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## A

## GRAMMAR

OF THE

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WITH

## AN INTRODUCTION AND PRAXIS.



By WILLIAM MARSDEN, F.R.S.
AUTHOR OF TBE MALAYAN DICTIONARY, AND OF THE HISTORY OF SUMATRA.

## LONDON:

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## INTRODUCTION.

The Malayan, or, according to the pronunciation of the natives, the Maläyu language (of which a Dictionary was lately, and a Grammar is now offered to the public) prevails throughout a very extensive portion of what is vaguely termed the East-Indies, including the southern part of the peninsula beyond the Ganges, now bearing the name of the malayan peninsula, together with the islands of sumatra, java, borneo, celebes, and innumerable others, as far to the eastward as the moluccas, emphatically termed the Spice-islands, to the southward, as the island of trmor, and to the northward, as the philippines; forming collectively the malayan archipelago. This great insular region may also not inaptly receive the appellation of the Hither polynesia, as distinguished from the Further polynesia or vast expanse of South-sea islands, between which, new guinea may be considered as the common boundary. The name of polynesia, as applied to this tract, was first used by m. de brosses, and afterwards adopted by the late mi. a. dalrymple.

It must at the same time be understood that the islands of this archipelago, for the most part, especially those of the larger class, and the peninsula itself, have also their own peculiar languages, (whether radically differing or not, will be hereafter examined) spoken by the inhabitants of the inland country, whilst the

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Malayan is generally employed in the districts bordering on the sea-coasts and the mouths and banks of navigable rivers. It is consequently the medium of commercial and foreign intercourse, and every person, of whatever nation, who frequents a port of trade must negociate his business in this tongue, either speaking it himself or employing an interpreter. From hence it is that, by comparison with a similar prevalence of a dialect of Italian or Catalonian along the shores of the Mediterranean, it has commonly received the appellation of the lingua franca of the East. On the continent of India however it has not obtained any footing, or is known only to those merchants and seamen who are engaged in what is denominated the Eastern trade.

That the Malayan language has obtained this extensive currency is attributable in the first place to the enterprising and commercial character of the people, who either by force of arms or in the spirit of mercantile speculation, have established themselves in every part of the archipelago convenient for their pursuits; and perhaps in an equal degree, to the qualities of the language itself, being remarkably soft and easy of pronunciation, simple in the grammatical relation of its words, and in the construction of its sentences, plain and natural. The attention indeed to smoothness of utterance is so great that not only, in the formation of derivatives, letters are systematically changed in order to please the ear, but also in words borrowed from the continental tongues, the Malays are accustomed to polish down the rougher consonants to the standard of their own organs.

As a written language the Malayan has been cultivated with no inconsiderable degree of care, and however the dialects as spoken may vary from each other in the sound of certain vowels (as will be noticed particularly in the grammar), or by the adoption
(adoption of local and barbarous terms from the inland people or from Europeans, there is a striking consistency in the style of writing, not only of books in prose and verse, but also of epistolary correspondence, and my own experience has proved to me that no greater difficulty attends the translation of letters from the princes of the Molucca islands, than from those of Kedah or Tranğgãnu in the peninsula, or of Menaņ̄̆ kībau in sumatra. Nor is this uniformity surprising when we consider that none of the compositions in their present form can be presumed more ancient than the introduction of the Mahometan religion in the fourteenth or, at soonest, the thirteenth century, at which period the Arabic mode of writing must likewise have been adopted; for although it cannot be doubted that the Malays, as well as the other natives of these countries, made use of a written character previously to that great innovation, yet the general style of composition must have received a strong tincture from its new dress, and this Arabian garb being similar throughout the different islands, we are naturally led to expect a more marked resemblance in the language so clothed than in the original nakedness of the oral dialects.

The antiquity of these dialects we are entirely without the means of ascertaining, so modern is the acquaintance of Europeans with that part of the East. The earliest specimen we possess is that furnished by the circumnavigator pigafetta, the companion of Magellhan, who visited the island of Tedirī in the year 1521, and whose vocabulary, in spite of the unavoidable errors of transcription and printing, accords as exactly with the Malayan of the present day as those formed by any of our modern travellers, and proves that no material alteration in the tongue has taken place in the course of three centuries. In the vocabulary

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vocabulary collected by the Dutch navigators at Ternäti, in 1599 ("servant de promptuaire à ceux qui y désirent naviguer, car la langue Malayte s'use par toutes les Indes Orientales, principalement ez Molucques") we equally find an entire identity with the modern dialect.
Having described the language as confined in general to the seacoasts of those countries where it is spoken, and consequently as that of settlers or traders, we are naturally led to inquire in what particular country it is indigenous, and from whence it has extended itself throughout the archipelago. Many difficulties will be found to attend the solution of this question, partly occasioned by the bias of received opinions, grounded on the plausible assertions of those who have written on the subject, and partly from the want of discriminating between the country from whence the language may be presumed to have originally proceeded, and that country from whence, at a subsequent period, numerous colonies and commercial adventurers issuing, widely diffused it amongst the islands whose rich produce in spices, gold, and other articles attracted their cupidity. From the peninsula especially, where trade is known to have flourished for several centuries with extraordinary vigour and to have occasioned a correspondent population, these migrations took place, and it was natural for those travellers who in early times visited Malacca, .Johor, and other populous towns in that quarter, to bestow on it the appellation of the malayan peninsula, or (with much less propriety) the peninsula of Malacea, and to consider it as the mother country of the Malays, which in fact it is with respect to the colonies it has so abundantly sent forth. But subsequent investigation has taught us that in the peninsula itself the malays were only settlers, and that the interior districts, like those

