ustimitra, T.

Suyeshtha,

Vasumitra,

Ardraka, Abhādraca, Wd. Badraka, T.

Pulindaka.

Ghoshā-vasa.

Vajramitra, Vicramitra, Wd.

Bhāgavata.

Devabhūti.

Kanwa Dynasty, 45 years.


Bhuma. cot. of Vikramāditya, T.

Nārāyana, Parana, T. [Sipraka.]

Susarma, (Wilford supposes interval of 150 years before

Table XXI. Andhra or Vrispala Dynasty, of Andhra, (Orissa?) or Telingana, in continuation of the Magadha line.

(See Wilford's comparative list from the Bhāgavat, and three other Purāṇas, in the 9th Vol. of As. Res.) The 30 generations occupy 456 years.


Krishna.

Sātkarni.

Purnotsanga, Paurnamāsa, Sātkarni, .......... car. W.

Lombodara,

Vivilaca, Apilica, Wd.

Megha-Swati.

Putumān.


Hála.

Puttalaka, Tiluk, T.

Pravillaséna.

Sundara-Sātkarna, II.

Chakora-Sātkarna, III.

Siva-swati.

Gomatiputra, Gautami, Wd. A. D. 500.

Pullman Purimat.


Sivāsri.

Sivaskanda.


Vijaya.

A. D. 428. Chandra-srī, or vijaya, last Magadha king, 300, J. 546, T.

Pulomārchi, Pulomien of Chinese? Wd. dies, 648, A. D.

Sailomdhī, T. cot. of Bappa Rāwal of Mēwār, A. D. 720?
Table XXII. Rājas of Cashmīr, of the Line of Ćuru in the Lunar race: worshippers of Nāgas or Snakes.

The Rāja Taringini, whence this line is taken, commences with an account of the desiccation of the valley by Casyapa Muni: supposed to allude to the deluge.—Wilson, As. Rs. xv. 1.

First Period—Caurava race, 1266 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. C.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3714</td>
<td>Cashmir colonised by Casyapa, B. C. 2666, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fifty-three Princes, names omitted by Hindu writer, but partly supplied by Muhammedan authority, as follows:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suliman.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cassalgham.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Maherkaz.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bandu-khan, (Pandu of the Lunar line?)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lādi-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ledder-khan.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunder-khan,—Hindu worship established.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cunder-khan.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunder-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Tundu-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Beddu-khan.</td>
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<td>Mahand-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Durbinash-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Deosir-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Tehab-khan, dethroned by king of Cabul.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cālju-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Luvkhab-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Shermabaram-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Naureng-khan, conquered China.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Barīgh-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Gowasheh-khan.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pandu-khan, II. extended empire to the sea.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Haris-khan.</td>
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<td>Sanzil-khan.</td>
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<td>Akber-khan.</td>
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<td>Jaber-khan.</td>
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<td>Nauder-khan.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sanker-khan, slain by Bakra Rāja.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

an interval ensues, and authentic history commences with 2448

| Gonerda, I. Kali Yuga, 653. Gowananda or Agnand, a relation of Jarasundha, 1400, W. B. C. 1045, P. |
| Damodara, 1st. |
| Gonerda, II. |

Thirty-five Princes; names forgotten.

| 1709 | Lava, (Bal-lava) Loo of Muhammedan historians. B. C. 570, P. |
| 1664 | Cauśesaya. |
| 1660 | Khagendра. |
| 1600 | Suréndra, cot. with Bahman of Persia. |
| 1573 | Godhara, Gowdher, A. A. |
| 1537 | Suverna, Suren, do. |
| 1477 | Janaca, Jenak, do. |
| 1471 | Sachinara, Sejuner, do. |
| 1394 | Asoca, established Buddhism. (See pages 78, 100, B. C. 250?) |
| 1332 | Jaloca, adopted castes. |
| 1302 | Dāmodara, II. a Saiva; transformed into a snake. |
| 1277 | Huschca, Jushca, Tartar Princes, re-established Buddhism. |
| 1217 | Abhimanyu, an orthodox Hindu, B. C. 423, W. B. C. 73, P. |
Rajás of Cashmir.

Second Period, Gonerdiya Dynasty, 1013 years; or 378 years after adjustment, W.

B.C. 1182
Gonerda, III. Nága worship resumed, B.C. 388 W.108, P.
1147
Vibhishana, 370
1096
Indrajita, 352
1060-6
Rávana, 334
1030-6
Vibhishana, II. 316
993
Nara, (Kinnara) persecuted Buddhists, 298
953-3
Siddha, 280
893-3
Utpaláxa, Adutbolabeh, A. A. 262
862-9
Hiranyáxa, Teernya, " 244
825-2
Hiranyákula, Herenkul, " 226
755-2
Vásácula, Ebeshak, " 218
705-2
Mihirácula, invaded Lanka or Ceylon, 200
635-2
Vaca, 182
572-2
Xitinanda, (Nandana,) 164
542-2
Vasunanda, Vistnand, A. A. 146
490
Nara, II. or Bara—Nir, " 128
430
Axa, Aj, " 100
370
Gopáditya, a pious brahmanist, Kulvarit, A. A. 82
310
Gokerna, Kurren, " 64
253
Naredráditya, Nurundrawut, " 46
216-9
Yudhisht'hira, surnamed the blind, (see Lunar race?) 28

Aditya Dynasty, 192 years.

168-9
Pratápáditya, kinsman of Vicramáditya, B. C. 10 W.
136-9
Jalaucas, Juggoo, A. A. 22
104-9
Tunjina, a great famine, Bunjir, " 54
66-9
Vijaya, Bejeerey, " 90
60-9
Jayéndra, Chander, " 98

B. C. 23-9
A'rya Rája, of miraculous accession, 135
Gonerdiya Line restored, 592 years, or 433 adjusted.

A. D. 23-3
Méghahavahan, Megdahen, A. A. invited Bauddhas, and invaded Ceylon.
57-9
Sréshtaséna, or Pravaraséna.
87-3
Hiranyá, contention with Toramána Yuvarája, contemporary with Vicramáditya.
117-5
Mátrigupta, a brahman from Ujjain, succeeds by election, 471 W.
122-2
Pravaraséna, invaded Siláditya of Gujerát, (tab. xxvii.) 476
185-2
Yudhisht'hira, II. 499
224-5
Nandrávat, Narendráditya, or Lakshman'a, 522
237-5
Ranáditya, married daughter of Chola Rája, 545
537-5
Vicramáditya, supposed an interpolation (Ujain princes?) 568
579-5
Báladitya, last of the Gonerda race, 592

Nága or Carcota Dynasty, 260 years, 5 months.

A. D. 615-5
Durlabhaverddhana, contemporary with Yezdijird.
651-5
Pratápáditya, founded Pratápapur.
Durlabhaca, car. W.
701-5
Chandrápíra, or Chandránand, a virtuous prince.
710-1
Tárapíra, a tyrant.
714-1
Lalita'ditya, conquered Yasovarma of Canoúj, (?) Yasovig-
750-8
Cuvalayápíra. [rha of inscriptions] and overran India.
751-8
Vajráditya.
758-8
Prithivyápíra.
762-10
Sangramápíra.
760-10
Jajja, an usurper, deposed by
772-10
Jayá'píra, married daughter of Jayanta of Gaur, encouraged learning, invaded Bhúma Séna of Gujerát, 841?

803-10
Lalitápíra.
815-10
Sangramápíra, II. or Prithivyápíra.
822-10
Vrhaspati, or Chippatajaya, son of a prostitute, whose five brothers governed in his name.
834-10 Ajitapira, set up by the same usurpers.
870-10 Anangapira, restored to the succession.
873-10 Upalapira, last of the Carcota race.

Utpala Dynasty, 84 years, 5 months.

875-10 A'ditya Verma, or Avanti Verma, a severe famine.
Sancara Verma, invaded Gujjaras and Raja Bhōja, (see Mālwā)
Cashmir cycle brought into use, 59.

879-10 Anangapira, restored to the succession.
Utpala Dynasty, 84 years, 5 months.

879-10 Utpalapira, last of the Carcota race.

885-10 A'ditya Verma, or Avanti Verma, a severe famine.
Sancara Verma, invaded Gujjaras and Raja Bhoja, (see Mālwā)
Cashmir cycle brought into use, 59.

879-10 Anangapira, restored to the succession.
Utpala Dynasty, 84 years, 5 months.

894-10 Sugandhā Rāni, recommended the election of
Sancara Verma, last of the Verma race.

922-9 Gopjila Verma, killed youth.
Sancata, last of the Verma race.

924-9 Sugandha Rani, recommended the election of
926-9 Partha. —The Tatris and Eucanyas powerful.
941-9 Nirjita Verma, also called Pangu, the cripple.

942-9 (Jhacra Verma, civil wars.

952-9 Sura Verma.
953-9 JNirjita Verma, also called Pangti, the cripple.
954-9 Jhacra Verma, do.
954-9 (Jhacra Verma, civil wars.

957-9 Partha, a second time.
959-9 Sugandha Rani, recommended the election of
960-3 Yasascara Deva, elected sovereign.
961-9 Bopya Deva.
961-9 Mallina, his brother, (end of Kalhana Pandit's list.)
962-9 Surala, son of Susalha, (Jona Raja's list.)
963-9 Susalha, usurper, do.
964-9 Mallina, his brother, (end of Kalhana Pandit's list.)
966-9 Tribhuvana, shared the same fate.
967-9 Bōmangupta, ditto.

993-9 Nandigupta, put to death by his grandmother Dīdā.

1001-1 Didda Rani, assumed the throne herself, adopts
1024-7 Sangrama Deva, II. (with whom Wilson's list closes.)
1032 Harirāja and A'uantā deva,* his sons, (continued from the printed
Taringini.)

1054 Kalasa.
1062 Utkarsha, and Harsha deva.
1062 Udayama Vikrama, son of the latter.
1072 Sankha Raja.
1073 Salha, grandson of Udayama.
1072 Susalha, usurper, do.
1088 Mallina, his brother, (end of Kalhana Pandit's list.)
1088 Jaya Sinh, son of Susalha, (Jona Raja's list.)
1110 Paramana.
1119 Bandi deva.
1126 Bopya deva.
1135 Jassa deva, his brother, an imbecile.
1153 Jaga deva, son of Bopya.
1167 Raja deva.
1190 Sangrama deva, III. a relation.
1206 Rana deva.
1227 Lakhana deva, adopted.
1261 Sinha deva, new line; killed by his brother-in-law
1275 Sinha deva, II. an usurper, who was himself deposed and killed

* The lengths of reigns only are given in the original: calculating therefore backwards from Ala-uddin, it becomes necessary to curtail the reign of Harirāja, (52 years,) by about 30 years, to form a natural link with Wilson's date of Sangrama deva. P.
The Bhota Dynasty.

1294 Sri Rinchana, obtained throne by conquest.
1294 Kota Rani, his wife.
Udyana deva, her second husband. Their minister, Shah Amir, killed the whole family, and succeeded under the name of Sri Shamshuddin.
18 Musulman princes succeeded, names not recorded.
Vikhyana Bhatt, overcame the last of these.
1298 Jayansara, his son who was overcome by the Sultán.
1300 Allauddin, Muhammed Shah.

[The names of the Muhammedan chiefs, who held possession of the valley, sometimes independently, under the Patan and Moghel Emperors, are so disfigured in Nâgâri characters, as to be hardly recognizable. Jona Raja's list continues to Zein-ul-ab-ud-din, whence Sri Varâ Pândit continues it to Fâtteh Shâh, see Muhammedan dynasties.]

Table XXIII. Chohan or Chahuman Dynasty, at Ajmir, Delhi, and afterwards Kotah and Bundi.

The Chohans, one of the four Agnicipula tribes, Chohâns, Purihârs, Solânti and Pramâra, said to have been produced by a convocation of the gods on mount Abu,—supposed of Parthian descent, Tod.

B. C. 700 Anala, or Anhul Chouhan, established at Garra Mandela.
Suvâча,
Mallan, source of Mallani tribe?
Galan Sûr.

A. D. 145 Ajipâla, Chakravarthi, founder of Ajmir, 202 of Virât era?
500 Sâmanta Déva,
Mahâ Déva,
Ajaya Sinh, ? Ajipala.
Virâ Sinh,
Vindasur,
Vairi Vihanta,
W.

684 Dola Râj, lost Ajmir to Muhammedans.

695 Manikya Râi', founded Sâmbar: hence title of Sâmbrî Rao, slain by Moslem invaders under Abul Aás; eleven names only in Jáega's catalogue, T.

Mahásinha.
Chandra Gupta, (of Allahabad pillar inscription? See Canouj.)
Pratép Sinh.
Mohan Sinh.
Setarai.
Nâgâhasta.
Lohadhâr.
Vira Sinh, II.
Vibudh Sinh.
Chandra Ray.

770 Harihara Ray, (Hursrâj, T.) defeated Subactegín.
Basanta Râi.
Balianga Râi, (Belundeo? T.) or Dheruca Gaj, slain defending Pramatha Râi. Ajmir against Sultan Mahmûd.
Anga Raja, (Amilla Déva, Delhi inscription.)

1016 W. Visala Dé'va*, from inscriptions, 1031 to 1095, Tod. interpolated date in the books of Chand, S. 921.

Saranga Déva, a minor.
Ana Déva, constructed the Anah Sâgar, at Ajmir.
Hispâl, (of Ferishât) father of

* The lath of Firoz, bearing Visala Déva's name, is dated S. 1230, in the reign of Vigraha Râî Déva.
Haravati Dynasty.

Table XXIV. Haravati or Harauti branch of the Chohan Dynasty.

The Haras are descended from Anura'ja, a son of Visalade'va or more probably of Manikya Rai', T. see preceding table.

Anurája, took possession of Asti, or Hansi, in Hariána.

A. D. 1024
Ishtpala, obtained Asérgarh, miraculously.

Chand Karna.

Lok Pál.

1192 Hamí'rá, (known in Prithirája wars;) killed in 1192.

Kólkarna.

Mahá Magd.

Rao Bácha.

1298 Rao Chand, slain with all but one son by Alla-uddín.

1300 Rainási, protected at Chitor, obtained Bhynárar.

Kolan, declared lord of the Pathár, (central India.)

1311 Rao Bango, took possession of the Hun court of Mynál.

Rao Déva, summoned to Lodí's court, abdicated to his son Hara Rája, founded Bundí: country called Haravati after him.

Samarsi, (Samara Sính, conquered the Bhils. Napúji, feud with Solankhi chief of Thoda.

Hamá-jí, deñed supremacy of Rána of Mewár.

Birsingh.

1419 Biru.

1485 Rao Banda, a famine, 1487, expelled by his brothers Samarcándí and Amarcándí, who ruled 12 years.

Narain Das, recovers Bundí.

1533 Suraj Mal, assassinated by Chitor Rána.

1534 Soortan, a tyrant, banished.

1575 Rao Rója Surján, Chunár, and Benares given to him.

Rao Bhoja, separation of Bundí and Kota.

Bundí branch.

1578 Rao Ratan, built Ratanpur, his son Módhú Sính receives Kólá from Gopináth.

[Jehangír, henceforward separation.

1652 Chatra Sa'ál, took Kálberga, under Aurangzéb, killed with 12 princes in battle of Ujain.

1658 Bhao Sính, received govt. of Arangábád under Aurangzéb.

1681 Anurád Sính.

1718 Budh Sính, supported Bahádur Shah, dispossessed by Jypur Rója.

1743 Omeda, regains Bundí, 1749, with Holkar's aid, retires 1771, dies 1770.

Ajit Sính, Jugráj, murders Rána of Mewár. [1804.

Rao Ráj Bishen Sính, minor, protects Col. Monson's flight.

1821 Rám Sính.

Kotah Branch.

1579 Madhu Sính, son of Rao Ratan, see above.

1630 Mokund Sính.

1657 Jagat Sính.

1669 Keswar Sính.

1685 Rám Sính.
1707 Bhim Sinh, entitled Mahârâo.
1719 Arjun.
1723 Durjau Sâl, without issue, Zalim Sinh, born 1740. 
    Ajit, grandson of Bishen Sinh.
    Chatr Sâl, succeeded by his brother.
1765 Gomânsinh, — Zalim Sinh, Faujdar.
1770 Omeda Sinh, Regent.
1819 Kiswar Sinh, Madhu Sinh, do.

Table XXV. Râjas of Malwa, Capitals Ujjayana, and Mandôr.
This line is taken from Abul Fazl, and is supposed to have been furnished from Jain authorities: it agrees nearly with appendix to Agni Purâna, (Wilford.)
In early ages Mahahmah founded a fire Temple, disapproved by the Buddhists, but restored by

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. C.</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>840</td>
<td>Dhanjî, (Dhananjaya, a name of Arjun,) about 785 before Vicrama-dîtya, (see Anjana, Burmese list?)</td>
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<tr>
<td>760</td>
<td>Jîtchandra.</td>
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<tr>
<td>670</td>
<td>Sâlivâhana.</td>
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<tr>
<td>680</td>
<td>Nirvahana.</td>
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<tr>
<td>580</td>
<td>Putra Rajas, or Vânasâvalis, without issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>Aditya Punwar, elected by nobles, (cot. Sapor, A. D. 191. W.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>390</td>
<td>Birma or Brahma Râja, reigned in Vidhâbaranagar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>360</td>
<td>Atibrâhma, at Ujjain, defeated in the north.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>271</td>
<td>Sadhrôshana, (Sadásva-Sêna*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>191</td>
<td>Heymert, Harsha Mâghâ, killed in battle (misplaced, Wo.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91</td>
<td>Gundrûp, Gârdhâbaru, Bahram-gor? of Wilford.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>VICRAMADITYA (3rd of Wilford. A. D. 441 Yesdejird?) Tuâr tr.</td>
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</tbody>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Chandrasén, possessed himself of all Hindustan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135</td>
<td>Karaksén, Surya Sêna, W. 676.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>215</td>
<td>Chaturkot, (Sactisinba succeeded, W.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>216</td>
<td>Kanaksén, (see Saurashtra which he conquered? 144. T.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>302</td>
<td>Chandrapal.</td>
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<tr>
<td>402</td>
<td>Mahendrapal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>409</td>
<td>Karmchandra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>410</td>
<td>Vijyananda, adopted a successor (his son being an infant) Sindula, W.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470</td>
<td>Mimu, killed in the Dekhan, (reigned A. D. 993 according to Tod.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>483</td>
<td>BHOJA, (S. 540,) by Tod. 567 A. D.† Kalidás flourished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>583</td>
<td>Jayachandra, put aside in favor of Jyôtípâl, of the Tenore (Tuâr) caste (Chaitra Chandra, Bavishya P.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>598</td>
<td>Râna Râja.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>603</td>
<td>Râna Baju.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>604</td>
<td>Râna Jalu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>620</td>
<td>Râna Chandra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>634</td>
<td>Râna Bahádur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>659</td>
<td>Râna Bakhtmal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>664</td>
<td>Rây Subenpâl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>669</td>
<td>Rây Keyrtpâl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>674</td>
<td>Rây Anaugapâl, (rebuilt and peopled Delhi, 791, T.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>734</td>
<td>Kunwerpâl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>735</td>
<td>Râja Jagdeva, of the Chohân tribe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>745</td>
<td>Jaganâmath.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>755</td>
<td>Hara deva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>770</td>
<td>Vâsû deva.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Vâsudeva of Wilford, Basdeo, Fer. A. D. 390, father-in-law of Bahram, (see Canouj.)
† The other two Râjas Bhoja, Tod fixes in 665 (from Jain MSS.) and 1035, the father of Udayati.
Rājas of Mālwa—of Saurāshtra.

107

786 Suradeva.
801 Dharmadeva.
815 Bhāldeva.
825 Nanakdeva.
834 Keyratdeva.
845 Pithoura.

1037 Dharma Rāja Soud, Vizir during minority of
1057 Alla-ud-dīn, who put him to death. Kemal-ud-dīn, murdered by

1069 Jitpāl Chohan, (Jaya Sīnh of Delhi and Lahore? 977,) a descen-
dant of Manikya Rai?

1089 Harachāntra.
1109 Keyratchand.
1111 Oogersein.
1124 Surajnanda.
1136 Tippersēn, or Beersēn, dispossessed by
1146 Jelal-ud-dīn, an Afgān.

1168 A'alam Shah, killed in battle by
1192 Keraksēn, son of Beersēn, emigrated to Kāmrup, married the king's daughter, succeeded to the kingdom, and regained Maiwa.

1200 Narbahan, {Udayāditya deva,
        Naravarma deva,
        Yasovarman deva, A. D. 1137.
        Jayavarman deva, 1143.}
        Ujjain inscription.

1220 Birsal.
1236 Purenmāl.
1268 Haranand.
1330 Sakat Sīnh, killed at the invasion of
1390 Bahāder Shāh, king of Dakhan, killed at Delhi.

On the division of the Delhi monarchy, or Ghīdshuddin's death,
1390 Dilāwer Khan Ghorī, viceroy of Mālwa, assumed sovereignty.

(See Musalman Dynasties.)

Table XXVI. Saurāshtra (Surat and Gujerāt). Capital, Balabhipura.
The Balabhi, Balkara, or Bala-raịs Dynasty.

The Jain chronicles of Jai-sinha, consulted by Col. Tod, trace the ancestry of Keneksēn, the founder of the Mewār family, up to Sumitra, the 56th descendant from Rāma, (vide the Surya-vansa list,) Solar worship prevailed, afterwards the Jain.

A. D. 0? Maharitu, follows Sumitra, T. Names according to
Antarita,
Achilēsēna,

144 Kanakṣēna, emigrates to Mahārājā. Dronasinha.
Saurāshtra. Dhusrasēna, I.

Mahā Madan Śēn, Dharapattā, Grihasēna.
Sudentu.

318 Vijya, or Ajayasena, founded the Balabhi era, T.*

* This and the Śrī Dharasēna of the adjoining list, fixed upon as the founders of the Balabhi era or sanvat, may probably be the Suraca of the Purāṇas, mentioned as a Vīramāditya to mount the throne An. Kal. Yug. 3290, or A. D. 191 or 291, (As. Rs. ix. 135, 203,) WILFORD. Many legends related by him of the Aditya, belonging to this dynasty.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. A. D.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Tribe</th>
<th>Other Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>696</td>
<td>Saille-deva</td>
<td></td>
<td>living in retirement at Ujjain, found and educated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>745</td>
<td>Banaraja, son of Samanta Sinh, (Chohan;</td>
<td>Solankhi</td>
<td>who founded Anhulpur, (Nerwaleh or Patan,) called after Anala Chohan, A. A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>806</td>
<td>Jogaraja</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>841</td>
<td>Bhima Raja</td>
<td>Bhunda deva, Wd.</td>
<td>from the Ayin Akberi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>866</td>
<td>Bheur,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>895</td>
<td>Behirsinh,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>920</td>
<td>Reshadat,</td>
<td>Raja-Aditya, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>935</td>
<td>Samanta,</td>
<td>daughter, married son of Delhi Raja: Bhunda, W.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>910</td>
<td>W. Mula Raja,</td>
<td></td>
<td>usurped the throne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1025</td>
<td>Chamund, invaded by Sultán Mahmúd, (Samanta, W.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1038</td>
<td>Vallabha, (Beyser, or Bisela, Ay. Ak.)</td>
<td>ancient line restored.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1039</td>
<td>Durlabba, (Dabisalima, F.)</td>
<td></td>
<td>usurped the throne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1050</td>
<td>Bhima raja.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1094</td>
<td>Siddha, or Jayasinh, an usurper.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1095</td>
<td>Kumárapala, poisoned.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1209</td>
<td>W. Bhúma Deva, or Bhala Bhúma Deva, same as the last, Wd.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1250</td>
<td>Arjun deva,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1260</td>
<td>Saranga deva,</td>
<td>Ay. Ak.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1281</td>
<td>Karan,</td>
<td></td>
<td>Carna the Gohilá fled to the Dakhan, when in the year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1309</td>
<td>Gujerat was annexed to Delhi by Ala-ud-din.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The Persian historians make Ngshizad, son of Noshirvan, or Maha Banú, daughter of Yezdijird, the origin of the Sesodía race of Mewár, 531.

| Origin of Geholate, Grahalote, or Sésodia tribe of Surya-vansis.* |
|---|---|
| Kaiswa, Goha, or Grahaditya, posthumous son of Siladitya, | Nagaditya, of Bhandér. [born in Bhandér forest. |
| Bhagaditya. | Devaditya. |
| | Assáditya, founded A’spur in Mewár. |
| Khabhoja. | Grahaditya, (others make Nagaditya, father of |
| 713 | Buph, or Bappa, seized Chitor, from Mori tribe, A. D. 727, | and founded the Gohila or Geholate dynasty of Mewár. |

(Continued in Table XXVIII.)

**Table XXVII. Gujerát. Capital Patan. The Anhulwára Dynasty, a restoration of the dynasty of the Balháras.**

[Ayin Akberi list collated with that of the Agni Puráña, of Wilford.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. A. D.</th>
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<td>Solankhi</td>
<td>who founded Anhulpur, (Nerwaleh or Patan,) called after Anala Chohan, A. A.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>841</td>
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<td>866</td>
<td>Bheur,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>895</td>
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<td>1309</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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* The Persian historians make Ngshizad, son of Noshirvan, or Maha Banú, daughter of Yezdijird, the origin of the Sesodía race of Mewár, 531.
Table XXVIII. Ránas of Mewár. Capitals Chitór, Udayapur.
(Continued from Table XXVI.)

After the destruction of the Bahlára monarchy of Sauráshtra, and two centuries' sojourn of the family in the Bhandér desert, BAPH or BAPA conquered Chítór, and founded a new dynasty in A. D. 727. The hereditary title was changed from Gehlote to Aditya.

Wilson's list. Tod, from Aitpur inscription.

750 1. Sri Gohadit, founder of Gohila (Gehlote) tribe.

Bhoja, ....

2. Bhoja (Bhagaditya ?)

3. Mahendra.

4. Naga (Nágáditya.)

5. Syela.

6. Aprajit (compare with Tab. XXVI.)

Kalabhooja, ..

8. Kalabhooja.

Bhartribhata, 9. KHOman—invansion of Chítór from Cabul 812, A. D. 

Samaháyika, Mangal, expelled by chiefs.

Khumán, .. 10. Bhírtipad, founded 13 principalities for his sons in Málwá and Gujerát.

11. Singhji, whose Ráni, Lkskshmi, bore

Alláta, ...... 12. SriAllat, whose daughter Hariadevi was grandmother of


967 15. Saktikumar, resided at Aitpur, 967, or 1068 ? T.

Suchívarma, Umba Passa.

977 16. Narvarma, cotemp. with Sabaktegin.

1027 17. Saktikumar, resided at Aitpur, 967, or 1068 ? T.

Bhbnsi, recovers Chítór.


Bhínsi, recovers Chítór.

1289 19. Kurna, or Karan, his son—

Rahup,—attacked by Shemsuddin, 1200.

Nine princes, occupying 50 years, engaged in crusades, to recover Gayá from the infidels, (Buddhists,) T.

Lakshman Sinh, (Lakunsi, T.) married Ceylon princess.


1372 23. Laxa Rána, (Lakha Rána, T.) rebuilds temples. Expedition to Gayá.

1397 24. Mokulji, supplants rightful heir Chonda.

1418 25. Khumbo, (Kumbhó, T. Gombo, A. A.) defeats Mahmúd of Málwá; pillar raised in commemoration, 1439.

1468 26. Oda, murders his father, and is killed by lightning.

1473 27. Raemal, repels invasion of Delhi monarch Lodí.

1508 28. SANGa, Singram, or Sinka, the Kalas or pinnacle of Mewár glory, successfully resists Baber at Biúna, 1526.

1529 29. Ratna, fell in duel with Bundi Raja.

1532 30. Bikaramajit, his brother. 2nd sack of Chítór by Bahádur of Gujerat; recovered by Hamáyun.
Ranas of Mewar—Rahtores of Kanouj.

Banbir, the bastard, raised to throne by Rájputs.

1540 Udaya Sinh, (Oodly Sing,) 3rd sack of Chítór, 1580, by Akber.

1583 Pertáp, (Rana,) reverses at Udýpur and Kumáinír.

Amera, (Umra,) succeeds, recovers the ruined capital; defeats Abdulla Jan. 1610; makes peace with Jeôngír.

1620 Kerna, (Kurn,) last independent Rája; embellished Udýpur.

1627 Jagat Sinh, tributary to Shah Jeňá; peaceful reign.

1653 Raj Sinh, bounded Lake Rájśamunádrá.

1680 Jay Sinh, forms the lake Joy-sámnámd.

1709 Amera, II. triple alliance with Mówrád and Ambér, S. 1756.

1715 Sangrás Sinh; the jézeya tax abolished.

1733 Jagat Sinh, II. pays chouth to Mahárráts.

1751 Pertáp, II.

1754 Raj Sinh, II. country desolated by Marháttás.

1761 Arsi, his uncle. Zalim Sinh's rise.

1771 Hamira, a minor.

1777 Binám Sinh, his brother. Hólkár and Síndia overrun Mewár. Marriage feud of Jypür and Jódhpur. Krishná Kumárn poisoned, and the race of Bappa Ráwal extinguished, all but

1828 Jewán (Jayan) Sinh, the only surviving son.

Table XXIX. Rahtore Dynasty of Kanouj, afterwards continued in Ma'wár, or Jodhpur.

From Tod's genealogical rolls of the Rahtores, preserved by the Jains. vol. ii. 5, 6, 7.

A. D. (After the usual Theogony.)

300? Yavanasva, prince of Partípur? supposed of Indo-Scythic origin.

390 Basdeo, (Vasáderá,*), revives Canouj dynasty; his daughter marries Bahram Sássan, of Persia. 

450 Ramdeo, fixed in Márwár—tributary to Feroz Sássan.

469 Nayana Pála', conquers Ajípála of Canouj—hence called Káma dveja,

Padárat or Bharata, king of Canouj.

Punjá, his son.

570? Dherma Bhumbo, his descendants called Dhanésra Camdhaj, (for 21 generations bore the name of Rao, afterwards Rája.)

From coins, old Series.

From inscriptions†.

Udaya-chandra.

Nirpati.

Keneke'S'na, see Mái-

[wa 400? Sehesra-sála.

Mégháséna.

Viráládrá.

Deosen.

Vimalásena.

Dánasén.

Mokunda.

Bhádu,

Koraor Chandápál, F.

Ráísen.

Triplá,

Sri Punja.

(Vira Sinha, see Bengal.

712 (Jass varman, see p. 102.

900 (Sahasanka, see Vis Prak.

Vijayachandra.

1169 Java Chandra, (Dal Pangla.)

* Wilford names this prince Sadýpála, or Sadasvápála. As. Res. ix. 211.

† See Journal As. Soc. III. 341.
Table XXX. Ma‘rwár or Jodhpur. Continuation of ditto.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Sivaji, grandson of Jayachandra, settled in the desert, Khéring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Jodhpur—Bikanir—Jaipur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Ma‘rwár or Jodhpur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Ashthama, (Asothama T.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Doonar, T. Dula Rai, W. made attempt on Kanouj and Mandór.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Raipl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Kanhul.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Jalhun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Chado.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Theedo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Situk or Silko, (origin of the Silkâwats or Bhoméas.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1210</td>
<td>Birandeva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Chonda, assaulted Mandór, and made it his capital.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Assinuul, of Gohila mother, made pilgrimage to Gaya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Rao Joda and 23 brothers, had separate fiefs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>founded Jodhpur, and removed from Mandór.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Rao Sújoh, or Surajmal; rape of Rahtore virgins by Patháns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Rao Ganga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Rao Maldeo, becomes chief Rája of Rájputs; fortifies capital.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>sends his son as hostage to Akber; marriage alliance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Udaya Sinh; Chandra Sinh, upheld by clans, installed by Akber.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Soor Sinh; named Siwál Rája, a general in Mogul armies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Jajga Gaj Sinh, slain in Gujerát.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Jeswant Sinh, named Siwái Raja, a general in Mogul armies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Abhay Sinh; entitled Maharaja Rájeswar, 1728.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Ram Sinh, son, defeated by his uncle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Bakht Sinh, who was poisoned in 1752.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Vijaya Sinh, (Beejy Sing,) disputed succession with Ram Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Bhim Sinh, usurps throne on his grandfather’s death, by defeat of Zalim Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1381</td>
<td>Man Sinh. Feud for Kishna Kumári, the Udipur princess.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table XXXI. The Bikane'r Ráj, a scion of Jodhpur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Bika, son of Joda, settled in the Jit country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Nunkarna.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Jaet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Káltán Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Ray Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Karma Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Anop Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Sarup Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Sujáj Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Zuríwar Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Gaj Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Raj Sinh, poisoned in 13 days by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>Surat Sinh, regent, who usurped the throne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>———— vanquished Surtan Sinh and Ajib Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1458</td>
<td>———— annexed Bhatner to his dominion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table XXXII. Ránas of Amber or Dhund’hár. Capital Jaypur.

The Cuchwâda race of Rájputs claims descent from Cush, second son of Ra‘ma, king of Ayodhya, who migrated and built the fort of Rotás, on the Són.

A. D. 294 Rája Nala, founded Narwar or Nishida.

Thirty-two princes—having the affix, Pálá.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>965</td>
<td>Sura Sinh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>966</td>
<td>Dhola (Dula) Rai, expelled from Narwar, founded Dhund’hár dynasty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>966</td>
<td>Kankul.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>966</td>
<td>Maidul Rao, took Amber from the Meenas.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Amber or Jaipur—Jesalmér.

Hundeo.
Kuntal.

1185  Pujandeva, (Pajun,) married daughter of Prithí Rája.
Maléši.
Bijal.
Rájdeo (Sahirdeva ? of Narwar, defeated by Mahmud, II. 1251, F.)
Kílan.
Kontal.
Junaí.

Udayakarna—his son Baloji obtained Amritsir, called Shekhávat
from his grandson Shekhji.
Nara Sinh.
Banbir.
Udharao.
Chandras^n.
Prithí RAj, pilgrimage to Deivalon thelndus
murdered by Bhima, his son.
Aiskarn.

1550? Baharmal, (Puranmal, W.) paid homage to Baber.
1586? Bhagwán Dás, Akber's general, wedded his daughter to Jehangir.
1592 Man Sinh, ditto, governor of Bengal—Dakhan—Cabul.
1615 Bhao Sinh, died of drinking.
1621 Mahá Sinh, ditto.
1625? Jaya Sinh, Mirza Rája, poisoned by his son Kerat.
Rám Sinh, reduced to mansab of 4000.
Bishen Sinh, ditto.

1698 Siwai Jay Sinh, founded Jaypur, published Zij Mahomésháki.
1742 Iswari Sinh.
1760 Madhu Sinh.
1778 Prithí Sinh, II. minor.
1778 Pertáp Sinh.
1803 Jagat Sinh, an effeminate prince, died without issue.
1818 Jay Sinh, III. posthumous, believed supposititious.

Table XXXIII. Raos of Jesalme'r.

Dynasty of the Bhattis, a branch of the Yadu race of the Chandra Vansa, Tod.

Nába, fled from Dvarica to Marwasthali—(Bháyavat.)
Prithibáhu—Khira—Jud-bhan, (from Bhatti chroniclers.)
Báhu-bal, espoused daughter of Vijaya Sinh, Malwa.
Báhu, killed by a fall from his horse.
Sábhu, poisoned by his wife, daughter of Ajmlr Raja Mund.
Ríjb married daughter of Ber Sinh of Málvá; invasion of Ferid Sháh.

A. D. 15? Salbahan, 15 sons, all Rajas, conquered Panjáb, expelled from Cabul.
Báland, invaded by Turks—his grandson Chakito, source of Cha-

Kullur, 8 sons, all became Musalmans.
Jinj, 7 ditto.

Bhátti, court at Lahore, gave name to family.
Mangal Rao, expelled by king of Ghazni—settled in Mér.
Majam Rao, his son—
730 Kehur, invaded by the Barahas, 787, a. d. 731.
733 Tanuo, erected Bijnóč.
813 Biji Rae, continual feuds with the Langas, till 1474. Title Ráo, exchanged for Rawul.
Deoraj, excavated several lakes, one at Tunnote.
Munda.
1008 Bachera, tributary to Anandapál of Delhi; invaded by Mahmúd.
1043 Dusaj.
Bhojdeo conspired against and killed by his uncle
1155 Jesal, slain in defending Lodore. Removed capital to Jesalmér.
1157 Salivahan, II. throne usurped by his son, Bijil.
1200 Kailun, elder brother, repelled the Khan of Baloch.
1218 Chachik Deo, extirpated Chunnas Rajputs.
1250 Karan, repelled Mozaffer Khan.
1270 Lakhun Sinh, an idiot, replaced by his son
1275 Pânpâl, dethroned by nobles.
1275 Jaetsi, recalled from Gujerát—defended fort for 8 years.
1293 Mulraj, III. great sack of Jesalmér by Mabál Khan, 1294.
Didd, elected Rëwul, second sack and immolation.
1306 Gursi, re-establishes Jesalmér.
Këhar, adopted; feuds.
Rao Kailan, or Kerore, conquered to the Indus—lived to 80.
Chachik Deo, fixed capital at Marote; continued feuds.
1473 Bersi, conquest of Multân by Bâber.
Sabai Sinh, Jesalmér becomes a fief of empire, under Rawuls Jait,
Nunkara, Bhum, Manohar Das; conversion of Bhattis.
Uma Sinh, predatory incursions.
1701 Jeswant, alliance with Mewár—end of Bhatti chronicle.
1722 Akhi Sinh, Saráp Sinh minister potential.
1761 Mulhrâja, ditto.
1820 Gaj Sinh, ditto, under British protection.

Table XXXIV. ORISSA, OR-DESA, or ATKALA-DESA, h.d. Cuttack.

From the Vansavali, and Rája Charitra, in the Uria language, preserved in the
Temple of Jagannâth, a record supposed to have been commenced in the 12th
Century.—Stirling's Account of Cuttack. As. Res. xvi. 257.