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of the islands in general, are inhabited by distinct races of men. Among these are the ōrang benūa or aborigines noticed by m. raffles in his valuable paper on the Maláyu nation, printed in the Asiat. Res. vol. xii. "The Malays (says this gentleman, whose recent appointment to a situation of as great trust and importance as a nation can confide to an individual, justifies the opinion that in a former work I had an opportunity of expressing with regard to his talents) seem here to have occupied a country previously unappropriated; for if we except an inconsiderable race of Caffries, who are occasionally found near the mountains, and a few tribes of the $\bar{o} r a n g$ benūa, there does not exist a vestige of a nation anterior to the Malays, in the whole peninsula. As the population of the Malay peninsula has excited much interest, my attention has been particularly directed to the various tribes stated to be scattered over the country. Those on the hills are usually termed Samang, and are woolly headed; those on the plain, ōrang benüa, or people belonging to the country; the word benüa being applied by the Malays to any extensive country, as benüa China, benüa Keling : but it appears to be only a sort of Malay plural to the Arabic word ben or beni, signifying a tribe. The early adventurers from Arabia frequently make mention in their writings of the different tribes they met with to the eastward, and from them most probably the Malays have adopted the term örang benūa." From the paucity of their numbers as here described we are led to remark that they must have been reduced in an extraordinary degree, either by wars or by proselytism (which tends to confound them with the Malays) since the days of the Portuguese government. I must further take the liberty of observing with respect to the word بi benüa, (as being of importance in the present investigation)
${ }^{\text {Hoxis }}$































From such a Malayan country rather than from any maritime establishments, which always bear the stamp of colonization, we might be justified in presuming the Malays of other parts to have proceeded in the first instance; but it happens that we are not obliged to rest our opinion upon this reasoning from probabilities, for we have in support of it the authority of the native historians of the peninsula, the most distinguished of whom assert in positive terms that the earliest Malayan settlers there, by whom the city of Singa-püra was founded at äjong tänah or "t the extremity of the land," in the twelfth century, migrated in the spirit of adventure from sumatra, where they had previously inhabited a district on the banks of the river Maläyu, said, in the style of mythology, to have its source in the mountain of Mahā-mérū. For some details respecting this emigration, the transactions that succeeded, the expulsion of the Malays from Sing a-pūra, in the reign of their fifth king, Sri Iskander Shäh, by the forces of the king of Majapähit, at that time the principal monarch of JAVA, their founding the city of Malacca in 1253, and also respecting the connexion still understood to subsist between Mananğgäbbau as the parent state, and that of Rembau, a district situated inland of Malacca," the raja of which, as well as his officers receive their authority and appointments from the Sumatran sovereign," I must take the liberty of referring the reader to the History of sumatra (ed 3. p. 325 to 345 ), in which he will find the authorities for what is here advanced, collected and discussed. It is not however to be confidently expected that an opinion so much at variance witl. those hitherto prevailing on the subject, will be adopted without further and strict investigation. To the advocates for the superiority of the Malays of the peninsula and of their language
over what they term provincial dialects, I have only to say that it is by no means my intention to contest that superiority, however ideal, which may have been acquired by a more extensive intercourse with other nations, but only to state the grounds for a belief that the generic name of Maläyu, now so widely disseminated, did not in its origin belong to that country, but to the interior of the opposite island, where, in the neighbourhood of the mountain of Siung ei-päg $\bar{u}$, so celebrated for its gold mines, and from whence rivers are said to flow towards either coast, it is found as a common appellative at this day, and particularly belongs to the great tribe of Süñ ei-pāgū Malāyu, of whom an account is given in the work of valentyn, v deel, "Beschryvinge van Sumatra," p. 13, 14.

In discussing this subject it becomes necessary for me to observe upon some passages in a paper " on the Languages and Literature of the Indo-Chinese nations" printed in vol x. of the Asiat. Researches. The untimely and unfortunate loss of its ingenious author, under circumstances the most favourable for the prosecution of his inquiries, I deeply regret, and the more pointedly as I feel myself called upon, in defence of my own, to question the correctness of several of his opinions that appear to have been too hastily adopted, and which I wished him to have brought to the test of local knowledge. "The Menangkabbow race (he states) who seem at an early period to have ruled the whole island of Sumatra, whose chief assumes the title of Maha Raja of Rajas, and derives his origin from Lankapura, speak a dialect of Malayu which differs considerably from that of the peninsula; but which seems, as far as I can judge, to coincide in many respects with the Jawa or Javanese language. The race have probably derived their origin from Langkapura
in Java." In support of Dr. Leypen's favourite system, the object of which is to derive the language and literature of the Malays from Java, the dialect of Menanggkäbau is here asserted to have much more affinity to the Javanese than to the Malayan of the peninsula; but all who are acquainted with these countries must know that the Javanese, although a radical affinity exists and many words are common to both, is a distinct language from the Malayan, not reciprocally understood by the natives (the Javans usually acquiring the latter for the purposes of intercourse), and written in a different character; whilst, on the contrary, the dialect of Malayan spoken in sumatra differs from that of the peninsula in pronunciation merely or the more or less broad terminating vowels, as remarked by mr. rafyles. It must further be remarked that in the same page where $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{r}}$. leyden read that the Maharaja derived his origin from Lañgkapüra (Hist. of Sum. p. 340) he must have likewise seen that it is situated (according to the pompous edict, and whether imaginary or not is of little importance) between Palembang and Jambi, on the eastern coast of sumatra, and by no means on Java, where no such name is to be found.