After the usual detail of the Mythology, and early kings of India, down to
Vicramâditya,

A. D. 142 Bato Kesari.
193 Tírbhoban deo.
236 Ñirmal deo.
281 Bhumâ deva.
318 Subhân deva, Râkta Bahu invades Jagannâth by sea, destroyed by an
inundation of the sea, that also formed the Chilka lake.
Indra deva, was captured and displaced by the Yavanas, who
reigned for 146 years.
Kesari-vansa restored.
473 Jajati (Yayâti) Kesari, capital Jajepur.
Suraj Kesari.
Ananta Kesari.
617 Lâlat Indra Kesari, built the Bhuvaneswar temple, 657.
32 reigns, extending 455 years. Cuttack built, 989.
Ganga-vansa.

1131 Churang, Saranga deva, or Chor Ganga, invaded Orissa.
1151 Gangeswara deva, extended dominions.
1174 Ananga Bûim Deo, ascended Gajapati throne; endowed Jagannâth;
struck coin; title Rawat Râi.
1201 Râjeswara deo.
1236 Râja Narsinh Deo, built Kanúrak (black pagoda) 1277.
5 Nara Sinhas and 6 Bhânum, called the Suraj-vansa Râjas.
1451 Kapil Indra deo, adopted by the last Bhánu, assisted Telinga Râja
against Musalmans, 1457.

1471 (Himber? Rai of Uria, according to Ferishta.)
1478 Persottom deo, conquers Conjeeveram.
1503 Pertáb Rudra deo, left 32 sons, all murdered by
1524 Govind deo, his minister.
1531 Pertáb Chakra deo, last of the dynasty.
114  

Rājas of Orissa—Nēpāl.

1539 Narsinha Jenna, deposed by
1550 Telnga Mukund deo, (Harichandan,) invaded, and sovereignty of
Orissa overthrown, by King of Bengal, 1558.

Khurda Rājas; Bhul-vansi, or Zemindāri race.

1580 Ramchandra deo, titular Rāja under Akber.
1609 Pursottom deo. Afghan incursions.
1630 Narsinh deo.
1655 Gangadhar deo.
1656 Balbhadder deo.
1664 Mukund deo.
1692 Dirb Sinh deo.
1715 Harikishen deo,
1720 Gopinath deo.
1727 Ramchandra deo. Boundary much reduced.
1743 Birkishore deo. Marhatta depredations.
1755-6 Dirb Sioh deo, attached to Ndgptir
1804 Mukund deo, deposed by the English, 1804.

Table XXXV. Rājas of Ne'pāl.

The mythology of Nēpāl commences, like that of Cashmir, with the desiccation of
the valley, for ages full of water, by a Muni called Naimuni, (whence
the name of the country Naipdla,) whose descendants swayed the sceptre for near 500
years.—Kirkpatrick's Nipdl.

B. C. 3803 Bhurimahâgah, (adjusted
back at 18 years per
reign, B. C. 844?)
3795 Jayagupta.
3722 Pernagupta.
3631 Sri Harkh.
3564 Bhimagupta.
3526 Munigupta.
3489 Bishengupta.
3423 Jayagupta, II. overcome
by Rajputs of the
Terai, near Janak-
pur, B. C. 700?
3211 Bal Sinha, descendant of
Mahipa Gopâla.
3302 Jaya Sinha.
3281 Bhuwani Sinha, over-
come by the

Kerrât tribe of eastern mountaineers.

3240 Yellang, adjusted date
B. C. 646?
3150 Daskham.
3113 Balâncha.
3081 Kingli.
3040 Hananter.
2990 Tuskhah.
2949 Srupast.
2910 Parb.
2854 Jety dastrî.
2794 Panchem.
2723 King-king-king.
2667 Sùnand.
2627 Òhôntu.
2558 Jaigri.
2498 Jenneo.
2423 Suenkeh.
2365 Òhû.
2294 Thamu.
2211 Barmah.
2138 Gunjeh.
2065 Teshû.
2019 Sungmîa.
1950 Jusha.
1887 Gontho.
1813 Khimbhûm.
1739 Gilijang, displaced by
Khetris of the

Surya-vansi race.

1658 Nēvesrî, (adjusted date
of conquest, B.C. 178.)
1608 Matta Râtio.
1517 Kaikvarma.
1441 Pasupush deva (founded
Paspatnâth.)
1385 Bhoskar varma, a great
conqueror.
1311 Bhumi varma.
1270 Chandra varma.
1249 Jaya varma.
1187 Vrisha varma.
1130 Sarva varma.
1081 Pathi (Prithi) varma.
1025 Jist (Jayertha) varma.
977 Kuber (Kuvera) varma.
901 Hari varma.
824 Siddhi varma.
763 Haridatta varma, (found-
ed Sopac Narayan temple.)
724 Vasu datta verma.
691 Sripatri.
688 Siva vriddi.
611 Vasanta deva.
550 Deva.
493 Brikh (Vriksha) deva.

1130 Rajas of Nepal.

115
1130 1157 1164
1081 1153 1164
1025 1157 1164
977 1153 1164
901 1153 1164
824 1153 1164
763 1153 1164
724 1153 1164
691 1153 1164
688 1153 1164
611 1153 1164
550 1153 1164
493 1153 1164

Ahirs, or original Sovereigns.

43 Bishen gupta.
117 Krishna gupta.

The Neverit Dynasty, restored.

218 Siva deva varma, (adjusted date, A. D. 470.)
259 Anghou varma.
301 Kirtu varma.
319 Bhima Arjuna deva.
358 Nanda deva.
371 Siva deva.
387 Narendra deva.
424 Bala deva.
441 Sankara deva.
453 Bhima Arjuna deva, II.
469 Jaya deva.
488 Sri bala deva.
504 Kondara deva.
531 Jaya deva, II.
574 Bala deva, III.
585 Balanjun deva.
622 Raghara deva, adjusted date, A.D. 880.
985 Sikar deva.*
773 Soho deva.
807 Vikrama deva.
808 Narendra deva.
810 Ganakama deva.*
895 Udaya deva.

1280 Anwanta mall deva. Kíasias and Tirhut families settled in Nipal, Sam. 1344. A. D. 1287.

Jayananda deva.
Jaya sinha mall.
Jaya Raera mall, daughter married Hari Chandra, Rája of Benares — his daughter Raj Lachnú succeeded, but was deposed by

1323 Jaya deva, who was dispossessed of the throne by

† This is exactly the first year of the Newár era. He, it is said, introduced the Sameul into Nepal, which may apply to this, and not to the era of Víramáditya. (With one or two exceptions, marked*, these reigns are of natural lengths, and require no adjustment.)
1323 Hara Sinha Deva, raja of Simroun, who was expelled from his own dominions by the Patan sovereign of Delhi. (See below.)
Belai Sinha, capital Bhatgaon.

Nepal—Gurkhas—Simroun.

Sri Deva mall.
Naya mall.
Asoka mall.
Jestil Mall.
Jait mall.

1600? Jaya Eksha Mall, (or Jye Kush Moll,) divided Patan, Khatmandu, Banepa, and Bhatgaon between his daughter and three sons.

1669-79 Jaya Chakra mall, 1632 Jaya Prakas malla.
Trihoka mall? 1656 Pratap malla.
Jagat Joli mall, 1662 Jaya Yoga Prakas malla.
Jay Jeta mitra mall, 1695 Jaya Prakas malla.

1695 Bhirupati Indra 1701 Bhaskara malla.
1715 Mahendra malla.

1721 Ranjit malla, form 1722 Jaya Jagat Jaya 1715 Hridiali Narasinha.
ed alliance with Jaya Yoga Prakas 1722 Kishi nirmal deva.
gurkhas, which 1724 Jaya Yoga Prakas 1722 Yoga Zughir yoga ended in his 1753 Jaya Vishnu malla.
subversion, and 1729-31 Jaya Vishnu malla.
finally that of 1742 Jaya Yoga Prakas 1749-5 all Nepal.
all Népal.

Gurkali Dynasty, descended from the Udayapur Rájputs, occupied Kamaon and Noakot, for 6 or 8 generations, prior to conquest of Nepal.

1768 Príthinarayan Sáh.
1771 Pertáb Sinha Sáh deva.
1775 Ran Behádur, (Behádur Sáh regent,) deposed by nobles, 1800.
1800 Girwan Yudh Vikrama Sáh deva.
1804 Ran Behádur, returns from Benares, deposed and assassinated.
1805 Girwan Yudh Vikrama Sáh deva, again.
1816 Rajendra Vikrama Sáh deva.

The Khatmandu and Patan names, and all the dates from 1632 downwards, are confirmed by Nepalese coins in my possession, collected by Dr. Bramley.

Table XXXVI. Rájas of Samangarha, or Simroun, in the Tarái, south of Nepal.

From Kirkpatrick. From Hodgson’s List, Journ. As. Soc. IV. 123.

A. D. 844 Nána deva. Nányupa deva, founded Simroun, A. D.
Kanak deva. 1097.
Narsinha deva. Ganga deva.
Ehad Sinha deva. Ráma Sinha deva.
Karm Sinha deva. Suktí Sinha deva.
1323 Hara Sinha deva. Hara Sinha deva, compelled to abandon his capital and take refuge in the hills, when Simroun was destroyed by Toghlak Sháh, in 1323 A. D. See above for his connection with the Raj of Népal.
**Table XXXVII. Rājas of Bengal, capitals, Kanouj?—Gaur.**

Abul Fazi enumerates three Dynasties anterior to the family of Bhupāla, which last is identified by inscriptions found at Benares, Monghir, Dinajpur, &c. viz.

The family of Bhugrut (Bhagiratha), Xatriya—24 princes, reigned 2418 years.
The family of Bhogorya, Kaith—9 princes, reigned 250 years.
The family of Udsoor (Adisur), Kaith—11 princes, reigned 714 years.

Then follows the family of Bhupal, to whose 10 reigns 689 years are allotted, which is evidently too much; the succession of names differs also somewhat from those of the inscriptions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From Abul Fazi.</th>
<th>Monghir plate*</th>
<th>Dinajpur copper-plate.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bhopāla.</td>
<td>Gopāla.</td>
<td>Locapāla.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhumatipāla.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Devapāla.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhanpatipāla.</td>
<td>Rājapāla.</td>
<td>Nārayanpāla ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bijjenpāla.</td>
<td>Sūrapāla.</td>
<td>(Two names illegible.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jagadpāla.</td>
<td>Sthirapāla,</td>
<td>Nayapāla.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vasantapāla.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1017 Kumrapāla (Fer.)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1027 Vigrahapāla.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vaidya Rājas of Bengal.

1063 Sukh Sen.
1066 Belal Sen, built the town of Gaur.
1116 Lakshman Sen.
1123 Mādhava Sen.
1133 Kesava Sen.
1151 Sura Sen.
1154 Nārayana—Noujeb, last rāja of Abul Fazl's list.

Laxmana.
1200 Laxmaniya.

(See Mahomedan dynasties.)

**Table XXXVIII. Rājas of Assam—anciently Kamrup.**

The best authority is a Native History, (Assam Buranji,) by Huliram Dhai-kiyāl Phukan, of Gohātī. Beng. era 1236. As. Jour. 1830, p. 297; also Mr. Scott's MS. Notes, arranged by Dr. McCosh.—Buchanan is not to be trusted prior to Rudra Sinha.

After bringing down the genealogies to the Xatriya Dynasty of Dravir (Dharmapāla', &c. who invited brahmans from Gaur to his court, north of the Brahmaputra?)*

**Brahmaputra Dynasty. 240 years.**

Shusāṅku, or Arimatu, built fort of Vidyaagarh.
Phainguyā, an usurper of the race of Kumuteshvar.
Gujanj, former line restored.
Shukaranu.

Mrigaku, without issue; died A. D. 1478.
Assam divided into 12 petty states.

1498 —— invaded by Dalal Ghāzī, son of Husein Shāh.
Musundar Ghāzī.
Sultan Ghīsuddīn; after whom 12 states restored, of which Nara, east of Saumar, had been gradually rising into power, since the middle of the 13th century.

* The Monghir plate, dated 23 or 123 Samvat, evidently refers to the Bhupāla dynasty, and not to the Vikramāditya era as was supposed by Wilkins.
Rajás of Assam.

Indravansa (Indu) Dynasty.

1230? Chu-kapha, became independent, and spread conquests, surnamed Asama (unequalled), whence Assam.

1268 Chu-toupha, son, defeated the Raja of Cachár.

1281 Chu-benpha.

1293 Chu-kangpha.

1332 Chu-khumpa; valley invaded by Muhammed Sháh, 1337.

1364-9 Interregnum of five years; when the ministers installed

1369 Chu-taopha, a relation, conquered Chhutiyas.

1372 Chu-khamethepa, a tyrant, killed by his ministers.

1405-14 Interregnum of nine years.

1414 Chu-dangpha, conquered as far as the river Kurutoya.

1452 Chu-jáangpha, his son.

1440 Chu-phákpha, ditto.

1458 Chu-singpha, ditto.

1485 Chu-hangpha, ditto.

1491 Chu-siopha, a tyrant, put to death.

1497 Interregnum, and Hosein Sháh's invasion, 1498.

1506 Chu-humpa, a brother, various conquests.

1549 Chu-kuruipha, his son, built Gurangam.

1563 Chu-khrunkpha.

1615 Chu-chainpha; introduced reforms; protected Dharmanarain.

1640 Chu-rámpuha, a tyrant, dethroned.

1643 Chu-chimpha.

1647 Kuku-raikhoya Gohani, dethroned for his brother

1663? Chu-khum, or Jayadhwaja Sinha, adopted Hindu faith; defeated Aurangzeb's general?

1621* Chakradhwaja (or Brijá) Sinha, built fort of Goháti; (Sámagrya deva, Me. C.); repulsed Aurangzeb's general? called Chukum?

1665 Kodayaditya Sinha, attempted to convert the people.

1677 Parbatia Kunria.

1681 Lorarája; for some reigns confusion prevailed until

1683* Gadadhara Sinha; his son Kana set aside.

1689-1713* Rudra Sinha, built Rangpur and Jorhát; his coins first bear Bengáli inscriptions.

1715-21* Siya Sinha, established Hindu festivals.

1723-26* Phuleśvari, his wife, acquires sovereign rule.

1729-30* Pramathésvari diví, ditto.

1732-36* Ambiká deví, ditto.

1738-43* Sarvveśvari deví, ditto.

1744* Pramatha Sinha, made equitable land settlement.

1751* Rajeswara Sinha, embellished Rangpur, allied with Manipur.

1771* Laxmi Sinha Narendra, younger son, raised and deposed by minister.

1779* Gaurinátha Sinha, his son.

1792* Bharata Sinha Mahámári, conquers Rangpur, and

1793* Sarvannáda Sinha, usurps power at Bángnara.

1796* Bharata Sinha, again attempts, but is killed.

1808* Kamaleswara Sinha, or Kinnarám, not crowned. Rája Chandrakanta Sinha Narendra, fled to Ava. Purandhar Sinha, great grandson of Rajeswara Sinha, expelled by Burmese, and

Chandrakanta, restored, but deposed again, and

Yogeswar Sinha, raised by Assamese wife of Ava monarch, under Menghi Maha Theluan, the Burmese general and real governoir.

1824 Burmese expelled by English.

1712* Date of Manipuri square coins.

1763* Persian coins of Raja Mir Sinh of Rangpur.

1780* Bengáli coins of Jayanta Rája.

* These dates are confirmed by coins in Marsden's Num. Or. and others in Captain Jenkin's collection.
Table XXXIX. Rājas of Mani'pur, Miethiē, or Mogli. From the Michouba or royal genealogical roll, Capt. Pemberton's MS.

A. D.

36? Pakhungba, reigned 140 yrs. 1437 Ninthoukhombo, reigned 35 yrs.
174 Khofi, 90 1472 Keyamba, 40
264 Tanuthingmang, 100 1512 Koeremba, 5
364 Koening gualba, 15 1517 Lamchaimanba, 3
379 Pensiba, 15 1520 Nongylipuba, 9
394 Kanu khangba, 15 1529 Kapomba, 17
411 Nanu khamba, 47 1546 Tangchomba, 4
428 Nanu phamba, 90 1550 Chuhlamba, 17
518 Samuerang, 50 1567 Mungyamba, 35
568 Kol Thuoba, 90 1602 Khakėmba, 55
663 Nanuthinghong, 100 1657 Khulchouba, 14
763 Khongtekha, 10 1671 Pakhombha, 31
784 Kaereleha, 15 1702 Charālōngba, 12
799 Yaraba, 22 1714 Pamaiba—Gharbānawāz, or Garmāni rāja, or Myanggnumba, 39
821 Ayangba, 89 1753 Khakihilālhābā, or Oogat Shāh, 3
910 Nyangoucheng, 39 1756 Mingthōkhiboma—Bhar- rat Shāh, 2
949 Eipāl la Thaba, 24 1758 Gourī Shām—Maramba, 6
973 Yangiai kat phamba, 8 1764 Chingthangkhiboma, or Jaya Sinha, Nong- nangkhiboma, 2
981 Eerrengba, 89 1766 Goureē Sinha, 1
1070 Loiyamba, 56 1767 Jaya Sinha, 31
1126 Loitomba, 30 1798 Robin chandra, 3
1156 Monyoirleba, 14 1801 Mudu chandra, 5
1168 Iwltahamba, 117 1806 Charjit Sinha, 6
1200 Thawālhāba, 36 1812 Märjit Sinha, expelled by Barmas, 1819
1236 Chingtanglahamba, 11 1824 Gambhir Sinha, brother, regained possession.
1247 Thing baisel homb, 5 1845 Arleana Cadamai Canda Sholan, 62 yrs.
1252 Puruthamba, 16 1847 Jayam Canda Sholan, 12
1268 Kluomomba, 15 1858 Kirmi Canda Sholan, 20
1283 Moeramba, 24 1867 Tondaman Sholan, 12
1307 Thanghīlahamba, 22 1878 Budtam Cattam Sholan, 45
1329 Konygamba, 31 1879 Shomunnam Sholan, 11
1360 Telhueba, 19 1880 Ghingui Canda Sholan, 11
1399 Laiizlba, 5 1881 Sundra Pandua Sholan, 40
1409 Pūlēba, 24 1882 Pottāpa Sholan, 24

Table XL. The Narapati, or Sholan Dynasty of Karnātā, Dravīra, and the southern portion of the peninsula. 27 Rājas, reigned 534 years.

Contemporary with the Gajapati and Assapati Dynasties; from a MS. translated by Buchanan.

A. D.

266? Utinga Sholan, reigned 32 yrs. Arleana Cadamai Canda Sholan, 62 yrs.
Culatunga Sholan, 18 Jayam Canda Sholan, 12
Rajendha Sholan, 11 Kirimi Canda Sholan, 20
Tiramadi Canda Sholan, 13 Tondaman Sholan, 12
Carical Sholan, 21 Buddam Cattam Sholan, 45
Arundavan Sholan, 13 Shomunnam Sholan, 11
Vonyara Sholan, 17 Ghingui Canda Sholan, 11
Shāyangana Sholan, 15 Sundra Pandua Sholan, 40
Munaliinda Sholan, 12 Pottāpa Sholan, 24
Mavanedi Canda Sholan, 15 Shilingu Yullanda Sholan, 14
Vakula Sholan, 14 Deva Sholan, 10
Alaperinda Sholan, 8 Shayanshatti Sholan, 15
Tiraveratu Sholan, 15 Vira Sholan, 30

800? Shayangara Sholan, 24 years; the MS. makes the final date, A. D. 288. After the overthrow of the Narapati dynasty, Karnata and Dravīra seem to have been separated from the southern districts, in which the Chera, Chola, and Pandava lines were at first united under one sovereignty.


13 Mahá Rájas of Múdura, Tanjore, and Còimbetore, reigned 239 years.

- Udiamara, reigned 18 years.
- Jeya deva, 19 ditto.
- Lohíta, 10 ditto. During this dynasty, the palace of Múdura is supposed to have been erected.
- Ganga díra, 11 ditto.
- Vama deva, 13 ditto.
- Térupulinda, 34 ditto.
- Patáviran, 43 ditto.
- Sri Devanátha, 38 ditto.
- Malik Árjana, 7 ditto.
- Adí Raer, 13 ditto.
- Mahá sustra, 16 ditto.
- Visvesvara, 8 ditto.

950? Chindrabuti, 9 ditto.

After which follow the Belál Rájas of the Karnáta, and the petty Polygér dynasties of Múdura, &c.

Table XLII. Adeva Rájas of the Karnáta. Capital Dwárasamudra.

Nine Princes governed above the Gháts 98 years, and afterwards below the Gháts 111 years. (Buch. Mysore, iii. 112.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Mackenzie's MS.</th>
<th>Buchanan, iii. 474.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>984</td>
<td>Hayasala Belála ráya.</td>
<td>Rája Belála Ráya, reigned 18 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1233</td>
<td>Vira Narasinha deva.</td>
<td>Imadi B.R. 17 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1268</td>
<td>Vira Narasinha, taken by the Mahomedans, and his capital destroyed in 1310-11.</td>
<td>China Buca B. R. 8 yrs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table XLIII. Adeva Rájas of Tuluva, Andhra, or Telingána. Capital Woragalla or Warancal.

19 Adeva Rájas reigned 370 years, (211 years?) supposed to be the 18 princes of Andhra descent, prior to Pratápa Rudra.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vira Naráyana A. R. 23 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wobala A. R. 21 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Siruvayanagada A. R. 22 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pirungei Endia A. R. 15 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canda Gopála A. R. 32 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Narasinha A. R. 13 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cambuli A. R. 15 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bacan A. R. 22 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vira Narasinha A. R. 12 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Narasinha A. R. 8 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duix A. R. 12 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sri Pandia A. R. 9 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vasu deva A. R. 12 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Siric Virindi A. R. 15 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cutia deva, A. R. 14 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rája visia Bujinga, 12 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Salica Néráyana A. R. 10 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pritivadi Bacukera Sadicun, 87 yrs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1167 Uricandi Pratápa Rudra, 58 or 54, ended 1221.
Anna Femma, 77 yrs. supposed subsequent to Mah. subjection.
The Mlechhas (Muhammedans) followed, and Pratāpa Rudra; whose officers, Hucca and Bucha, raised the Vijayanagar dynasty; the list of which in Buchanan, iii. 476, differs essentially from that given by inscriptions.

**Table XLIII. Rājas of Chola, (Chola-mandeloor, Coromandel ;)**

Including the country now called the Carnatic below the Ghāts, hord. Tanjore. Capitals (in Plutemy's time), Arcot; then Warūr, near Trichinopoly; next, Kumbhahona, and lastly, Tanjore. Wilson's Mackenzie MSS.

A. D.

700-1000 ? Kulottunga—others say 3000 B. C. or 500 A. D., or 1200 A. D.; Deva Chola. [built temple at Tangapur, or Tanjore.

Sasisekhara.

Siva linga.

918 ? Vira chola.

1100 ? Kerī kala, persecutor of Rāmānuja.

Bhina.

886 ? Rājarājendra, subdued various countries.

Vira mārtanda.

Kirtiivardhana.

Vijaya.

Kanaka.

Sundara, killed a Brahman.

Kalakala.

Kalyāna.

Bhadra.

1407 ? Pattira Chola? last according to some accounts.

Kulottunga Chola—last according to others, married his daughter to 48th Pandyan prince, who succeeded An illegitimate son (Nanda ?) founded the Tonda Mandalam (Conjeevaram)—also annexed to Pandya kingdom.

**Table XLIV. Rājas of Chera or Konga, (comprehending Salem and Coimbetore.)**

The Kongadesa Rāja kal enumerates 26 princes. Mackenzie's MSS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rāja</th>
<th>Mackenzie's MSS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vira rāya</td>
<td>Durvaniti.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govinda rāya</td>
<td>Pushkara.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krishna rāya</td>
<td>Trivikrama.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalīvalabha</td>
<td>Bhūvikrama.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govinda, II</td>
<td>Kongani Mahādhirāja.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaturbhūja</td>
<td>Govinda, III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumāra deva</td>
<td>Sivaga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trivikrama deva.</td>
<td>Prithivī Kongani Mahādhirāya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kongani vērmā</td>
<td>Rāja deva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhava vērmā</td>
<td>Malla deva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hari vārmā</td>
<td>Ganda deva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vishnugopa</td>
<td>Satyārākya deva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krishna vārmā</td>
<td>A. D. 894 Gauttama deva, subded by the Dindikara.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chola Rāja, from whose descendants it passed to the Belāl rājas of Maisur, and thence to the Vijayanagar dominion.

**Table XLV. Pandyan Dynasty of Mādura.**

Tradition ascribes 74 princes, of whom 39 names are extant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pandyan Vamsapātikā.</th>
<th>A. D. 894 Gauttama deva, subded by the Dindikara.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anantaguna.</td>
<td>Padasekhara.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kālabhūshana.</td>
<td>Varaguna, united Chola and Tonda to Mādura.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rājendra Pandyā.</td>
<td>Rājendra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rājēswara.</td>
<td>Suguna.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambhirā.</td>
<td>Chitraratha.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vansapradipaka.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puruhutajit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rájas of Múdura continued—Vijayanagar.

Chitrabhushana.
Chitra dhvaja.
Chitra verma.
Chitráséna.
Chitravikrama.
Udana.
Rája Churámani.
Rája Sárdula.
Kulottunga.
Yodhana pravíra.
Rája Kunjara.
Rája Biyayankara.
Ugrasena.

Mahásena,
Satrunjaya.
Bhimaratha.
Bhimaparakrama,
Pratápa Mártanda.
Vikrama Kunjaka.
Yuddha Koláhala.
Atula Vikrama.
Atula Kirtti.
Kiritivibúshana.
Vamsasékhalára, founded the
Madura college.
Vamsachrámani.

Náyak Dynasty—founded by Nágama náyak, an officer of Krishna ráya of Vijay-
nagar. 14 princes.

1530 Viswanáth.
Visnúpála.
Virápa.
Visvápa.
Kumára Visnúpála.
Kasturí Ranjapa.
Mutu Visnúpála.
Virápa; died 1623.
1623 Térumala, or Trimal, 1663.
1663 Mutu virápa.
Chokanáth; died 1687.
1687 Krishna mutu Virápa.
1695 Vijaya ranga, under regency of Mangamál.
1731 Vijaya Kumára, do. of Mináxi ráni. Fort seized by Muhammedans, and
Madura became tributary to Nuwáb of Carnatic, and afterwards to the British.

Table XLVI. Rájas of Vijayanagar.

From history, inscriptions, and family genealogy, see As. Res. vol. xx. The
latter authority, in the usual manner, deduces a direct line from Pandu, of the
lunar dynasty, imperfectly following the Pauranic lists to Chandrábjja, the
last of the Mágadha rájas; to whom succeeds,
Marru.
Nanda.
Bhutanándi.
Nandí, who has two sons, Seshunándi, and
Yeshanándi, whose 14 sons, ruling over Bylemdes, are dispersed by two
invaders, Amitra and Durmitra; and seven fled to Andhradesha, or
A. D.

1034 Nanda, maharájá, erected a kingdom, and founded Nandapur and
Warangol.
1076 Chalik raja.
1118 [Vijaya Raja] ; founded Vijayanagar.
1158 Vimala rao.
1182 Narasíndha deva.
1249 Ráma deva.
1274 Bhúpa raya, died without issue.
1334 Bukka, son of a neighbouring raja, raised to the throne of the Dekhan
by Vidyaranya, his gárú.
1367 Hatîbha rao.
1381 Deva rao.
1414 Vijaya rao.
1424 Pandéva deva rao, deposed by Sri Ranga raja of Kaliandrág.
1450 Ríma chandra rao, son of Sri Ranga.
Table XLVII. Rajas of Maisur, (Maheswar or Mysore.)

Their genealogy is traced from the Yadu line of Chandravansa. Mck, MSS.

A. D.

1530 Timmaraja Vadiyar, son of Betta.
Hiriya Chamarausa Vadiyar, his son.
Bettatha Chamarausa Vadiyar, do, who had three sons,
1 Timmaraja Vadiyar.
2 Krishnaraja Vadiyar.
3 Bola Chamarausa Vadiyar; had two wives, Viryamma and Demayamma.
1600? Raja Vadiyar, son of the former, took Seriingapatam, 1610.
Bettada Chamarausa Vadiyar.
Devappa raja Vadiyar, son of Demayamma.
Chama raja Vadiyar, son of Raja Vadiyar.
Narasra raja Vadiyar, son of first wife of Raja Vadiyar.
Chamaraja Vadiyar, his son.
Imadi Raja Vadiyar, son of Raja Vadiyar's second wife.
1638 Kanthirao Narsa raja Vadiyar, son of Bettada, acquired great power.

Table XLVIII. Paligar Dynasty of Trichanapali.

Terumala Raya, of Achita tribe, in Tennivelly, founded dynasty. Panchâkhya.
Tondakâ.
Navana Choládhipa.
Terumala Nripálachandra.
Navasauri.
Pachanara pála.
Námana.
Pachamahisu.
Kinkinipati.
Tondaka Nripati.
Tirumala Bhúpa.
Padmaapta.
Raghunátha, an officer of Vijaya Rághava, of Tanjore.
Terumala ráya.
Sri Vijaya Raghunáth, conquered Chonda Kán.

TABLE XLIX. Valuguti Rájas of Venkatagiri, or Káli málé.
From the Mackenzie MSS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>König</th>
<th>tables</th>
<th>Dates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Damanáidu; aided in giving</td>
<td>Padakonda naidu.</td>
<td>1600 Yacham naidu, conquered as far as the Médura province.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanamáidu. Pratápá itüdra the</td>
<td>Padakonda naidu II.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yaradaxanaidu. throne of Wargol.</td>
<td>Chennapá naidu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinha manaidu.</td>
<td>Venkatádri naidu; whence name of place.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madan.</td>
<td>Ráyápá.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vedagiri naidu.</td>
<td>Pennakóndapá naidu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumar madan.</td>
<td>Yachama.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinham naidu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pada sinham.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chenna sinham.</td>
<td>A.D. 1696, by Sulphurkhán.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anupota; extended sway to Krishna river.</td>
<td>Bengar yachem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarva sinh.</td>
<td>Kumár yachem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dharmanáidu.</td>
<td>Bengal yachem; murdered A. D. 1696, by Sulphurkhán.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timmanaidu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiti daxa.</td>
<td>Kumár yachem; died 1747.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anupota.</td>
<td>Bengar yachem, and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madan.</td>
<td>Padayachem, 1776.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sura.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yachamanáidu; founded Valuguti branch. 1804</td>
<td>Kumar yachem, adopted.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chenna Sinh, under Vijayanagar.</td>
<td>Bengar yachem; ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nirván ray appa.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE L. Indian Dynasties, according to Ferishta, stated to be taken from Persian and Sanscrit authorities.

[This list is useful for comparison with those already inserted.]

Mahárajá; descended from Krishna; reigned in Oudh.

Line of Mahárájas reigned for 700 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. C.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1429</td>
<td>Feredon; first invasion of Índia, Málchand reigned in Kesvarája; invaded Ceylon with aid of Persia. [Málwa. Manérráya, built Manérr. ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1209</td>
<td>Feroz-ra, conquered Panjáb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1072</td>
<td>Surnja dynasty at Kanouj, where worship of sun introduced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>786</td>
<td>Keidar; tributary to Persia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>731</td>
<td>(died) Kachawa Rajputs of Amber established.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>586</td>
<td>Maharáj,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>540</td>
<td>Keda raja, Rustam slain—Rohatray built Rotas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>497</td>
<td>Jaya chand, his minister—a famine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>437</td>
<td>Dehlu, built Delhi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>397</td>
<td>Porus, of Kemaon, usurped throne of Kanouj.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350</td>
<td>Porus II. ; resisted Alexander’s invasion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>330</td>
<td>Sinsar-chand (Sandracottus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>260</td>
<td>Jona, and his line, reigned tranquilly 90 years.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Names of Hindu princes in Ferishta. 125

170 Kalian chand, a tyrant; kingdom of Kanouj dismembered.
56 Vikramajit, (died) reigned in Māvlā and Gujurāt; era establish-
ed; anarchy and confusion succeeded.

A. D. 483? Rāja Boga, (Bhoja,) of the Thār tribe.
A. D. 330 Basdeo, (Vasudeva), revived Kanouj dynasty*; cot. of Bahramgor, who married his daughter.

410 Rámdeo, of Rhatore race, fixed in Mārvār; tributary to Feroz Sassa. Civil wars, took Kanouj and Bengal, married daughter of Si-
vay of Vījayanagar.

500 Pratab Chand his general, of Sesodia tribe, refused tribute to No-
— Anand deva; reigned in Mātlā, built Manuló and Ramgir. [shirvan.
550? Maldeo; assumed throne of Delhi, and Kanouj empire divided.
— Hispāl, father of
977 Jaipāl, Rāja of Lāhore, invaded by Sabektgin and by Mahmūd.
— Anandpāl succeeds, defeated by Mahmūd.
1009 Bachera (Vijaya ray) of Bhattis, invaded by Mahmūd, A. H. 393.
1012 Prithirājpāl (Jaipāl II) of Delhi and Lahore, fled to Ajmīr.
1016 Korra, (Kunwer ray—Kumārapál) king of Kanouj, surrendered to
Mahmūd, in whose time the country was divided into principali-
Hardpāl, rāja of Merat. [ties.
Chándpāl or Calchandra, rāja of Mathura.
Jundray?—Nanda ray of Kalinjar.

1022 Jaswverna ? rāja of Ajmīr.
1024 Byramdeo, (Brahma deva) of Gujerāt deposed; and Sūmnāth temp.
1026 Dabulisima (Saila deva) enthroned in his stead. [ple plundered.
1035 Daipal, governor of Sanpāt, 40 miles from Delhi on road to La-
hore; in Sewālik, Rām ray, another chief.
1043 ——, king of Delhi, with other rajas, retake Hassi, Tanesvar, &c.
from Moodoo Ghiznavī.

1118 Balin, of Lāhore; built Nāgore in Sewālik; upset by Bairam Shah.
1192 Pitter Rai of Ajmīr,
Candi (Chāwand) Ra of Delhi, } defeated Muhammed Ghorī.
1193 Hindu confederacy of 150 rājas defeated by do.
Jay Chand, of Kanouj, defeated
Hemraj, of Ajmīr, expelled Pithiray’s son.
Bhimdeva, of Gujerāt; Goorkhas noticed, under Muhammed.

1215 Sahir deva of Narvar (Patan) defeated by Mahmud II.
— Uday-sa, tributary rāja of Jālwār.
1231 Rāja Dewbal, of Gualiār, reduced.
1246 Dillekī and Millekī rājas, of Kalinjar.
1253 Diepal, rāja of Sitnur; raised rebellion in Sind.
1291 Rāja of Rintinpur besieged by Feroz.
1294 Rāmddeo, rāja of Deogir, (Doulatābād.)
— Shankaldeo, his son, married Dewal devi, daughter of
Ray Karan, of Nehrwala, Gujerāt; his wife, Kamlā devi.
Bhima deo, rāja of Rintinhore.
1299 Hambar deo, (Hamira,) his son besieged by Alla.
1304 Koka, rāja of Māvlā, overcome by Ein ul mulk.
1308 Nehr Deo, of Jālwār, surrendered to do.
Ray Ratan Sēn, of Chitor, escaped from Alla’s camp.
— his nephew confirmed in that principality.
Sital deo, rāja of Sewana.
1309 Ladder deo, rāja of Warangol, made tributary.
Bilal deo, of Karnātā, resists Toghluk 1338, founds Vījayanagar.
1318 Harpāl deo, son-in-law of Rām deo, flayed.
1340 Nag nak, Koly chief of Konduhāna.—Prem ray, of Gujerāt.
1347 Man deo, rāja of Buglana.—Krishna ray of Vījayanagar.
1389 Ray Sarvar, rayrayan, of Behar.—Vinaek ray of Telingana.
1391 Narsinh Bhān of Gualiör, Rahtore chief.—Narsinh of Kehrla.

* Wilford names this king Sadāpāla, or Sadasvāpāla. As. Res. ix. 211.
Ferishta—Marhatta Governments.

1402 Brahma deo, son of ditto, repelled Timur at Gwalior.
1405 Ray Davood, and Hubbo of Toolumba.
1446 Pertab Sinh of Patilasa and Kampilal. 1452 Narasinh, his son.
1452 Prithivy ray and Karan ray.—Bhim ray of Condlapilly.
1471 Amber ray and Mangal ray of Orissa, 1470.
1478 ———— Gwalior raja resisted Lodhi.
1518 Sangat Sinh, expelled from Etawa.—Siva ray of Vijyanagar.
1540 Man Sinh, of Gwalior, receives dress of honor.
1518 Vicramajit, his son, killed by Baber, 1526, and Gwalior reduced after 100 years independence.
1490 Saha deo, rajah of Katra.
1493 Balbhadra ray, of Kootumb, near Chunar. Narasinh ray, his son. Salivâhana, rajah of Pannâ.
1501 Vinaik deo, of Dholpoor.
1523 Man Sinh, rajah of Gwalior.
1533 Rana Sanka, of Chitor, (Sangrama Sinh)—finally reduced by Akber, Rawel deo of Bagur. Mediy rajah of Chandery. [1570.
Manik chond and others killed.
1540 Maldeo, of Nagore and Ajmir, most powerful rajah.
1542 Harkishna ray, of Rotas—killed by Sher Shâh.
1554 Ramchandra, rajah of Pannâ and Kalinjar.
1556 Hemoo usurps the throne of Delhi—battle of Pânipat.
1558 Ram-Sa, a descendant of Mân Sinh.
1572 Jugmool and Devi Dâs, rajahs of Mâr-vâr, yield to Akber.
1567 Ujayta Sinha, of Udipur—Surjan ray of Rintinbhole.
1570 Chandra Sén, son of Maldeo of Ajmir.
1572 Rây Sinh, appointed to Jodhpur by Akber.
1586 —— his daughter married to Selim Mirza.

TABLE II. Mârhatta Governments*

1. Family of Sivaji, rajahs of Sattara.

1644 Shahji, a Subahdâr of the Carnatic under Aurangzâb, bestows jâgres on his sons—Tanjore on Ekoji—dies 1664.
1647 Sivâ'ji, his son, commences predatory expeditions.
1664 ———, plunders Surât, and assumes title of rajah.
1669 ———, establishes a military government—dies 1680, April.
1650 Râja Ram, set up by minister—imprisoned at Raigarh.
1657 Sambhajî, assumed the sovereignty—executed at Talapur, August 1689.
1698 Santa, usurped power—murdered 1698.
1689 Râja Ram, again proclaimed at Sattara, died 1700.
1707 Târâ Bai, his wife, assumed regency—incursions into Behâr.
1707 Sivâ'ji II. son of Sambha, nicknamed Shaow-jî, released on Aurangzeb's death, and crowned at Sattara, March 1708—goes mad.
1749 Râm Râya, nominal successor—power resting with minister or Peshwa.
1818 Pertâb Sîvâ, or Sinh, re-instated at Sattara by British, April 11.