It is not a little remarkable that in the correspondence of the Malays, and I allude especially to the chiefs of the various districts of the peninsula, whose letters I possess in great numbers, the term " maläyu," as applied to themselves or other eastern people, very rarely occurs, and that instead of it they familiarly employ the phrase of örang de-bāwah angin, signifying the "leeward people," or literally, " the people beneath the wind," in contradistinction to the örang de-ätas angin, " windward people," or those " above the wind." From whence this meteorological rather than geographical distinction has arisen, or upon what
principle of trade wind or monsoon it is to be justified, I am unable to determine; nor is the consideration of equal moment with that of ascertaining the region to which the distinction is applied. The earliest notice of it is to be found in the asia of de barros, sixth Book of the second Decade, where we are told that " previously to the founding of the city of Malacca, that of Sing̈a-püra was resorted to by the navigators of the western seas of India, as well as by those of countries lying to the eastward of it, such as Siam, China, Chiampa, Camboja, and the many thousand islands scattered over the eastern ocean. On these two regions of the globe the natives (of the eastern part) bestow the appellation of de-bawah angin and atas angin, signifying below the wind and above the wind, or Western and Eastern. For as the principal navigation in these seas is either from the Bay of Bengal, on the one side, or from the great gulf which extends itself towards the coasts of China and far to the northward, on the other, they with reason considered that quarter in which the sun rises, the upper, and that in which he sets the nether side with respect to the situation of Sing̈a-püra." Unfortunately however for this plausible solution it happens that the Portuguese historian, who was not locally acquainted with the country, has misconceived the relative eircumstances, which are exactly the reverse of what he has stated, the leeward people being situated, not towards the setting but the rising sun. By valentyn, the elaborate Dutch oriental historian, who composed his great work on the spot, we are informed (v. deel, Beschryvinge van Malakka, p. 310) that "the Malays are commonly named örang de-bäwah anğin, leeward people or easterlings, and the inhabitants of the western countries, especially the Arabians, ōrang atas angin, windward people or westerlings;"
terlings;" but he does not attempt to explain the meaning of the terms, or to assign any grounds for the distinction. These two authorities being thus obviously at variance with regard to the specific application, it becomes necessary to have recourse to that of the natives themselves, by whom the terms are so frequently employed. In a book containing a digest of their ceremonial law, founded on the precepts of the korān, the following passage presents itself: "Pada segala negrī̀ iang de-bāwah añ"in ōrang meng-korban-kan karhau itu ter-afzal deri-pada lembū in all the countries beneath the wind the people sacrifice the buffalo in preference to the ox." Now as it is well known, and will be admitted, that the karbau or buffalo is the animal usually killed both for food and sacrifice in the farther East, and that, on the other hand, it is not a native of Arabia, it follows that the negri de-bäwah ang in must apply to the former, and cannot to the latter or western country.

To my readers in general, who have not formed any previous opinion, I should deem it unnecessary to adduce further proofs, but as some of my friends abroad, to whom I proposed a question on the subject of these relative terms, furnished me with explanations not very consistent with each other, one of them (whose practical knowledge of the language as well as the manners of the natives has seldom been equalled) assuring me that they referred to the superior and inferior ranks of people in society, I shall transcribe a passage or two from the correspondence of the Malayan princes of the peninsula, which may perhaps be thought decisive. "Govrandōr pūlau pinang iang memegang parentah kompanī dan īang menōlong räja-räja debäwah añgin ini dan mashūr-lah wartā-nia de-bäwah angin dan de-ätas anginin the governor of Pūlo Pinang who exercises the authority
authority of the Company; who gives assistance to the chiefs of these leeward countries, and whose fame is celebrated both beneath the wind and above the wind." And again: "Ada shēkh tīga iang andak pülang ka àrabī maka andak-lah anak kitta tōlong tumpang-kan ka-pada kapal iang andak pergi kasablah atas angin säna there are three sheiks who wish to return to Arabia. Will my son have the goodness to assist them with a passage by a ship proceeding towards those windward (western) parts?" Here at least there can be no ambiguity with respect to the geographical appropriation of the term.

On the western coast of sumatra the name of orang atas angin is commonly applied to the inhabitants of a maritime district in the neighbourhood of the country from whence the principal quantity of gold is procured, and has been generally understood to have a reference to the direction of the westerly monsoon, supposed to vary several points above and below In-dra-pura. Suspecting however that this might have been an opinion gratuitously adopted, or an accommodation of the fact to the etymology, I requested mr, charles holloway, an intelligent gentleman, then chief of Padang, to let me know the acceptation of the phrase amongst the inhabitants of that place, situated as it is within the district of which we are speaking. To this he replied, that " the atas angin people were not considered as örang därat or " natives of the land," like those of Menañ̈gkăbau, but generally as adventurers, being a mixture of all nations, residing at the mouths of the rivers and along the sea-shore, from Ayer $A_{j i}$ as far to the northward as Bärūs, where the Achinese territory commences; and that a Menañ̈g$k \bar{a}-$ bau man would feel very indignant at being confounded with peopie of this description :" from whence it is evident that they
have no claim to be excepted from the foregoing definition of western foreigners, or settlers from Arabia, Persia, and the coasts of the peninsula of India, attracted by the richness of the trade, and intermixed with the natives of the country by marriages, or rather, perhaps, in these days, the progeny of such mixture.

Upon the subject of these terms mr. raffles has judiciously observed to me that in their collective sense they are equivalent to the Arabic expression عربر À àrabu äjem, denoting all mankind, as Greeks and Barbarians, Jews and Gentiles; which is perfectly true as to the universality, but the Malays do not, in imitation of those arrogant phrases, assume to themselves a superiority over the rest of the world; for however, as Mahometans, believing in one God, they might be inclined to rank themselves above all polytheists, this sentiment cannot apply to other Mahometans of the continent of India, much less to their religious instructors the Arabians. Their expression must be considered as a mere local designation, serving to draw a line between the countries and people situated to the eastward of Achin-head or entrance of the straits of Malacca, who are the $\bar{o} \mathrm{rang}$ de-Läwah angin, and those situated to the westward of that meridian, who are the ōrang de-atas angin. Precision, at the same time, is not to be looked for in matters of this nature, and I am unable to determine whether pegu, siam, camboja, cochin-china, and china itself are in fact understood to be comprehended in the former division, or whether it is restricted (as seems from their writings the more probable) to the Malayan and east-insular countries only.

The appellation of Maläyu is given in common both to the people and the language, but there are other terms applicable

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only to the latter, of which that of $\bar{J} \bar{u} w \bar{u}$ or bhāsa jäwi is the most deserving of notice, being employed in writings to denote the vernacular language of the Malays, especially that of books, as distinguished from all foreign languages. In this sense it is that the author of the or "Mirrour of the Faithful" (as quoted by werndiy) informs us that he composed his book (in the year 1009-1601) in the bhāsa jāwŭ, with the design of facilitating the knowledge of the Almighty to all searchers of divine truths who might not understand the Arabic or the Persian;" and in this sense, likewise, one of the princes of the peninsula requests the chief of Pülo Pinang to translate into the vernacular dialect a letter from the Governor General of Bengal, there not being any one in his dominions who could read Persian. Of the acceptation, therefore, of the word jäwī there should appear no room for doubt, although much diversity of opinion has existed with respect to its specific meaning and etymology.

Some have contended for its being a derivative from the name of Java; but nothing is more evident, from the whole tenour of the Malayan writings, than that the term of er enazsa jäwì, notwithstanding the affinity of sound, is entirely distinct from that of $\operatorname{lol}$ bā̃sa jāwa or language of Java. I have even met with them contrasted in the same sentence, where a thing was said to be called by one name in the jäwi or Malayan, and by such another in the jäwa or Javanese. It may likewise be observed, that although in Sanskrit and Persian it is common to form adjectives by annexing $\bar{i}$ to the substantive, and to say Bengalī, Hindustanī, Konkanī, as applied, (no matter how vulgarly) to the languages of bengal, hindustan, or the konkan, no such formation takes place in the Malayan, nor
could $j a ̄ w i ̄$ by any rule of grammar be a derivative from jäwa. Indeed it is sufficient for shewing how little stress should be laid upon the affinity of sound in this instance, to mention that the word $j \bar{a} w \bar{i}$ is likewise the common term for "cattle," and $j \bar{a} w \bar{i}-j \bar{j} w \bar{\imath}$ for the "ficus racemosa," neither of which are presumed to have been introduced from Java. werndly confesses himself much at a loss with respect to its derivation, and after discussing several conjectural etymologies, gives it as his opinion, that if it has a connexion with the name of jawa or Java, it must have arisen from the circumstance of that name having in ancient times been applied to sumatra, as we learn from marco polo, and which he thinks is corroborated by the Arabic term for gum benzoin or benjouin, being لبان جاري lubān jäw̄̄; whereas it is well known that the article is not produced in Java, but abundantly in the northern parts of sumatra. According to mp. baffles "the word jahwí is the Malay term for any thing mixed or crossed; as when the language of one country is written in the character of another, it is termed b'hása jahwi or mixed language; or when a child is born of a Kiling father and Malay mother, it is called anale jahwi, a child of mixed race. Thus the Maláyu language being written in the Arabic character is termed b'hasa jahwi."
The appellations hitherto mentioned, whatever their shades of difference may be, are employed to distinguish this language from those which are foreign to it, but there are also terms which serve to distinguish the various styles (rather than dialects) of the language itself, as spoken by different ranks or classes of people in the same country. These are, the bhäsa dālam, bhāsa bañğsävan, bhāsa dägang, and bhāsa kachūk-an.

The bhisa dialam or courtly style takes its name from the
word $\omega$ لàlam, signifying " a royal palace or court," and not, as has been supposed by the author of the dissertation "on the language and literature of the Indo-Chinese nations," from the preposition dālam " in." From this misconception of the word he was led to consider it as the " language of the interior," and to frame, as its correlative, the term bhāsa lüar, to denote an "exterior" or vulgar language of the coasts, which, although the words are intelligible, I can venture to say, does not exist as a phrase. (See Asiat. Res. vol. x. p. 189.) The style of courts is by no means uncommon in books, because the principal characters, both male and female, introdnced in romances and heroic poems, are always of royal, if not of divine lineage, and the language they speak, as well as that in which they are addressed by their compeers and their attendants, must be suitable to the condition of such personages.

The bhäsa bangsaüwan or style of the politer classes of society, does not in its general tenour differ materially from that of the court, but is at the same time distinguished from it by some expressions in the former applicable only to royalty, such as

 or هيلث ìlang for māti deceased, defunct.
The bhäsa dägang, as the term implies, is that of merchants who trade from port to port, whose language is simple in its construction, and perspicuous, as their dealings require, but less elegant and less grammatical than the preceding. It necessarily admits the use of many foreign names for articles of merchandise, such as scarlet cloth, ري rial a Spanish dollar. The language spoken by European gentlemen may be considered as belonging to this division;
division; but, respected as they are in their political capacity, when their manners accord with the dignity of their situations, they ought to adopt the style of the bhäsa bangsäwan, which would be much facilitated by the habitual perusal of good writings.

The basest and most corrupt style is termed bhāsa kachük-an, from كاحنى kächuk to jumble together, as being the mixed jargon of the bazars of great sea-port towns, where an assemblage of people of all nations render themselves intelligible to each other by a sort of language of convention, of which Malayan is the basis. Into this low dialect a number of European words and phrases found admittance during the time of the Portuguese domination in India, a list of which is subjoined to the Dutch and Malayan vocabulary of justus heurnius, originally published in 1650; and even the superior styles are not entirely exempt from them, as the words "tempo," "senhor," " masque," and a few others occur in the correspondence of persons of rank. Several Dutch terms have been in like manner adopted; but, from the more confined limits of our establishments, the English innovations have hitherto been very inconsiderable. Books are in general free from the influence of these barbarisms.

Having thus described the exterior circumstances of the language, as they respect the country where it was spoken at the period of the earliest Malayan emigration on record, and those extensive regions where it prevails at the present day; as well as the appellations by which it is distinguished from other oriental tongues, both by foreigners and by the natives themselves; it now remains to examine its component parts, and to point out those more original languages from whence we may presume it
to be derived, or which have contributed to its improvement and to that degree of copiousness of which it may fairly boast.

A paper which the Asiatic Society of bengal did me the honour of printing in the fourth volume of their researches, contained the ideas I had formed on this subject, and which I have not since found reason to vary from in any material point; but as some of them have been controverted and partly misunderstood, I shall here endeavour to restate more explicitly the grounds of my opinion, and to obviate such objections as have been urged to my analysis of the language.