1740 Bâ'la'ji Bâji Rao, succeeds his father—dies after battle of Pânipat.
1756 Mâdhujî Rao Belâl, 2nd son, invested as nominal Peshwâ, uncle Raghu-náth, regent. Nâna Farnavis, his kârkun—dies Nov. 1771.
1772 Narâyan Rao, youngest son of Bâlajî, murdered.

1774 Mâdhurao Narâyan, posthumous son of Narâyan, (Nâna F. in power,) committed suicide 1795.
1796 Bâji Rao, proclaims himself; is taken by Sindia.

1818 ———, surrenders to and pensioned by the English, 3rd June.

* The origin of Sivaji is traced in the chronicles of Mewâr to Ajaya Sinh rana of Chitor, 1300, (T. I. 269,) thus: Ajayasi, Sujunsi, Dulleepji, Seoji, Bhoraji, Deoraj, Oogursen, Maholji, Khailooji, Junkoji, Suttooji, Sambaji, Sivaji, Sambaji, Ramraja, usurpation of the Peshwâs.

1734 Ragbhûji Bhûnsla, nominated “Sêna Sâhib Subâ” or general in Mârhatta confederacy.
1750 ——-, received sunud of Berâr from Pêshwâ, dies 1753.
1753 Januji, eldest son, adopted his nephew
1772 Ragbhûji, eldest son of Madhojî, removed by Madhorao in favor of Sabaji (his uncle), killed in action soon after by Mudaji.
1816 Parsaji, succeeded his father Ragbhûji: an idiot—strangled by Mâdaji (Appa Sàhib), acknowledged by English—deposed 1817-18.
1818 May, Goozur, grandson of Ragbhûji, seated on musnud by do.

4. The Sindia family, from a village near Satara, now Gwalior Râjas.

1724 Ranuji Sindia, an officer in the Pêshwâ’s army.
1750 Jyapa, succeeded to his father’s jagir of half of Málwâ, murdered 1759.
1769 Mahádajî, 3rd, illegitimate, confirmed in jagir by Madhorao, died 1794.
1794 Doulut Rao, his grand-nephew, adopted: fixed his camp at Gwalior, 1817.
1825 Baiza Bâi, his widow, adopted Jankuji, and acted as regent.
1833 Jankuji, assumed the reins of government.

5. The Holkar Family.

1724 Mulhâr Rao Holkar, a Sudra, an officer of note in the Pêshwâ’s army.
1750 ———, obtained jagir in Málwâ, died 1767.
1767 Mâlî Rao, grandson, succeeded under regency of Ahilya Bâi, his mother, but died soon after.
1797 Jswant Rao Holkar, illegitimate son—maintained predatory rule.
1805 ———, confirmed in jagir of Indore, &c.—died insane.
1811 Tulsi Bâi, widow, adopted his illegitimate child
1818 Mulhâr Rao Holkar; battle of Mehâdpur, December 1818.
1834 Martand Rao, adopted son, dispossessed by
1835 Hari Holkar, present chief.

6. Gaikwar family—now reigning at Baroda, Gujerât.

1720 Dammaji Gaikwar (Shamsher Behâdur), officer under Khandi Rao Holkar.
1731 Pilaji Gaikwar, nominated Sêna Khas Khêl—murdered.
1732 Dammaji, son, occupied east of Gujerât, died 1768.
1768 Govind Rao, 2nd son, succeeded; but eldest, Syaji, an idiot, supported by
1771 Fatih Sinh, youngest, who held real power at Baroda.
1790 Manaji Rao, assumed charge of Syaji, as regent—died 1793.
1793 Govind Rao, made regent 19th December, died September 1800.
1800 Ananda Rao, eldest son—disputes with Mulhâr and Kanhaiji.
1805 ———, Treaty with British government.

Fatih Sinh.

Table LIII. Si’kh Government of Lâhore.

A. D.
1419 Nâ’nak, founder of the Sikh sect, born.
—— Guru Angad, wrote some of the sacred books.
1552 Amera dás, Khetri.
1574 Râm dás, beautified Amritsir.
1581 Arjun Mal, compiled the A’di Granth.
1606 Har Govind, first warlike leader.
1644 Har Ray, his grandson.
1661 Har Krishna, died at Delhi.
1664 Tegh Behâdur, put to death by Moslems.
1675 Guru Govind, remodelled the Sikh government.
1708 Bandu, last of the succession of Gurus—put to death by Aurangzeb.
—— Predatory bands—internal feuds.
12 misals or tribes of Sikhs captured Lâhore and occupied Panjâb.
Charat Sinh, of Sukelpaka misal, died 1774.
1774 Mahâ Sinh, his son, extended his rule—died 1792.
1792 ———, his wife, regent, with Lâkhpatt Sinh minister.
1805 Ranjî’t Sinh, (born 1780,) established Lahore independency.
Buddhist Chronology—Chinese.

BUDDHIST GENEALOGIES.

Table LIII. Chinese and Japanese Chronology.—From M. Klaproth’s translation, Paris, 1833.

[Tho Japanese names are distinguished by the letter J.]

Genealogy of Sa’kyà, according to the Buddha works of the Chinese.

B. C.
1027 Si tho to, nan tho, Chykia, (Sa’kya muni,) born.
999 Sākya becomes eminent in 5th year of Ajatasvāra of Magadha.
949 Sākya or Buddha (Fo); attains nirvāṇa, (dies.)
863 Anan (Ananda), second patriarch, dies.
833 A yu wang (J. A ik ḍ) (Sans. Asoka), dies.
806 Changna ho sieou, 3rd patriarch, dies.
741 Yeou po kiu to (J. Ou fa kik ta), 4th patriarch, dies.
692 Thi to kia (J. Dei ta kaj), 5th ditto, dies at Mathurā.
687 Weng chu, disciple of Sāriputra.
660 Commencement of Japanese monarchy.
637 Mi chu kia (J. Mi sia ka), 6th patriarch of Magadha, dies.
604 Lao tan (J. Rō tan), founder of Tao tsu sect in China, dies.
590 Pho siu mi (J. Fā siu mi), 7th patriarch, dies in N. India.
551 Confucius, born in the kingdom of Lore.
550 500 arhans of Kashmir (ka sits mi ro) preach the law.
535 Foe tho nan ti (J. Bouzd da nan dei), 8th patriarch (Sans. Boudhānandi) of Canara, dies.
487 Fou tho mi to (Sans. Boudhāmita), 9th ditto, dies.
442 Hie, 10th patriarch of Central India, dies.
383 Fo na ye che, 11th ditto of Patibothra, dies.
327 Ma ming ta szu, 12th ditto (Sans. Avevagocha) of Benares, dies.
264 Kia pi mo lo, 13th ditto of West India, dies.

Commencement of the Tsin Dynasty of China.
212 Loung chou, 14th ditto of Central India, dies.
161 Kia na chi pho, 15th ditto of W. India.
130 Ko li nan tho, makes an image of Mi le in India.
113 Lo boel lo to, 16th patriarch of Kepila, dies.
74 Sang kia nan thi, 17th do., born at Chi lo fa, dies.
13 Kia ye che to, of Ma ti, 18th ditto, dies.
2 King lian fetches Buddhist scriptures from the kingdom of Yue ti.

A. D. 22* Kieu mo lo to, of Feryhâna, 19th patriarch, dies.
24 to 57 Hindus carry Buddhist religion into Java.
65 Buddhism introduced at the court of Ming ti, Emp. of China.
74 Tu ye to, 20th patriarch of India, dies.
117 Pho sieou phan theou, 21st ditto, dies.
165 Mo nou lo, of Nati, 22nd ditto, dies.
209 Ho le na, of Ferghâna, 23rd ditto, dies.
259 Su tsu pi khieu, of Magadha, 24th ditto, dies.

266 to 313 The Prajñā pāramita translated into Chinese.
300 Won lo tchuh, of Khotan, translates the Fang kouang king.
325 Pho che szu to, of Ki pin or Câbul, 25th patriarch, dies.
372 Introduction of Buddhism into Kaoli (Corea.)
382 Kieon mo lo chy, settles in China and translates Mahā Prajñā.
384 Introduction of Buddhism into Pe tsi (in Corea).
388 Pou jou my to, 26th patriarch of India, dies.
399 Chy fa hian visits India to study.

* The Chinese MS. of the Bibliothèque du Roi ends here.—M. Klaproth derives the continuation from other Chinese and Japanese authors.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>607</td>
<td>Introduction of Buddhism into Tibet, under <em>Hlato tori.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>611</td>
<td>Chy fa hian returns to <em>Chang nyan.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 629  | Death of Foe fou pha tho lo, of *Kapila vāstu,* who translated the *How-
|      | yan king* in China.                                                   |
| 645  | Pan jo to lo (Pranjā dhara) of S. E. India, 27th patriarch, dies.      |
| 649  | Pou thi ta ma (*Bodhi dharmas*), 28th patriarch of N. India, settles in
|      | China, as 1st patriarch of that country, dies in 508.                 |
| 661  | Sang kia pho lo, of *Fou nan,* made chief of Chinese Buddhist temples,  |
|      | by the Emperor *Suun ven ti;* dies in 525.                           |
| 676  | Introduction of Buddhism into *Sin lo* or *Siara* (in Corea).         |
| 679  | Ditto into Japan.                                                     |
| 696  | Death of Hoel kho ta szu, 2nd patriarch of China.                     |
| 706  | Seng lin ta szu, 3rd ditto, dies.                                     |
| 729  | Yuan honang, samanean of the *Chhin* family, travels in India, and tran-
|      | slates many books.                                                   |
| 732  | General introduction of Buddhism into Tibet, under *Srong dbzan gampo.*|
| 735  | Death of Tao tin ta szu, 4th patriarch of China.                      |
| 735  | Death of Houng jin ta szu, 5th patriarch of China.                    |
| 760  | Tipho ho lo, priest of *Magadha,* visits China and translates books.  |
| 769  | Chy chha nan tho, of *Cabul,* ditto, dies in 710.                     |
| 773  | Hoel neng ta szu, last patriarch of China, dies.                      |
| 781  | Rou koung, a brahman *sramana* visits China and translates the ques-
|      | tions of *Manju Sri,* (*Kin kung ting king*.)                        |
| 784  | (about) Phan jo, priest of *Cabul,* settles in China, and translates  |
|      | the *Houa yan king.*                                                  |
| 785  | Phan jo, made *Fa pao ta szu,* grand master of the treasure of religion.|

**Table LIV. Buddhist Chronology of Tibet.**

*From the Vaidārya Karpö, written at Hlassa in the year A. D. 1686. Trans-
*lated in Csoma’s Tibetan Grammar, p. 181.

**B. C.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>962</td>
<td>Birth of <em>Shakya</em> (<em>Chomdándás</em>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>982</td>
<td>The <em>Kāla Chakra</em> system taught by him; his death.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>981</td>
<td>The <em>Mula Tantra</em> compiled at <em>Shambhala.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>979</td>
<td>Death of Zha bzang, king and author of ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>978</td>
<td>Padma Sambhava born.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>938</td>
<td>Manju Ghosha born in China.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>432</td>
<td>Nāgarjuna born.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>278</td>
<td>Rigs-dan-grags-pa, ascended the throne of <em>Shambhala.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A. D.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>252</td>
<td>Nyang-tsang, king of Tibet, <em>(Thothori)</em> died 371.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>618</td>
<td>Doctrine of “endeavouring perfection” upheld.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 622  | Nam-gyal, king of Shambhala; epoch of 403 years, called *Mekha gya-
|      | tso,* commenced.                                                      |
| 627  | Srong-tsan gam-bo born.                                              |
| 639  | Kong-cho, a Chinese princess, arrived in Tibet.                       |
| 651  | Phrul-snang college, or *Vihar,* built at *Lhassa.*                  |
| 728  | Khri srong, king of Tibet.                                           |
| 747  | Padma Sambhava arrived in Tibet; returned to India, 802.              |
| 804  | A new astronomical period commenced.                                  |
| 861  | Langtarma born; abolished Buddhism, 899.                              |
| 965  | *Kala Chakra* system introduced into India.                           |
| 971  | Restoration of Buddhism.                                             |
| 980  | Atisha born.                                                          |
| 1002 | Brom-ton, the teacher, born.                                         |
| 1015 | Son-nag thang monastery founded.                                     |
| 1024 | Mekha gya-tsho era terminated.                                        |
| 1025 | *Kala Chakra,* or Jovian cycle, established in Tibet.                |
| 1038 | Milaraspa born.                                                      |
| 1052 | Lang rithang pa born.                                                |
| 1055 | Ragreng college founded.                                             |
| 1057 | Lo-dang shesrab, the translator.                                     |
| 1071 | Monasteries of *Sangphu* and *Sakya* founded.                         |
| 1077 | Tagpo-lha-je born.                                                   |
Buddhist Chronology of Tibet.

1079 Grathang monastery founded.
1082 Ras-chhung pa born.
1090 Kun-gah-nying-po, the great Sâskyâ Lama, born; died 1156.
1108 Phag-mo-grub-pa born.
1118 Period of "deep meditation" commenced.
1121 Yubrag pa born.
1125 Sha'kya Sri born.
1131 Nyang, the prince, born.
1140 Kun-gah-nying-po, the great Siskya Lama, born; died 1156.
1156 The Thel monastery founded.
1173 The Tshal monastery founded.
1177 The Bri-gung monastery founded.
1178 The Stag-lung ditto.
1180 The great Sâkyâ pandit born.
1185 Gung-tang monastery founded.
1202 Shâkyâ Sri, of Cashmir, arrived in Tibet.
1210 Ter-ton Lama born.
1211 The Lang-tang monastery founded.
1215 The Lang-tang monastery founded.
1253 The Chhos-lung monastery founded.
1288 Bu-ton born.
1300 Ta-si-byang chhub-gyal tshan born.
1305 Incarnation of Tsong-khapa; died 1417.
1347 Theg-chhen chhos gyal born; became Tari (king) 1347.
1355 The Sera monastery founded.
1371 The Nalenda monastery was founded.
1417 The Pal-khor chaitya built.
1429 Lotsava chhos-kyong-zang-pa born.
1445 The Pod-kar hal lung, work on Lunations, &c. written.
1447 The Bras-yul monastery founded.
1461 Lo-gros succeeded at Galdan.
1462 The Gong-kar Vihar founded.
1467 The Ser-dog-chan ditto.
1470 The Byams-gling ditto.
1471 Logros-tan-pa succeeded at Gah-dan; died 1473.
1474 Incarnation of Ge-dun gyatsho; died 1540.
1476 The Ta-nag thub stan-nam gyal monastery founded.
1478 Mon-lam-pal succeeded at Gah-dan.
1480 Tebar chhen born.
1507 The Chhos-khor monastery founded.
1510 Khas grub pal gi sengê born.
1514 Snod-nams gyatsho born; died 1586.
1557 ———— invited by Althun khân, a Mongol prince.
1560 ———— built the Chhos-khor-ling monastery.
1587 Yon-tan gyatsho born; died 1614.
1615 Nag-vang lo zang gyatsho born.
1618 Period of "morality" commences.
1625 Rigs-dan sengê, succeeds at Gah-dan.
1639 Stan dsin chhos gyal, king of Tibet.
1640 Nag yang lo zang conquered whole of Tibet.
1643 founded the Potala (residence).
1650 visited China.
1686 This Chronology compiled at Lhasa.

**Table LV. Kings of Tibet,**

To the subdivision of the country in the tenth century: from the Dep-ter non po, or ancient Records of Zhonnu Pa', in Tsang, or middle Tibet; extracted and translated by M. A. Csoma Körösi.

Nyab khri btsanpo—(about two hundred and fifty years B. C.)  
Khri btsanpo hod 'de]. These two names may design the same person,  
Mukhri btsanpo, according to different authorities.

Sodh. Khri btsanpo.  
So khri btsanpo.  
Mér khri btsanpo.  
Dags khri btsanpo.  
Sribs khri btsanpo.  
Grigum btsanpo.  
Spudé gung rgyel.  
Esho legs.  
Désho legs.  
Thiso legs.  
Guru legs.  
GrGong zhI legs.  
Isho legs.

Za nam za ldé.  
IDé 'hud-bal gzhung btsan.  
Sé rnon nam ldé.  
Sé rnonpo ldé.  
IDé rnon nam.  
IDé rnonlo.  
IDé rgyelpo.  
IDé SlrIN btsan.  
rgyel tori long btsan.

Khi btsan, or Khri dGah.  
IÉPungs btsan.  
Khri thöri rjes grogs btsan.  
Izha ThothorI gNyab btsan—(five hundred years after the first king,) A. D.  
407, see Chinese list.  
Khri gNyab gzugs btsan.  
IzGro gNyab ldem-bu.  
Stagri gNyab gzigs.  
IzNam ri srong btsan.  
Srong btsan sgampo—(born A. D. 627.  
Gung srong gung btsan—(died before his father.)  
Mang srong mang btsan—(son of Srong btsan, &c.)  
IzSusang mangpo rje.  
IzLung nam b Sigdzi ggyelpo.  
Khri ldé gtsug btau mês at's'hogs.  
Khri srong ldé btsan—(born A. D. 726.)  
Muné btsanpo.  
Khri ldé srong btsan (or Mutig btsanpo.)  
Ralpa chen.

Khri hum btsan dpal. (or kLangdar ma ?)—A. D. 900.  
IzNam ldé hod srungs—(in the 10th century; anarchy.)  
IzPal Akhor btsan—(division of Tibet into several small principalities.)  
IzKra shis brtségs dpal.  
Skyid ldé Nyima mgon.  
IzPalgyi mgon—(occupied Maryul or Ladags.  
IzKrashis ldé mgon—(took possession of Ssprangs.)  
IzDé gtsug mgon—(ditto of
Then follow the names of some kings or princes who reigned in Gugé and Spurangs (or in general, in Nāri), above Garhwal and Kamaon, commencing with the 10th century. At Lé in Ladage may be found the names of the kings that successively reigned in that principality; but I could not procure them. There is great confusion in the series of the princes that reigned in Nāri, and their enumeration would be of little interest. There are in Tibet several works containing lists of the descendants of Nya khri tšanpo, the first king, whom they derive from the Litenbyl race, in India; but in different authors, the orthography sometimes varies, and even the whole name is differently stated. This, which I now communicate, has been taken from the Dep-ter hon-po, "Ancient records," written by Zhiönnu päl, a learned religious person, who lived some centuries ago, and belonged to the Sa-skya religious sect, in gTsang, in middle Tibet.—A. C.

**Table LVI. Burmese Chronological Table, translated in Crawford's Embassy.**

**B. C.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>691</td>
<td>The grand epoch established by An-ja-na, the grand father of Gautama.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>628</td>
<td>Gautama born.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>608</td>
<td>Gautama began to reign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>589</td>
<td>Gautama obtained deification (became a Buddha).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>551</td>
<td>Ajatasat began to reign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>544</td>
<td>Gautama died and obtained nib-b'han (annihilation).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>543</td>
<td>The Sacred Epoch established by king Ajatasat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>520</td>
<td>His son, U-da-ya-bad-da, began to reign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>496</td>
<td>His son, Muny-da, and after him, his son, Na-ga-da-sa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>485</td>
<td>Maha Sam-b'ha-va.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>478</td>
<td>His younger brother, Chula Sam-b'ha-wa, began to reign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>472</td>
<td>Su-sa-na-ga, in Maj-jì-ma (Central India).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>453</td>
<td>His son Ka-la-san-ka, in Maj-jì-ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>443</td>
<td>Twat-ta-paong, the founder of Sa-re-k'het-ta-ra, (or Ras-se Myo, vulgarly called Promé.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>426</td>
<td>His son Bat-da-se-na, in Maj-jì-ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>404</td>
<td>118 Nan-da began to reign, and was followed by eight kings of the same name, in Maj-jì-ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>392</td>
<td>162 Chan-ta-kut-ta, in Maj-jì-ma. (Chandragupta.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>376</td>
<td>168 His son Bin-tu-sa-ra, in Maj-jì-ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>373</td>
<td>171 His son Twat-ta-ran, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>351</td>
<td>193 His son Ram-b'haong, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>330</td>
<td>214 His son D'ham-ma-sau-ka, in Maj-jì-ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>326</td>
<td>218 D'ham-ma-sau-ka received the sacred affusion (Ab'bi-se-sa).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>320</td>
<td>224 Prince Ma-hin-d'ha became a priest, (Rahan,) and his sister, Princess San-g'ha-mit-ta, a priestess, (Rahan.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>307</td>
<td>237 The period of the third rehearsal of the communications of Gautama. The priest Ma-hin-d'ha went on a religious mission to Si-ho (Ceylon).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>331</td>
<td>243 Ra-han-man, son of D'ham-ma-sau-ka, began to reign in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>289</td>
<td>255 Death of D'ham-ma-sau-ka, (literally &quot;his going to Heaven.&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>251</td>
<td>293 His son or grandson, Kak-k'han, began to reign in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>219</td>
<td>325 His son Khan-laong, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>182</td>
<td>362 His son Lak-k'hong, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>148</td>
<td>396 His son Si-k'han, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118</td>
<td>426 His son Si-ri-rak, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>436 Ta-pa-nang, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94</td>
<td>450 The communications of Gautama reduced to writing in Ceylon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>484 Ta-pa-man's son, Pi-ram, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>505 Ram-mak-k'ha, in Promé, and his son.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A. D.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>565 Ram-sin-ga, in Promé, and his son.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>568 His son Ram-mun-cha-lin-da, in Promé.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Burmese Chronology.

39 53 His brother Be-rin-da, in Prome.
54 598 His son Mun-ja, in Prome.
56 600 His son Pu-nyan-nya, in Prome.
59 603 His brother Sa-k’ha, in Prome.
62 606 Sa-k’hi, in Prome.
65 609 His younger brother, Kan-un, in Prome.
66 610 His elder brother, Kan-tak, in Prome.
69 613 His elder brother, Bin-ja, in Prome.
73 617 His son Su-mun-dri, in Prome.

P. E.
76 1 The Prome Epoch, established by king Su-mun-dri.
80 2 His son Ati-tra, in Prome.
83 5 His brother Su-panya-na-ga-ra-chin-na, in Prome.
94 16 Death of king Su-pacya-na-ga-ra-chin-na.

V. E.
639 1 The present vulgar Epoch, established by Pup-pa-chau-ra-han.
640 2 His son-in-law, Shwe-bun-si, succeeded.
652 14 His brother Pis-sun.
660 22 His son Pit-taung.
710 72 His brother Na-k’hwe.
716 78 Myang-ka-kywe.
726 88 Sing-ga.
734 96 Sing-k’hwan.
744 106 His son Shwe-laung.
753 115 His son Th’e-wan-twang.
762 124 His son Shwe-mauk.
766 128 His son Chan-k’hang-nach.
785 147 His brother Th’wan-lwat.
829 191 His son K’hai-la.
846 208 His brother Pyany-bya.
864 226 His son Tan-nak.
899 251 Sin-chwan, and his brother, Cha-le-nga-kwe.
914 276 His son Sing-g’ho.
930 292 Taung-su-kri, (the mountain chief.)
945 307 Kwan-chau-Kraung-pru.
966 328 His son Kraung-cho.
972 334 His brother Chuck-ka-té.
997 359 Kraung-p’haus’son Nau-ra-t’ha-chau.
1030 392 His son Chau-lu.
1056 418 Kyan-chach-sa.
1081 443 His grandson Alaun-chany-su.
1151 513 His son Ku-la-kyaw.
Burmesse Chronology.

1154 516 His son Mang-rai-na-ra-sung-ga.
1157 519 His brother Na-ra-pa-ti-chau-su.
1190 522 His son Je-ya-sing-ga, or Nan-taung-mya-mang.
1212 574 His son Kya-chwa.
1227 589 His son Uch-cha-na.

A. D. V. E.

1233 595 His brother Mang-k'hen-k'hye.
2771 639 His son Kyany-chwa.
1291 653 His son Chau-nach.
1300 662 Ta-chi-shang-si-ha-su, in Panya.
1313 675 His son Chau-mwan-nach, in Panya.
1322 684 His son Uch-cha-na. This year Asang-k'ha-ra-chau-rwan founded Chit-kaing, and began to reign.
1330 692 His elder brother, Ta-ra-byi-kri, in Chit-kaing Sagaing.
1342 704 His younger brother Na-chi-shang-kyany-chwa, in Chit-kaing.
1351 713 His son Kyany-chwa, in Chit-kaing.
1356 718 Chau-mwan-nach died, and Pugan was destroyed.
1362 723 Kyany-chwa's brother, Mau-pa-na-ra-su, in Chit-kaing.
1364 726 His elder brother Uch-cha-na-praung, in Chit-kaing. This year Sa-to-mang-bya founded Angwa (Ava), and began to reign; Chit-kaing and Panya were destroyed.
1377 739 His father-in-law, Many-kri-chwa, in Ava.
1401 763 His son Ta-ra-byi-kri, in Ava, succeeded the same year by Mang-kaung 1st.
1422 784 His son Chany-pru-shang-si-ha-su, in Ava.
1425 787 His son Many-l'ha-gray, in Ava; succeeded the same year by Ka-le-kye-ngo.
1426 788 Mo-n'hany-mang-ta-ra, in Ava.
1439 801 His son Mang-rai-kyany-chwa, in Ava.
1442 804 His brother Na-ra-pa-ti-kri, in Ava.
1468 830 His son Mang-k'haung 2nd, in Ava.
1501 863 His son Shwe-nan-kyany-shang, in Ava, (proper name, Na-ra-pa-ti.)
1526 888 Mo-n'hany-so-hau-pwa, in Ava.
1541 903 Un-b'haung-chau-b'ha, in Ava.
1546 908 His son Mo-by-na-ra-pa-ti, in Ava.
1551 913 Cha-kong-chany-su kyaoy-taung, or Na-ra-pa-ti gan, in Ava.
1554 916 Sa-to-mang-chau, in Ava.
1565 927 Prany-chun-mang-rai-kyany-chwa, in Ava.
1597 959 Nyaung-ram-man-kri, in Ava.
1605 967 His son Anauk-pak-lwan-mang-ta-ra-kri, in Ava.
1629 990 Sa-lwan, in Ava.
1648 1010 His son Na-dat-da-ya-ka, in Ava.
1661 1023 His brother Frung-mang, in Ava.
1672 1034 His son Na-ra-wara, in Ava; succeeded the same year Mang-rai-kyany-tang, grandson of Sa-lwan.
1698 1060 His son Man-aung-ra-da-nga-da-ya-ka, in Ava.
1714 1076 His son Chang-p'laru-shang, in Ava.
1733 1095 His son K'haung-tbit, carried captive to Han-sa-wati.
1752 1114 Alaung-b'ru-ru (Alompra) began to reign at Mut-cho-bo (Monchabo.)
1760 1122 His son U-pa-ra-ja, at Chit kaing.
1763 1125 His brother Chany-p'laru-shang (Sembuen), at Ava.
1775 1138 His son Chany-ku-cha, at Ava.
1781 1143 His cousin Paung-ka-cha, commonly called Maung-mang, son of U-pa-ra-ja, at Ava; succeeded the same year by his uncle Pa-dun-mang, or Man-ta-ra-kri, son of Alaung-b'ru-ru, and founder of A-ma-ra-pu-ra.
1819 1181 His present Majesty, grandson of Pa-dun-mang, ascended the throne at A-ma-ra-pura.
1822 1184 Ava re-built, and made the capital.
Table LVII. Chiefs of Labong and Zimmay.—(Northern Laos of Europeans; Yeun Shan of the Burmese.)

From the Native Records consulted by Dr. D. Richardson, 1834. MS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. D.</th>
<th>S. E. Bud.</th>
<th>575</th>
<th>1118</th>
<th>Wathoo daywa (Vâsudeva) and Taka danda, founded Labong.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>578</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>Placed Vamâ on the throne (or Zamma devî), daughter of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>king of Chandapur, widow of Cambodian raja.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35 Kings, or &quot;Lords of the White Elephant.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Aditza-woon-tha built the Pagoda.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19 kings to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V. E. Bénya men yea (in Burmese, Dolana.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1289</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>Bénya tso men yea, changed the capital; thrice married into Pegu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1294</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>founded Zimmay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1331</td>
<td>693</td>
<td>Nga then patchoon, his son.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1333</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>No tchoon ta yung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1334</td>
<td>696</td>
<td>Na tchoon tareung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1336</td>
<td>698</td>
<td>Ngathenpoo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1345</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>Tso kanprú.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1347</td>
<td>709</td>
<td>Tso boa you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1369</td>
<td>731</td>
<td>Goona.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1377</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>Gnathen numa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1380</td>
<td>742</td>
<td>Tso myne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1384</td>
<td>743</td>
<td>Zalapaba, his daughter, called there thà Dama mahadevî.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1358</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>Benya tsay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1359</td>
<td>921</td>
<td>Thadau dama yaza of Pegu regained it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1363</td>
<td>922</td>
<td>Nso oung recovered his independence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1368</td>
<td>923</td>
<td>Len bu e myasbee, king of Pegu, took the town.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1374</td>
<td>928</td>
<td>His son Narata tso.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1628</td>
<td>990</td>
<td>Ladong family restored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1630</td>
<td>992</td>
<td>Thadaw dama yaza of Pegu regained it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1763</td>
<td>1125</td>
<td>Nso oung recovered his independence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1774</td>
<td>1136</td>
<td>Benya sa Ban rebelled, threw off Burmese yoke, and joined Bankok allegiance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1778</td>
<td>1140</td>
<td>Chou chee weet, present king.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table LVIII. Sovereigns of Ceylon.

From the Ceylon Almanack, the Honorable George Turnour's Epitome.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. C.</th>
<th>Names.</th>
<th>Relationship of each succeeding sovereign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>543</td>
<td>Wejaya, (Vijaya)</td>
<td>The founder of the Wejayan dynasty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>505</td>
<td>Oopatissa 1st,</td>
<td>Minister—regent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>504</td>
<td>Panduwaasa,</td>
<td>Paternal nephew of Wejaya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>474</td>
<td>Abbaya,</td>
<td>Son of Panduwaasa—dethroned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>454</td>
<td>Interregnum.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>437</td>
<td>Pandukaabhaya,</td>
<td>Maternal grandson of Panduwaasa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>367</td>
<td>Mootaseewa,</td>
<td>Paternal grandson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>307</td>
<td>Devenipatissa,</td>
<td>Second son.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>267</td>
<td>Oottiya,</td>
<td>Fourth son of Mootaseewa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>257</td>
<td>Maha-seewa,</td>
<td>Fifth ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>247</td>
<td>Suratissa,</td>
<td>Sixth ditto—put to death.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>237</td>
<td>Sena and Goottiku,</td>
<td>Foreign usurpers—put to death.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>215</td>
<td>Asela,</td>
<td>Ninth son of Mootaseewa—deposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>205</td>
<td>Elaala,</td>
<td>Foreign usurper—killed in battle.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kings of Ceylon.

161 Dootoogaimoonoo, Son of Kaawantissa.
137 Saidaitissa, Brother.
119 Toohl or Thulliathanaka, Younger son—deposed.
119 Laiminitissa 1st, or Lajjetissa, Elder brother.
109 Kuloorun or Khalilaat Naaga, Brother—put to death.
104 Walagambahoo 1st, or Watta-gaamini, Brother—deposed.
103 Pulihattha, (usurpers.)
100 Baayiya, Son—put to death.
98 Panayamaarea, Son—deposed.
91 Peliymaareaa, Son—put to death.
90 Daathiya, Reconquered the kingdom.
88 Walagambahoo 1st.
76 Mahadailitissa or Mahachoola, Son.
62 Choora Naaga,
50 Kooda Tissa, Brother—put to death.
47 Anoos, Widow.
41 Makalantissa or Kallakanni Tessa, Son.
19 Baatiyatissa 2nd, or Bhaatikabhaya, Maternal cousin.
155 Choolia Tissa, or Kanittha Tissa, Son.
173 Koohoonia or Choodda Naaga, Son—murdered.
183 Koodanama or Kooda Naaga, Nephew—deposed.
184 Kooda Sirinaa, or Sin Naaga 1st, Son—poisoned by his wife.
125 Mahloumaana, or Mallaka Naaga, Widow.
110 Waknais, or Wanka Naasika, Son.
113 Gajaabahoo 1st, or Gaamini, Sister—put to death.
109 Laiminitissa 1st, or Lajjetissa, Elder brother.
108 Toohl or Thulliathanaka, Younger son—deposed.
101 Saidaitissa, Brother.

Reconquered the kingdom.
Son.
Son—put to death.
Son—poisoned by his wife.
Widow.
Second son of Koodatissa.
Son.
Son.
Son—put to death.
Descendant of Laiminitissa.
Son.
Son.
Maternal nephew of Addagaimoonoo.
Son.
Son—put to death.
Usurper—put to death.
Descendant of Laiminitissa.
Son.
Son.
Maternal nephew of Laiminitissa.
Son.
Son.
Son—put to death.
Descendant of Laiminitissa—poisoned.

Do. do.—deposed.

Do. do.

Son.
Brother.
Son.
Brother.
339 Rujas or Budha Daasa,........... Son.
368 Opatissa 2nd,.................. Son.
410 Maha Naama,................... Brother.
432 Senghot or Sotthe Sena,...... Son—poisoned.
432 Laimini Tissa 2nd, or Chata-
   gaahaka, ........................ Descendant of Laimini Tissa.
433 Mitta Sena, or Karalsora,.... Not specified—put to death.
434 Paandu, ........................
439 Paarinda Kooda,.................
455 Khudda Paarinda,..............
455 Daatthiya, ........................
458 Pittiya, ........................
459 Daasenkelleya, or Daattha-
   pa Bhodoi, ........................ Descendant of the original royal family—put to death.
477 Sigiri Kasoomboo, or Kaasypa
   1st, ................................
495 Moogallaana 1st,............... Son—committed suicide.
513 Koomaara Daas, or Koomaara
   Dhaat Sena, ........................
522 Kirti Sena, ........................
531 Maidi Siwoo, or Siwaka,...... Son—in-law.
531 Laimini Oopatissa 3rd,......
534 Ambaherra Salamaivan, or
   Silaakaala, ........................
547 Daapuloo 1st, or Daatthaapa
   Bhodoi, ...........................
547 Dalamagalan or Moogallaana
   2nd, ..............................
567 Kuda Kitsiri Maiwan 1st, or
   Kirtiari Meghawarna, ..............
586 Senewi or Maha Naaga, .......
589 Aggrabodhi 1st, or Akbo,..... Son—in-law.
623 Aggrabodhi 2nd, or Soola Akbo,
633 Sanghatissa, ........................
633 Boona Moogalan, or Laimini
   Bonayya, ...........................
639 Abbsegggaheka, or Asiggaga-
   heka, .............................. Maternal grandson.
648 Siri Sangabo 2nd, .............. Son—dosed.
648 Kaloona Detootissa, or Laimina
   Katooreya, ........................ Descendant of Laimini Tissa—committed suicide.
649 Siri Sangabo 2nd, .............. Restored, and again dosed.
665 Daloopeatissa 1st, or Dhattho-
   patissa, ...........................
677 Paisooloo Kasoombo, or Ka-
   sayya 2nd, ........................
686 Dapuloo 2nd, ........................
693 Daloopeatiss 2nd, or Hattha-
   Datthopatissa, ........................
702 Paisooloo Siri Sanga Bo 3rd, or
   Aggrabodhi, ........................
718 Walpitti Wasidata, or Danta-
   naama, ............................. Original royal family—decapitated.
720 Hoonnonara Riałalalor Hat-
   thadatha, ...........................
720 Mahalaipaanoo, or Maanawam-
   ma, .................................
726 Kaasiyappa 3rd, or Kasoombo,
729 Aggrabodhi 3rd, or Akbo, .... Son.
749 Aggrabodhi 4th, or Kuda Akbo,
755 Mihindoo 1st, or Salamaivan,
755 Dappoola 2nd, .................. Son.
Kings of Ceylon.

800 Mihindo 2nd, or Dharmika-See-lamaiga, ............... Son.
804 Aggrabodhi 5th, or Akbo, .......................... Brother.
815 Dappoola 3rd, or Kuda Dappoola, ......................... Son.
831 Aggrabodhi 6th, ........................................ Cousin.
838 Mitwella Sen, or Selaamaiga, ................................ Son.
858 Kansiyaappa 4th, or Maaganyin Senna, or Mihindo, .......... Grandson.
891 Udaya 1st, .................................................. Brother.
926 Udaya 2nd, .................................................. Son.
937 Kansiyaappa 5th, .............................................. Nephew and son-in-law.
954 Kansiyaappa 6th, ............................................. Son-in-law.
964 Dappoola 4th, .......................... Not specified.
964 Dappoola 5th, .......................... Not specified.
974 Udaya 3rd, .................................................. Brother.
997 Mihindo 3rd, .................................................. Not specified.
1013 Sena 4th, .................................................. Son—minor.
1023 Mihindo 4th, .................................................. Brother—carried captive to India during the Solean conquest.
1059 Interregnum, ............................................. Solean vice-royalty.
1071 Wejayabahoo 1st, or Sirisan-gabo 4th, ...................... Grandson of Mihindo 4th.
1126 Jayabahoo 1st, Wikramabahoo 1st, ......................... Brother.
1127 Gajabahoo 2nd, ........................................... A disputed succession.
1153 Prakramabahoo 1st, ........................................ Son of Maanaabarana.
1186 Wijayabahoo 2nd, ........................................... Nephew—murdered.
1187 Mihindo 5th, or Kitsen Kisdasen, .......................... Usurper—put to death.
1187 Kirthi Nissanga, .......................................... A prince of Kaalinga.
1196 Werabahoo, .................................................. Son—put to death.
1196 Wikramabahoo 2nd, .......................................... Brother of Kirthi Nissanga—put to death.
1196 Chondakanga, .................................................. Nephew—deposed.
1197 Leeuwati, .................................................... Widow of Prakramabahoo—deposed.
1200 Sacaasamallawa, ........................................... Okaaka branch—deposed.
1202 Kalyaanawati, ............................................... Sister of Kirthi Nissanga.
1208 Dharmasaooka, ............................................... Not specified—a minor.
1209 Nayaanga or Nikanga, ...................................... Minister—put to death.
1209 Leeuwati, .................................................... Restored, and again deposed.
1210 Lokaiswera 1st, .............................................. Usurper—deposed.
1211 Leeuwati, .................................................... Again restored and deposed a third time.
1211 Pandi Prakrama Bahoo 2nd, ................................. Usurper—deposed.
1214 Maagha, ...................................................... Foreign usurper.
1235 Wejayabahoo 3rd, (cap. Dam-badine,) ....................... Descendant of Sirisan-gabo 1st.
1266 Kalikaada Sahitya Sargwajnya, or Paandita Prakrama Bahoo 3rd, ........................ Son.
1301 Bosat Wejayabahoo 4th, .................................... Son.
1303 Bhuwaneka Bahoo 1st, ...................................... Brother.
1314 Prakrama Bahoo 3rd, ........................................ Son of Bosat Wejayabahoo.
1319 Bhuwaneka Bahoo 2nd, (at Hastisailapura,) Pandita Prakrama Bahoo 4th, Wanny Bhuwaneka Bahoo 3rd, Wejayabahoo 5th, .......................... Son of Bhuwenekabahoo.
1347 Bhuwaneka Bahoo 4th, (at Gampala,) ........................ Not specified.
1361 Prakrama Bahoo 5th, ..........................
In the native mode of recording the lengths of individual reigns, without referring to a fixed epoch, anachronisms are unavoidable: Mr. Turnour has judiciously applied the following fixed points to correct the foregoing table.