That the words of which it consists may be divided into three classes, and that two of these are hindu and arabic, has been generally admitted. The doubts that have arisen respect only the third, or that original and essential part which, to the malayan, stands in the same relation as the saxon to the englisis, and which I have asserted to be one of the numerous dialects of the widely extended language found to prevail, with strong features of similarity, throughout the archipelago on the hither side of New Guinea, and, with a less marked resemblance, amongst the islands of the Pacific Ocean or South Sea. This language, which, in its utmost range, embraces Madagascar also to the westward, may be conveniently termed the polynesian, and distinguished, as already suggested, into the Hither (frequently termed also the East insular language) and the Further Polynesian. To shew the general identity or radical connexion of its dialects, and at the same time their individual differences, I beg leave to refer the reader to the tables annexed to a paper on the subject which I presented so long ago as the year 1780 to the Society of Antiquaries, and is printed in vol. vi.
of the Archæologia; also to a table of comparative numerals in the appendix to yol. iii. of Capt. Cook's last voyage ; and likewise to the chart of ten numerals in two hundred languages, by the Rev. R. Patrick, recently published in valpy's Classical, Biblical, and Oriental Journal. These, however, should be considered rather as illustrations than proofs of what has been stated, the subject requiring a more detailed examination of their respective vocabularies.

It may be asked, with what propriety the Malayan, which has been described as a language of the coasts, and ${ }^{r}$ contrasted with the Polynesian prevailing in the interior of the islands, can at the same time be ranked as one of its dialects; especially when upon comparison it will be found to vary much more from them than they do from each other. This cannot be better explained than by pursuing further the analogies of our own tongue. The English was in its origin a dialect of Teutonic spoken in Lower Saxony, which, at subsequent periods, has been enriched by a great accession of Norman, Greek, and other terms, and in consequence of the political prosperity of the nation, and its intercourse with foreigners, has been so changed from its primitive rude state, as to be no longer understood by the inhabitants of that country which gave it birth. Let us now suppose large establishments of English merchants settling at Embden, Bremen, Hamburgh, and Lubeck, and there becoming of so much commercial importance as to render their own the general language of communication with traders from all other parts. Under such circumstances the English would be to the natives of Lower Germany (assuming that these have remained stationary) what the Malays are to the ancient population of the islands; children of the same stock, but estranged
estranged from their brethren by the acquisition of foreign habits, and again frequenting them under the advantages of their new condition.

In one respect, however, the analogy fails; for whilst we possess some historical account of the expeditions which contributed to people Great Britain with its present race, we are entirely without record or tradition of the course of population amongst these islands, prior to the comparatively modern passage of the Malays from sumatra to the opposite shores of the peninsula, at a period when their language had already received those accessions which distinguish it from the generality of the insular dialects. Whether, in times much earlier, tribes of Battas, Rejangs, or Lampongs migrated to Java, Borneo, and the Moluccas, or whether the current ran in a contrary direction and conveyed inhabitants to sumatra from the more eastern islands, must remain to be decided upon grounds of general probability alone, although some of the superstitious tales of the natives of the Philippines point to the former as the birth-place of the parents of the human race. (Hist. of Sumatra, ed. 3. p. 302.) But whatever pretensions any particular spot may have to precedence in this respect, the so wide dissemination of a language common to all, bespeaks a high degree of antiquity, and gives a claim to originality as far as we can venture to apply that term, which signifies no more than the state beyond which we have not the means, either historically or by fair inference, of tracing the origin. In this restricted sense it is that we are justified in considering the main portion of the Malayan as original or indigenous; its affinity to any continental tongue not having yet been shewn; and least of all can we suppose it con-
nected with the monosyllabic or Indo-Chinese, with which it has been classed.

What has been said will I trust be thought sufficient for defining the language to which this radical portion belongs. I have been the more anxious to make myself clearly understood, because on a former occasion I appear not to have satisfied the mind of the ingenious author of the paper on the languages and literature of the Indo-Chinese nations, who introduces the following remark: "In another paper published in the Archæologia, vol. vi. this author has successfully exhibited a variety of instances of coincidence, both in sound and signification, between the Malay and several of the eastern dialects. By attempting to prove too much, however, I apprehend that he has failed essentially. He has pointed out a few coincidences, but has left the mass of the language totally unaccounted for; and as the few coinciding words may all have been derived from a common source, it is perhaps a more natural inference to conclude that they have all been modified by some general language, than, with sir wm. Jones, to determine that the parent of them all has been the Sanscrit." I confess that this passage does not convey to my apprehension any very precise idea of the writer's meaning, nor do I see, as I much wish, in what the force of the objection consists. Can he have deemed it necessary for the support of my conclusions that every coinciding word in these dialects of the Polynesian should be enumerated ? That indeed would have been attempting too much. The dictionaries of Tagala, Bisaya, Pampanga, and other philippine languages are voluminous, and a considerable proportion of the number of words they contain is similar to those spoken in sumatra. To have introduced them in a paper read to a learned society would
have led me beyond all reasonable bounds; and yet in omitting to do it, "I have left the mass of the language totally unaccounted for." That they "may all have been derived from a common source" can scarcely admit of a question; but what ground is thence afforded for controverting my position that the Malayan, in its original unmixed state, was one of its streams ? That common source he has not pointed out, and an investigation of the component parts of the language as we now find it, does not demand it from me; for who in ascertaining the etymology of our own tongue is required to discover the origin of the Teutonic dialects?

It is necessary to observe, with regard to the Polynesian or general East-insular language, that it does not include those spoken by the description of people termed Papüa and Samang by the Malays and Negritos by the Spaniards of Manilla, whose crisp or frizzled (rather than woolly) hair and dark skins, point them out as a race totally distinct from the yellow complexioned, long haired natives of whom we are speaking. These, as well as the Haraforas and other savage tribes found in several parts of the Archipelago, present a subject of research as curious as it is obscure, but not being immediately connected with the Malays or their language, they do not come within the scope of this discussion.

We shall now direct our attention to those accessory tongues from whence the Malayan acquired such a degree of improvement, as removed it from the general level of the other cognate dialects, and gave it a decided predominance in that part of the East. Of these the earliest as well as the most important appears to have been, either directly or mediately, that great parent of Indian languages, the venerable sanskrit, whose influence
is found to have pervaded nearly the whole of the Eastern (and perhaps also of the Western) world, modifying and regenerating even where it did not create. That the intercourse, whatever its circumstances may have been, which produced this advantageous effect on the Malayan, must have taken place at an early period, is to be inferred not only from the deep obscurity in which it is involved, but also from the nature of the terms borrowed, being such as the progress of civilisation must soon have rendered necessary, expressing the feelings of the mind, the most obvious moral ideas, the simplest objects of the understanding, and those ordinary modes of thought which result from the social habits of mankind; whilst at the same time it is not to be understood, as some have presumed to be the case, that the affinity between these languages is radical, or that the latter is indebted to any hindu dialect for its names for the common objects of sense. It is proper also to remark, that in some instances the words so borrowed do not preserve the exact signification they bear in the original, but acquire one more specific; as سقتّ saktī which in Sanskrit denotes "power," is restricted in Malayan to " supernatural power," and $\ddagger$ t putrā signifying "a son," is applied only to the "son of a royal personage."

When in a paper written in the year 1793 I pointed out "the traces of the Hindu language and literature extant amongst the malays," I presumed the discovery to be original, but soon learned that I had been anticipated in my observation by the revered president and founder of the Asiatic Society, who in his eighth Anniversary Discourse had already made the remark that " without any recourse to etymological conjecture, we dis* cover that multitudes of pure sanskrit words occur in the principal.
principal dialects of the Sumatrans." Justice however to our predecessors in the study of oriental languages requires me to state, that in the preface to the Vocabulary of heurnius, it is distinctly mentioned that beside several words adopted from the neighbouring dialect of JAVA, the Malayan is largely indebted to those of hindustan, and especially to the sanskrit or sacred language of the Brahmans.
An investigation of the period when, and the means by which so copious and useful a class of words was incorporated with some of the rude East-insular dialects, is a subject worthy of the talents of those able scholars whose inquiries, directed to the attainment of genuine historical and philological truth, adorn the pages of the asiatic researches. From the Malays themselves, or their writings, it is to be apprehended that little information respecting facts of so ancient a date can now be procured, and if the books of the hindus are equally silent, we must be content to extract our knowledge from the sober examination of intrinsic evidence. With this in view I must here take the liberty of observing that much fallacious inference appears to have been drawn from the resemblance of the Sanskrit term Malaya to the name of the people of whom we are speaking, which has induced some persons, whose authority carries with it great weight, to consider the Malaya dwipa as denoting the Malayan peninsula. But with all due deference, on a point where my opinion must rest upon a comparison of those passages in the researches or other published works, in which the term occurs, I think it will be found to belong exclusively to the mountainous region in the southern part of the peninsula of India, known in the provincial dialect of the country
country by the name of Malayàlam, as is the language by that of Maleáima; all being derivatives from the word malé, signifying " a mountain."

The most obvious mode in which we might presume the language of a more civilised to have been communicated to a ruder people, whose soil abounds with valuable productions, is that of commercial intercourse, and we find accordingly, that when Europeans first visited the Malayan ports, they describe them as being erowded with vessels from the coasts of guzerat, malabar, and coromandel, and with merchants from thence, as well as from all other parts of the east, established on shore, and occupying their respective kampongs or quarters in the bazars. From such habitual residence and the familiarity it must occasion, there is no doubt but that many words convenient for the purposes of trade may have been introduced, as in later days from the connexion with Europeans themselves; and it would not be fair to deny that many others of a more general nature might in the same manner have found their way; but when we pay attention to the terms which actually constitute this portion of the Malayan, and which in the Dictionary are distinguished by their proper character, we shall perceive that, for the most part, they not only belong to a class of ideas superior to what the transactions of a bazar would require, but also, in respect to their form and pronunciation, are stamped with the mark of the purest days of the Sanskrit, undebased by the corruptions of its provincial dialects; as may be instanced in the conversion of the letter $y$ into $j$ in the language of Bengal, $y \bar{u} g$ being there pronounced $j \ddot{u} g$, and yujana (a geographical term adopted by the Malays) pronounced jujan. For its possessing this latter quality I have (and trust I may long have)
the living authority of mr. wilkins, as well as that of the writings of sir william jones. Even dr. leyden, though rather an unwilling witness, admits that " the Sanscrit vocables adopted in Malayiz and Guzeráti, are generally preserved purer in the former than in the latter ;" and again, that "in many instances the Malayu form approaches nearer the pure Sanscrit than even the Bali itself,"

This Bali, or Pali, the sacred language of ava and sram, has by some been supposed, from its geographical proximity, the most likely channel through which the mindu terms (being itself a dialeet of Sanskrit) might have flowed into the Malayan countries; i but independantly of the preceding objection, we may ask whether it is probable that, from the circumstance of vicinage, the occult and mysterious language of one country should become popular in another, whilst the ordinary language spoken by the bulk of the people should not have made any similar progress. But in fact we have strong grounds for believing that the Malayan tongue had already received its accession of Sanskrit terms, before the spreading of its population towards the North brought it into contact with the southern dominions of Siam; and since that period the two nations have almost ever been at variance. From these considerations I skould strongly incline to coincide in opinion with dr. Leyden, who had studied the language, that "the greater part of the words of Sanserit origin found in Malayu, do not appear to have been intreduced through the medium of the Bali." Yet as the discovery of truth and not the support of any system is my object, I shall produce a document lately come to my hands which will be thought of much importance in the future discussion of this question, and add materially to the argument of
those who shall contend that the Bali or Pali has had a principal share in contributing to the dissemination of the Hindu language and mythology throughout the eastern islands. This document is a letter from m. a, couperus,* a servant of the
late