**B. C.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The landing of Vijaya, in the year of Buddha's death.</td>
<td>543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mission from Dharmásoka to establish Buddhism in Ceylon</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conquest of Ceylon by the Malabars.</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The founding of Abhayagiri by Wala gaurabhu.</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A. D.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The date of the Vaitúliya heresy, in Vaivahara's reign.</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The revival of ditto, in the reign of Golph Abhaa.</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death of Makasen, 4 years anachronism.</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Another revival of the Vaitúliya heresy, in Ambakaira's reign.</td>
<td>545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origin of the Vijra waadiya heresy, in Mitwella Sen's reign.</td>
<td>838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The accession of Prákrama Báhú, 6 years anachr.</td>
<td>1153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of Sahasa Mallawa, by Dambulla rock inscription, A. B. 1473.</td>
<td>1200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of Panditta Prákrama Báhú 3rd, error 7 years.</td>
<td>1266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditto of Bhuvanika Báhú 4th.</td>
<td>1347</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the remaining portion of the history of Ceylon, other materials have not been wanting for the adjustment of its Chronology.
Table LIX. Greek Dynasties in Asia, founded after the death of Alexander the Great, by his generals, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.C.</th>
<th>Alexander the Great; born 356: died 323.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>334</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **B.C.**
- **Seleucus I. Nicanor.**
- **Antiochus I. Soter.**
- **Antiochus II. Theos.**
- **Seleucus II. Callinicus.**
- **Seleucus III. Ceraunus.**
- **Antiochus III. Magnus.**
- **Achæus.**
- **Seleucus IV. Philopator.**
- **Antiochus V. Eupator.**
- **Demetrius I. Soter.**
- **Alexander I. Bala.**
- **Demetrius II. Nicator.**
- **Seleucus III. Ceraunus.**
- **Antiochus I. Soter.**
- **Seleucus V. Callinicus.**
- **Antiochus VI. Theos.**
- **Seleucus VI.**
- **Antiochus VII. Sidetes.**
- **Seleucus IV. Philopator.**
- **Antiochus VIII. Gryphus.**
- **Antiochus IX. Cyzicenicus.**
- **Seleucus V.**
- **Antiochus X. Eusebes.**
- **Seleucus VI.**
- **Antiochus XI.**
- **Seleucus VII.**
- **Antiochus XII.**
- **Seleucus VIII.**
- **Antiochus XIII.**

- **B.C.**
- **Alexander the Great; born 356: died 323.**

**Asia Minor.**

- **310** Seleucus I. Nicanor. **Syria.**
- **281** Antiochus I. Soter. **Syria.**
- **259** Antiochus II. Theos. **Syria.**
- **244** Seleucus II. Callinicus. **Syria.**
- **226** Seleucus III. Ceraunus. **Syria.**
- **222** Antiochus III. Magnus. **Syria.**
- **187** Seleucus IV. Philopator. **Syria.**
- **174** Antiochus IV. Epiphanes. **Syria.**
- **164** Antiochus V. Eupator. **Syria.**
- **162** Demetrius I. Soter. **Syria.**
- **150** Alexander I. Bala. **Syria.**
- **145** Demetrius II. Nicator. **Syria.**
- **144** Seleucus V. **Syria.**
- **131** Antiochus I. Soter. **Syria.**
- **127** Alexander II. **Syria.**
- **121** Antiochus II. Theos. **Syria.**
- **112** Seleucus VI. **Syria.**
- **108** Antiochus V. Eupator. **Syria.**
- **106** Seleucus V. **Syria.**
- **102** Antiochus IV. Epiphanes. **Syria.**
- **96** Seleucus IV. Philopator. **Syria.**
- **92** Antiochus II. Theos. **Syria.**
- **88** Seleucus V. **Syria.**
- **84** Antiochus I. Soter. **Syria.**
- **80** Seleucus IV. Philopator. **Syria.**
- **76** Antiochus II. Theos. **Syria.**
- **72** Seleucus V. **Syria.**
- **68** Antiochus I. Soter. **Syria.**
- **64** Seleucus IV. Philopator. **Syria.**
- **60** Antiochus II. Theos. **Syria.**
- **56** Seleucus V. **Syria.**
- **52** Antiochus I. Soter. **Syria.**
- **48** Seleucus II. Callinicus. **Syria.**
- **44** Antiochus III. Magnus. **Syria.**
- **40** Seleucus I. Nicanor. **Syria.**

**B.C.**

- **233** Antigonus. **Syria.**
- **298** Demetrius Poliorcetes. **Syria.**
- **253** Arsaces I. **Bactria.**
- **233** Tiridates*. **Bactria.**
- **196** Artabanis. **Bactria.**
- **190** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **184** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **178** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **172** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **166** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **160** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **154** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **148** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **142** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **136** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **130** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **124** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **118** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **112** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **106** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **100** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **94** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **88** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **82** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **76** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **70** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **64** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **58** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **52** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **46** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **40** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **34** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **28** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **22** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **16** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **10** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **4** Phraodates. **Bactria.**
- **0** Phraodates. **Bactria.**

**Asia Minor.**

- **255** Theodotus I. **Parthia.**
- **243** Theodotus II. **Parthia.**
- **220** Euthymedus, of Magnesia. **Parthia.**
- **195** Apollodotus. **Parthia.**
- **181** Eucratides the Great. **Parthia.**
- **166** Eucratides II. **Parthia.**
- **151** Eucratides III. **Parthia.**
- **136** Eucratides IV. **Parthia.**
- **121** Eucratides V. **Parthia.**
- **106** Eucratides VI. **Parthia.**
- **91** Eucratides VII. **Parthia.**
- **76** Eucratides VIII. **Parthia.**
- **61** Eucratides IX. **Parthia.**
- **46** Eucratides X. **Parthia.**
- **31** Eucratides XI. **Parthia.**
- **16** Eucratides XII. **Parthia.**
- **0** Eucratides XIII. **Parthia.**

**Known Kings of Bactria.**

- **New names discovered on Greek coins dug up in the Panjáb, connecting the Bactrian with the Hindu dynasties.**
- **Agathocles.**
- **Pantaleon.**
- **Diomedes.**
- **Antikakideis.**
- **Lysius.**
- **Philoxenus.**
- **Antimachus.**
- **Nonus.**
- **Mayus.**
- **Kodus.**
- **Azus.**
- **Aulis.**
- **Hermæus.**
- **Unadpherrus.**
- **Kadaphes Choranus.**
- **Oohemo Kadphises.**
- **Rao Kanerkos.**
- **Rao nanorao oerki korano, (the series here falls into the Canouj group.) See Table LXVIII.**

* The family name Arsaces is applied to all the princes of Parthia, hence called the Arsacidæ, and is almost the only one visible on their coins: their titles are megas, dikaios, euergetes, epiphanes, zenios, theos, nikator, philellenos, theopator, &c.
Kings of Persia—Peshdadian—Kaianian—Sassanian.

Table LX. Mythological period of Persian history.

**Peshdadian dynasty.**

Kaiumars, by some supposed Adam, or Noah, reigned at Balkh.
Siamek, his son.
Hoshang.
Thamurath, surnamed Deoband.
Jamshid, reigned at Persepolis.
Zohák, surnamed Alvani, an invader.
Feridûn, restored by Kawa the blacksmith.
Irâj.
Koshang.
Manuchehr.
Naudar.
Afrasiáb, king of Turkistán.
Zab, brother of Naudar.
Ghorshaasp.

**Kaianian dynasty.**

Kai-kobad, (*kai* signifies the mighty.)
Kai-Kavus, son or grandson. Rustem his general.
Kai-Khôsru, grandson. Cyrus the great.
Loharasp, son of Orond Shâh. (Cambyses omitted?)
Gushtasp, his son. Hystaspes of Grecian history.
Isfendiar, his son. Apanda or Astyages of do.
Kai Bahman, or Ardeshir darázdast. Artaxerxes Longimanus.
Homai, daughter and wife of do.
Darab, son of do.
Dara, his son: the Darius overcome by Alexander the Great.

[The Muluk-tawdíf, or Petty kings, following Alexander, called by the Persians the Ashkanians and Ashghanians, have been given above as the Arsacidae of the Greeks.]

Table LXI. Kings of Persia, of the Sassanian race.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>King or Dynasty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>223</td>
<td>Ardeshir-Babegân ben Sâsân, or Artaxerxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>238</td>
<td>Shahpûr, Shapûr, or Sapor, captured Valerian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>271</td>
<td>Hormuzd or Hormisdas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>273</td>
<td>Bharâm or Varanes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>279</td>
<td>Bharâm or Varanes II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>296</td>
<td>Bharâm or Varanes III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>297</td>
<td>Narsê or Narses, conquered Armenia and Galerius.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>303</td>
<td>Hormuzd or Hormisdas II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>310</td>
<td>Shahpûr or Sapor II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>380</td>
<td>Ardeshir or Artaxerxes II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>384</td>
<td>Shahpûr or Sapor III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>389</td>
<td>Bharâm or Varanes IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>399</td>
<td>Yezdegird or Isdegerde.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>420</td>
<td>Bharâm-gaur or Varanes V. visited India.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>440</td>
<td>Yezdegird or Isdegerde II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>457</td>
<td>Hormuzd or Hormisdas III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>457</td>
<td>Firuz or Peroce, allied with Khakan of Huns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>531</td>
<td>Khosrâh, Kesrî, (Nushirvan,) or Chosroes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>579</td>
<td>Hormuzd or Hormisdas IV. deposed by his general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>589</td>
<td>Khosrû-Parviz, Kesrî, or Chosroes II. put to death by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>628</td>
<td>Kobád-Shîrûyieh or Siroes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629</td>
<td>Ardeshir III. or Adeser. Anarchy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629</td>
<td>Shahriâr or Sarbazas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629</td>
<td>Purân-Dokht.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Khalifs—of Damascus—of Baghdad.

A. D.
631 28 Azermi-Dokht.
631 29 Ferokhi-zad-Bakhtyar.
632 30 Yezdegird or Isdegerde III, overthrown by Musulmans 641.

Table LXII. Khalifs, vicegerents or successors of Mahomed or Muhammed ben Abd-Allah, whose death occurred in the 11th of Hejra era, or A. D. 632.

[This and the following from Marsden's Numismata Orientalia.]

A. H. A. D.
11 632 1 Abubekr.
13 634 2 Omar.
23 644 3 Othman.
35 656 4 Ali.
40 661 5 Hasan ben Ali, retired at Medina—Hosein killed at Kerbela.

Race of Ommiah, reigning at Damascus.

41 661 1 Muawiah.
60 680 2 Yezid ben Muawiah.
64 684 3 Muawiah II. ben Yezid.
64 684 4 Abdallah ben Zobeir.
84 684 5 Merwan ben Hul-akem.
65 684 6 Abd-ul-malek ben Merwan.
86 703 7 Walid ben Abd-ul-malek.
96 714 8 Soleimân ben Abd-ul-malek.
99 717 9 Omar ben Abd-ul-aziz.
101 720 10 Yezid II. ben Abd-ul-malek.
105 724 11 Heshâm ben Abd-ul-malek.
125 743 12 Walid II. ben Yezid.
126 744 13 Yezid III. ben Walid.
126 744 14 Ibrâhîm ben Walid.
127 744 15 Merwan II. ben Muhammed, deposed and slain.

Race of Al-Abbâs, reigning at Baghdad.

132 750 1 Abûl Abbâs al-saffâb.
136 754 2 Almansûr.
158 775 3 Al-Mahdi ben al-Mansûr.
169 785 4 Al-Hâdî ben al-Mahdi.
170 786 5 Harûn al-Rashid ben al-Mahdi.
193 809 6 Al-Amîn ben al-Rashid.
198 813 7 Al-Mâmun ben al-Rashid.

Ibrâhîm ben al-Mahdi, competitor, 817—818.

218 833 8 Al-Motasem billah ben al-Rashid.
227 842 9 Al-Wâthek-billah ben al-Motasem.
232 847 10 Al-Motawakkil ala'llah ben al-Motasem.
247 861 11 All-Mostanser billah ben Motawakkil.
248 862 12 Al-Mostânin billah ben Muhammed ben Motasem.
252 866 13 Al-Motaz billah ben Motawakkil.
255 869 14 Al-Mohâdâdî billah ben Wâthek.
256 870 15 Al-Motamed ala'llah ben Motawakkil, Egypt independent.

Muwaffek billah, his coadjutor, from 871 to 891.

279 892 16 Al-Motâdâdî billah ben Muwaffek.
289 902 17 Al-Moktafi billah ben Motâdâdî; provinces independent.
295 908 18 Al-Mektâder billah ben Motâdâdî, murdered by a eunuch.
320 932 19 Al-Kâher billah ben Motâdâdî.
322 934 20 Al-Radhî billah ben Moktâder, Amir ul omra powerful.
329 940 21 Al-Motakî billah ben Moktâder.
333 944 22 Al-Mostakî billah ben Motakî.
334 946 23 Al-Motî billah ben Moktâder.
363 974 24 Al-Taî billah ben Motî.
381 991 25 Al-Kâder billah ben Ishak ben Moktâder.
422 1031 26 Al-Kâim beamrillah Abû Jâfar Abd-Allah ben Kâder.
467 1075 27 Al-Moktâdi billah Abu'l Kasem Abdallah ben Muhammed ben Kâim.
Table LXIII. Samanian or Sama'ni' Dynasty, of Bokhara, Khorásán and Persia.

A. H. A. D.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>261</td>
<td>Nasr ben Ahmed, great grandson of Sámán, a robber chief, appointed governor of Bokhara by the Khalif Môtamed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>279</td>
<td>Ismáíl ben Ahmed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>295</td>
<td>Ahmed ben Ismáíl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301</td>
<td>Nasr ben Ahmed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>331</td>
<td>Nuh ben Nasr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>343</td>
<td>Abd-ul-malek ben Núh,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350</td>
<td>Al-Mansúr ben Núh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>366</td>
<td>Nuh ben Al-Mansúr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>387</td>
<td>Al-Mansúr ben Núh, deposed and blinded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>389</td>
<td>Abd-ul-malek ben Núh, overturned by the Ghaznavis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table LXIV. Ghaznevide Dynasty of Persia and India, including Khorásán, Maver-ul-nahr, Bokhara, &c. Capital Ghazni.

A. H. A. D.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>365</td>
<td>Sabactagin, a Turkish slave of Alpteghin, a general in the service of Sultán Núh of the Samanides, held government of Ghazni, and Khorásán.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>387</td>
<td>Ismael appointed successor, but displaced by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>387</td>
<td>Sultán yemin ud-daulat abul kasim Mahmud.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>421</td>
<td>Muhammed, his son, deposed instantly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>421</td>
<td>Masaud, another son, deposed and killed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>432</td>
<td>Muhammed, restored, and again deposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>433</td>
<td>Maudud, son of Masaud.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>440</td>
<td>Shams ud-din allah Saif ud-daulah, Ardurrashid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444</td>
<td>Ferokhzad, son of Masaud.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>451</td>
<td>Malek Mouiád Ibra'him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>481</td>
<td>Jalal ud-din Masaud, or Abusaid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>508</td>
<td>Arslan Sháh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
<td>Bahram Sháh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>548</td>
<td>Nizám ud-din Khosru Sháh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>579</td>
<td>Ghazni taken by Shahib ud-din, and the Ghori dynasty established. (See Tab. LXXII.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table LXV. Sulta'ns of the Selju'k Dynasty.

(The grandsons of Selju'k, a Turk of the tribe of Khazar or Ghaz on the Caspian, Toghrul-beg and Jâfer-beg Daoud, were in the service of Mahmúd of Ghazni. In A. H. 429 (1036), the former resisted Masaud, and received investiture as Sultán of Khorásán from the Khalif. The three branches of the Seljuk family settled in Hamadán, Kermán, and Ruûn or Anatolia.—Marsden's Or. Num.)

I. Seljuk dynasty of Iran or Persia.

A. H. A. D.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>429</td>
<td>Rokn ud-din Abuthaleb, Toghrul begh, Mahmúd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>455</td>
<td>Alp Arslan, Abushajia Azz ud-din.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Seljuks of Persia—Kerman—Rûm—Atabegs of Irâk—

II. Seljuk dynasty of Kermân.

A. H. A. D.
470 1077 Suleimân ben Kotlumish.
478 1085 Interregnum of seven years.
485 1092 Daoud Kilij Arslân ben Suleimân.
501 1107 Saisan ben Kilij Arslân.
510 1116 Masâud ben Kilij Arslân.
551 1156 Azz-ud-din Kilij Arslân ben Masâud, destroyed 1st crusade army.
584 1188 Kotb-ud-din Malek Shah ben Kilij Arslân, deposed.
588 1192 Ghîâs-ud-din Kai Khosru ben Kilij Arslân, deposed.
600 1203 Kilij Arslân ben Rukn-ud-din, deposed.
600 1203 Ghias-ud-din Kai Khosru, (restored.)
607 1210 Azz-ud-din Kai Kâns ben Kai Khosru.
616 1219 Ala-ud-din Kai Kobâd ben Kai Khosru.
634 1236 Ghîâs-ud-din Kai Khosru ben Kai Kobâd, invaded by the Moghul princes, descendants of Jenghiz Khan (See Tab. 1308.)
643 1245 Azz-ud-din Kai Kâns, in nominal conjunction with his brothers, Rukn-ud-din and Ala-ud-din, sons of Kai Khosru.
655 1257 Rukn-ud-din Kilij Arslân.
666 1267 Ghîâs-ud-din Kai Khosru ben Rukn-ud-din.
682 1283 Masâud ben Azz-ud-din Kai Kâns, died 708—1308.

Table LXVI. Atabegs of Irâk, ruling Ministers under the latter Princes of the Seljukian race.

Mosul Branch.

A. H. A. D.
521 1127 Imâd ud-din Zengi.
540 1145 Seif ud-din Ghâzi ben Zengi.
544 1149 Kotb ud-din Maudud ben Zengi.
565 1170 Al-Moaz Seif ud-din Ghâzi ben Maudud.
576 1180 Azz ud-din Masâud ben Maudud.
of Alepp—Ortokites of Syria—Moghels of Tartary. 145

589 1193 Nūr ud-dīn (Bedrūd-dīn) Arslān Shah ben Masāud.
607 1210 Malek al-Kāher Azz ud-dīn Masāud ben Nūr ud-dīn.
615 1218 Nūr ud-dīn Arslān Shāh ben Kāher.
616 1219 Nūsār ud-dīn Māhmūd ben Kāher.
619 1222 Al-Malek al-Rahīm Bedr ud-dīn Lūlū.
657 1259 Al-Malek as-Sālah Ismāl ben Lūlū.

**Haleb (Aleppo) Branch.**

521 1127 Imād ud-dīn Zengi.
540 1145 Malek al-Adel Nūr ud-dīn Māhmūd ben Zengi.
569 1174 Al-Malek as-Sālah Ismāl ben Nūr ud-dīn Māhmūd.
577 1181 Imād ud-dīn Zengi ben Kotb ud-dīn ben Maudūd, delivered Haleb to Sālah ud-dīn or Saladin.
594 1197 Kotb ud-dīn Muhammed ben Imād ud-dīn, at Singāra.

**Table LXVII. Turcoman Ortokite Princes, reigning in Mardin and Miasfarkin, Syria.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Il Ghāzī ben Ortok, seized Jerusalem and Mardin.

**Ortokites reigning at A'mid and Kheifa.**

A. H. A. D.

490 1097 Sokmān ben Ortok.
498 1104 Ibrāhim ben Sokmān.
522? 1128 Rukn ud-dīn Dāoud.
544?  Fakhr ud-dīn Karā Arslān ben Dāoud.
562 1166 Nūr ud-dīn Muhammed ben Karā Arslān.
581 1185 Kotb ud-dīn Sokmān ben Muhammed.
597 1200 Malek as-Sālah Nāser ud-dīn Māhmūd.
618 1221 Malek al-Masāud ben Malik as-Sālah Māhmūd.
629 1231 Malek al-Kāmel, nephew of Sālah ud-dīn, (Saladin,) took A’mid.

**Table LXVIII. The Mogol or Moghel empire of Tartary. Capital Karakur.**

A. D.

1206 Jenghiz Khān, or Timūgin declared emperor, on the Onon river.
1227 Tuli Khān, his son, regent during interregnum.
1241 Oktai Khān, son of Jenghiz.
1246 Gauik Khān, son of Oktai.
1248 Ogouganmish, his wife, regent on his death.
1251 Mangū Khān, died in 1259.

The Empire of the Mogols was subsequently divided into different branches, in China, Persia, in Kapchak, &c.
1260 Kublai Khān, succeeded in China, and founded the Yuen dynasty.
1240 Zagatai Khān, son of Jenghiz, founded Zagatai branch in Transoxiana.
1226 Tushi Khān, another son, founded Kapchak dynasty.

[For these dynasties of the Tartars; and those of the Huns, Chinese, &c. see De Guignes' *Histoire des Huns.*]
### Table LXIX. Moghel-Tartar or Il-Khanian Dynasty of Persia.

On the death of Mangu Khan son of Jenghiz Khan, the sovereignty of Persia was assumed by his brother.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. H. A. D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>657-1259</td>
<td>Hulagu or Halaku Il-Khan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>663-1264</td>
<td>Abaqa or Abaka Il-Khan, his son.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>681-1282</td>
<td>Nikudar Oglan, 7th son of Hulaku, on conversion to Muhammadism, took the name of Ahmed Khan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>683-1284</td>
<td>Arghun Kaan, son of Abaga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>690-1291</td>
<td>Kai-Khatu Kaan, ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>694-1294</td>
<td>Baldu Kaan, son of Targhih, 5th son of Hulaku.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>694-1294</td>
<td>Ghuzan Kaan Mahmud, eldest son of Arghun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>703-1303</td>
<td>Ghias-ud-din Au-gaptu, Khoda bandah Muhammed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>716-1316</td>
<td>Abu Said Bahadur Khan, his son, on whose death in 1316 the dynasty became dependent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>736-1335</td>
<td>The dynasty became dependent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>747-1346</td>
<td>Anushirván. Invasion of Taimur or Tamerlane. (See below.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table LXX. Moghel Sultans of Khorda'sa'n.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. H. A. D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>795-1393</td>
<td>Kuth-ud-din Amūr Timur Gurgan Sahibkiran (Tamerlane) conquered Baghda, invaded India, &amp;c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>807-1404</td>
<td>Khallil Sultān, son of Miran Shāh, deposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>850-1447</td>
<td>Ulugh Begh, Malak us said, of Khiva.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>853-1449</td>
<td>Abdul Latif Mirza, his son.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>854-1450</td>
<td>Baber Mirza, Sultan Abul Casem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>861-1456</td>
<td>Mīrza Shāh Mahmud, deposed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>861-1456</td>
<td>Abu Said, son of Ahmad. (See Moghels of India.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>875-1470</td>
<td>Jadiighiar, grandson of Shāh Rokh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>901-1505</td>
<td>Badi ezzaman, his son, took refuge with the Sufis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table LXXI. Kings of Persia of the Sophi, Sufi, or Safi Race.

Juneid, a descendant of Safi ud-din, a Sophi or mystic philosopher, being expelled from Aderbijan by the Turcoman ruler Jehan Shāh, established himself in Shirwan. His grandson

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. H. A. D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>905-1499</td>
<td>Ismā'il al-Sufi ben Sheikh Haidar, united conquered provinces and assumed sovereignty of Persia and Khorasan 908-1502.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>932-1525</td>
<td>Shāh Tahmāsp ben Ismā'il.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>983-1575</td>
<td>Shāh Ismā'il II. ben Tahmāsp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>985-1577</td>
<td>Muhammed Khodabandah ben Tahmāsp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>994-1535</td>
<td>Hamzah ben Muhammed, or Amīr Hams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>994-1585</td>
<td>Shāh Ismā'il ben Muhammed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>994-1585</td>
<td>Shāh Abbās ben Muhammed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1039-1629</td>
<td>Shāh Sāfi ben Safi Mirza ben Abbas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1052-1642</td>
<td>Shāh Abbās II. ben Shāh Sāfi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1077-1666</td>
<td>Soleimān ben Shāh Abbās.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1106-1694</td>
<td>Shāh Husein ben Soleimān, last of the Sufis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1135-1722</td>
<td>Shāh Tahmāsp II. ben Shāh Husein, ablicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1137-1725</td>
<td>Shāh Tahmāsp, an Afgān, invaded Persia, and usurped.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1242-1730</td>
<td>Shāh Tahmāsp, nominally restored, murdered 1737.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1145-1732</td>
<td>Shāh Abbās III. ben Tahmāsp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1148-1736</td>
<td>Na'īr Dīr Shāh or Nadir Sultān, proclaimed king.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1160-1747</td>
<td>Adel Shāh, nephew and murderer of Nadir.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1161-1748</td>
<td>Ibrāhīm, his brother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1163-1749</td>
<td>Shāh Rokh, blinded, driven to Khorasan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1163-1750</td>
<td>Soleimān, or Mirza Seid Muhammed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
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<tr>
<td>1163</td>
<td>1750</td>
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<td>1173</td>
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<td>1199</td>
<td>1785</td>
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<td>1203</td>
<td>1789</td>
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<td>1209</td>
<td>1794</td>
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<tr>
<td>1211</td>
<td>1797</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table LXXII.** Patan, Afghān or Ghorī Sultans of Hindustan. Capital Dehli.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. H.</th>
<th>A. D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>602</td>
<td>1206</td>
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<td>607</td>
<td>1210</td>
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<tr>
<td>607</td>
<td>1210</td>
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<td>633</td>
<td>1235</td>
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<td>634</td>
<td>1236</td>
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<td>637</td>
<td>1239</td>
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<td>610</td>
<td>1242</td>
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<td>643</td>
<td>1245</td>
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<td>1286</td>
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<td>688</td>
<td>1289</td>
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<td>695</td>
<td>1295</td>
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<td>716</td>
<td>1316</td>
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<td>721</td>
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<td>725</td>
<td>1324</td>
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<td>752</td>
<td>1351</td>
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<td>790</td>
<td>1388</td>
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<td>791</td>
<td>1389</td>
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<td>793</td>
<td>1391</td>
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<td>796</td>
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<td>796</td>
<td>1393</td>
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<td>816</td>
<td>1413</td>
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<td>817</td>
<td>1414</td>
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<td>824</td>
<td>1421</td>
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<td>837</td>
<td>1433</td>
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<tr>
<td>850</td>
<td>1446</td>
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<tr>
<td>854</td>
<td>1450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>894</td>
<td>1488</td>
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<tr>
<td>923</td>
<td>1517</td>
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<td>947</td>
<td>1540</td>
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<tr>
<td>952</td>
<td>1545</td>
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<td>960</td>
<td>1552</td>
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<tr>
<td>961</td>
<td>1553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>962</td>
<td>1554</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table LXXIII.** Patan or Afghān Sultans and Governors of Bengal. (Purbi dynasty.) Capital Lakhnauti or Gaur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. H.</th>
<th>A. D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>1203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>602</td>
<td>1205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>605</td>
<td>1208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>609</td>
<td>1212</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
627 1229 Mahmud ben Shems ed-din, became Sultan of Hindustan.
634 1237 Toghan Khan, governor under Sultanate Rizia.
641 1243 Tiji or Taji.
642 1244 Timur Khan Keran.
644 1246 Seif ed-din.
651 1253 Ikhtiâr ed-din Malek Yuzbeg.
656 1257 Jalal ed-din Khâni.
657 1258 Taj ed-din Arslan.
659 1260 Muhammed Tatar Khán.
676 1277 Muazz ed-din Toghrul.
681 1282 Nasered-din Baghra (by Dow written Kera), considered 1st sovereign of Bengal, by some.
705 1305 Kader Khan, viceroy of Muhammed Shâh.
741 1340 Fakhar ed-din Sekander, assumes independence.
743 1342 Ala ed-din Mubarak.
744 1343 Shems ed-din Muhammed Shâh Ilias Bangarah.
746 1358 Sekander Shâh ben Shems ed-din.
749 1367 Ghiaš ed-din Azem Shâh ben Sekander Shâh.
775 1373 Seif ed-din Sultan as-Sultân ben Ghiaš ed-din.
785 1383 Shems ed-din ben Sultan as-Sulatin.
787 1385 Kansa or Khansa, a Hindú.
794 1392 Jalal ed-din Muhammed Shâh (Chitmul ben Khansa).
812 1409 Ahmed Shâh ben Jalal ed-din.
830 1426-7 Naser Shâh (descendant of Shems ed-din Ilias Bangarah).
862 1457 Barbek Shâh ben Naser Shâh.
879 1474 Yusuf Shâh ben Barbek Shâh,
887 1482 Sekander Shâh.
887 1482 Fat-ah Shâh.
896 1490 Shâh-zadah, an eunuch.
897 1491 Firuz Shâh Habshl.
899 1494 Mahmud Shâh ben Firuz Shâh.
900 1495 Mozaffer Shâh Habshl.
903 1493 Ala ed-din Husen Shâh ben Syed Ashraf.
927 1521 Nasret Shâh ben Ala ed-din Husein.
940 1534 Mahmud Shâh ben Ala ed-din Husen, defeated by
944 1537 Firid ed-din Shir Shâh.
945 1538 Humayun held court at Gaur, or Jenatâbâd.
946 1539 Shir Shâh again.
952 1545 Muhammed Khân.
962 1555 Khizer-Khan Bahadur Shâh ben Muhammed Khân.
965 1560-1 Jalal ed-din ben Muhammed Khân.
971 1563-4 Soleiman Karâni or Karzani.
981 1573 Baysid ben Soleiman.
981 1573 Daud Khân ben Soleiman, defeated by Akber's forces.

Table LXXIV. Kings of the East, or SHARKI Dynasty of JAUNPUR.

A. H. A. D.
800 1397 Khoja Jehan, Subahdâr of Kanauj, Audh, Kora, and Jaunpur, assumed independence.
803 1400 Mubarak Shâh, his adopted son.
804 1401 Shems ud-din Ibrahim Shâh Sherkh.
845 1441 Mahmud Shâh ben Ibrahim.
856 1451 Husen Shâh ben Mahmud ben Ibrahim Shâh.
883 1478 took refuge in the Court of Ala ud-din of Bengal, where he died in 905 A. H.

Table LXXV. MUSALMAN Kings of KASHMIR.

A. H. A. D.
715 1315 Shams ud-din, Shâh Mir, minister of Senadeva.
750 1349 Jamshid, expelled by his youngest brother.
752 1351 Ally Sher, Allah ud-din; a severe famine.
765 1363 Shahab ud-din; Siamuk invades Sind.
Kashmir—Sind—Bahmny of Kalbarga. 149

785 1386 Kutb ud-din, Hindal; defeats Rāja of Lohkote.
799 1396 Sikandar, Butshikan; subverts Hindu religion.
819 1416 Ameer Khan, Ally Shāh; civil wars; expelled by
826 1422 Zein ul Ab-ud-din, Shādy Khan, his brother.
877 1472 Haider Shāh, Hajī Khan.
878 1473 Hasan Shāh.
891 1486 Muhammed, a child; civil wars.
902 1496 Fatteh Shāh, usurps the throne. Chak tribhe converted to Islām.
911 1505 Muhammed, regains the throne; Ibrahim usurps.
942 1535 Nazuk Shāh; conquest of Emperor Humayun, 1543.
948 1541 Mirza Haider Doghlat, governor under him; interregnum, and
dissentions.
960 1552 Ibrahim II., set up by Daulet Chakk: earthquake.
963 1555 Ismael, set up by Ghazi Khan's party.
964 1556 Habib, raised by Daulet Chakk.
971 1563 Hosein Shāh Chakk: embassy from Akber.
986 1578 Yusuf Shāh Chakk expelled by Gohar Chakk.
997 1588 —— annexation of Kashmir to the Moghel Empire by Akber.

Table LXXVI. Kings of Sind and Tatta.
A. H. A. D.
87 785 Belochistan invaded by Hijaj, governor of Bassora, and Md. Kāsim.
The Ansaries, the Sumaras, and the Sumanas or Jams, successively, gain the
ascendancy, then a Delhi governor.
1203? Nasir ud-din Kabbacha, becomes independent, drowned.

Table LXXVII. The Jami Dynasty of Sumana, originally Rājputs.
A. H. A. D.
737 1336 Jām Afra; tributary to Toghlak Shāh.
740 1339 Jām Choban.
754 1353 Jām Bang; asserted his independence.
782 1367 Timaji, his brother.
782 1380 Jām Salah ud-din; converted to Muhammedanism.
793 1391 Jām Nizam ud-din.
796 1393 Jām Ally Sher.
812 1409 Jām Giran, son of Timaji.
812 1409 Jām Fatteh Khan.
827 1423 Jām Toghlak; invaded Gujerat.
854 1450 Jām Sikandar.
856 1452 Jām Sangar, elected.
864 1469 Jām Nanda, or Nizam ud-din; cot. of Hasan Langa.
894 1492 Jām Feroz; the Turkhan family become powerful, 1520.
927 1520 Shāh Beg Arghun, occupies Sind.
930 1523 Shāh Hosein Arghun.
966 1554 Mahmud of Bhakar.
982 1572 Akber annexes Sind to the Empire.

Table LXXVIII. Bahmny Dynasty of Kalbarga, or Ahsunábad.
A. D.
1347 Ala ud-din Hasan Shāh ganga Bahmany, servant of a Brahman in Md.
Toghlak's court, subdued all the Dakhan.
1358 Mahomed Shāh B. 1. (Ghazi), makes tributary Telingana and Vijya-

Table LXXVIII. Bahmny Dynasty of Kalbarga, or Ahsunábad.
A. D.
1347 Ala ud-din Hasan Shāh ganga Bahmany, servant of a Brahman in Md.
Toghlak's court, subdued all the Dakhan.
1358 Mahomed Shāh B. 1. (Ghazi), makes tributary Telingana and Vijya-
agar.
1375 Mujahid Shāh B., killed by his uncle.
1378 Dawud Shāh B., assassinated by his niece.
1378 Mahauud Shāh I., youngest son of Ala; patron of literature.
1396 Ghaus ud-din; blinded and dethroned.
1396 Shems ud-din Shāh; puppet to Lalchin, the Malik Naib or regent.
1397 Feroz Shāh, married daughter of Vijyanagar rāja, Deva Ray.
1422 Ahmed Shāh Wali (Khan Khanan); war with rajas.
Kalbarga—Ahmedabad—Kandeish—Malwa—Guzerat.

1435 Ala ud-din Shâh II. war with Vijayanagar.
1457 Humayun the cruel; general insurrection.
1461 Nizam Shâh; râjas of Telengana and Orissa powerful.
1463 Mahomed Shâh II.; Malwa power increasing.
1482 Mahmud II.; loses Concan, Bijapur, and Berar.
1518 Ahmed Shâh II.; under control of Amir Berid, minister.
1520 Ala ud-din Shâh III.; deposed by ditto.
1522 Wali Ullah; murdered by ditto.
1525 Kallam Ullah, Bahmani dynasty of Bidar (Ahmedabad) terminates, and is succeeded by that of Amir Berid at Ahmedabad.