## * " My dear Sir,

Calcutta, 25th Oct. 1810.
I have the pleasure to send you a copy of two of my Java drawings, taken from two stones found, with more than an hundred of the same kind, in the interior part of the island. The numerous inscriptions seen on the back of many of these stones, as also on the back of several metal idols found at the same place, but of a much smaller size, are in a language of which the characters are no longer known; the language appearing to be entirely lost. $\Lambda$ specimen of these characters, taken with the utmost possible exactness from two stones, I forward also with this. They differ in all respects from the Javanese and other characters in use amongst the natives of the neighbouring countries. There is no hope that we shall get any information from these natives upon subjects of antiquity, as they have no proper records, nor have they preserved any branch of learning, which they, or those inhabitants who in old times worshipped the idols, undoubtedly possessed. I have proofs that they had even a knowledge of astronomy; but the present inhabitants are in respect of arts and sciences, most ignorant and superficial beings. I had hopes that some learned gentleman or Bramin here in Bengal would have been found able to ascertain the language of the inscriptions, but it appears that the characters are also unknown in Bengal ; which I consider as a great loss to letters, as the inscriptions are so very numerous and almost all porfectly visible: and I have no doubt that some interesting historical events would be discovered. Amongst the idols found in Java there are many of Bralima, Visnu, and other inferior deities of the Hindüs; so that all the benefit history has gained by this discovery is, that it proves beyond doubt that the inhabitants of Java, in very remote times; were idolaters of the Brahma sect. A native of the Lampung country (in Sumatra) seeing some of those figures at my house in Batavia, informed me that many similar stones and figures are to be seen in the interior part of Lampung. The same information I got from an inhabitant of the Müsi country (inland of Palembang) who had travelled through the Lampung district, and had seen similar monuments there.
late Dutch East-India Company, and a distinguished member of the Batavian philosophical society, addressed to my friend mr. charles holloway of Bencoolen (from whom I received it), accompanied with two well executed drawings made from stone images of Siva or Mahadeva, and Bhavani, under the appellations of Bhairava and Batu-Bharavé, and also with copies of long inscriptions carved upon the back of these or similar images. The characters and language of the inscriptions are stated to be equally unknown to the natives of the interior of Java (where they were found) and to the Brahmans of bengal to whom he had shewn them. But upon examination the characters prove to be no other than the square Pali, considered as sacred in the Birma or Ava country, and in Siam. Of this my late worthy and ingenious friend col. m. symes, in his account of an embassy to $A v a$, gives a specimen, taken from a beautiful manuscript containing an account of the ceremony used in the consecration of rhahaans or priests; which Pali manuscript he afterwards presented to earl spencer, and is now in the magnificent library of that nobleman. Being myself so fortunate as to possess an original alphabet and other materials for ascertaining the language of the inscriptions, I hope (with the aid of mr. wilkins) to succeed in translating

[^0]them, and although not so sanguine as m. couperus in the expectation of discovering important historical documents, to be enabled at least to determine whether the Pali was, in ancient times, employed as the sacred or learned language of Java also. Images of the same kind, brought from Balambuang, at the southern extremity of the island, and opposite to that of Bali, I remember to have seen in sumatra; but these were without inscriptions, and did not at the time excite any particular attention. I have lately been informed that the officers commanding our troops in Java have frequently recognised in their marches, figures (especially of Ganésa) to which they had been familiarly accustomed on the continent of India ; and that no opportunities have been lost of making drawings of these as well as fac similes of ancient characters, wherever they have been discovered.
"It is needless (says dr . Leyden) to adduce further instances" (of the connexion of Malayan with Bengali, from which, in truth, it is more remote than from any other Sanskrit derivative) " as the Malay history and the language itself, exhibit traces sufficiently elear, to direct us to the region with which the Malays had the most frequent intercourse, at an early period, and from which their language seems to have received the most considerable modifications, and that is the ancient kingdom of Kalinga. Here I am again under the necessity of dissenting from marsden's opinion : he says, "It is evident that from the Telinga or the Tamul, the Malayan has not received any portion of its improvement." I apprehend that the express reverse of this opinion is evident; for the Malays, at this very period, know the Coromandel coast by no other name than Tanna Keling, the land of Keling or Kalinga : a multitude of compositions current among them profess to be translations from
the Basa-Keling or Kalinga language; and the Malayu language contains a great number of words that are Tamul, Malayálam and Telinga; though neither Sanscrit, Hinduvi, nor Guzerati; and a variety that are only to be found in Telinga, the vernacular language of the Kalinga Desa." Had dr. leyden favoured us with a list, however short, of these words borrowed from the Telinga or the Tamul, which have no relation to the Sanskrit, it would have given considerable weight to his assertion. As it is, I can only say that such have very rarely occurred in my limited examination of those languages. The word kappal " a ship," which I find in a Tamul vocabulary, is obviously the كثل of the Malays. Lavangum, the Telinga word for "cloves," can be no other than $\hat{\varepsilon}, y$ läwang or bùnğa làwang; but surely in this instance it must be with the cultivator and not the consumer that the word originated. I should almost venture to say the same of padaua or padavu " a boat," which has a manifest affinity to ${ }^{\boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta}}$ prau or parau; for how can we suppose that these islanders should borrow the most common term for their small sailing vessels from the people of a distant continent? The words
 universe, كرلم külam a pond, كان mannikam a precious stone, have evident marks of their importation from the Kalinga Dēsa or negri kling, but they are at the same time a barbarous form of Sanskrit, and their number, I think, could not be doubled in the pages of the Malayan Dictionary.