Table LXXIX. Berid Shahy Dynasty of Bider, or Ahmedabad.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ruler</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1492</td>
<td>Kasim Berid</td>
<td>Turki or Georgian slave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1504</td>
<td>Amir Berid</td>
<td>Held sway on the nominal kings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1549</td>
<td>Ally Berid Shâh</td>
<td>First who assumed royalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1562</td>
<td>Ibrahim Berid Shâh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1569</td>
<td>Kasim Berid Shâh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1572</td>
<td>Mirza Ally Berid Shâh</td>
<td>Deposed by his relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1609</td>
<td>Amir Berid Shâh II.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table LXXX. Faruki Dynasty of Kandeish. Capitals Talner and Burhanpur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1370</td>
<td>Malik Raja Faruki, receives jagir of Talner, from Feroz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1399</td>
<td>Malik Nasir or Nasir Khan Faruki, builds Burhanpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1443</td>
<td>Miran Adil Khan Faruki, expels Deccanies from Kandeish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1441</td>
<td>Miran Mubarak Khan Faruki; peaceful reign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1457</td>
<td>Miran Ghani, or Adil Khan Faruki I.; tributary to Guzerat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1503</td>
<td>Daoud Khan Faruki, tributary to Malwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1510</td>
<td>Azim Humayun, or Adil Khan P. II.; grandson of Guzerat king</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1520</td>
<td>Miran Muhammed Khan Faruki; succeeds to Guzerat throne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1535</td>
<td>Miran Mubarak Khan Faruki, brother; war with Moghals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1566</td>
<td>Miran Muhammed Khan Faruki, attack from Deccan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1576</td>
<td>Râja Ally Khan Faruki; acknowledges Akber's supremacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1596</td>
<td>Bahadur Khan Faruki; defects Akber; imprisoned at Guaiior</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table LXXXI. Kings of Malwa. Capitals D'har, Mando or Shadiubâd.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1387</td>
<td>Sultan Dilâwar Ghori, governor, assumes title of Shâh, 1401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1405</td>
<td>Sultan Hoshang Ghori, or Alp Khan, his son, defeats Narshinha Ray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1432</td>
<td>Ghizni Khan, or Sultan Muhammed Ghori; poisoned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1435</td>
<td>Mahmud Khan, or Sultan Mahmud Kiliji. Rana of Chitor, Kumbho presents tankas coined in his own name, 1450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1469</td>
<td>Sultan Ghis ud-din; peaceful reign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500</td>
<td>Sultan Nasir ud-din; his son, Shahab ud-din, revolts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1512</td>
<td>Sultan Mahmud II., younger son, last of the Kilijis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1534</td>
<td>Malwa incorporated with Guzerat kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1568</td>
<td>—— annexed as a province of Akber's Empire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table LXXXII. Kings of Guzerat. Capital Pattan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1391</td>
<td>Muzaffar Shâh I.; appointed viceroy by Feroz Toghlak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1411</td>
<td>Ahmed Shâh I., grandson, builds Ahmedabad and Ahmedângar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1443</td>
<td>Muhammed Shâh, surnamed Karim, the merciful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1451</td>
<td>Kuth Shâh; opposes Malwa king, and Chitor râja Kombha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1459</td>
<td>Daoud Shâh, his uncle, deposed in favor of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1459</td>
<td>Mahmud Shâh I. Begarrâ; two expeditions to Deccan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1511</td>
<td>Muzaffar Shâh II.; war with Rana Sangrama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1526</td>
<td>Sikandar Shâh, assassinated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1526 Nasir Khan, or Mahmud Sháh II., displaced by
1526 Bahadur Sháh, invaded Malwa; murdered by Portuguese.
1536 Miran Muhammad Sháh Faruki, his nephew, of Malwa.
1536 Mahmud Sháh, son of Latik Khan; released from prison.
1533 Ahmed Sháh II., a spurious heir set up by minister.
1561 Muzaffar Sháh III. Habbu, a suppositional son of Mahmud.
1583 Guzerat becomes a province of Akber’s empire.

Table LXXXIII. Kings of Multan.

This province was first conquered by Mahomed Kásim, at the end of the 1st century, Hejira. It was recovered by the Hindus on the decline of the Ghizni power. After Mahomed Ghor’s subjugation, it remained tributary to Delhi until

A. H. A. D.
847 1443 Shekh Yusuf established an independent monarchy.
849 1445 Ray Sehra, or Kubt ud-din Hosen Langa I.; expelled the Shekh.
908 1502 Mahmud Khan Langa; his minister, Jam Barezid.
931 1524 Hosen Langa II.; overcome by Sháh Hosen Arghun. Under Humayun, becomes a province of the empire, (see below.)

Table LXXXIV. Imád Sháhy Dynasty of Berar, capital Ellichpur.

A. D.
1484 Fatteh Ullah Imád Sháh, Bahmany, governor of Berar, became independent.
— Alla ud-din Imád Sháh, fixed his capital at Géval.
1528 Daria Imad Sháh, married his daughter to Hosen Nizám Sháh.
— Burhan Imad Sháh; deposed by his minister.
1568 Tufal Khan, whose usurpation is opposed from Ahmednagar, and the family of Imád Sháh and Tufal extinguished.

Table LXXXV. Adil Sháhy Dynasty of Bijaipur.

A. D.
1489 Yusuf Khan, son of Amurath II. of Anatolia; purchased for the bodyguard at Ahmedabad.
1501 — assumed independent sovereignty as Adil Shá’h.
1511 Ismael Adil Sháh. Goa taken 2nd time by Portuguese.
1534 Mulloo Adil Sháh, a profligate, deposed and blinded by
1535 Ibrahim A. S. I. Minister Ránraj assumes throne of Vijyanagar.
1557 Ally Adil Sháh; war against the Hindu raja.
1579 Ibrahim Adil Sháh II. Chand beeby regent.
1626 Muhammed.
1660 Ally Adil II.

Table LXXXVI. Nizam Sháhy Dynasty of Ahmednagar.

A. D.
1490 Ahmed Nizam Sháh, Bheirg, son of a brahman of Vijyanagar; throws off Bahmany yoke.
1508 Burhan Nizam Sháh; petty wars with Berar, &c.
1553 Hosen Nizam Sháh I.; confederacy against Vijyanagar.
1565 Múrteza Nizam Sháh, Diwana, conquers Berar; smothered by
1568 Miran Hosen Nizam Sháh, put to death.
1569 Ismael Nizam Sháh, raised by Jamal Khan Mehdvy.
1589 Burhan Nizam Sháh II.; constructs Korla fort.
1594 Ibrahim Nizam Sháh, killed in battle.
1594 Ahmed, son of Sháh Tahir, raised by chiefs; pensioned.
1595 Bahadur Nizam Sháh, proclaimed by Chand beeby’s party; imprisoned by Akber.
1598 Múrteza N. S. II.; Nizam Sháhy dominions fall under the control of
1607 Malik Amber.
Table LXXXVII. KUTB SHAHY Dynasty of Golconda.

A. D.
1512 Sultan Kuly Kutb Sháh, a Turkman, assumed title of king.
1543 Jamshid Kutb Sháh, leagues with the Nizam Shahís.
1550 Ibrahim Kutb Sháh, joins league against Rámáj.
1581 Mahomed Kuly Kutb Sháh, builds Bhaogasgar, or Hyderabad, died 1586.
1611 Abdallah Kutb Sháh, tributary to Sháh Jehán.
1672 Abu Hasan, imprisoned at Daulatabad.

Under Aurangzeb, the southern conquests were formed into six Subahs, viz.
1, Kandeish; 2, Aurangabad; 3, Beder; 4, Berar; 5, Hyderabad; and 6, Bijapur.

Table LXXXVIII. Moghel Emperors of Hindustán.
(Fourth descendant from Taimur or Tamerlane, see Tab. LXX.)

A. H.        A. D.
899          1494 Baber, Zehir ud-din Muhammed, (mounted throne 9th June.)
937          1531 Huma'yun, Nasir ud-din Muhammed, (28th Jan.) in 946 defeat
            ed by Shír Sháh.
962          1554 ————, founded the Moghel dynasty of Dehli.
963          1556 Akber, Abul fateh, Julal ud-din Muhammed, (17th Feb.) con
            solidated empire.
1014         1605 Jehangir, Abul Muzaffar Nur ud-din Muhammed (7th Oct.)
1037         1628 Shahjehan, Shaháb ud-din Gházi (9th Feb.)
1068         1658 Aurangzeb A'lamgir, Abul Muzaffar, Mahi ud-din, (24th Feb.)
1118         1707 Azim Sháh, Muhammed Shabíd, (3rd March.)
1118         1707 Beha'dur Sháh, Shah A'lem, Abul Muzaffar Kutb ud-din (23rd
            Feb.)
1124         1713 Jehandar Shah, Móaz ud-din (11th Jan.)
1124         1713 Ferokhsir, Muhammed Shabíd Marbum 11th Jan.)
1131         1719 Rafi-ud-darjat, Shams ud-din (18th Jan.) (Abú berkat.)
1131         1719 Rafi-ud-daulat, Shahjehán Sání (26th April.)
1131         1719 (Muhammed Naksir), (May.)
1131         1719 Muhammed Shá'h, Abul fateh Násir ud-din, (28th Aug.)
1132         1720 (Sultan Muhammed Ibrahim), (4th Oct.)
1161         1749 A'ḥmed Shá'h, Abú Nasr. (20th April.)
1167         1754 Alemgir II., Aziz ud-din Muhammed, (2nd June.)
1173         1759 (Shá'hjehán), (29th Nov.)
1173         1759 Shah A'lem, Juláli ud-din (Mirza Abdallah, Ali Goher), (Nov.)
1201         1786 (Muhammed Badar bakht.)
1221         1806 Akber II., Abul Nasir, Moeín ud-din Muhammed, (3rd Dec.)

Table LXXXIX. Nizams of Hyderabad.

1717 Azef Jáh, Nizám ul Mulk, usurped power on Aurangzeb's death.
1748 Nasir Jang, assassinated.
1757 Muzaffar Jang, ditto. Salabat Jang, killed by
1763 Nizám Ali, his brother.
1803 Sikandar Jáh. English interference, 1807.

Table XC. Nuwábs and Kings of Oude.

A. D.
———— Saådet Ali Kháán of Khurasán, Nuwáb Vizir, under Muhammed Sháh.
———— Sefdar Jang, ditto.
1756 Shuja ud Dauleh, ditto.
1775 Asef ud Dauleh.
1797 Spurious son, Vizir Ali, displaced for
1798 Sadet Ali, brother of Shuja, Vizir of Hindustán.
1814 Gházi ud-din Haidár Ali, Sháh Zeman, king.
1827 Naser ud-din Haidár Ali.
### Table XCl. Chronological Table of European and British Connection with India, compiled by Capt. H. B. Henderson.

1204.—After the capture of Constantinople by the Crusaders, in the 4th Crusade, during their quarrel with the Greek empire, the Venetians, who had always partially competed with the Greeks for a share of Oriental trade, now obtained a grant of a portion of the Peloponnesus, with several of the best islands of the Archipelago. They soon secured to themselves a monopoly, or, at least, of that portion of the trade via the Euxine. But in 57 years, the Greeks rose in rebellion, and expelled the Latin emperor; and having been aided by the Genoese, they bestowed on them the suburb, Pera, at Constantinople, as a reward. This transferred the overland trade to the Genoese, and forced the Venetians to revisit Alexandria, and procure Indian articles by the Red Sea.—*Gleig*.

1453.—The Turks conquered Constantinople; and by the expulsion of the Genoese from Pera, the Venetians enjoyed the whole trade: while Constantinople was no longer a mart for Eastern produce, nor open to the countries of the West.—*Gleig*.

1497.—The Portuguese navigator, Vasco de Gama, doubled the Cape of Good Hope on the 20th November, and on the 22nd May of the following year, arrived at Calicut on the Malabar Coast, returning by the same Cape to Lisbon, in Sept. 1499.—*Gleig*.

1500.—In consequence of Vasco de Gama's success, a Portuguese expedition, under Pedro Alvarez Cabral, arrived at Calicut, on the 13th September; formed the first European factory in India at that place, and returned to Lisbon on July 1st, 1501.—*Gleig. Picture of India. Bruce's Annals of the E. I. C.*

1501.—In the homeward voyage, discovered the Island of St. Helena.—*Bruce*.

1503.—Alphonso de Albuquerque erected the first European fortress in India, at Cochin, and re-established the Factory at Calicut; he settled a trade at Coulan, and a factory at St. Thome.—*Bruce*.

1505.—Alphonso de Albuquerque, the founder of the Portuguese Eastern Empire, now commenced a career on a larger scale, with a squadron of 16 ships, having troops on board. He defeated the Tamorin of Calicut—formed a settlement at Gon, which he fortified, sailed to the Straits of Malacca, and took the place of that name in February, 1510, reduced the Molucca and Banda islands, at that time the gardens of the East for cloves, nutmegs, &c. and at last in 1514, finally reduced Ormus, the chief seat of Persian commerce. In 12 years, he raised the Portuguese Empire in India to the greatest height it has ever attained; all the principal emporia from the Cape to the China frontier, an extent of 12,000 miles of coast, being in his possession.—*Gleig. Bruce*.

1517.—The Portuguese got possession of Point de Galle and Columbo.—*Bruce*.

1518.—Albuquerque recalled. The decline of the Portuguese Empire may be dated from this event.—*Bruce*.

1527.—An English merchant, Robert Thorne, long resident in Spain, asserted the practicability of a north-west passage to India. His attempt and six others, in the succeeding reigns, failed.

1530.—Sultan Baber, the eighth in descent from Tamerlane, died near Agra. He had seized the empire, and re-established the dynasty of the Moguls.—*Orme*.

—The Portuguese driven by the natives from Ternate.—*Bruce*.

1531.—The Portuguese viceroy burned the principal towns from Diu to the Red Sea.—*Bruce*.

1536.—They built a strong citadel, at Diu, by permission of the king of Cambay;—*Bruce*.

1538.—The Grand Seignior attacked the Portuguese at Diu from Suez, and failed; but at this time the increased military forces sent from Portugal to India evince the decline of their real power in the East. The natives were recovering from their first panic, and found their oppressors less formidable.—*Bruce*.

1542.—The celebrated Father Francis Xavier, the Jesuit Missionary, arrived in India.—*Bruce*.

1558.—Mr. Anthony Wilkinson, agent of the Russia Company, crossed the Caspian Sea into Persia, and opened a considerable trade for Eastern produce. In India, the Portuguese viceroy, Francisco Baretto, was succeeded for 4 years by Don Constantine Braganza, one of the royal family.—*Bruce*.

1560.—Don Louis D'Ataide recovered, in great measure, the Portuguese power.—*Bruce*.

1563.—Three British agents were employed at the Persian capital, and the traffic was flourishing. Before this time the Venetians had essayed to undermine and oppose the Portuguese ascendancy, but in vain—while the humiliation, at this period,
of Venice itself, soon left Portugal without a competitor of any consequence.—**Bruce. Gleig.**

1577.—At length, an Englishman, Francis Drake, son of a poor Kentish clergyman, with five ships and 164 seamen, sailed from Plymouth on the 13th December, commissioned by queen Elizabeth. He passed the Straits of Magellan, ravaged the west coast of America, crossed the Pacific, touched at the Moluccas, Ormuz, and Ternate for some time, whence, after much friendly intercourse, he steered away for the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived at Plymouth on the 26th September, 1580. Drake entertained the queen at Deptford, and was knighted.—**Gleig, Mill. Bruce.**

1579.—Again, in India, the Portuguese power was almost dissolved, and Don Louis D’Aulaide was a second time sent as viceroy. His exertions were successful once more, but he soon died—in 1580.—**Bruce.**

1586.—Thomas Cavendish sailed 21st July, 1586, with three ships, via Straits of Magellan, and visited, after capturing a Spanish merchantman, the Ladrones, and Philippines, acquiring much knowledge of the Indian Archipelago. He returned to Plymouth 9th September, 1588. This year the Portuguese took possession of Macao, as a station for the China trade.—**Gleig. Bruce.**

1589.—Diverse English merchants petitioned the queen for permission to make a voyage with three ships, and as many pinnaces, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope.—**Gleig.**

1591.—A squadron sailed, under Captain Haymond, and from disease and a storm, it proved an abortive enterprise, only one officer, Captain James Lancaster, and a few seamen, returned.—**Gleig. Bruce.**

1593.—An Englishman, Stevens, went to Goa with the Portuguese by the way of the Cape of Good Hope. He wrote an account of his voyage.

1595.—In the mean time, the Dutch having gone round the hitherto interdicted Cape, openly opposed the Portuguese in the Eastern seas. They supplanted the Portuguese in the Spice trade; in a very few years expelled by force their rivals from the Moluccas; formed establishments at Java and Sumatra, and swept the Chinese and Pacific oceans with an overpowering force. During the year 1595, they took possession of the Mauritius, then first occupied, but abandoned it thirteen years afterwards, Bantam allowed to be occupied that year by the Dutch, as their first factory, as a reward from the king for their aid against the Portuguese.—**Gleig, Mill. Bruce.**

1596.—Elizabeth granted strong letters of recommendation to the Emperor of China to Richard Adam and Thomas Bloomfield, merchants and citizens of London, with permission to proceed with one or more ships. The draft of the letter is dated 16th July.—**Bruce.**

1599.—The English determined to keep pace with their rivals of Holland, an association of "Merchant Adventurers," was formed this year, a fund raised to be managed by a committee of 15 persons, and the queen again more earnestly petitioned for a charter. Her Majesty referred it to her council, and John Middenhall, a merchant, was sent, via Constantinople, on an embassy to the great Mogul. The first authentic deed of the Company is preserved, and is entitled "The names of such persons as have written with their own hands, to venter in the said voyage to the East Indies, (the which it may please the Lord to prosper,) and the sommes that they will adventure, the xxii September, 1559." The fund subscribed was £30,133. 6. 8. divided into 101 shares, varying from £100 to £3,600.—**Bruce. Mill.**

1600.—A corporation formed in London entitled "Governors and Company of merchants of London trading to the East Indies." Their original petition, as now extant, stated that no "gentleman was to be employed in any place of charge." This corporation is the origin of the present Company, and of the British empire in India. Their capital was £70,000. There were 215 sharers, and the Earl of Cumberland at their head, forming the Company. The first Court of Committees or 17 Directors was held on the 23rd September, 1600. The number was changed to 24, and then their first regular meeting was on the 31st October. Their Charter was finally dated by the queen on the 31st December of this year. At this era, and at the commencement of the English trade to India, the Portuguese possessions in the East were as follows:—Muscat, in Arabia; Ormuz and Bussora, in the Gulf; Dinlon on the Indus; Din, in Guzerat; a fortified factory at Daman; the town and castle of Chaul, and a factory at Dabul; Bassein, the island of north Salsette, and Tannah; the town and fort of Goa, (their seat of power,) and factory at Onore, Bareaclore, Mangalore, Cannare; the town of Calicut, a factory at Quilon, and the port of Cochin; and factories at Coulan, Quelon, and Taccatra. They had established themselves at Ceylon, and fortified Jaffnapatam. On the Coromandel coast they had stations at Negapatam and St. Thone. In Bengal they had no factories but
commercial stations, or houses of trade. They had factories at Pegu, traded up the Martaban river; had a station at Junkeylon, and possessed the valuable town and fort of Malaca. They had establishments in the Moluccas, at Amboyna, Manilla, and Macao, in China. Notwithstanding these valuable possessions, the Portuguese power in the East had visibly decreased, and was prepared to give way to the Dutch and English, now entering the field.—Bruce.

1601.—The earliest ship purchased was the Susan of 240 tons, for £1,600, thus the first Indianman in the service. The Company fitted her out with three others, the Malacca-surgeon of 600 tons, the Hector of 300, the Asencion of 260, and a pinace of 100 tons, freighted with cloth, tin, lead, cutlery, glass, amounting to £8,860, and with £20,742 in bullion. The fleet was commanded by Captain James Lancaster as "General or Admiral," and Captain Davies, 2nd in command, called "Pilot Major;" the latter to have £100 wages, £200 in credit, and if the voyage gave cent. per cent. £500 at the end, if 200 per cent. £1000, if 400 per cent. £2000. The scale of remuneration to Captain Lancaster or others does not appear. They sailed on the 2nd May. The French this year endeavoured to obtain a footing in India, sending out three ships from St. Maloes, but they failed to reach their destination.—Bruce. Gleig.

1602.—Captain Lancaster, who had been furnished with general letters from queen Elizabeth "to the great and mightie kinge of — our lovinge brother greeting," arrived at Acheen, and formed with its king the first treaty of the Company in the East; with permission to settle a factory, our first establishment.—Bruce.

1603.—The English fleet returned in September, having made a successful voyage. After touching at Acheen, they entered the Straits of Malaca a Portuguese ship of 900 tons; then put into Bantam in Java, setting there a factory or "house of trade," from whence to England.—Bruce.

1604.—King James granted a license to Sir Edward Michelborne and others, to trade to the East; the first violation of the exclusive privileges of the Company, who designated the parties interlopers or private traders. A French East India Company chartered this year; it failed, and was afterwards dissolved.—Bruce. Mill. E. I. Chronologist.

1605.—Akbar died, after a reign of nearly 50 years.—Orme.

1606.—Cloves purchased at Amboyna for £2948, 13; sold afterwards in England for £36,287.—Bruce.

1608.—Captain Hawkins visited Agra as Envoy.—Gleig.

1609.—A new charter granted by James to the Company, who now saw the evil of separate licenses; the privileges rendered perpetual. One of the Company's ships this year, called the Trades Increase, was eleven hundred tons.—Bruce.

1610.—Trade attempted with Japan, and the king's permission obtained to erect a factory at Ferando.—Bruce.

1611.—The court began to receive regular communications and dispatches from their factories in India.—Bruce.

1612.—Great efforts by the Company to extend the commerce. Attention was turned to Western India, and new factories contemplated. After repelling much opposition from the Portuguese, the English were permitted to avail themselves of a Firmann obtained on the 11th January of the following year, to erect factories at Surat, Ahmedabad, Cambaya, and Goya.—Bruce. Gleig. Mill.

1613.—Up to this year, eight voyages, realising nearly 200 per cent. had been performed by various fleets, only one expedition failing; the ships of 1607, having been lost.—Mill.

1614.—Mr. Edwards of the Surat factory went to Ajmere as envoy to the Mogul, Jehanghire; was presented on the 7th February, by Asaph Khan, brother of the beautiful empress Noor-Mahal, and obtained an additional Firmann. A Portuguese fleet and powerful armament defeated at Swally, with a loss of 350 men, by the English.—Bruce.

1615.—Sir T. Roe reached Agra, as ambassador from James I., the Company being at the expense of the embassy.—Bruce.

1617.—An English factory established at Macassar. At this period the Company's chief factories were at Surat and Bantam, but they had establishments at Acheen, and Tekoo in Sumatra; Jacatra, Janabe, Potania, Slam, Japan, Saccadania, Borneo, and Banda.—Bruce.

1618.—The Dutch obliged the English to resign all pretensions to the spice islands. They introduced themselves now as rivals also at Surat. The English Company's ship Ann, Captain Shillinge, obtained freedom of trade at Mocha.—Bruce.

1619.—A commission, called the Council of Defence, consisting of four members of the English, and four of the Dutch Companies, established by treaty between the nations, to prevent dispute in India. It availed nothing, as the Dutch influence preponderated. This Dutch this year attacked an English fleet of four ships at Tekoo,
sunk one, and seized the others. Firmanus were obtained from the Court of Persia, for facilities to trade in Persia.—Bruce. Mill.
1620.—English Agents deputed from Surat to Agra, two also sent to purchase cloths at Patna.—Sketches of Bengal.
1621.—James I. wrote to Shah Abbas, king of Persia, dated 19th March, thanking him for favor shown to English merchants, and requesting a continuance of such protection.—Bruce.
1622.—The English joining the Persians, attacked and made themselves masters of the island of Ormauz, resigning the same to their allies for part of the booty, and a grant of a moiety of the customs of the port of Gombron.—Gieig. Bruce. Mill.
1623.—In February, Captain Towerson, with nine Englishmen, nine Japanese, and one Portuguese, were seized by the Dutch, at Amboyna, and accused of conspiracy to attack the garrison: they were tried, put to the torture, and executed.—Bruce. This cruel transaction caused much sensation, receiving the name of the Massacre of Amboyna ever after, but the particulars of the case may have been exaggerated. The king issued a commission for inquiry, yet the Dutch obstinately maintained their ground as the exclusive and rightful possessors of the Moluccas, Banda, and Amboyna; and strange though it may appear, the English government, in spite of the popular indignation, seem quietly to have acquiesced until a partial compensation, after a delay of 20 years, was enforced by Cromwell.—Mill. Hume.
1624.—The English factories and agencies, unable to cope with the Dutch, nearly all withdrawn from stations in the Archipelago. The Company obtained, this year, for the first time, permission to punish their servants abroad by martial as well as municipal law. The factories at Siam, Portanis, and Japan withdrawn at the time.—Bruce.
1625.—The English, alarmed at the late massacre at Amboyna, had retired, the preceding year, from Batavia to the Island of Lagundy, in the Straits of Sunda; after much mortality, were forced to abandon it, from its unhealthiness.—Bruce.
1626.—In 1621, the factory at Bantam sent to the Coromandel coast, to open a trade at Pullicat; but the Dutch effectually opposed the attempt. In the following year, they seem to have succeeded in establishing a trade house at Masulipatam, and secured a considerable quantity of coast goods. In February, 1626, the English erected a small factory at Armagon, under Mr. Johnston, a Factor, which they slightly fortified, as a subordinate station to Masulipatam, and as a retreat, in case of need. Thus originated our transactions on the coast of Coromandel. The English wished to seize the Island of Bombay, and fortify it as a retreat from the native powers; the plan was not carried into effect, but now also was attention first directed to Bombay.—Bruce.
1627.—Jehanguir died.—Orn. 
1628.—In consequence of the oppression of the native Governor of Masulipatam, it was abandoned for a time by the factory for Armagon, which now mounted 12 pieces of cannon, and had 23 factors and soldiers.—Bruce.
1629.—Bantam reduced to an agency, dependant on Surat; this proving inconvenient, in its relations to the Dutch, it was again, in five years, restored to a presidency.—Bruce. Hamilton.
1630.—Armagon reinforced by 20 soldiers, and placed under the control of Surat. Off Surat, the Portuguese, with a large fleet, and 200 soldiers, made several fruitless attempts against the English shipping. They also made violent efforts without success, to regain their power in the Gulf.—Bruce.
1631.—A proclamation* by Charles I. enumerates, this year, the exports and imports of the Company, viz. exports, "perpetuances and draperies, (broad cloths, &c.) pewter, snuff, woollen stockings, silk stockings and gaiters, ribbands, roses edged with gold lace, beaver hats with gold and silver bands, felt hats, strong waters, knives, Spanish leather shoes, iron and looking glass:" the imports were "long pepper, white pepper, white powdered sugar, preserved nutmugs and ginger preserved, myrobolans, bezoar stones, drugs of all sorts, agate beads, blood stones, musk, aloes Socotrina, ambergris, rich carpets of Persia and of Cambaya, quilts of sattin, taffety, printed calicoes, benjamin, damasks, sattins and taffaties of China, quilts of China embroidered with gold, quilts of Potania embroidered with silk, galls, worm seeds, sugar-candy, China dishes, and porcelain of all sorts."—Bruce.
1632.—A Firman obtained from the king of Golconda, for the re-establishment of the factory at Masulipatam.—Bruce.
1633.—The Emperor of Delhi ordered the Soudbad of Bengal, Kassim Khan, to "expel the (Portuguese) idolators from his dominions." In consequence, the fort at Hooghly, under Michael Rodrigues, was seized after a brave defence. The Por-

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* The proclamation does not mention Indigo; but about this period there was a large contract for its supply to the English, at Agra, and much loss was sustained, as it found, at that juncture, no ready sale either in Persia or England.
tuguese were spared, but their idols were destroyed. This is the first act of hostility against Europeans recorded by the native historians.—Dow.

A French Company again attempted, with a fruitless effort, to colonise Madagascar.—Gleig.

1634.—On the 2nd February a Firmann was obtained from the Mogul, for liberty to trade in Bengal, without any other restriction, than that the English ships were to resort only to the port of Piddle. This fixes the precise period in which the English were first permitted to enter the Ganges. The President and Council at Surat, in great disgrace with the Court, having been discovered, from quarrels among themselves, to have been largely carrying on a private trade; they threw themselves on the mercy of the Court.—Bruce.

Mr. Morris, a factor from Masulipatam, sent to Bengal to avail himself of the Emperor Shau Jehan's Firmann: he reported from Piddle, that provisions for the Company's factories on the coast, and abundance of fine white cloths, were procurable on reasonable terms.—Bruce.

1635.—A new English Company, or association, under Sir W. Courten*, chartered by Charles, upon the unjust grounds that the London Company had "neglected to establish fortified factories, or seats of trade, &c." The latter petition against the infringement, and send orders to their servants in India not to assist or encourage the interlopers.—Bruce. Anderson.

1636.—Courten's vessels seized and plundered two junks of Surat and Din. The Mogul authorities would not comprehend the distinction of Companies, and imprisoned the why silks, and council of Surat for this aggression of their countrymen. Pirates also seized the opportunity of infesting the Indian seas. The President released only on paying 1,70,000 rupees to the Mogul. English Trade depressed at Surat, while the Dutch brought 22 large ships, with proportionate stock, to Bantam.—Bruce. Mill.

1637.—Captain Weddel, formerly a Company's servant, but now a leading instrument of Courten, fixed an Agency at Goa, and at Batticolo; he obtained a grant for a factory at Acheen, and attacked and carried a fort at Canton, collecting many bales of China goods, but being obliged to quit those seas, he fixed a factory at Bussorah, in the king of Vijiapore's dominions.—Bruce.

1638.—Armagon found unsuitable to commerce.—Bruce. Hamilton.

1639.—Mr. Day, one of the council, sent, in consequence, to the vicinity of St. Thome, who reported Madraspatam as favorable, and that the Naig of the district offered land and every aid for building a fort. So important did the situation appear, that, on their own responsibility, the council at once commenced the fortification, and it soon became surrounded with the town. They named it Fort St. George.—Bruce. Hamilton.

1640.—The distress of Charles I. made him oblige the Company to sell him 607,522 hogheads of pepper, at 2s. 1d. per hoghead, for which he gave bonds and re-sold it for 1s. 8d. ready money. The Company under great difficulty in these unsettled times. Trade opened to Bussorah from Surat.—Bruce. Mill.

1641.—Fort St. George made subordinate to Bantam.—Bruce.

1642.—The first regular dispatch from Madras received at home is dated this year, and it is curious that Mr. Day, who founded Fort St. George, immediately went to Bengal, and that the first regular dispatch to the Court from the latter place also bears his signature, and was received the same year; it is dated 3rd November, 1642, from Balsasore.—Bruce.

1643.—Great competition between the Dutch and English for firmans from the Mogul, but the commerce of the Europeans must have been looked upon as inferior by the Imperial Court, for the "profusion of presents," as appears from Surat, was only 9,000 rupees altogether.—Bruce.

1645.—The sum of £2,294 expended hitherto on the works of Fort St. George. It required at this date £2,000 farther to complete it for a garrison of 100 men. This year is memorable for the curious and unexpected extension of our incipient power in Bengal. Mr. Gabriel Broughton, surgeon of the Hopwell, was sent for from Surat to attend the Emperor Sha'ih Jehan. His daughter was severely burned, but Mr. Broughton cured the princess, and in reward for his services was granted, at his disinterested request, additional and new privileges for his countrymen in Bengal. In 1646 he rendered professional benefit to prince Shujao, then in the Government of Bengal, and by his subsequent intercession, factories, on advantageous grants, were established at Balsasore and Hooghly.—Bruce. Hamilton. Mill.

1645.—The rigid and austere manners of the republican party at home, injuring the trade of the Company, the same was officially explained to the king of Persia as the reason why silks, formerly in luxury, were now less in demand. The civil wars detrimental to all sales.—Bruce.

* Sir W. Courten died immediately after this; but the charter was continued to his son.
### Chronological Table.

This year died Noor Jehán, Empress and favorite Sultana of Jæhangir.—*Dow*.

1646.—The Dutch obtained a decided superiority in the Persian Gulf, almost ruining the Russorah and other establishments.—*Bruce*.

1647.—Courten’s association having established a colony at Madagascar, got into difficulties, and resorted to the desperate measure of there coining counterfeit pagedals and rials, to the great stain of the English character in India.—*Bruce*.

1648.—Bengal silk introduced into the investments. The communications this year, secret, and no despatches forwarded by the Company, in consequence of the danger and madness of the times.

1649.—Courten’s association now assumed the name of the Assada merchants—and after much discussion an union took place between them and the London Company; but although an “United Joint Stock” was formed, only two ships and £60,000 were sent to India this season. The agents in Persia ascribe the deficiency in trade there to the rumours reaching of civil commotion in England, and the “tragical story of the Kinge’s behending, which would cause the Emperor and the Persian nobles to consider the English as a base, contemptible, unworthy nation.”

1650.—Captain Jeremy Blackman appointed president at Surat, with a salary of about 400 rupees per month: private trade disallowed.

1651.—The Dutch officer Van Rubek settled a colony at the Cape of Good Hope. Outward and homeward ships had hitherto touched here, and journals were secretly deposited at Robben Island, to give information to friends arriving. The Dutch relinquished St. Helena, which the English took possession of. The residency at Surat had obtained enlarged privileges throughout the Mogul provinces, through the agency of a Mr. Davidge, sent to the Mogul’s court.—*Hamilton. Bruce*.

1652.—Cromwell finding it inexpedient to employ the fleets and armies of his insecure government, declares war against the Dutch, and the question of the injuries to the Company made one of the grounds.—*Mill. Huene*.

The indefatigable Hollanders were now rivalling the English at Bengal in their own factories.—*Bruce*.

1653.—The English must have established a factory before this at Lucknow, as it is stated, to be withdrawn this year. Fort St. George raised to a presidency, but the garrison, on the 5th February, as per return, had only 26 soldiers. The English lost four ships to the Dutch in the Gulf.—*Bruce. Hamilton*.

1654.—Notwithstanding its new rank as a presidency, the Company had ordered the civil establishment at Fort St. George to be reduced to 2 factors, and its military force to 10 soldiers! Peace signed with the Dutch, and they agreed, as per separate article, to pay the London Company £85,000 for losses at the Eastward, and £3,615 to the heirs of Captain Towerson and others, the sufferers at Amboyna. The island of Palaroon was also restored.—*Hamilton. Bruce*.

1655.—The Persian trade suspended, and that of Fort St. George at a stand, principally from the opposition of the Dutch. There were difficulties also from fresh rivals, called “Merchant Adventurers,” who, on petitioning for free trade, were at first patronized by Cromwell.—*Bruce. Mill*.

The following extracted statement of the Company’s “United Joint Stock” may not be uninteresting: it was dated 1st September, 1655.—*Bruce*.

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<th>DEBIT.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Salaries of the Merchants in India for 5 years, at £2,056 2 8</td>
<td>9,741 19 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mariners’ wages for like term</td>
<td>4,000 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Two years’ expenses in Surat</td>
<td>7,600 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>“ Coast of Coromandel</td>
<td>5,000 0 0</td>
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<td>“ Bantam</td>
<td>2,500 0 0</td>
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<td>Salary of Merchants on the three Brothers</td>
<td>230 0 0</td>
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<td>Balance of estate in England</td>
<td>89,033 12 2</td>
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<td>“ remain in Surat and Subordinate Factories</td>
<td>32,829 5 0</td>
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<td>At Madraspatan and factories on that Const</td>
<td>22,671 11 3</td>
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<td>At Bantam and Subordinates</td>
<td>26,451 10 7</td>
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<td>Voyage to Palaroon</td>
<td>1,051 8 0</td>
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<td>Fort St. George and customs</td>
<td>6,000 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Three houses in Agra, Ahmedabad, and Lucknow, with the garden at Surat</td>
<td>1,932 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Five houses at Bantam, Japara, Macassar, Jambee, and Bangar Massaen</td>
<td>3,600 0 0</td>
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<td>Two ships, a sloop, and pinnace</td>
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1655.—Reductions in all the establishments abroad; supernumeraries sent to England. Columbo taken by the Portuguese by the Dutch, who also, this year, established Chinsurah as a factory.—Bruce. E. I. Chron. Hamilton.

1657.—The London Company suffered much from the intrigues of rivals. At last Cromwell failing to open a free trade with advantage to the country, on the opinion and advice of his council of state "that the trade of East India be managed by a United Joint Stock, exclusive of all others," consented to grant a new Charter, on the 10th February, and took the Company under his especial protection. From this year the Company attempted to settle permanently at St. Helena.—Bruce. Mill.

1658.—The Hengal establishments ordered from home to be continued under the presidency of Fort St. George, the agencies at Cossim Bazar, Ballasore, and Patna to be subordinate to the factory at Hoogly. Surat the chief presidency; new regulations made for the servants in India. The emperor, Shah Jehan, being afflicted with mortal illness, his four sons contended for the succession. Aurangzebe's superior abilities and cunning prevailed. The Dutch completely expelled the Portuguese from Ceylon.—Bruce. Dow.

1659.—In consequence of the new charter, the English trade revived in India. Aurangzebe became emperor, Shah Jehan lived some years afterwards, confined at Agra.—Bruce. Dow.

1660.—The uncertainty of public affairs in England, after Cromwell's death, prevented the Company from making this year any exertions at home. A China Company attempted in France.—Bruce. E. I. Chron.

1661.—The embarrassments of the Company's funds at the commencement of this year again so great, it was resolved to relinquish many out stations in India, and instructions were issued to this effect, but on the 3rd April, Charles II. granted a new charter "for ever," with considerable privileges. The Company were authorized to make peace and war with any prince or people not Christians, erect fortifications, maintain armies, send home unlicensed Englishmen, and administer justice as a sovereign state. The Portuguese power in the East now reduced to the possession of Goa and Diu, the Dutch having expelled them from their ports on the coast of Malabar. The Island of Bombay ceded to the English by Portugal, as a marriage portion to Charles II. but its final possession withheld for four years, on various pretences.—Bruce. Gleig. Mill. E. I. Chron.

1662.—The Earl of Marlborough and Sir Abraham Shipman sent by the king with troops to take possession of Bombay. The Viceroy refused to deliver up the place. On the junction of the Assads and the East India Companies, the factories in Africa had become the property of the latter. They were Fort Cormantine, Fort Wyamba, Cape Coast Castle, and Benin; but this year the king obliged the whole to be handed over to the Royal African Company. "African Labourers" had early been sent to the Indian Factories as servants and guards; their descendants were subsequently a constituent part of the military guards at the Company's principal establishments.

Sir Geo. Oxinden, an able man, sent out as "President and chief director of Surat and all other factories," in the north parts of India. He received however a salary only of 250 rupees per mensem, and a yearly gratuity of 2,000 rupees as a compensation for private trade.—Bruce.

1663.—Factories which had been attempted at Patna, Cossim Bazar, and Ballasore ordered to be discontinued, and purchases and sales made only at Hooghly.

Major F. Willoughby appointed from home, Governor of the Island of Palaroon, at a salary of £50 per annum, for five years.—Bruce.

1664.—A French East India Company formed under the minister Colbert.—E. I. Chron.

In January, the town of Surat pillaged by Sevajee, the founder of the Mahrattas. Sir George Oxinden bravely defended the English factory, and the Mogul granted an exemption from customs for one year, in token of his admiration.—Bruce.

Sir A. Shipman, the deputed Governor of Bombay, perished by disease at Angede-vah, with 300 soldiers, the Portuguese refusing to comply with the treaty, and the English factory of Surat afraid to admit armed men, from apprehension of the Mogul's displeasure. About 100 men only survived of four companies, when the Portuguese finally gave up Bombay, but without any of its dependencies.—Bruce.

1665.—The Mogul, jealous of the possession of Bombay by the king, but unable to apprehend the distinct characters of the King's and Company's establishment. Mr. Foxcroft sent out as president at Fort St. George, when the incumbent, Sir Edward Winter, seized his intended successor on some pretence of treasonable speeches, and contumaciously held the fort for nearly two years.—Bruce.

The deposed emperor Shah Jehan died in confinement at Agra.—Fraser.

1666.—By the fire in London the Company's saltpetre and pepper ware-houses, then under the exchange, destroyed. Tea imported in England from Holland by the Lords Arlington and Ossery; it sold for 6s. per lb.; but two years previous, small quantities had reached, as presents to the king.—Bruce. E. I. Chron.
Sir Gervase Lucas sent out to Bombay as Governor, by the King; he imprisoned the acting Governor, Mr. Cooke, Secretary to the late Sir A. Shipman, for extortion and peculation.—Bruce.

1667.—Paloroon ceded to the Dutch by the treaty of Breda.—Anderson.

Aurangzebe, in his wars with Persia and Sevajeé, began to value European military talent, and demanded from Surat some artillery men and engineers for his armies. The request was evaded.—Bruce.

1668.—Bombay ceded to the king (23rd September) to the Company. Its revenues, as per return on session, were £2,833 per annum. The two companies then stationed there, of H. M. soldiers, volunteered into the Company's service, and thus formed its first military establishment at Bombay.*

This year Tea is first mentioned in the Company's dispatches. A letter to Bantam from the Court, thus orders the agent, "send home by these ships 100lb. weight of the best ley, that you can get."

Mr. Cooke, ex-Governor of Bombay, who had escaped to Goa, associated himself with Jesuits, and endeavoured to assemble a force to repose himself of Bombay: proclaimed a traitor. The revenue of Bombay more than doubled itself, under the Company the first year.—Bruce. Hamilton.

1669.—Sir G. Oxinden appointed from home "Governor and Commander-in-Chief" at Bombay, but he died on 14th July of the preceding year. This year also were received orders from home, to institute a pilot establishment at Hoogly, to build a pinnacle to be manned with intelligent seamen from the Indiamen, to take charge of the shipping up and down. Thus originated the Bengal Pilot Service.

St. Helena now regularly colonised under Captain Stringer, appointed Governor; the Captains of Indiamen touching there to act as members of his council. There were 22 regular Indiamen then in the service, as appears by a list of those entitled to act as members of the St. Helena council.

The military regulations in use, to control the small force at Bombay, founded on authority vested in the Company, by charter, to levy, embody, and entertain forces, &c. Their military establishments were thus upheld for years, until king's troops, serving in India, questioned their competency to hold courts martial.—Bruce.

1670.—The English trade considerably increased, as apparent from the fact of the outward investment of bullion and goods being £305,500. But the Dutch influence predominated; their ships from Europe this season were 52 in number.—Mill.

1671.—Bombay rising; in consequence, a miut ordered, and the building of two ships and two frigates commenced upon. Captain Herman Blake, who came round via Persia, appointed engineer and surveyor general; the first of that rank.

Surat again attacked, but well defended: its situation now deemed precarious for a presidency.—Bruce.

1672.—The presidency at Surat, in a letter on military subjects, recommended that the "principle of seniority must be observed in adjusting the rank of the officers at Bombay."—Bruce.

The French capture St. Thome, it was retaken two years subsequently by the Dutch and king of Goleonda, when the French purchased the village and district of Poudicherry, which they fortified.—E. I. Chron.

The oldest record of the Company extant in 1792, at the presidency of Fort St. George, bears the date of this year. It is a letter from Bantam, dated 1st June. Its recorded "abstract" was as follows:

"Mentions that the Company had ordered Factories to be established at "Tyoonke, whither was sent Mr. W. Gifford in the Zaut. "Tywan do. David Stephens, Experiment, "Japan, do. Symon Delboer, Return."—Dalrymple's Orient. Rep.

The Court recommended the Council, for the first time, at Bantam, to open a direct trade to China, and, at the same time, with reference to the attempt above alluded to, to settle at Tyoonke, Tywan, and Japan; ordered their agents to wear dresses of English cloth, with gold and silver lace, that their appearance might convey to the emperor and his officers impressions of their rank."—Bruce.

1673.—St. Helena having been several times taken and retaken, recaptured this year by a naval force from the Dutch, and regranted by charter to the English Company.—E. I. Chron.

* Derivation of Bombay doubtful, said to be from Buon Bahia, Portuguese; also from Bomba Devi, a Hindoo goddess.

† Mr. Delboe failed, it seems, at Japan, and was ordered away. The English flag had the St. George's cross, and thus somewhat resembled the Portuguese flag, which nation was hateful to the Japanese. The alliance by marriage with the princess of Portugal was also given as another cause, but Mr. Delboe returning by way of Macao, negotiated for permission to establish a factory there, and probably to this incident may be traced the origin of the present China Trade.—Bruce.
The outward India fleet divided into three squadrons, under an "Admiral, Vice Admiral, and Rear Admiral." Englishmen sent to Bengal to improve the silks, and dye the green and black colours, "but under an obligation to keep their art secret from the natives." The Dutch fleet so powerful off Bombay and Surat, that 500 Rajoops were sent for to defend these places. The French had taken Trincomalee from the Dutch, who now recovered it by a force from Batavie.—Bruce.

1674.—Bombay mounted 100 pieces of cannon.—Bruce.

1675.—The Court write out that Lahore Indigo was undersold by West-India indigo, and that less lac would be required from "the new practice of using wafers instead of wax."—Bruce.

Mr. Delboe formed a factory at Siam.—Dalrymple.

The Court, 12th July, framed the following regulations for their civil service. "In the advancement of our apprentices, we direct that after they have served the first five yeares, they shall have £10 per annum for the two last years, and having served those two yeares, to be enterained one yeare longer as Writers, and have Writer's salary; and having served that yeare, to enter into the degree of factors, which otherwise would have been ten yeares. And knowing that a distinction of titles is in many respects necessary, we do order, that when the apprentices have served their times, they be stiled Writers, and when the Writers have served their times, they be stiled Factors; and Factors having served their times, to be stiled Merchants, and Merchants having served their times, to be stiled Senior Merchants."—Bruce.

Civil Servants were to apply themselves also to acquire a knowledge of military duties, so that in case of attack, or being better qualified for military than civil duties, they might receive commissions and have military pay.—Bruce.

1676.—The king's letters patent, dated 5th October, (28th of Charles II.,) authorised mint at Bombay to coin "Rupes, Pice, and Budgrooks."—Bruce.

The Dutch had 6,750 fighting men in Batavie, exclusive of Civilians.—E. I. Chron.

The new charter now granted enabled the English Company to double their stock, and raise it to £739,782.—Anderson.

The celebrated Dr. Edmund Halley, by order of the king, sent out in a Company's ship to remain two years at St. Helena, for perfecting the knowledge of Astronomy.—Bruce.

The pay of an European soldier at Madras, in full for provisions and necessaries of every kind, was 21 shillings per month.—Hamilton.

1677.—The Company's agent at Bantam, Mr. White, and the principal servants of the agency, assassinated by the Javanese, on the 21st April, 1677, and the factory so ruined by the death of the seniors, that its transactions closed, and no accounts were conveyed to the Court.—Bruce.

Mr. Aungier, President at Surat, died 30th June, 1677.—Bruce.

1678.—A Judge appointed for the Island of Bombay.—Bruce.

A troop of Horse ordered to be embodied at Bombay, the pay of the Captain not to exceed £250 per annum.—Bruce.

Sheyntham Master, Esq. succeeded Sir W. Langhorne as Governor of Madras.—E. I. Chron.

1679.—The Court finding Bombay too expensive, sent out orders for retreatments in the military charges. Surat also to be reduced to an agency, but their servants were unable to obey the Court, from the unsettled state of affairs, and the wars between Sevajee and the Mogul.—Bruce.

1680.—Captain Keigwin sent to command the military at Bombay with a small reinforcement; he was to have six shillings per diem and to be 3rd in council. Mr. Smith sent out as assay master on a salary of £60 per annum.

Mr. Gyfford appointed agent and governor at Fort St. George.—Bruce.

1681.—Surat (such the shifting state of the Company's domestic affairs at this period) again ordered by the Court to resume the rank of a presidency. The court also revoked the order for Captain Keigwin's having a seat in council. Mr. John Child, brother of Sir Josiah, the Governor (now called chairman) of the East India Company, sent out as president at Surat.—Bruce.

Bengal first made separate from Madras. Mr. Hodges, a member of their committees, (now called director,) sent out with special powers as "agent and governor of their affairs in the Bay of Bengal, and of the factories subordinate to it, or Coassim Bazar, Patna, Balasore, Maida, and Dacca. A corporal of approved fidelity and courage, with twenty soldiers, to be a guard to the agent's person, and the factory at Hooghly, and to act against interlopers." Such the foundation of our power in Bengal; in the sequel the centre of commerce and the seat of government in India.—Bruce.

The king of Bantam sent an embassy to England.—Bruce.

1682.—The English Levant Company, deprived of their former portion of the Indian trade, endeavoured to oppose the East India Company; but in April, the
king and privy council rejected their scheme. Persian goods at this time com-
prehended silks of all sorts, red and black caramania wool, rhubarb, and drugs.—Bruce.
The Court ordered the institution of a bank at Madras. So violent the feeling
against interlopers, it was enjoined that no Company's servant should intermarry
with their families.
Opium first ordered from Bengal, Bantam captured by the Dutch, and the king
expelled. This gave a finishing blow to our position in that quarter.—Bruce.
1683.—By letters patent, dated 9th August, the king authorised the Company to
exercise admiralty jurisdiction within their limits. The appointed judge, Dr. St.
John, to have £200 per annum, and allowances at the Company's table.
Two companies of Rajpoots ordered to be embodied at Bombay.
Two English fleets sent out to redress the injuries to the Persian and Bantam
trade.
Mr. Hedges dismissed from Bengal for misconduct, and Mr. Gyfford, who was
sent to Madras, (now constituted a presidency,) directed to proceed to take charge
also of Bengal with an escort of a Company, composed of seamen from Indiamen.
A factory established at Tillocherry.
A serious insurrection at Bombay, on the 27th December, the fort was seized by
the troops under Captain Kelgwin, in consequence of retrenchments and reductions,
and held in the king's name, renouncing the authority of the Company. It was
forcibly retained for nearly two years, and then given up, the insurgents having
stipulated for pardon *.—Bruce.
The Company had to put to death some rebels at St. Helena, but on the petition
of the widows, to the House of Commons, the act was declared illegal and ar-
bitrary.
India stock sold this year from 350 to 500 per cent. advance.—Chron. Table.
Factories established at Cuddalore and Commerce in the Gingeey country.—
Bruce.
1684.—The English formally expelled from Java, and with the Company's proper-
ty, the establishments went to the Malabar coast.
Sir John Child of Surat made a baronet, and appointed the following year, Cap-
tain General and Admiral in India. Sir John Wyborne, Vice-Admiral and Deputy
Governor of Bombay, with a salary of £250 per annum.—Bruce.
1685.—Seat of government ordered to be transferred from Surat to Bombay. The
Madras government having fixed an agent and council at Priaman, on the Island
of Sumatra, the Court ordered the station to be supported and fortified. Also ordered
an uninhabited island in the Ganges to be obtained and fortified, while the works
at Fort St. George were to be strengthened. The factory at Masulipatam to be
dissolved.—Bruce.
1686.—Ten ships of war under Vice-Admiral Nicolson sent out to oppose the
native powers. On its arrival, the agent in Bengal (Mr. Charnock) ordered to act
as Admiral and Commander-in-Chief; six complete companies were on board with-
out Captains, it being intended that the members in council in Bengal should act in
that capacity. The force to disembark at Chittagong, seize and fortify it, establish
a mint, and five per cent. customs to be levied on the inhabitants. It was wished to
intimidate the Mogul and his officers, who had been arbitrary towards the factories.
The factory at Hooghly was oppressed, and surrounded by parties of native horse and
foot. Surat also had been plundered by Sevajee, and the Company's possession
injured by the wars of the Mogul and Maharratts.—Bruce.
Sir John Child appointed what is now called Governor General, with full authority,
in India, and discretionary powers to make war or peace with the Mogul; ordered to
proceed to Madras and Bengal, Mr. Zenza to act in his absence at Surat, or
rather Bombay. A company from a British regiment of the line sent out under a
Captain Clifton, who as well as all Captains of Infantry was to have seat in council.
—Bruce.
On the 28th October, a part of the fleet under Admiral Nicolson having arrived in
Bengal, an affray took place at Hooghly between three English soldiers and some of the
Nawab's peons; more soldiers joined, and at last the entire force came in contact,
and after a severe action, the Nawab's troops were defeated with loss. Hooghly was
cannonaded and 500 houses burnt. Subsequent to this useless affair, the agent and

* The officers both in rank and pay had been placed lower, and the militia so much reduced, that
all authority of the officers over the men had ceased. Captain Kelgwin applied for subsistence mon-
ies, there being no Company's table as formerly, and after much discussion the sum of £5 5s. per
month was granted, pending a reference to the Court. The Court 'unhappily ordered the half
allowance for duty to Captain Keigwin to be refunded, and this scrupulous measure produced the
discontent, and probably the revolt of the garrison.' Dr. St. John, in his report however to the
King and Council, stated, that the rebellion arose from the depredations and crimes of the inter-
lopers, with whom Captain Keigwin was intimately connected: although he used the King's name,
his motives were predatory and rebellious.—Bruce.
council quitted their open factory at Hooghly on the 20th December 1686, and retired to Chutnauttee, (afterwards Calcutta,) waiting a negotiation with the Mogul. The shipping, as the whole arrived, wanting repairs, it was deemed unadvisable to attempt the original object of the expedition, the reduction of Chittagong.—

**Bruce.** Stewart.

1687.—A settlement made at Bencoolen, and a firman obtained for the sole government of it. A fortification called York fort built.—

**Bruce.**

Bombay constituted a regency with further powers. Sir J. Wyborne and Mr. Zenzan dismissed for disputing Sir John Child's authority. To give dignity to the Governor General he was directed to be attired always with a life guard of 50 grenadiers, commanded by a Captain. Madras also constituted a regency, with a corporation, under His Majesty's Charter, consisting of a Mayor and ten Aldermen, (three to be Company's servants and seven to be natives,) to be justices of the peace, and "to wear thin scarlet gowns." One hundred and twenty burgesses to be appointed "to wear black silk gowns."—

**Bruce.**

The Court disapproved of the measures of Mr. Charnock at Bengal, and recommended more active hostility. Sir John Child at Bombay however took most able measures at this difficult juncture, and determined to uphold the British name and influence in India, notwithstanding the disastrous appearances at Bengal, where our remote factories were seized, and the English troops forced to fortify themselves at Nagelice. Captain Heath had meanwhile been dispatched from home with a fresh force.—

**Bruce.**

1688.—A Post Office ordered at Bombay.

Captain Heath arriving with the reinforcement in October, unwisely recommended hostilities in Bengal; he plundered and burnt Balasore; the Mogul Governor seized the English at the factory, and sent them prisoners up the country.—

**Bruce.**

1689.—Sir John Child, after capturing some native vessels at Surat, and bravely opposing the Mogul power amidst many embarrassing difficulties, died at Bombay on the 4th February, 1689. His successor, Mr. Harris, being at that time a prisoner at Surat, the Company's affairs became more alarming: submission was made to the Mogul, and a firman, or rather pardon, issued as to criminals. A heavy fine was exacted, on payment of which, the Siddee's fleet and army withdrew from before Bombay.

In the mean time, at Bengal, Captain Heath sailed towards Chittagong, which for some unexplained reason, he failed to attack; he then proceeded to Arracan, where he offered to assist a revolted chief against its King, but without waiting for the reply, set off for Madras, where his fleet, having on board the agent and council of Bengal, and the Company's effects, arrived on the 4th March.

The factories at Vizagapatam and Masulipatam were seized by the Mogul, and Mr. Stables, chief of the former, and four factors, put to death.

At home the Commons recommended the establishment of a new Company, the present one being little in favor with the King, parliament, or people.

It is singular that the Court, during these humiliating reverses abroad, had written to their servants to obtain dominion; or, as the orders say, to increase revenue, "to make us a nation in India." They had found the insufficiency of firms, and were desirous to assume independence and power.—

**Bruce.** Stewart.

1690.—The Mogul authorities invite Mr. Charnock and factory back again to Bengal. Mr. Harris proclaimed Governor of Bombay, but with no general power as his predecessor; Mr. Weldon appointed Deputy Governor. The interlopers in England associated themselves, and made every exertion to obtain a separate charter.—

**Bruce.**

1691.—A new firman obtained by Mr. Charnock in Bengal. He had previously re-settled the establishment at Chutnauttee, protected by 100 soldiers. Ulballah had been tried, but found unfounded.—

**Bruce.**

1692.—Mr. Charnock died 10th January, much respected by many. He was succeeded by Mr. Ellis.—

**Bruce.**

Mr. Yale dismissed at Madras. Mr. Nathaniel Higgenson succeeded October 13th, to the government. The latter was superseded in December by Sir J. Goldesborough, who was appointed "Commissary General and Supervisor" of the Company's affairs in India.—

**Bruce.**

An Attorney General sent to Madras for the better regulation of the Company's interests.—

**Bruce.**

At Bombay European pirates had caused much inconvenience to the trade, and irritation on the part of the Mogul.—

**Bruce.**

Tegnapatam had been purchased from the Ram Rajah, and fortified—was called Fort St. David.—

**Bruce.**

1693.—The Company had expended at home £00,000 in influencing the Privy Council to renew the charter.—

**Bruce.** Mill.
A mutiny took place at St. Helena, consequent to the temporary relaxation of martial law as directed from home. The insurgents killed the Governor, and disarmed and imprisoned the soldiers of the garrison. Captain Keeling sent out with a force to reduce the island to obedience.—Bruce.

A new charter granted on the 7th October (5th William and Mary) renewing that of Elizabeth, with some modified and some extended privileges.—Bruce.

1694.—Bengal, after Mr. Charnock's death, again made subordinate to Madras, Sir J. Goldesborough, on his tour of inspection as Commissary General, dissented from the high eulogium elsewhere passed on the late Mr. Charnock. He describes him as having been irresolute and indulent. He superseded his successor Mr. Ellis, and appointed the chief at Dacca, Mr. Eyre, to be agent. He also removed Captain Hill, the military commandant, and sent him to Madras. In the midst of several spirited reforms, Sir J. Goldesborough died, and was succeeded by Sir J. Gayer, from Bombay.—Bruce.

During this year a Dr. Blackwall, a medical officer, for a bribe agreed to deliver up Fort St. David to the Mogul General. This treason was fortunately discovered, and Blackwall seized and punished.—Hamsteer.

A letter from the Court! stated that "every recruit sent from England cost £30."

A fortified settlement was made from Bombay at Anjengo.—Bruce.

1695.—The Parliament of Scotland, on the 26th June, empowered the King (as King of Scotland) to constitute a Scottish Company. The Governor of the London Company, (Chairman) Sir T. Cook committed by the commons to the Tower, for refusing to give an account of the money distributed in bribes.—Bruce.

The homeward bound fleet captured by the French.—Ditto.

A large privateer having seized a Mogul ship, the Surat factory was seized upon, and liberated only after much difficulty on the following year.—Ditto.

1696.—Much distress occasioned by the interlopers: the crews of two Indiamen, stated to have been seduced by them; they rose and murdered their officers, and turned pirates—such the extent of the contagion, that the Governor at Bombay could not man a boat, for fear that the crew would desert; and so low was the state of the garrison, there was not a trust-worthy soldier for promotion to the rank of sergeant or corporal.—Bruce.

The trade at Madras also similarly crippled, but its revenues and taxes said to have amounted to 40,000 Pagodas.—Bruce.

1677.—Mr. Pitt appointed Governor at Madras; to be for 12 months independent of the Commissary General, Sir J. Gayer.—Bruce.

A rebellion of a Rajah Subah Sing having broken out in Bengal, it gave an opening to the French, Dutch, and English factories to erect fortifications. But for this, so jealous were the authorities, it would not have been permitted.—Stewart.

A new and favorable firman obtained from the Emperor of Persia.—Bruce.

1698.—An act passed 10th William, cap. 44, incorporating a new 'general society trading to the East Indies.' It was called the English East India Company, in contra distinction to the old or London Company.

On the passing of this act for another Company, the old corporation exerted itself, "with a true Roman courage," as one of their mercantile letters states, in advising their servants of an extensive equipment. They dismissed the President of Surat, Mr. Annesley, (Mr. Colt to succeed) and permitted their establishments, as an encouragement, to trade in jewels. At Madras all former factories or stations were to be resumed, so as to exclude the new Company. Bengal was again made independent of Port St. George.

Captain Kyd, the notorious pirate, formed his ships into squadrons, and fairly blockade the coasts: in consequence, the Mogul, who would not understand the distinction between this outlaw and the other English, put the whole trade under an embargo.

The new English Company sent Agents to India, chiefly men who had been dismissed with disgrace, from the London Company. Sir William Norris was appointed by the King's Commission, an Ambassador to the Mogul, to solicit privileges for the new association.—Bruce.

1699.—Sir Edward Littleton was appointed President and Consul, in Bengal, of the new Company; he was also empowered to act as King's Consul. He was ordered to report on all the plans and trade of the London Company, to obtain from the dismissed servants all possible information, copies of firmanus, &c. Sir Nicholas Waite was appointed their President, at Surat. The new Company, however, at this early stage, made approaches for an union between the rivals.—Bruce.

The Mogul Prince Azem Ooshan granted in 1698-99, the adjacent small villages of Calcutta, Govindpore, and Calicotta, (dedicated to the goddess Calee,) the whole soon taking the name of the last, or Calcutta. Sir Charles Eyre, recently knighted, an old servant, was again sent to India, to be principal servant in Bengal, which they now constituted a presidency. The instructions to Sir C. Eyre, dated
December, 1699, directed him to increase the fortifications, to build a strong fort of pentagonal form, to be called Fort William.—Stewart. Bruce.

1700.—The London Company obtained an act, on the 11th April, for continuance of their corporation, and the King recommended an union of the two interests.

In India, the new Company's servants insulted and committed violence on the flag and factory of the London Company, at Surat, which was resisted by the Mogul Governor, as an affront to himself. The trade was much injured every where.

At Madras, disputes took place between Consul Pitt, and Governor Pitt, the rival Governors of the two companies; in fact, throughout India, as might be expected, the hostile rivalry of both companies ruined the trade for all concerned. The new Company made some progress, in opening a trade with China, though it failed eventually.—Bruce.

1701.—The disputes of the old and new Company most perplexing and ruinous. The native rulers took bribes from both parties. The Ambassador, Sir W. Norris, seized two of the Council of the London Company, at Surat, and sent them to the Mogul Governor, "with their hands tied." Sir John Gayer, the President, subsequently was seized by the Emperor's order, obtained through misrepresentation, and with the other members of Council, "barbarously used."

A Committee appointed at home, to endeavour to effect an union between the Companies.

Sir W. Norris had an audience of the Mogul, on the 25th April, 1701. He was attended by a splendid European cavalcade, with ordnance, and many followers.

Kyd, the pirate, taken, and hanged at home. He had been supported by some noblemen, Lord Somers and Orford, who were impeached.—Bruce. E. I. Chron.

1702.—In January of this year, the preliminaries of the union were settled.

Bengal improved, under the auspices of the Mogul Prince Azeem Ooshan. The instructions from home directed the Civil Servants to proceed themselves with small stocks, in the Aurungs, and bargain themselves "without the affectation of pomp and grandeur, and as merchants ought to do."

The ambassador abruptly broke off the negotiation at the Mogul's Court, and departed for Surat, which circumstance, with the depredations of the pirates, so incensed the Emperor, that he ordered all the English in his dominions to be seized, imprisoned, and their effects confiscated. All the subordinate agencies suffered in consequence, but Cutcula by this time was too strong to be thus dealt with.

In the deed of union by which the two Companies were hereafter to take the name of "the united Company of merchants trading to the East Indies," the factories of the old Company are thus detailed.

Bombay: Surat, Swally, Broach, Ahmedabad, Agra, and Lucknow.

On the Malabar Coast: the forts and factories of Carvar, Tillicher, Anjengo, and Calicut.

Persia: the factories of Gombroon, Shiraz, and Isphahan.

Fort St. George, Madras, Fort St. David, Cuddalore, Porto Novo, Pettipoole, Masulipatam, Madapollam, and Vizagapatam. The settlements on the Island of Sumatra, or York Fort, Bencoolen, Indrapore, Tyamong, Sellebar; also the factory of Touquin in Cochin China.

Fort William: Chuttanuttee, (Calcula not yet specified it seems,) Balasore, Cosim Bazar, Dacca, Hoogly, Malda, Rajmahl, and Patna; also the Island of St. Helena.

The new Company specify in the deed only the following settlements. A factory at Surat, at Masulipatam, at Madapollam, and on the Islands of Borneo and Pulo Condore.

The Indenture further sets forth as stock:

| Old Company | £315,000 | 0 | 0 |
| New Company | 1,662,000 | 0 | 0 |
| Separate Trades | 23,000 | 0 | 0 |

Total .. £2,000,000 0 0.—Bruce.

1703.—On the union above referred to, Sir John Gayer was appointed by the General Court, "General and Governor" of Bombay, and Sir Nicholas Waite's commission, under the English Company, of Consul, revoked. President Pitt was confirmed at Madras, and consul Pitt made chief authority at Fort St. David, his commission of consul being cancelled. President Beard confirmed at Bengal, though a commission of eight were appointed to investigate and control all proceedings at Fort William. There was still much dissension between the late rival authorities throughout India, and much difficulty in the attempts at adjustment.—Bruce.

1704.—Sir John Gayer having been imprisoned by the Mogul authorities, Sir Nicholas Waite, who was appointed to succeed in case of vacancy, basely contrived
to prolong his detention, by bribes and iniquitous misrepresentations to the natives. The disputes between the rival servants still kept up in adjusting accounts and outstanding commercial transactions.—Bruce.

1705.—The treachery of Sir Nicholas Waite fully discovered by the disclosure of his instrument, Rustam, a native broker; but in defiance of orders from the General Court, he retained authority, and Sir J. Gayer was still in confinement at Surat.—Bruce.

1706.—At Bengal the affairs were becoming settled; Sir Edward Littleton, the late president of the new Company, having been recalled, and Mr. President Beard having died. Messrs. Hedges and Sheldon were appointed jointly to succeed and bring up the accounts of the two Companies.—Bruce.

1707.—Aurungzebe died on the 20th February. His revenues were equal to 38 millions sterling. To shew the general fear entertained of the imperial power by foreigners then in India, it was thought necessary to announce it to the Court in an allegory. Thus in a letter dated 1st March, 1707, Sir J. Gayer (previously released) represented, "that the sun of this hemisphere had set, and that the star of the second magnitude being under his meridian had taken his place, but it was feared the star of the first magnitude, though under a remoter meridian, would struggle to exalt itself," thus conveying the news of the Emperor's demise, and of the disputes between his sons for the succession.—Bruce.

The works at Fort William were by this time respectable, with a number of guns, and 125 soldiers, of whom half were Europeans: many natives began to settle in its vicinity.—Bruce.

Madras at this period had only 300 European settlers, of whom 200 were military.—Hamilton.

1708.—The time drawing on far to final incorporation of the accounts and affairs of the two Companies, which was ordered for this year, their feelings and interests became identified by a sudden demand from H. M.'s government for £2,200,000, without interest. All their closing dissensions gave way to avert the common danger, and on the 29th September, 1708, a final award and charter was adopted. By this act, 6 Anne, cap. 17, the privileges were to be extended to March, 1726. At this juncture, the number of directors, their duties, committees, mode of sales, warehousing, and home establishments were adjusted, and have remained with little alteration on the same footing to the present day.

Thus were closed the transactions of the English in establishing a trade with India, until the act of legislature confirming the corporate capacity of the United Company of Merchants Trading to the East Indies.—Bruce.

1709.—It may be gathered from the following circumstance, how deeply the contentions of the two rival Companies before their union had injured the entire trade, and the prosperity of the English in India.—The King of Persia just before this period wished to send an embassy to Bombay, but ashamed to betray the weakness of its defences and garrison, and the general poverty of the place, the English authorities refused to admit it.—Hamilton.

Thomas Pitt, Esq. Governor of Madras, was succeeded (30th of September) by Gulston Addison, Esq. brother of the celebrated Addison. His authority lasted but a month, as Edmund Montague, Esq. relieved him provisionally on the 29th October. While he again was superseded on the 14th November by William Fraser, Esq.—E. I. Chronologist.

The Company's grant of perpetuity by writ of privy seal was issued 22nd April.—Folio state papers. Do.

The exports of this year were £165,357, half as much again as those of the preceding season.—Mill.

1710.—Sadut Ally Khan commenced his government of the Carnatic.—Orme. E. I. Chronologist.

1711.—William Fraser, Esq. Governor of Madras, was succeeded (July 22nd) by Edward Harrison, Esq.—E. I. Chron.

1712.—Shah Aulum, who had succeeded Aurungzebe, died. Azeem Ooshan, the patron of the English in Bengal, lost his life in the struggle for the succession, and Ferokser, his son, afterwards gained the throne.—Mill.

1773.—The Bengal Presidency apply home for permission to send an Embassy to Delhi.—Mill.

1714.—Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, granted commissions to ships to trade to the East Indies. He afterwards founded the Ostend Company, so injurious to the interests of the English and Dutch.—Anderson's Hist. of Com. East India Chron. Fort Marlborough built near Bencoolen.—Grant.

1715.—Messrs. Surman and Stephenson, the ablest factors of Bengal, also an Armenian, as Interpreter, and Mr. W. Hamilton, as Surgeon, were sent on an Embassy to Delhi, where they arrived on the 8th July. The Emperor Ferokser,
being sick, and prevented from marrying a Rajpoot princess, was cured by Mr. Hamilton, and the Surgeon, with the same disinterested zeal, as shown by Dr. Boughton on a former occasion, used his influence only to procure the object of the Embassy, and obtain more favorable terms for the United Company.—_Stewart's Hist. of Bengal._

The French Company, though their affairs were desperate, obtained a renewal for ten years.—_Royal. East India Chron._

1716.—The marriage of the Mogul Emperor intervening, the Embassy could not deliver their petition until January of this year.—_Mill._

The Governor of the French settlement of Pondicherry announced to the British, at Fort St. David, that there were off the Malabar Coast, two 40-gun vessels, under imperial colours, from Oстend. The Ostend Company were not regularly chartered till some years afterwards.—_Grant._

1717.—The objects of the Embassy of 1715 attained in July. Thirty-four favorable grants or patents were issued by the Mogul, and the English allowed to purchase 37 towns contiguous to Calcutta. The privileges now granted were long considered as constituting the great charter of the English in India.—_Rennell's Memoirs._

Grant.

1718.—The Ex-Sultan Guelenmut, of Anaksoongay, in Sumatra, raising a force, destroyed the town of Ippoe, with the British Resident and all his people.—_Grant._

1719.—A native force obliged the English to evacuate Fort Marlborough, and take refuge on their ships.—_Grant._

Ferkoksere deposed and murdered: four successors appeared and passed away in as many months.—_Orme._

1720.—The French took possession of the island, called by the Dutch, Mauritius, who possessed it for a short time; but abandoned it for the Cape of Good Hope. The French peopled it from the Isle of Bourbon, and named it the Isle of France.—_Royal. East India Chron._

Jos. Collet, Esq., Governor of Madras, succeeded by Francis Hastings, Esq.—_East India Chron._

1721.—The natives of the Island of Sumatra, fearing the Dutch more than the English, whom they had expelled, allowed the latter, in the hope of their counter-acting the intriguing activity of the Dutch, to resume their Sumatran establishments. The English now remained at peace for many years, increasing in prosperity and in influence over the natives.—_Grant._

Francis Hastings, Esq., Governor at Madras, succeeded by Nat. Elwick, Esq.—_East India Chron._

1722.—The Emperor granted this year a regular Charter to the "Ostend East India Company," to the great discontent of all the European maritime powers, except Spain*.—_Salmon and others. East India Chron._

1723.—The Ostend Company had fully established themselves, under the Nawaub's patronage, at Blany Bazar, 15 miles above Calcutta, at the eastern side of the river.—_Stewart. East India Chronologist._

1724.—Shuja Adleen Khan, afterwards Nawaub of Bengal, though of liberal disposition, about this period, was incensed against the English, in consequence of the public servants taking advantage of the late grants of the Emperor, and insisting upon passing their own private trade free of duty. The Foujdar of Hooghly, stopped a boat laden with silks, upon which a party of soldiers was dispatched from Calcutta, and forcibly released the boat. The English were finally obliged to pay a heavy fine, and apologise for this act.—_Mill. Sketches of Bengal._

1725.—Nathaniel Elwick, Esq., Governor of Madras, is succeeded by James Macrue, Esq.—_East India Chron._

During the quinquennial period, from the year 1720 to 1725, the English had exported to India, £575,155 of goods, and 9,770,238 of bullion.—_Grant._

1726.—By letters patent, dated August, George I., complied with the petition of the United East India Company, and established, at the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, regular Courts of Record, for the discharge of both Civil and Criminal Justice. The Courts to consist of a Mayor and nine Aldermen, of whom seven were to be natural born subjects. The Mayor to be elected by the Aldermen, and to continue in power for one year. Appeals allowed to the Governor in Council. The Governors and Senior Members created justices of the Peace, and empowered to hold quarter sessions.—_Grant._

So flourishing were the affairs of the Ostend Company, in spite of the opposition and edicts of the rival nations, that this year, one-third of the original subscription of the proprietors, which remained due, was paid up from the gains alone of the trade.—_Mill._

The East India House erected in Leadenhall-street, London.—_E. I. Chron._

* Mill states, that the Charter was granted in August, 1723.
1727.—So much had the country trade increased, in ten years, after the patents or grants obtained by the Embassies to the Emperor, in 1717, that the private tonnage employed in Bengal, by this time, amounted to 10,000 tons. Many of the Company's Servants were concerned in this trade.—Grant. Mill.

The Court at Vienna, after much hesitation, at length yielded to the combination of the European powers, against the Ostend Company. The Emperor suspended its charter for seven years, thus virtually abolishing the Company*.—Grant.

1728.—The Danish East India Company, residing at Copenhagen, published proposals for a new subscription, and the following year, they obtained extraordinary privileges, from the king of Denmark, who declared his intention of making it the most flourishing Company in Europe.—Anderson. E. I. Chron.

1729.—The Dutch Company had their Charter extended for 23 years, for which they paid the Republic a large consideration; at this time, their wealth and power in India, particularly at Java, equalled those of several monarchs.—Anderson. E. I. Chron.

1730.—The Charter, after much discussion, renewed to the English United East India Company, for 33 years: The Charter to expire on Lady Day, 1769, including the three years' grace.—Mill.

Four English China ships arrived this year, with 1,707,000 lbs. of tea, and three other Indiamen, with 371,000 pieces of calicoes, besides other valuable merchandise.—Anderson. E. I. Chron.

From 1725 to 1730, the English Company exported goods, £651,234, and bullion, £2,551,872.—Grant.

1731.—The king of Sweden set on foot an East India Company, for trading from Gottenburg. A Charter granted for 15 years.

The king of Portugal formed a temporary East India Company, with one ship, to trade to Surat: their former Empire in the East thus reduced!—Anderson. East India Chronology.

1732.—The English Company first began to make up annual accounts. This year their sales amounted to £1,940,996. But their competitors, the Dutch, were far exceeding them in return and profits; thus in 1732, the English reduced their dividends, from 8 to 7 per cent, per annum, which thus continued till 1744. The Dutch during a main portion of that time, realised 25 and 20 per cent. upon the capital stock, and never less than 12½.—Mill.

1733.—Mr. Freke's government of Fort William commenced.—E. I. Chron.

1734.—Under the able rule of Shuja Addeen Khan, the provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa greatly improved. His power was respected by the European nation.—Stewart.

M. Mahe de la Bourdonnais, afterwards famous in India, was commissioned to improve the Isle of France, by the French Company. To this officer the island is indebted for its forts, aqueducts, bridges, hospitals, and granaries. The French influence and trade fast improving in the East.—Mill. E. I. Chron.

1735.—The Maharrattas had made such progress, that they burned the suburbs of Delhi, under the Emperors Mahomed Shah, who, (after the demise, in 1819-20, of the two infant princes, Ruffeh ad Durjaut and Ruffeh ad Doulah,) had succeeded Feroksker on the Musnud. The Maharrattas acquired the greater portion of Malwa, and a grant of the fourth part of the net revenues of the other royal provinces; thus originating the Chout.—Hamilton. Renell.

From 1730 to 1735 the English Company had exported £717,854 of goods, and £2,406,078 of bullion.—Grant.

Richard Benyon, Esq. succeeded George Morton Pitt, Esq. as Governor of Madras. His government lasted nine years.—Dalrymple.

1736.—A proclamation was issued in January, prohibiting British subjects from trading to the East Indies, contrary to the liberties and privileges granted to the Company; or from serving in, or being on board any ships unlawfully trading. This was probably to prevent connexion with foreign Companies.—E. I. Chron.

1737.—Calcutta nearly destroyed by a hurricane and earthquake†.—E. I. Chron.

* It was afterwards altogether dissolved by the treaty of Seville; but the Germans were not finally expelled from Bengal, until 1735. In 1730, their factory, at Bahy Bazar, was in existence, and an English naval force seized one of their ships, and drove another under the factory guns. The Dutch and English shortly after, by intrigues and misrepresentation, induced the Foulard at Hooghly to invest the factory, which made a long and gallant defence, with a garrison reduced to only 14 men. At length, the agent, or chief, being severely wounded, the factory was evacuated, the little garrison retreating the ships in safety, and the Mogul troops, taking possession of the empty fort, levelled the works to the ground.—(Stewart. Gladwin's Nar. of Govt. Bengal.)

† The following extract is from the Gentle-man's Magazine, printed in 1730-31. "In the night between the 11th and 12th October, (1735,) there happened a furious hurricane, at the mouth of the Ganges, which reached 60 leagues up the river. There was, at the same time, a violent earthquake, which threw down a great many houses along the river side: in Galgotta, (i.e. Calcutta,) alone, a fort belonging to the English, two hundred houses were thrown down, and the high and
1738.—Mr. Freke, Governor of Fort William, was succeeded by Mr. Cruttenden, who was succeeded in the following year, by Mr. Braddyth.—E. I. Chron.

1739.—Nadir Shah entered and plundered Delhi. 120,000 persons were massacred.

—Stewart, Hamilton, and others.

Shuja Addeen Khan, Nawaub of Bengal, died, and was succeeded by his son, Serferaz Khan.—Stewart.

1740.—Nadir Shah, after dreadful exactions and tyranny, departed from Delhi.—Stewart.

Serferaz Khan attacked by Ally Verdy Khan, and slain in battle: succeeded by the latter.—Stewart.

Thirty thousand insurgent Chinese massacred by the Dutch at Java.—E. I. Chron.

From 1735 to 1740, the United East India Company exported £938,970 of goods, and £2,459,470 of bullion.—Grant.

1741.—The Mahrattas invaded Bengal, to demand the Chout of that province.—Stewart.

1742.—A ditch was dug round a considerable part of the boundaries of Calcutta, to prevent the incursions of the Mahrattas.—Hamilton.

1743.—The Mahrattas, with a new army, under Ragooee Bhosela, again invaded Bengal. The Nawau Ally Verdy Khan drove them back, but his loss, in revenue, was immense, from their plunder, and the devastation they had inflicted during their incursion.—Stewart.

1744.—Now commences a new era in the affairs of Europeans in India, from the struggles that ensued between the rival interests of the two nations, on the proclamation of war between England and France, on the 21st May, 1744. Since the junction of the two English Companies, in 1705, the trade had been progressively improving, and the establishments in India quietly advancing; but little had occurred politically worthy of remark, for the long period of 36 years. From this date events crowd on the notice of the chronologist.

Previous to the breaking out of the war, in February, it was agreed, at a general court of the East India Company, to lend the Government one million of money, at three per cent., as an equivalent for the prolongation of the charter, for 14 years, (from 1769 to 1783,) to commence from Michaelmas, 1744, which was confirmed by Act of Parliament of the 17th of George II.—E. I. Chron.

On the declaration of war, a British squadron, under Commodore Barnett, appeared in the Indian seas.—Orme.

Nicolas Morse, Esq., succeeded to the Government of Madras.—Dalrymple.

1745.—The British squadron appeared off Pondicherry; but the Nawab of Arcot, Anwar-ad-deen, at the instigation of Monsieur Duplief, the French Governor, (who had succeeded to the supreme command of the French settlements, in 1742,) insisted on no hostilities being then committed.—Orme.

The United East India Company, from 1740 to 1745, exported £1,105,750 of goods, and £2,529,109 of bullion.—Grant.

1746.—Commodore Barnett died. His successor Mr. Peyton engaged, without any decisive result, a French fleet, arrived under M. De la Bourdonnais. In September, the French landed a force at Madras, which town, after a bombardment of two days, capitulated. Nothing could be lower than the English military power, spirit, and science, at this period, in India. The Madras garrison consisted only of 300 men, of whom 34 were Portuguese "vagabonds," or deserters and negroes; 60 were sick and ineffective, and only 200 soldiers fit for duty. The officers were three lieutenants, of whom two were foreigners; and seven ensigns, who rose from the ranks. Only one lieutenant and one ensign were deemed efficient officers.—Mill. Orme. E. I. Chron.

Mr. Braddyth, Governor of Fort William, succeeded by Mr. Forster, who was succeeded by Mr. Dawson the following year. Fort St. David became the presidency, by the surrender of Madras.—Dalrymple.

1747.—Fort St. David invested by the French, who retired on the return to the coast of the British squadron, under Capt. Peyton.—Orme. Mill.

1748.—Major Lawrence, subsequently celebrated in the coast army, arrived in January, from England, with a commission, to command the Company’s forces. Also Admiral Boscauwen, with 13 men of war, and 17 other ships, with a considerable magnificent steeple of the English church, sunk into the ground without breaking. It is computed, that 20,000 ships, barges, sloops, boats, canoes, &c. have been cast away. Of nine English ships, then in the Ganges, eight were lost, and most of the crew drowned. Barges of 60 tons were blown two leagues up into land, over the tops of high trees: of four Dutch ships in the river, three were lost with their men and cargoes. 300,000 souls are said to have perished. “The water rose forty feet higher than usual, in the Ganges.” N. B. The steeple of the church was described to have been lofty and magnificent, and as constituting, before this period, the chief ornament of the settlement.—Sketches of Bengal.
force on board. They invested Pondicherry in their turn. Ensign Clive, who came out in the civil service, but had joined the army here, distinguished himself. The seige failed, and the British retired in September. The military character of the French in India, considered at this time as greatly superior to that of the English.—Orme.

Mr. Dawson, Governor of Fort William, succeeded by Mr. Fetch.

Mahomed Shah, Emperor of Hindooostan, died, after a disastrous reign of thirty years. He was succeeded by his son, Prince Ahmed Mizrza, who took the title of Ahmed Shah.—East India Chronologist.

1749.—Madras restored to the English, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, signed on the 18th October, 1748. When evacuated by the French, it was found in a very improved state; the space round the works cleared and extended.—Orme.

The English took Devi-cottah, in-supporting the claims of a fugitive Rajah of Tanjore; thus commencing to interfere, (in common with their rivals, the French,) in the quarrels of the native powers. Subsequently, in the Carnatic, the French espoused the cause of Chunda Saheb, who set up as Nawab of the Carnatic; the English taking the side of Mahomed Ally Khan, second son of Anwar-ul-deen Khan, on the death of his father.—Mill.

1750.—Mr. Barwell succeeded Mr. Fetch, as Governor of Fort William.—East India Chronologist.

The intrigues of the French and English, with the native powers, assumed some importance; but M. Dupleix gained greater advantages than his rivals, from his greater address, deeper laid schemes, and more unprincipled conduct.—Mill. Orme.

Mr. Saunders took charge, as Governor, at Fort St. David.—Daly Hung.

1751.—On the assassination of Nazir Jung, (who had assumed the title and power of Subadar of the Dekhan, on the death of his father Nizam ul Muluk,) Mozuffer Jung was invested as Subadar. He appointed M. Dupleix Governor of the Mogul dominions, on the coast, from the Kistna to Cape Comorin, and Chunda Saheb, his deputy, at Arcot; Mahomed Ally, the protegè of the English, fled, and offered to resign his pretensions.—Mill.

The new Subadar was early killed, during a revolt of his troops; but M. Bussy, who now was distinguished in these transactions, procured the exaltation of Salabut Jung, who promised the same concessions to the French.—Mill. De Bar.

The English, under Captain Gingens, (a Swiss,) had been defeated at Volconda, but under Capt. Clive were more successful at Arcot.—Mill.

1752.—The seat of Government removed back to Fort St. George from Fort St. David, 17th April.—Daly Hung.

Mahomed Ally again resolved to oppose Chunda Saheb and the French; he was supported by the English. Clive obtained several advantages, and exhibited great military talents. He was joined by Major Lawrence, when the allied enemies were completely defeated. The French capitulated, and Chunda Saheb delivered himself up. This prince was immediately assassinated by the native allies. It is said, that Major Lawrence might have prevented this lamentable fate, but it would seem he was wrongfully accused by M. Dupleix of being necessary to it.—Mill.

The new style took place in England, on September 3rd, which day became the 14th.—E. I. Chron.

1753.—Dupleix, not disheartened, again made efforts against his rivals; but the few English troops under Lawrence and Clive, were fast surmounting the French in India, in all the qualities of soldiers; the officers were better—the men more orderly. The English had 700 Europeans, and 2,000 Sepoys, and 1,500 of the Nawab’s cavalry. The French, 500 Europeans and 60 Horse Infantry, 2,000 Sepoys, and 4,000 Maharattah Cavalry. The year was passed in fruitless, but bold attempts, on the part of the French, to seize Trichinopoly, and of the English, to induce them to raise the siege.—Mill.

Ahmed Shah, Emperor of Delhi, was deposed and blinded.—Hamilton.

1754.—Great discontent existing in Europe, at the wars carried on by the French and English, in India, while their respective nations were at peace. Commissioners were sent out to inquire into, and adjust the dissensions. On the 2nd August, M. Godheau arrived as Commissary, and settled with Mr. Saunders, Governor of Madras, a peace between the Companies. The English had succeeded in maintaining their ally, Mahomed Ally, on the throne; and had effected the ruin of Chunda Saheb; which results, added to their military successes, proved, that they had the advantage in the late operations. M. Dupleix was recalled, and badly received in France; but must have been an able, although an ambitious man. He left M. Godheau as Governor, and M. Bussy in great power, at the Court of Salabut Jung, the Subadar of the Dekhan.—Mill. Orme.

The king gave the royal assent to an act, in March, to punish mutiny and desertion, in the officers and soldiers, belonging to the East India Company.—E. I. Chron.
1755.—Notwithstanding the late peace, the rivals were still intriguing and interfering with the native powers. The English proceeded against Madura and Tinvelly. The French renounced and opposed them.—Mill.

1755.—A settlement at Negrais having been two years previous contemplated by Governor Saunders, Capt. Baker was, this year, sent on an embassy to Ava.—Dalrymple.

Mr. Geo. Pigot succeeded Mr. Saunders, as Governor at Madras.—Dalrymple.

1756.—Alumgeer assassinated. Ahmed Shah Abdelli first entered Delhi.—Hamilton.

Fredericksnagore (Seraenpore) founded by the Danes.—E. I. Chron.

Geriah, the stronghold of the Pirate Angria, attacked by Admiral Watson, and Clive, (just returned from Europe with the rank of Colonel;) it was carried on the 13th February, and much plunder obtained.—Mill. Orme.

On the death of Aliverdi Khan, Nawaub of Bengal, his grand nephew, Suraja Dowlah, succeeded. Immediately taking offence at the English, for their protection to a native officer, said to have escaped from Dacca, with treasure, he attacked Calcutta, carried it on the 20th June, after a poor defence, (Drake, the Governor, having fled to the shipping,) and allowed his officers to shut up 146 European prisoners, in a small military prison room called, the black hole*, in which 123 of the number perished, during the night.—Stewart.

Suraja Dowlah, on his return from Calcutta, exacted 45 lacs of rupees from the Dutch, at Chinsurah, and 33 lacs from the French, at Chandernagore. The latter had supplied him with powder.—Stewart.

Colonel Clive and Admiral Watson left Madras on the 16th October, with 500 Europeans, and 1,500 Sepoys, to inflict vengeance on the Nawaub; reached Futta on the 20th December.—Stewart.

At this time, there were 76 houses only in Calcutta, and the present site of Fort William was a complete jungle.—Hamilton.

1757.—Colonel Clive retook Calcutta on the 2nd January, and forced Suraja Dowlah into a treaty, offensive and defensive, on the 9th of February.

On the 22nd March, Clive took Chandernagore, against Suraja Dowlah's wish, war having been proclaimed anew between the French and English.—Stewart.

Having made a secret treaty with Meer Jaffer, an officer of the Nawaub, Clive shortly staked everything in a daring attempt to conquer Bengal itself. Thus refusing to return to Madras, as ordered, he advanced in June, towards Moorshedabad, the Nawaub's capital. On the 23rd June, he fought the battle of Plassey, against 18,000 horse and 50,000 infantry, and aided by the treachery of Meer Jaffer, routed the Nawaub's troops. Suraja Dowlah fled, but in a few days was seized, and cruelly assassinated, by order of Meer Jaffer's son. On the 29th June, Meer Jaffer was raised to the Musnad, and from that date, the influence of the British may be stated to have become paramount in Bengal.—Stewart.

During the operations in the Carnatic, on the declaration of war between France and England, Madura was taken by the English, under Captain Caliaud, on the 8th August, after that officer had successfully defended Trichinopoly. The French took Chittagong, Trincomalee, and sundry other forts.—Mill.

Manilah taken from the Spaniards, by the English.

The English established a Mint in Calcutta, and the first rupee was struck on the 29th of August.—East India Chronologist.

1758.—Count Lally, on the 25th April, landed at Pondicherry, as Governor General, and in three days, the fleet from which he disembarked, had an indecisive engagement with Admiral Pocock.—Mill.

Lally, who was haughty, impetuous, and unconciliating, was not disposed to look favourably on the successes of M. Bussy, in the Deccan, where the latter had been powerfully controlling the entire Subah. Bussy had possessed himself of the strong hold of Dowlatabad, and at the time of Lally's arrival, his influence was immense. He was now recalled, while the effects of his measures, and the French supremacy in the Councils of the Dehkan, were wholly ruined in consequence.—De Bar.

Fort St. David surrendered to Lally, on the 1st June, and on the 7th Devi-cottah was abandoned by the English.—Mill.

* It is to be regretted that the indefatigable and able Historian Mill makes this a handle for some of his wonted sarcastic abuse of the early English in India, and asks, what business had Fort William with a black hole? He might as well inquire, what right has the same fortress now, to possess solitary cells for the soldiery? The 'black hole' in question, was simply one of a range of godowns (warehouses) on the ground floor, built against a four-foot outer wall of the fort, the roof of the warehouse acting as a rampart, on which guns were placed,—the front of the godowns having a small verandah looking into the fort. There were two small windows to the godown which had simply been used as a lock-up house, or ' Black hole,' for disorderly soldiers.
### Chronological Table.

1758.—Colonel Clive, in Bengal, after much intrigue and difficulty, in realizing the sums exacted from Meer Jaffier for his exaltation, in October, on an opening held out by a Polygar Chief, for the expulsion of the French from that quarter, detached Col. Forde with a force, against the Northern Circars.—*Mill.*

Lally, in the Carnatic, disgusted every one, and having no funds or assistance, proceeded unwisely against Tanjore, to recover large sums, asserted to be due on treaty. He failed in an attack on its capital, and returning to Pondicherry, found that the French Admiral, after a slight discomfort by the English fleet, had determined to proceed to the Mauritius. In vain Lally remonstrated, and from that time, his late high hopes and haughty expectations of success, failed him: still, with energy and ability, worthy of a better result, on the 14th December, he commenced the siege of Madras.—*Mill. De Bar.*

1759.—Lally obliged precipitately to raise the siege of Madras, on the 16th February; M. Bussy was taken prisoner during the siege.—*Mill. De Bar.*

The troops, under Colonel Forde, sent round from Bengal against the Northern Circars, took Masulipatam on the 7th April. Salabat Jung, the Subadar, created by M. Bussy, on the reverses of the French, threw himself in the arms of the English. The power of Europeans in India was, by this time, so firmly rooted, that he was aware he could not sustain his rule in the Dehkan, without the support of one or other of the rivals.—*De Bar.*

The English, after a mutiny of the French troops, successfully attacked and carried Wandewash.—*De Bar.*

In Bengal, Col. Clive was threatened with a new enemy, the Emperor Alumgeer having invested his eldest son with the government of Bengal, and full powers to seize it; an army was formed, and attacked Patna, in its progress to Moorshedabad; but the Nawaub of Oude, deserting the Shahzada, and treacherously seizing Allahabad, in the rear of the royal army, Bengal was saved, and the prince obliged to throw himself upon Clive's protection. The Nawaub, Meer Jaffier, in gratitude, gave a Jaghire to Clive, worth £30,000 per annum.—*Mill.*

In August, a Dutch fleet, with troops, arrived in the Hooghly. Clive hesitated not to attack them, on the asserted behalf of Meer Jaffier, although at peace with Holland. This attack was successful, and the Dutch were forced instantly to retire with much loss.—*Mill.*

On the Bombay side, the Siddee, during an insurrection against him, resigned his government of the castle and fleet to the English, whose possession was confirmed by the Court of Delhi. This greatly increased our importance in that quarter.—*Grant.*

1760.—On the 22nd January, was fought the battle of Wandewash, by Colonel Coote, against Count Lally, in person. The Count had determined to make a stand, not only to restore confidence in his troops, but to save Arcot, if possible. He was defeated with heavy loss, and retired under the walls of Pondicherry. Arcot also fell.—*De Bar.*

Early in February, Clive resigned, meditating to retire with his fortune to Europe; he was succeeded temporarily by Mr. Holwell, until the arrival of Mr. Vansittart, in July.—*Mill.*

After Clive's departure, the Mogul's eldest son was again induced to invade Bengal; and on the assassination of the Emperor of Delhi, the prince being proclaimed in his stead, continued his advance on Bengal, with the imperial force. Colonel Calliaud had succeeded to the command of the British troops.—*Mill.*

An action took place near Patna, and a detachment under Lient. Cochrane was cut up; but on the 22nd February, a general engagement was fought between the English force, with their Bengal allies under Meer Jaffier's son, and the Emperor: the latter was defeated. The Emperor next determined to push past the allies and seize Moorshedabad; but on the 7th April, he was overtaken by Calliaud, when he set fire to the imperial camp, and fled.—*Mill.*

In May, Captain Knox defeated the Naib of Purneah, who intended to have joined the Emperor.—*Mill.*

In October, Meer Jaffier was deposed as incompetent, and as guilty of enormities in his government of Bengal. He could not, however, fulfil his pecuniary and other engagements to the English, which was the main offence, and the justice of his deposition has been deeply questioned; some of Mr. Holwell's charges were afterwards entirely disproved.—*Mill, Grant.*

Mr. Vansittart raised the Ex-Nawaub's son-in-law, Meer Kasim, to the Musnud, who promised the fulfilment of all existing pledges, with other grants and advantages. He ceded the districts of Midenapore, Burdwan and Chittagong, to the Company.—*Grant.*

The French made a treaty with Hyder Ally, who marched to their aid at Pondicherry; but on the 4th September, the allies were completely beaten by the English, and Hyder Ally shortly afterwards withdrew.—*Mill. De Bar.*
1761.—After the bitterest disputes between the French and Lally, all parties being exasperated against him, Pondicherry was surrendered on the 16th January, to Col. Coote.—De Bar.

The English troops and navy wished to retain Pondicherry, for the king; but Mr. Pigot, the Governor, insisted on its being delivered over to the Company, or threatened to withhold all pay to the forces: it was given up to him, and he immediately destroyed its works and fortifications.—Mill.

The fate of Lally was melancholy. On his return to France, he was sacrificed by the Ministry, while the feeling against him aided the attempt of his enemies to fasten on him alone the obloquit of losing India to France: after four years' imprisonment, he was executed. Posterior have been more lenient, and reversed the opinion against him. Other causes, than the mere pride and rashness of an individual, were proved to have led to the destruction of the French empire in the Carnatic.—Mill. De Bar.

Major Carnac, who succeeded Col. Calliaud in the command of the troops in Bengal, arrived at Patna, early in January, and on the 15th, attacked and defeated the Emperor at Gyn. M. Law, who, on the taking of Chandernagore, had proceeded up the country, to seek service with the native powers, was with the Mogul, and here taken prisoner.—Grant. Mill.

The new Nawab, Meer Kássim Ali, soon began to be impatient of his English friends, but wanting means to oppose them, he proceeded to Patna, to seize on the treasures of his deputy, Ramnarain. The vice Nawab solicited the aid of Major Carnac, and soon after of Col. Eyre Coote, who superseded Carnac; but they were prevented by the Council from protecting him, and he fell a victim to the rapacity of the Nawab.—Mill.

Other sources of dispute arose: the servants of the Company contended, that the firman of 1717, and the late treaties, authorised their own private trade to be free of duty. The Nawab denied this, and apparently with reason and justice; and strenuously opposed such special immunity to the English. He soon began to organise troops under Mogul officers, and removed to the Fort at Monghir.—Mill. Grant.

1762.—Messrs. Vansittart and Hastings repaired to the new residence of Kássim Ali, at Monghir, and the former treaties, relative to private trade, were modified; but the Council in Calcutta rejected the new terms, to the great indignation of the Nawab.—Grant.

The Philippine Islands taken by an expedition, fitted out from Madras.—Grant.

Kássim Ali renewed his remonstrances against the private trade of the Company's servants, and the disputes assumed a serious aspect.—Mill.

1763.—Messrs. Amyatt and Hay, sent on deputation to the Nawab, to insist upon continued immunity from duties. He refused; dismissing Mr. Amyatt, but retaining the other as a hostage. Mr. Ellis, the chief at Patna, at this juncture, widened the breach by his undisguised feeling of hostility to the Nawab. The latter had seized some arms on the way to Patna, and refused to deliver them. Mr. Ellis, on the 24th June, suddenly seized the Nawab's Fort, at Patna; but neglecting proper precaution and defence, it was retaken the next day, and all the English at Patna were seized as prisoners. The Nawab, on this act of hostility, sent after, and murdered Mr. Amyatt, on his way to Calcutta. These events led the Council at Calcutta, on the 7th July, to proclaim Meer Jaiffer again as Nawab, deposing Kássim Ali. Meer Jaiffer confirmed all existing treaties with the Company, besides according other advantages. Major Adams, on the 19th July, defeated a force of Kássim Ali, between Calcutta and Moorshedabad. On the 24th July, took Moorshedabad. On the 2nd August, routed a large force at Geriah. On the 5th September, stormed and seized the Fort of Oudennullah, defended by 100 pieces of cannon. Kássim Ali, incensed to madness at these reverses, and frantic under accumulated resentments and ruined ambition, fled to Patna, from Monghir, and there cruelly ordered the massacre of the English in his power: there were fifty gentlemen, Messrs. Ellis, Hay, Lushington, and others, and one hundred of lower rank. On the 5th October, they were brought out in parties, and barbarously cut to pieces, or shot under the direction of a German, named Sumaroo. Monghir fell to the English early in October. Patna was stormed on the 6th November, and the Ex-Nawab fled to the Vizier of Oude, with his treasures, and the remnant of his army.—Grant.

Peace between France and England had been signed on the 10th February. The 11th article gave back to France all factories, in their then condition. France to erect no fortifications, and keep no troops in Bengal. To renounce all acquisitions on the coast of Coromandel and Orissa, and to recognize Mahomed Ali Khan as Nawab of the Carnatic. The peace honourable, and advantageous to the English in India.—Mill. Grant.
Chronological Table.

About this time, the Madras presidency, finding itself unable to keep up the armies required in the Carnatic, openly insisted upon possessing from Mahomed Ali, some districts, with their revenue, for the purpose.—Mill.

Mr. R. Palk succeeded, 14th November, to the Government of Fort St. George.—Dalrymple.

1764—In the Carnatic, the English gradually assumed the Revenues. The subjection of Mahomed Issoof, of Madura, cost the Company and their Ally, the Nawab, a million, before it was finally effected in October.—Mill.

In Bengal, the British Army, in pursuit of Kassim Ali, advanced towards Oude, which also harboured the young Mogul. Major Carnac defeated the Vizier on the 3rd May, near Patna. Major, afterwards Sir Hector Munro, superseding Major Carnac, severely punished some mutinous conduct of the soldiery, and caused 24 Sepoys to be blown away in one morning, from the mouths of cannon. On the 23rd October, he fought the celebrated battle of Buxar, completely routing the Vizier's Army. The following day, the Mogul threw himself on the protection of the British, and joined their camp, with the imperial standard of Hindustan. The Army advanced to overrun Oude. The Vizier refused to deliver up Kassim Ali, though he had seized and plundered him; and had offered to assassinate Sumroo.—Grant. Mill.

Kassim Ali afterwards escaped into the Rohilla country, with a few friends and some jewels, which he saved from the fangs of his late ally, the Vizier.—Mill.

1765.—Meer Jaffier, worn out by ill health and affliction at the impossibility of meeting the pecuniary engagements with the English, sickened and died in January; Nujeeem ad Douli, next surviving son of Meer Jaffier, was appointed to succeed his father.—Mill.

Lord Clive returned to Bengal, being appointed Commander-in-Chief, President and Governor, in Bengal, with Messrs. Skinner and Sykes, as Members of the Select Committee. He arrived 3rd May, and assumed the Government on the 7th. General Carnac and Mr. Vereist, the other Members, were then absent on duty. The new covenants against presents were signed by the Company's servants, Civil and Military. The Bengal Army signed the covenant; but the General delayed the signature, pending a reference to Calcutta, receiving, in the interval, two lacs of rupees from the Emperor. The new Nawab of Bengal, on a fresh agreement, ratified on the 28th July, handed over all his Revenues, and the management of the Sudder; himself to have 50 lacs, subject to the control of the Company's servants. In operations against the Vizier of Oude, Lucknow had been taken by Sir R. Fletcher, before General Carnac joined the army. Allahabad had fallen; Chunar held out: but on the 3rd May, General Carnac attacked the Nawab, at Corah, and routed him. On the 19th May, the Vizier agreed to come into the British camp, and was well treated. His dominions were restored. The English authorities did not insist on private trade or factories, in Oude; but Allahabad and Corah were retained for the Emperor, who himself was forced to give up all claim to arrears of Revenue, from Bengal, Behar, and Orissa; and finally, on the 12th August, his Majesty signed the perwana, granting to the Company, the perpetual Dewannce of these three Provinces. The private trade, so strongly prohibited by the Court, still partially retained; and under a public association, arranged by Clive himself—that of betel-nut, tobacco, and salt, the most valuable, engrossed by the public servants.—Mill.

The Northern Circars were given to the English in proprietary grant; but the cession took place on the following year.—Grant. A dak established between Calcutta and Moorsheadabad.—E. J. Chron. 1766.—From the year 1757 to 1766, it appeared, from Parliamentary documents, that £5,940,498 had been distributed to the Company and its servants, by the Princes and other natives of Bengal. By orders from Home, dated 1764, these presents were expressly prohibited, and Civil and Military servants were enjoined to pay to the Company all presents tendered by natives, which exceeded 4000 rupees.—Mill.

Count Lally beheaded, 5th May.—Reynal.

12th November, a treaty concluded with the Nizam, by General Calliand. The Company to pay nine lacs for the possession of the Circars, and to furnish troops to the Nizam, if required, for the affairs of His Highness's Government.—Grant. A serious mutiny broke out in the Bengal army, consequent to the reduction of double full batta. Formerly this allowance was paid by the Nawab; but the Company refused to continue it from the 1st Jan. 1766. Almost every officer resigned. Lord Clive met the exigency with his usual sternness and spirit: he brought officers from all directions, for the command and charge of the troops, induced some to retract, and cashiered others by Court Martial. Amongst the latter, Sir R.
Fletcher, known for his successes in Oude, was dismissed for not at first repressing the combination. —Grant. Mill. 1767. —On the 16th January, Lord Clive declared his intention to resign. On the 17th February, Mr. Verelst succeeded.  

Presents having been forbidden, Lord Clive gave up a legacy of five lacs from Meer Jaffier, and adding to it three lacs, from Syeff-ul Dowla, the successor of Nujeem ad Dowla, formed the fund (called Lord Clive’s fund) for invalided officers and soldiers of the Company’s Service, and their widows.—Mill.  

Abdulla Shah marched towards Delhi; after overrunning some provinces, returned to his own country.  

An expedition sent to Nepal by the English, and failed.  

The war with Hyder Ali broke out in the Carnatic, but the Anglo-Indian Governments were crippled for want of money. Lord Clive’s splendid financial promises, and the hopes in England, regarding the riches of India, already proving fallacious. —Mill.  

Notwithstanding the growing pressure for funds abroad, the Court of Proprietors at home increased the dividend to 12½ per cent. In consequence of this and other proceedings, the Restrictive Acts of the 7th of Geo. III. cc. 48, 49, and 57, were passed; by the last of these, the Sum of £400,000 per annum was to be paid by the Company to the Crown, for their territorial acquisitions.—Grant.  

1768.—Early this year, arrived the Company’s peremptory order, entirely abolish-ishing their servants’ private trade in salt, and restricting them to the maritime branches of commerce. A commission of 2½ per cent. on the Dewanee revenues to be granted, however, in proportionate shares to the Governor in Council, Civil and Military servants of rank, with additional pay to Captains and Subalterns.  

Great scarcity of treasure in Bengal.  

On the Coast, the war with Hyder Ali was sustained with difficulty. This adven-turous soldier, originally a common peon, next a petty officer, soon a commander of a few horsemen, and in charge of a small fortress—subsequently, a military retain-er of the minister of the Mysore Sovereign, and leading a division of the royal troops—next, acting for himself, displacing his patron, and lastly, ejecting the pageant Hindu Prince of Mysore, and usurping the throne itself.—He was, by this time, the most formidable enemy the English had met with. In September, after some partial successes of the English, Hyder made overtures of peace; but the tenders were haughtily and unwisely refused.—Mill. Grant.  

1769.—After the display of much military talent, Hyder Ali drove off the English army to a distance, and suddenly, with 6000 cavalry, appeared at St. Thome, in the immediate vicinity of Madras. He there imposed his own terms on the Govern-ment, who were forced, on the 4th April, into a peace, little creditable or advan-tageous to the British.—Grant.  

In April an Act passed, that the territorial revenues should be held for five years by the Company.  

Three commissioners were sent out to India, Messrs. Vansittart, Scrafton, and Ford; they embarked in September, 1769, on the Aurora frigate, and were never afterwards heard of.—Grant.  

At this time it was proposed to send out a Naval Commander-in-Chief, with full political powers, on the part of the King; after much opposition, the measure was carried, and proved, for the short period that it lasted, very inconvenient.—Mill.  

Mr. Verelst resigned in Bengal, 24th December, succeeded by Mr. Cartier.—E. I. Chron.  

1770.—A dreadful famine in Bengal, one-fifth* of the population perished.—Grant.  

On the 10th March, died Nawab Syeff-ul Dowla, of Moorshehabad; his brother, Mubarek-ul Dowla, a minor, succeeded. The Court of Directors reduced his al-lowance to 16 lacs per annum, during his minority.—Mill.  

1771.—The Parliamentary restriction on the dividends ceasing in 1769, the Court, in March and September, notwithstanding their difficulties for money in India, again raised the dividends to 12½ per cent.—Mill.  

In May, the Emperor Shah Alum unwisely left the protection afforded him at Allahabad, and aided by the Vizier and the Maharrats, re-entered his capital at Delhi, on December 25th.  

1772.—Mr. Cartier was succeeded (13th April) by Mr. Warren Hastings, in the Bengal Government.—E. I. Chron.  

* Mill states the loss at 4 of the population.
On the 14th May, the collection of the Revenues in Bengal was undertaken entirely by the Company, who now stood forth as Dewan. In 1769, Civil Servants were appointed as Supervisors of the native revenue officers: and were henceforth to be denominated collectors. The lands to be let for five years—\textit{Mill.}

The seat of Revenue business, and the Treasury, removed from Moorshedabad to Calcutta. The chief seats of civil, and, at first, of criminal judicature, likewise transferred to the Presidency, under the name of Sudder Dewanee Adawlut, composed of Governor and two councils for civil matters; and Sudder Nizamat Adawlut, for criminal proceedings, composed of native law officers, exclusively subject to review of the Governor and Council. Under these were District Courts, the Collectors having, at the same time, revenue and judicial authority.—\textit{Grant.}

Mr. Hastings deposed Mahomed Reza Khan, from his high situation of Naib dewan, at Moorshedabad, and Raja Shetab Ray, the same at Patna, bringing both as prisoners to Calcutta, in April. Manny Begum, originally a dancing girl, appointed to the charge of the young Nawab, and the control of the palace of Moorshedabad.—\textit{Mill.}

The Mahrattas permitted to ravage Rohilcund.—\textit{Mill.}

1773.—The financial distresses of the Company increasing, they applied to the British Minister for a loan. His Majesty's Government, finding the feelings of the country alienated from the East India Company, by their improvidence, and stated mismanagement, brought in the important \textit{Regulating Act of 1773}, (13 Geo. III. c. 65,) appointing a Governor General and four Members of Council, for five years, to British India; Mr. Barwell, Senior Member; and Lieutenant General Clivering, Colonel Monson, and Mr. Philip Francis, Members. The constitution of the Court of Directors was altered; an annual election of six Directors for four years ordained: a year to elapse before an Ex-Director could be eligible. Qualification for a Proprietor now raised to £1000. The Crown also assumed, formally, a privity and control in the affairs, financial and political, of the Company. The Mayor's Court was abolished at Calcutta, and Supreme Court of Judicature established. The Judges to be sent from England. Similar steps were subsequently pursued at the other Presidencies.—\textit{Grant.}

The English entered into a treaty with the Nawab of Oude, for the destruction of Rohilcund; the Nawab to support the charge of the British army. A garrison thrown into Allahabad; and a Member of Council sent to take charge of the revenues. The Emperor of Delhi left to his fate, amidst the aggressions of the Mahrattas: and Corah and Allahabad handed over by the English to the Nawab.—\textit{Mill.}

In Bengal, in 1773-4, the revenues were £2,481,404.

The Civil and Military charges were ... 1,488,435

The Army, about this time consisted of Artillery, five Companies; Cavalry, one Troop; European Infantry, three Regiments; Native Infantry, 23 Battalions; and 28 Companies of Invalids; total, 27,000 men.

\textit{Fort St. George}, revenue and subsidies, £387,302

The charges were .................... 814,992

The Army—(1772) European Infantry, 3,486; European Cavalry, 66; Artillery, 581; Sepoys, 15,840; total, 19,975.

\textit{Bombay} (1773-4), revenues, ............ £109,163

\textit{Charges,} ......................... 347,387

The Army—Artillery, 434; European Infantry, 1,620; Sepoys, 4,436; total, 6,400.—\textit{Grant.}

War anew with Tanger; the English and their Ally, the Nawab of the Carnatic, being dissatisfied with the terms obtained in 1771. On the 16th September, Tanger was carried by storm, and the Rajah and family taken prisoners in the fort. He was dethroned, and his territories seized by the Allies.—\textit{Mill.}

1774.—Colonel Champion, Commander-in-Chief in Bengal, assumed the command of an army in Feb., destined to act against the Rohillas, in alliance with the Nawab Vizier. On the 23rd April, (known as the battle of St. George,) he defeated 40,000 Rohillas, under their Chief Hafez, near Babul nullah. The Vizier kept aloof; but after this victory, (which led to the termination in July, of the first Rohilla war,) he plundered and despoiled the whole country. The new Counsellors, General Clivering, Mr. Monson, and Mr. Francis, arrived in Calcutta 19th October. Mr. Hastings assumed the title of Governor General, now first authorized; but discussions immediately arose between himself and colleagues. Mr. Hastings and Mr. Barwell were in the minority; thus the new counsellors wielded the powers of the Government.—\textit{Mill.}

Collectors' Courts abolished, and Provincial Councils established at Calcutta, Burdwan, Dacca, Moorshedabad, Dinagore, and Patna, to superintend the joint Departments of Revenue, Trade, and Administration of Justice.—\textit{Grant.}

1775.—Died Sujah ud Dowlah, the Vizier of Oude, succeeded by his only son, under the title of Assof ud Dowlah.

The Bombay Government, previous to this period, had interested and mingled themselves much with the politics of the Mahrattas; and were about this time in alliance and support of Ragoba, the Ex-PEshwah. On the 28th December, 1774, a force from Bombay had seized and occupied the Island of Salsette; and a force under Col. Keating, having effected a junction with Ragoba, the allied army was attacked by their Mahratta enemies, on the 18th May, 1775, at Arras; when the British and their Allies, after much loss, were victorious. At this juncture, the Bengal Government, now supreme, interfered to disapprove of the connection of the Bombay Presidency with any of the Mahratta powers, and insisted on an immediate cancelment of the treaty with Ragoba, (by which Salsette, Basseen, and part of the revenues of Baraoch, had been secured to the Company,) and on the withdrawal of all the British troops furnished for his assistance.

The Court's despatches of this year, it is curious to state, approve of the acts of the Bombay Government, at the very time they were ordered to be annulled by the Supreme Authority in India.—Mill.

The Court in England, displeased at the late war and results, in Tanjore, determined on the reinstatement of the Rajah; and Lord Pigot was sent out to give effect to this, and other measures, at Madras. He arrived as Governor, 11th December, 1775.—Mill.

1776.—The Supreme Government deputed an Envoy of their own, Col. Upton, to Poona; after much unsatisfactory negotiation, the Council decided on a war with the Mahratta confederates, and on the support of Ragoba—both of which had been the subjects of their severe condemnation, the preceding year; but on further negotiation, by Col. Upton, a new treaty, (called that of Poorunder,) was obtained, still leaving Salsette to the English, but not so favorable as that secured at Bombay. Ragoba was now left to his fate, and retired to Surat with only 200 followers.

Dissensions ran high between the Governor General and his Council; charges of bribery and corruption were brought against Mr. Hastings, at the Council Board itself. He indignantly dissolved the Council on each occasion of their being preferred there. Nuncomar, a native of rank, implicated in preferring these charges, was convicted of forgery, at the Supreme Court of Judicature, by a Jury of Englishmen, and hanged. This act much condemned.

In November, Colonel Monson died, which restored to the Governor General, the majority in the votes at Council, and gave him again the direction of the Government.—Mill.

The Tanjore Rajah restored. Lord Pigot and the Council of Madras had violent disputes; and on the 24th August, the Council arrested the Governor, stripping him of all authority. He died in restraint, on 31st August, of the following year. The four Members of Council, who committed this violence, were subsequently tried at home, found guilty, but fined only £1000 each.—Mill.

1777.—The quinquennial settlement at Bengal having expired; and both Mr. Hastings and Mr. Francis, having meanwhile submitted able revenue plans, (both differing, and neither of them adopted by the Home Authorities;) the annual leases were again put in force, and were continued for four years.—Grant.

1778.—The treaty of Poorunder, (Col. Upton's,) not proving satisfactory, and part of the Mahratta confederates having resolved to support Ragoba, the English were applied to again to aid him. The Governor General assented, and six Battalions of Sepoys, one Company of Native Artillery, and a Corps of Cavalry, assembled at Culpee, under Col. Leslie, with orders to march towards Poona, through Berar.

The French, at this period, had much influence at Mysore; attempted, through agents, to obtain footing and influence among the Mahrattas.

Sir Thomas Rumbold succeeded to the Government of Fort St. George, in February. His acts gave much dissatisfaction to the Home Authorities, particularly as regarded his alleged corrupt installation of Sitteram Râz, in the Dwayne of the Guntor Sircar.

War breaking out between England and France, the French factories of Chandernagore, Masulipatam, and Calicâle were occupied without resistance. Sir E. Vernon, with a British squadron, engaged that of the French, under M. Tronjolly, 10th August, and dispersed the latter. Pondicherry was invested, in September, by land, under Sir Hector Munro, and by the English fleet, by sea. After a gallant defence, under M. Bellecombe, it surrendered on the 17th October, and its works were again razed.—Mill.

1779.—A Force from Bombay, in support of Ragoba, impeded by the blunders of Civil Commissioners placed in control of it, got into difficulties, and commenced a disastrous retreat, when only 16 miles from Poona. Negotiation was commenced under these unfavorable circumstances with the confederates, and a treaty signed,
by which much of the acquisitions of the English, in that quarter, was relinquished. 

Col. Leslie, commanding the Bengal force, having died the year before, General Goddard assumed the command, and after much difficulty, and under conflicting orders, marched 300 miles in 19 days, across India, reaching Surat on the 30th January. He was now invested by the Supreme Government with full powers, to treat with the Poona Ministry. After much ineffectual discussion, hostilities were resumed at the close of the year.

Sir Eyre Coote succeeded General Clavering, as Commander-in-Chief at Bengal, and Member of Council in April.

The Supreme Government disapproved of Sir T. Rumbold's acts at Fort St. George; he indignantly repelled the interference.

The French settlement of Mahe taken by Col. Braithwaite, 19th March of this year, although Hyder Ali remonstrated against the act; Mahe being useful to himself.—Mill.

1780.—General Goddard carried Ahmedabad by storm, on the 15th February; and on the 3rd April, surprised the camp of the Mahratta confederates, and dispersed them.

In the rainy season, Scindia and Holcar withdrew into their own countries. But the most brilliant event of this year was the assault and capture of Gualior, on the 3rd August, by Capt. Popham, with a small detachment, intended to augment the forces of Goddard.

A duel took place between Mr. Hastings and Mr. Francis, the latter having been accused of breach of faith—he was wounded; he embarked for England on the 9th December.

Hyder Ali, who for some time had been regaining his power, consolidating his means, and disciplining his army, by means of French officers, incensed at the capture of Mahe, contrary to his wishes, put his troops in motion, in June, and had entered into a treaty with the Mahrattas, against the English. The Government at Madras were struck with alarm, being without troops, money, or military means. Hyder's army now advancing was 100,000 strong; 20,000 of them disciplined, and commanded by the French. They spread devastation and ruin, around the products of Madras, while Sir Hector Munro had no force, to make head against them. Arcoat was invested by the Mysoreans. Col. Baillie's detachment was overpowered and cut to pieces on the 9th September; and Sir H. Munro, who had advanced to his relief, forced back to the mount, from Conjeveram. The Supreme Government now interposed. It sent round Sir Eyre Coote, by sea, in October, with treasure and troops, detaching a body of Sepoys by land. Mr. Whitehill, who had succeeded Sir T. Rumbold, as Governor, on his removal in April, was suspended by the Bengal Government, Mr. Charles Smith taking his place, 8th October; and Sir Eyre Coote, notwithstanding Arcoat had by this time fallen, soon was prepared to enter into operations against the formidable enemy now opposed to the British.—Mill, and others.

At Bombay, the Government, under considerable financial difficulty, was obliged to contract new debts, to enable General Goddard, with his contingent force, to act with efficiency. In October, he moved from Surat, with reinforcements of Europeans from Madras, against Bassein. On the 10th December, when a practicable breach was nearly effected, the fort made an offer of surrender, which was carried into effect on the following morning.—Mill.

This year an act was passed at home, similar to one of the preceding session, permitting a dividend of 8 per cent. for the year, reserving the surplus profit for the future disposal of the legislature.

At Bengal, the new Supreme Court, from its constant pretensions and attempts, for some years, to extend its jurisdiction, had occasioned much inconvenience to the Government, and subjected the native community to distress. By the introduction of legal proceedings, affecting the property and persons of inhabitants of remote provinces, never contemplated to be amenable to its power. The situation of the Company with native princes, and the treaties with the Nswab or others, were utterly disregarded by the Court. The Cauzee of the Patan Court, in 1777, was seized for acting upon the regulations of Government; and the decision of the Company's Court reversed. The Cauzee died under imprisonment. In the same year, a process was violently served on the Dewan of the Fojdaree Court, at Dacca, and some members of the Fojdaree's family dangerously wounded in the affray. At length, 1779, a suit was commenced against the Rajah of CJessajurah, writs were issued, and the Rajah's zenannah forcibly entered, and his effects plundered. The Government now summarily interfered; the Military at Midnapore were ordered to intercept the Sheriff's party. Matters were thus at once brought to issue. A summons, on the Governor General and Council, was served on them individually, and they, of course, refused, by their counsel, to submit to any such proceeding of
the Supreme Court. At length, (24th October, 1760,) a means of reconciliation with the Judges was adopted, by appointing Sir E. Impey, to be Chief Judge, also of the Sudder Dewannee Adawlut, with an additional salary of 60,000 rupees per annum. This appointment was deemed most exceptionable on general principles, notwithstanding the admitted advantage of his professional knowledge, and that he reformed and methodised the practice of the Dewannee Courts.—Mill. Grant. 1760.—At all events, in April, the Dewannee Courts were increased from 16 to 18; and the Fonjdars, or Native Magistrates, were this year removed. In February, Mr. Hastings had decreed, that a Committee of Revenue should be established at the Presidency, consisting of four covenanted servants, and Provincial Councils were abolished. After these changes, the Governor General proceeded, in August, to Benares, determined to adopt measures against the Rajah Cheyte Sing. Demands were made upon him for additional tribute to be paid to the Company, as the sovereign power now requiring assistance in its exigency. The Rajah declined, pleading willingness, but inability. He was seized by Mr. Hastings’ order, at Benares: a revolt took place in his behalf, on the 20th August; nearly two companies of sepoys, and their officers, were destroyed—and the Rajah escaped in the confusion. The Governor General immediately assumed control of the province; and troops were called in to oppose the Rajah, who now headed the numbers flocking to his support. He was defeated at Lutteefpore—and lastly, his stronghold of Bidjegur was seized, and his family plundered by a force under Major Popham. The Rajah fled, on his reverses at Lutteefpore, to Bundelcund. After these transactions at Benares, the Governor General proceeded to Oude, to obtain an adjustment of the heavy debts due to the Company by the Vizier. The territories of the Begums, (one, the mother of Sujah ud Dowlah, the late Nawab—the other, the mother of the present one,) were seized, on a charge of aiding the insurrection of Cheyte Sing, and in an arrangement with the Nawab Vizier, their revenues and property were appropriated towards the redemption of the Nawabs debt to our Government.

Madras.—On the 17th January, the army, under Sir Eyre Coote, marched from the Mount, and proceeded to Pondicherry, where the General disarmed the inhabitants. The French fleet was off that town, but being in want of water and necessaries, and unequal to cope with the expected English squadron, it sailed on the 15th February, for the Isle of France. The English fleet now attacked Hyder’s new shipping, and destroyed the gerns of his maritime power, at Calicut and Mancalore. On the 1st July, Hyder, emboldened by a partial repulse, suffered by the English General, at Chelilnibrum, in June, risked a general engagement at Porto Novo, and was completely routed. Hyder abandoned now his designs on the southern provinces; his son Tipppo raised the siege of Wandewash—and both retired to Arcott. On the 27th August, another battle took place, at the place where Baille was defeated. The result was indecisive, though victory was claimed by both armies. The English troops were in great difficulty for pay and provisions. But on the 27th September, Hyder suffered farther loss at the pass of Sholinghur; and in October, his fortress of Chittore surrendered. On the 21st November, the English returned to cantonments, having lost one-third of their force in this campaign. During the year, Lord Macartney had assumed the Government, on the 22nd June; and putting himself at the head of the Miltia, he took Sadras and Policant, on the breaking out of war with the Dutch. On the 12th November, Negapatam capitulated to Sir H. Munro, (who had left Sir Eyre Coote in disgust, and now commanded a force under the orders of the Governor,) and with it fell all the Dutch settlements on the coast;—shortly afterwards, those on Ceylon shared the same fate.

On the 9th April of this year, Lord North brought forward, at home, some propositions restricting the Company, and bringing their affairs more under the control of the Secretary of State. Though not adopted at this period, yet on these were afterwards based three principal provisions of Mr. Pitt’s East India Bill. Lord North’s suggestions were modified into the Act 21, Geo. III. cap. 55; and all former privileges were granted to the Company until the 1st March, 1791. But all despatches on Revenue or Civil and Military matters were, by this Bill, to be submitted to the Minister.

Parliamentary attention was now much directed to Indian affairs. Two Committees were formed: in one of them Mr. Burke became conspicuous—in the other, Mr. Henry Dundas. By a Bill passed on the 19th June, the Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in India was restricted. The Governor General, and Council, with all matters of Revenue, all Zuneendars, Native Farmers, and Collectors of the Revenue, were exempted from its jurisdiction.—Mill. 1792.—Madras.—The campaign against Hyder commenced, by the English throwing supplies into Vellore. The English fleet, under Sir E. Hughes, and the French under the famous Suffren, had an indecisive action on the 17th February. The French
Admiral contrived, however, to land 2,000 men at Porto Novo. From the 16th to the 18th February, Colonel Braithwaite's detachment bravely and perseveringly withstood incessant attacks from a combined force of French and Mysoreans, under M. Lalli and Tipoo; but was, at length, forced to surrender. Tipoo treated the prisoners well. Cuddalore yielded to the same combined force on the 3rd April. On the 12th April, the French and English fleets again engaged; and though the fight commenced under most disadvantageous circumstances for the English, they disabled the enemy, and both fleets lay for seven days within random shot, unable to assail each other; they then mutually retreated. Hyder, in June, dexterously manoeuvred with a detachment of his army, and carried off his treasure from Arnee, where it was threatened by Sir E. Coote. On the 29th June, news came of a separate treaty with the Maharrattas, made by the Supreme Government at Poona, on the 17th May, putting an end to all operations in that quarter. A negotiation was commenced also with Hyder, who again out-manoeuvred the General, and was only prevented from reducing Negapatam, in a plan of combined operations with Saffrién, by the latter again encountering the English fleet on the 4th July; the French Admiral was able, however, to retake Trincomalee, on the 31st August, the English fleet heaving in sight, just two days after its surrender, when a gallant action was fought,—and Saffrién broke six of his Captains, for not supporting him. Sir Eyre Coote, by this time, was seriously ill, at Madras; and the Government there under much alarm: their means were reduced to the lowest ebb, and their food even limited to 30,000 bags of grain, lying in the roads, unequal to a month's supply. At this crisis, on the 15th October, the Admiral quitted them, and the following day, a storm either sunk or stranded the cannon containing the grain. Famine now raged awfully: Sir Eyre Coote still sick; no longer equal to duty. Hyder continued his attacks on Bengal, and General Stuart succeeded to the head of the army, with provisions only for a few days, and its pay six months in arrears.

On the 7th December, Hyder Ali died, and Tipoo, (who had been detached against Colonel Humberstone, whom he vigorously attacked in conjunction with Lally, though the Colonel bravely withstood and repelled him,) hearing of his father's death, joined the main army, and was, in a few days, firmly established on the throne. He now took the field in December: 9,000 Europeans, 250 Topasses, 2,000 Sepoys of the French allies, with countless hosts of Mysoreans,—while the English Carnatic force amounted only to 2,945 Europeans and 11,545 Natives.

In Parliament, Mr. Dundas moved the recall of Mr. Hastings; it came to no result, but on the 3rd May, an address to the King was carried, that His Majesty would be pleased to recall Sir E. Impey, to answer for his conduct in accepting a situation under the Bengal Local Government.—Mill.

1753.—Madras.—The English army early commenced the campaign; but found that Tipoo was retiring from the Carnatic, being recalled in Mysore, not only to consolidate his government, but to defend his territories against an incursion of the English, under General Matthews, in Bednore. The General had reached Bombay, from home, with reinforcements for India, and immediately advanced as above. Tipoo suddenly, in April, appeared against him, retook Bednore, cut off the retreat of the detachment: their resources ceased—and without food or ammunition, they surrendered to him on the 30th April. The General and troops were afterwards cruelly treated. Discussions had arisen at Fort St. George, between General Stuart and the Government, and the army remained inactive till June, when it attacked Cuddalore, and failed. The English fleet offered battle on the 22nd June to Saffrién, which the latter seemed to have declined, but immediately landed troops at Cuddalore, where the French were already more than superior to the English opposed to them. Just as the French were meditating an effective attack, peace was announced from Europe, between France and England—and the French seceded from their operations on behalf of Tipoo. At this period, General Stuart was placed in arrest, by the Government; but Colonel Fullarton, who, with a separate detachment, was successively carrying on operations in the southern provinces, was able to threaten, in November, even Seringapatam itself. He was checked only in his successful advances by negotiations for peace entered into with Tipoo.

Bengal.—Mr. Hastings was occupied with measures regarding the Vizier of Oude. The English residency was experimentally withdrawn, on the 31st December, under much asserted intrigue and cabal.

At home, Mr. Fox proposed a Bill for Indian affairs; it had in view, the abolishment of the Courts of Directors and Proprietors. Seven Commissioners were to be appointed by the Legislature, to manage the political, and nine Directors, to be selected by the Proprietors, to conduct the commercial concerns. It created great alarm, and the King interposed to effect a majority against his Minister.

Sir T. Rumbold, late Governor of Madras, was arraigned before Parliament; but the doubtful situation of the Rockingham Ministry prevented the proceeding coming to a result.—Mill.
1784.—Madras.—After some delay, peace with Tippoo was signed, (11th March,) on the general condition of a mutual restoration of conquests—it was ratified from Calcutta, Mr. Hastings being then at Lucknow; but no cordially subsisted between himself and the Madras Governor, and he afterwards disapproved of the treaty, and insisted upon other terms. Lord Macartney, on his own responsibility, gave in the original treaty to Tippoo; nor did the Governor General resent the disobedience any more than he did that of the preceding year, when Lord Macartney refused to surrender the Assignment of the Carnatic territory to its Nawab, when ordered by the Governor General, on a reconsideration of the measure, to give up the Revenues and Government now formally assumed by the English.

Bengal.—In February, the Governor General again proceeded to the upper provinces. He imprisoned, at Benares, the Native Deputy placed over the territories of the deposed Cheyte Sing, for misconduct in the administration of the province. At Lucknow, he succeeded in obtaining more of the debt due to the Company; relieved the Vizier of the burden of a detachment of the army, under Colonel Sir John Cummings; and finally restored in part to the Begums, as commanded by the Court of Directors, the Jaghier which had been taken from those Princesses. He returned to the presidency in November.

The defeat in Parliament of Mr. Fox's Bill for India, in the preceding year, having been followed by the loss of office, Mr. Pitt, his successor, procured, on the 13th August, 1784, the passing of an Act modelled by himself, but partaking of the provisions suggested by Lord North. Its grand enactment consisted of Ministerial Commissioners, forming a Board of Control; its minor features were a secret Committee of Directors; less power to the proprietors; a provision for ascertaining the fortunes amassed by public servants in India; and a tribunal for the trial of offences there committed by them.—Mill.

1785.—Mr. Hastings on the 8th February, resigned the Government, and embarked for England. In 1772, on the commencement of his administration, the Revenues under Bengal were, £2,373,650; the Civil and Military charges, £1,705,379; difference, £668,371. The debt in India was, £1,850,166; in England, £12,560,166. In 1785, the receipts under Bengal, had increased to £6,315,197; the expences were, £4,313,519; difference, £1,002,678. But including the Home debts, it appears, that in 1786, on bringing all arrears to account, 12½ millions had been added generally to the Company's debt during the period under review.—Mill.

1786.—Lord Cornwallis was appointed Governor General and Commander in Chief September 12. Courts of Dewanace placed under Collectors. Three Bills passed to amend late Act, a fourth also passed.—Mill.


1788.—Mr. Pitt's declaratory Act brought before the House. Hastings's trial commenced 13th February. Emperor Shah Aulum dethroned, and afterwards blinded by Gholam Kadir.—Mill.

1789.—Lord Cornwallis' revenue reforms and decennial settlements (afterwards perpetual) commenced. Tippoo's operations against Travancore.—Mill.

1790.—Administration of Criminal Justice assumed throughout Bengal provinces. Tippoo's aggression in Travancore led to war with the English, and an alliance was entered into by them with the Nizam and Maharrattas. General Meadows took the field—war varied in success. Revenues and Government of Nawab of Carnatic resumed by the English.—Mill.

1791.—Lord Cornwallis assumed the command at Madras against Tippoo. Bangalore carried by storm 21st March. Battle of Aukera 15th May. Hooldyroog taken 19th June, and afterwards Mendiary Owog, Savendroog, and Onandroog stormed.—Mill.

1792.—Tippoo beaten near Seringapatam, 6th February. The place immediately invested; operations ceased on preliminary of peace 24th February. Half of Tippoo's territories to be ceded; two sons given as hostages. Peace concluded 19th March.—Col. Kirkpatrick's Embassy to Nepal.—Mill.


1794.—Sir W. Jones died April 27. Tippoo's sons restored.—Mill.

1795.—Warren Hastings acquitted April 23, after trial of 7 years—all the Dutch possessions at Ceylon and on the Indian continent fell to the English. Mahomed Ali of the Carnatic died.—Mill.
1796.—The Indian Army re-organised.—Mill.

1797.—East India Judicature Bill passed the Commons 10th July. Lord Morning appointed Governor General 24th October—Lord Clive to Madras, December 13th.—Mill.


1800.—Act passed for regulating Governor of British India, July 25th. Marquis Wellesley made Captain General and C. C. in India, August 7. College of Fort William instituted, August 18.—Mill.

1801.—Lord Lake arrived as Commander in Chief. Supreme Court instituted at Madras, and Charter read, September 4.—Mill.

1802.—Large cessions enforced from Nawab of Oude, with the deposition of Nawab of Furuckabad. Powers of Arcot, Tanjore and Surat had been deposed. Subsidiary treaties attempted with the Mahrrattahs. Treaty signed with Peshwah at Bassein.—Mill.

1803.—Possession of Pondicherry, which had been given up on Peace of Amiens, recovered by the English. Bonaparte had sent out several general officers, and others with 100,000 in specie. Maharratteh powers opposed to Treaty of Bassein. War with Scindia and Berar Rajah. Lord Lake marched against M. Perron, who retired from Scindia. Aligur taken by assault, 4th September. Battle of Delhi 11th. Battle of Saswarie (Lord Lake) 31st October. Battle of Assye (Sir A. Wellesley) 23rd September. Battle of Argaum (ditto), 29th November. Province of Cuttack taken possession of in October. Peace with Berar 17th December—Peace with Scindiah 29th December.—Mill.

1804.—War against Holkar. Monson's retreat July and August, brave defence of Delhi for 9 days in October. Shah Aulum restored to nominal sovereignty at Delhi. Battle before Deeg 13th November. General Fraser wounded mortally. Holkar's Cavalry pursued during November. Deeg fell 24th December.—Mill.

1805.—Bhurtpore invested, assaults failed on the 9th and 22nd January and 20th February—Siege intermitted, and treaty with Bhurtpore 10th April. Cornwallis arrived again as Governor General and Commander in Chief 30th July. Policy toward Native Powers changed. Lord Clive died 5th October. Treaty with Scindia 23rd November, and with Holkar 24th December.—Mill.

1806.—Shah Aulum dies—succeeded by Akbar Shah.—Mill.

1807.—Mutiny of Native Troops at Vellore, January 31st.—Mill.

1807.—Lord Minto assumes the office of Governor General, on July 31.—(Comp. to Alm. 1832.)

1809.—War with Travancore occasioned by a misunderstanding between the British Resident and the Dewan of the Rajah. Troops sent from Trichinopoly on the 30th December. Col. Chambers repulsed a body of Travancore Troops, and Colonel Hamilton another body at Anjuncha on the 31st December.—(Comp. to Alm. 1832.)

1809.—(Madras.) Travancore Army again defeated, January 15th. The lines of Travancore stormed on the 10th February. Papanaviram captured on the 17th, and the whole of the lines on the 21st, which ended the war.

In consequence of offensive regulations, considerable disaffection arose in the Madras army—on the 5th of August, Lord Minto sailed for Madras to suppress it. On the 6th August, the Troops at Chottlederoog seized the Military Treasure, and marched to join a force at Seringapatam, which had seized the garrison. On the 23rd August the disaffected troops at Seringapatam surrendered—Lord Minto published an amnesty on the 25th September*.

(Bengal) Adjygur in Bundelcund stormed 13th February. Bowannce, a Fort in Hurriana, reduced on the 29th August, the chief having plundered the British.

In October assistance was given to the Rajah of Berar against the exactions of Ameer Khan, a predatory Mohammedan chief connected with Holkar. Ameer Khan was expelled from Berar.—(Comp. to Alm. 1832.)

* The compiler of this Table had proceeded thus far when he found his task had been anticipated in a great measure by "Chronological account of connexion between England and India," which was published in the "Companion to the Almanac" for 1832. As usefulness is the only aim of a mere compilation such as this professes to be, the compiler has availed himself gladly of the new Table from 1807, and endeavoured to render his own more correct. This table, however, in earlier events is much fuller than that in the Companion to the Almanac.
1810.—Amboyna surrendered to the British, 17th February, followed by other islands. Banda taken August 9. Ternate August 29th.

Troops under Col. Kenting landed at Bourbon July 7th, which fell on the 9th. The Mauritius surrendered on the 3rd December to an expedition from India under General Sir R. Abercrombie.—(Comp. to Alm. 1832.)

1811.—Expedition from India under Sir Samuel Auchmuty landed in Java on the 4th August. On the 8th, city of Batavia surrendered—on the 10th followed the action at Wettewreden. On the 26th the entrenched camp at Cornelis was carried by assault, and with this action ceased the Dutch sovereignty of Java.

1812—The Pindarees—large bodies of free-booters—began to be independent of their Mahratta patrons, and plundered part of the district of Mirzapore. Subsidiary alliance formed with Anund Rao Gulwar, Rajah of Baroda.—(Comp. to Alm. 1832.)

1813.—Governor General sends a letter, June 4th, to the Rajah of Nepál, demanding redress for repeated depredations of the Nepálese.

July 21, (Act 53 Geo. c. 155,) passed, renewing the privileges of the Company for 20 years. By this act the trade to India was thrown open, that to China alone remaining exclusively with the Company. The territorial and commercial affairs now separated; the accounts to be rendered distinct. The king empowered to create a Bishop of India, and an Archdeacon for each Presidency, to be paid by the Company.

The Earl of Molra assumed the Government as Governor General and Commander in Chief.—(Comp. to Alm. 1832.)

1814.—On the 29th May, the Nepálese attacked three British Tannahs at Boot-wooh and murdered the Darogah. For this and other acts the Governor General declared war on the 1st November. The English troops at first beat back at Mallapannee, were repulsed with loss, and General Gillespie killed on the 31st November. Col. Bradshaw attacked and carried the post of Bushurwa, 25th November, and Lient. Boileau, in personal conflict, killed the Gooraks Commander. Major Ludlow's detachment was defeated at Jythug at the end of December.—(Prinsep.)

1815.—1st January, Captain Blackney's and Captain Sibley's detachments cut up by the Goorkahs near the Terrae Forest. 3rd January, Major General J. Sullivan Wood beat back at Jegctgur. 10th February, Major General Marley suddenly relinquished his command of the army in the Terrae; he was succeeded by Major General Sir G. Wood, who also failed to advance. In February and March, Col. Gardner with a body of Rohillahs penetrated into Kumaon, and was successful in retaining a footing. Major Hearsey attempted the same, but was overcome by numbers and made prisoner. Colonel Nicolls, with a regular sepoy force, proceeded to the support of Col. Gardner, and on the 27th April, Almorah and the province of Kumaon formally surrendered to our arms in consequence of his successes.

The Goorkah General Umar Sing defeated on the 15th and 16th April at Deoul, by Sir D. Ochterlony; and on the 15th May, being completely outmanoeuvred by that enterprising officer, surrendered Maloun, and all the provinces from Kumaon westwards; this finished the first campaign.—(Prinsep.)

1816—The Nepál General had sued for peace, but in their uncertain councils withheld the promised ratification, and hostilities re-commenced in February. Sir D. Ochterlony on the 14th and 15th February turned in person the position of Choo-reah, and his army passed the first barrier of hills in progress to the capital, Catman-doo. On the 29th February a general engagement ensued, and the Goorkahs were defeated with loss. Peace followed, the Nepalese agreeing to receive a Resident, and sacrificing much territory.

During this war, it was discovered that the Mahrattas were anxious to confede-rate against the British, while Runjeet Sing had a large army threatening the protected Seiks. Ameer Khan also had an immense body of Patans ready to act against our Agra frontier. In fact a general rising was contemplated, and Lord Hastings prepared accordingly. The Pindarees were now to be extirpated for the immeediae safety of our provinces. The Mahratta powers consisted at this juncture of Scindia, sovereign of the states so called; Bajee Rao, the Peshwah and head of the Poonah states (who had early betrayed his hostility by murdering, through his minister Tumbutjeet, an envoy acting under the British guarantee); and Holkar, head of the dominions called after that family, and the Nagpoor Raja, Appah Sahib. (Prinsep.)

1817.—The supposed impregnable Fortress of Hattras fell (February 23rd), after a heavy bombardment.

Appah Sahib, notwithstanding a late treaty with the British, was deeply en-triguing and collecting troops; Bajee Rao was also arming extensive levies, and sent off his family and treasures from Poona. Mr. Elphinstone called in a British force and invested Poona on the 5th May, and Bajee Rao was forced to discard Tum-
Chronicological Table.

Buujee, receive a contingent force, and pay 34 lacs by treaty signed 13th June: Tumbuujee for the time escaped.

Lord Hastings left Calcutta for the Upper Provinces 8th July; on the 10th October the Bengal armies were put in motion, and Lord Hastings assumed command of the centre division, 20th October, taking up a position near Gualior to awe Scindiah. Sir T. Hislop with the Deccan army from Madras, and Sir W. Kerr from Bombay advanced against the Mahrattas.

Scindiah soon signed (5th November) the treaty imposed on him, and thus was rendered harmless in the ensuing struggle.

Amee Khan followed his example on the 9th November. The Pindarees, the ostensible primary objects of our movements, were now in three bodies, 1st under Chetcot, west of the Kallee Sind; the 2nd under Kureem Khan, near Bopal; the 3rd under Wazil Mahomed, to the westward of Saugor.

The Peshwah broke out on the 5th November in an attack on the Residency, but was repulsed by Mr. Elphinstone with the troops under Col. Burn. The Nagpoor Rajah Appah Sahib, next attacked the Residency of Nagpoor, on the 26th November, and on the 27th, Captain Fitzgerald of the 6th Cavalry decided the protracted contest by his celebrated charge. On the evening of the 16th December, Brigadier General Doveton attacked Appah Sahib at Nagpoor, and next day completely routed him. Appah Sahib intimidated came into our Camp.

The different divisions acting under Lord Hastings continued, to the end of the year, to pursue and destroy the hordes of Pindarees, now flying in all directions.

The Morus, which had broken out in this year during the rainy season in the Delta of the Ganges, travelling westward attacked Lord Hastings's army, shortly after the conclusion of the treaty with Scindiah. The deaths were estimated at one-tenth of the army and followers.

Amee Khan's treaty finally ratified 19th December, when he went into Sir David Ochterlony's Camp. Sir T. Hislop totally defeated the troops of Hoklar at Mahipore on the 21st December.—(Prinsep.)

1818.—On the 1st January Captain Staunton, with a single Battalion, gallantly beat off repeated attacks of the whole of the Peshwah's army, consisting 20,000 men. Holkar, on his defeat at Mahipore, immediately accepted the terms imposed on him; the same were ratified on the 17th January. Sutara taken by General Smith, 11th February. Bajee Rao for ever deposed, the Sutara family restored, and Scevaje's standard hoisted. The Ex-Peshwah was again defeated by General Smith on the 20th February; Gokla was slain, the forts of Bajee Rao fell, and himself became a fugitive. Lord Hastings, finding his plans nearly effected, commenced his march homewards on the 15th February. Talner attacked by Sir T. Hislop, 27th February, and carried after the loss of several officers by treachery, the Killadair was hanged. Mundella, which was to have been given up, was obliged to be stormed 26th April; the fort fell the next day: the Killadair was tried but acquitted, having private orders from his sovereign Appah Sahib*. Saugor surrendered 11th March. On the 17th April Bajee Rao's army was met at Soonee, and routed by Col. Adams with a small force. His remaining Infantry was attacked at Soolapore by Brigadier General Munro, and completely destroyed. Soolapore fell on the 15th May with the remains of his Artillery. Chonda was invested by Colonel Adams on the 9th May, it was stormed and carried on the 20th. Bajee Rao surrendered himself to Sir John Malcolm, on terms however very favorable for the Prince. Maligoan, garrisoned by the Arabs late in the Mahratta service, surrendered on the 13th June.

Thus, including the fall of Asseergur in the following year (April 19th), was effected the entire subversion of the Mahratta powers. Scindiah became crippled, and existing only on sufferance. The Sutara family was restored, but subservient to our power, and restricted to a small domain. The late Peshwah Bajee Rao's power utterly destroyed, his dominions occupied, and himself a prisoner. Holkar submissive, and in complete check. The Nagpoor states new modelled: Bajee Rao Bhoola placed on the throne, but the government was placed under the control and management of the British.—(Prinsep.)

1819.—A settlement made at Singapore by Sir Stamford Raffles, January. In western India the Fort at Newah taken, January 31st; that of Newtee February 4th; Raree February 14th; Booj March 23rd; Asseergur March 30th; Copaol Droop May 14th. An expedition from Bombay sailed October 30th for the Persian Gulf, and took the fortress of Ras el Khyma, the capital of the Junopme Pirates, on the 9th December, and the Fort and Town of Zuya, about ten days later. The Spasmodic Cholera, which had broken out in India 1817, still raged in various parts of it.

* Appah Sahib's treachery being proved, he was placed under arrest: he made his escape again, 13th April.
The Vuzeer of Oude threw off his nominal allegiance to the Emperor of Delhi, and assumed the title of King*.

1820.—The Prince Azim Jah Bahadur installed Nawab of the Carnatic, February 3rd, vice Azim ul Dowla, who died the preceding August. Spasmodic Cholera broke out in Manilla, and the natives attributing it to the secret arts of Europeans, rose upon and murdered many of them, October 9. Dwarka in Okemandel taken, November 25th.


1822.—Dr. T. Panshaw Middleton, the first Bishop of Calcutta, died July 8th. Severe Fire at Canton November 1st. Treaty with the Nizam, December 12.

1823.—January 9th, the Marquis of Hastings resigned his Government of India. Lord Amherst appointed his successor; assumed the Government 1st August.


1825.—Syrian taken from the Burmese, 11th January. Rungpore and Tantabair on the 2nd and 6th February. Donabew taken and the Burmese General Bundoolah killed, 2nd April. Ramree and Promet taken 2nd and 25th April. His Highness Azim Jah Bahadur, Nawab of the Carnatic, died November 12, aged 34. Wallygoun and Paghammew taken from the Burmese, 11th and 25th November. The Enterprise, the first Steam Vessel, sailed for India 16th August, arrived at Sagor December 8th. There was a rebellion at Bhurport on the Rajah's Death in February, and the British Government commenced operations to support the heir.

1826.—Bhurport stormed and taken by the Bengal Troops under Lord Combermere, January 18th; the British lost during the siege 45 officers killed and wounded, and 1500 men; the enemy lost some thousands, and the Usurper was seized. The Burmese defeated at Melloon by Sir A. Campbell, January 19th, and forced to conclude a peace, on the 24th February. War declared between Russia and Persia.

1827.—Sir T. Munro, Governor of Madras, died July 6th. Natives of India permitted to sit as Jurors, July 9th.

1828.—Treaty of Peace between Russia and Persia signed, February 22nd. Lord William Bentinck appointed Governor General of India, arrived in India, and took his seat in Council July 4th.

1829.—The Act for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors in the East Indies brought into operation, March 1st. Europeans allowed to hold lands in their own names on leases of 60 years in February of this year. The rite of Suttee abolished by Lord William Bentinck in December.

1830.—The House of Messrs. Palmer and Co. of Calcutta failed, 5th January, being the first of a series of failures of the leading houses to the extent of many millions sterling. H. M. George the 4th died, June 26th.

1831.—Ram Mohun Roy, a Brahmin, arrived at Liverpool from India, April 8th. Lord William Bentinck met Runjeet Sing at Roopur, October 21st.

1832.—Parsee Riots at Bombay, June 7th. Fire at the Arsenal Fort William, July 25th. An intended Mutiny discovered at Bangalore, October 28th.

1833.—The East India question debated in Parliament, and leave given to bring in a Bill for the renewal of the Charter, with some modifications, in March. The Bill was subsequently passed, August 18th. Its leading new provisions as follows: The British Indian Territories to remain under the Company till the 30th April 1854. Trade to cease from April 1834. All debts and liabilities made chargeable on Territorial Revenue. A dividend payable in Great Britain half yearly on East India Stock, at the rate of £10. 10s. per cent. redeemable after 1874 at £200 for every £100 stock. The Company to pay over to Commissioners for the reduction of national debt 2 millions, to increase at interest till it shall reach 12 millions, as a Security Fund of the East India Company. The Presidency of Fort William to be divided into two Presidencies (since modified). The superintendence and control in India, Civil and Military, vested in a Governor General and Counsellors to be styled "the Governor General of India in Council." To have three

* In the following years the events are quoted on the authority of the Madras and Calcutta Register, the Gazettes, &c.
Ordinary Members of Council, Servants of the Company (a Military servant eligible) and a fourth Member, not a servant of the Company. The Governor General in Council empowered to legislate for India, and his Laws and Regulations to have the force of Acts of Parliament, subject however to disallowance by the home authorities. The Council may assemble in any part of India. A Law Commission appointed to inquire into existing Laws, the Court of Justice, Police, &c. Governors of other Presidencies to have same powers and immunities as heretofore, but not to make laws or grant money. British subjects, allowed to reside without licence in India with certain exceptions only: allowed to purchase land. Persons of all colours, religion or country admissible to any office or employment under the Company. His Majesty empowered to make Bishops for Madras and Bombay. Four candidates for students to be entered at Hayleybury for each vacancy in the Civil Service. St. Helena to be transferred to the Crown, &c, &c. Lord Napier appointed H. M.'s Chief Commissioner at Canton, November, after the ceasing of the Company's Factory.

1834.—War declared against the Rajah of Coorg, April 2nd. British Troops march into the country; Mercara capital of Coorg, surrendered April 6th, and the Rajah on the 10th. The China Trade stopped in consequence of disputes with the Commissioner, September 2nd. H. M. Ships Imogene and Andromache force the passage of the Bogue. Trade re-opened, September 23rd. Lord Napier died October 11.


Table XCII. Classification of Native States, with which the British Indian Government is in alliance at the present time: with the approximate area of their territories, ascertained by dissecting and weighing a map. (See Journal of the Asiatic Society for 1833, page 489.) 

The area of the native states in alliance with the British Government was found to be, 449,845

That of the territory under British rule with the remaining small states and jāgirdars, 626,746

Superficial area of all India, 1,076,591

The extent of coast from Cape Negrais to the frontiers of Sinde is 3622 British miles; the breadth from Surat to Silhet, 1290 miles.

[HAMILTON says, that the superficial area of Hindustān between the latitudes of 8° and 35° north, and the longitudes of 68° and 90° east, cannot be estimated at more than 1,230,000 English square miles, and the portion belonging to the British and their allies at 1,103,000; this estimate agrees very nearly with the above result of weighing.] 

Captain SUTHERLAND classifies the native states of India under the three following heads:

I.—Foreign, viz. Persia, Kabul, Senna, the Arab tribes, Siam, Acheen.

II.—External, on the frontier; viz. Ava, Nepal, Lahore, Sinde.

III.—Internal, which are those included in the present list. All of these have relinquished political relations with one another and with all other states. They are, according to the nature of their relations or treaties with the English, divided into six classes.

First Class. Treaties offensive and defensive: right on their part to claim protection, external and internal, from the British Government: right on its part to interfere in their internal affairs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oude</td>
<td>23,023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>27,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berar or Nāgpur</td>
<td>56,723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travancore</td>
<td>4,874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cochin</td>
<td>1,888</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This column, and other items marked II., are extracted from HAMILTON's Hindustān by way of comparison.
Second Class. Treaties offensive and defensive: right on their part to claim protection, external and internal, from the British Government, and to the aid of its troops to realize their just claims from their own subjects: no right on its part to interfere in their internal affairs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square miles.</th>
<th>Square miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Hyderabad</td>
<td>88,894</td>
<td>96,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Baroda</td>
<td>24,950</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Class. Treaties offensive and defensive: states mostly tributary, acknowledging the supremacy of, and promising subordinate co-operation to, the British Government; but supreme rulers in their own domains.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alwar</td>
<td>18,060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banswara</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fourth Class. Guarantee and protection, subordinate co-operation, but supremacy in their own territory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bhartpur,</td>
<td>1,946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhopal,</td>
<td>6,772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kutch,</td>
<td>7,396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhár and Dewas</td>
<td>1,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhólpúr,</td>
<td>1,626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewah</td>
<td>10,310</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fifth Class. Amity and Friendship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ameer Khan,</td>
<td>1,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seronj,</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nimbahara,</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sixth Class. Protection, with right on the part of the British Government to control internal affairs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Square miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tánsgan,</td>
<td>1,633</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the above states, four are Mohammedan; viz. Hyderabad, Oude, Bhopal, and Tonk. Of the Hindu states, eight are Marhatta; viz. Sattara, Gwalior, Nagpur, Indore, Banda, Kolápur, Dhar, and Dewas.

Nineteen are Rajput; viz. Oudipúr, Jeypúr, Jodhpúr, Búndí, Kotah, Kutch, Alwar, Bikanír, Jésalímr, Kishengarh, Banswára, Pertábgúrh, Dungenpúr, Keroli, Serowí, Rewah, Dhatteá, Jhánsi, Terhi.

Six are of other Hindu tribes; viz. Mysore, Bhartpúr, Travancore, Sáwantwári, Cochin, and Dholpúr.

Besides these allied states, there are the following inferior Rajships and Jágir-dáris: viz. Chota Nagpur, Sírgújé, Sambhalpúr, Singhábum, Oudipúr, Manipúr, Tanjore, the Bareich family, Férózpúr, Merich, Tangsnáon, Nepání, Akulkôte, and those of the Ságar and Nerbudda country; also Sikkim and the states of the northern hills.