The extensive commercial intercourse by Kling (Telinga or Coromandel) vessels, between the ports of the continent of India and those of Achin, Malacca, and others in the Straits, is matter of notoriety, and it is likewise admitted that many translations of Hindu stories have been made through the medium of the
languages
languages of the peninsula; but it does not necessarily follow that the Malayan "received its most considerable modifications" from that quarter. It must be observed that the Tamul, Telinga, and Kanari (all essentially one tongue) are radically different from the Sanskrit, although from the abundant infusion of religious and poetical terms, they have not uncommonly been mistaken for its derivatives; and if it were to the traders of the Coromandel or Malabar coasts that it was indebted for its improvement, the words so communicated would obviously have belonged in greater numbers to the radical or vulgar portion of the language, than to the learned; and even the Sanslorit terms that might have found their way along with these, would have been affected by the peculiarities of orthography and pronunciation which distinguish the Telinga from other corruptions, and which, in fact, are observable in a few instances. But dr. leyden himself bears testimony to the superior purity of those adopted by the Malays; and with respect to their number, he says (somewhat gratuitously) that a list of about fifteen examples given by me as a specimen, " might, with very little labour, have been extended to fifteen hundred, or perhaps five thousand." Upon assertions of this nature the columns of the Dictionary form the best comment.

The strongest argument however against the probability of commerce having exerted so powerful an influence and produced an effect so extensive, is to be drawn from the nature of the words themselves, which are not confined to the names of things, but more usually express moral feelings, intellectual qualities, or ideas connected with mythology. Can it be supposed that mercantile visitors should have taught these people to denote " joy" and "sorrow" by the terms suka-chita and duka-chita, " under-
derstanding" by budi, " prudence" by bijaksana, "loyalty" by satīwan, " kindred" by kulawarga, " time" by kala, "cause" by kärna, or." penance" by tapa? Much less can we persuade ourselves that the Sanslrit names of cities, districts, and moun, tains in the interior of the country (particularly of Java) should have been imposed by strangers of this description. Innovations of such magnitude, we shall venture to say, could not have been produced otherwise than by the entire domination and possession of these islands by some ancient Hindu power, and by the continuance of its sway during several ages. Of the period when this state of things existed we at present know nothing, and judging of their principles of action by what we witness in these days, we are at a loss to conceive under what circumstances they could have exerted an influence in distant countries of the nature here described. The spirit of foreign conquest does not appear to have distinguished their character, and zeal for the conversion of others to their own religions faith, seems to be incompatible with their tenets. We may, however, be deceived by forming our opinion from the contemplation of modern India, and should recollect that previously to the Mahometan irruptions into the upper provinces, which first took place about the year 1000 , and until the progressive subjugation of the country by Persians and Moghuls, there existed several powerful and opulent Hindu states, of whose maritime relations we are entirely ignorant at present, and can only cherish the hope of future discoveries, from the laudable spirit of research that pervades and does so much honour to our Indian establishments.

That the remains of superstitions and other traces of Hindic occupancy should now be less frequently discernible in Sumatra than in Java and Bali (where the practice of the wife's burning





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## INTRODUCTION.

less a vast portion of the known world. This was the spreading of the doctrine of the koran; not indeed rapidly, as in the west, by the aid of the sword, but with a gradual progress, the effect of persuasion rather than of force. Traders from the Arabian coasts had probably in all ages' frequented the eastern seas, although no record of their voyages of an earlier date than the ninth century has been preserved; yet there is not reason to conclude that this casual intercourse had any influence upon the languages of the islands. In the twelfth century however, the new religion may be presumed to have gained considerable ground amongst the inhabitants, as it appears that in the beginning of the thirteenth, it was embraced and openly professed by some of the princes,' and even that those who preached it found the means, in several instances, of raising themselves to the rank of sovereigns. In the Annals of Achin we are distinctly told that in the year 601 of the hejrah, answering to 1204, sultan Juhan Shah arrived from the western country, established islamism in that capital, and marrying a native princess, transmitted the crown to his son. From the Annals of Malaeca we learn that the conversion, took place there during the reigin of Muhammed Shah, who ascended the throne in 1276 ; and the Javanese records inform us that the religion was first preached in their island, so lately as 1406 , by Sheikh Ibn Mulana, who had previously visited Achin and Pasē in Sumatra, and Johor in the peninsula.

The effects produced by the introduction of this religion amongst the Malays, were similar to those which took place in Persia and many other countries where it has prevailed The use of the Arabic character superseded that of the ancient mode of writing, and the language became exposed to an inundation of new terms, for the most part theological, metaphysical, legal, and
and ceremonial, the knowledge of which is indispensable to those who study the koran and its commentaries These terms their writers, in some species of composition, affect to introduce, as a proof of their religious as well as their literary attainments; but fèw of them, comparatively, have been incorporated with or constitute a part of the language. On a former occasion I had added that they are rarely employed in conversation's an assertion that may have been too general, as pedants are to be found in all countries. In the preambles of letters there is no limitation to the use of Arabic epithets; but in the body or business part they are much more sparingly employed; and in books of narration, such as the version of the Ramayana, as well as poetic works in general (with the exception of those apon religious suibjects), they are by no means frequent. About the number of twenty or thirty swords may be pointed out as having a claim, from their familiar recurrence, to be considered as Malayan by



 a grave, / se sejüd prostration, sehab cause, rرя -ing) ; whilst those others, of which it has been justly said by做, Leyden, that " it is difficult to assign any bounds to their !introduction but the pleasure of the writer," must be regarded as foreign words ostentatiously displayed; like the French and Latin with which the works of old German and Dutch authors are chequered so profusely. The learner therefore is not to be surprised at failing to trace in the Dictionary many Arabic words which he will find in manuscripts. Those occurring most frequently have been inserted, but to have carried this to the full yrach extent
extent would have been to incorporate the bulk of the language, and to encroach on the province of an Arabic lexicon. The number of Malayan words, on the contrary, that have been transferred into other tongues, is very limited; yet the following have obtained an extensive currency, not only in India, but in many parts of Europe: دالم
 cane; "ens kampong an enclosure, vulgarly compound; ;"so godong, a warehouse, factory, vulgarly godown; كرس loris or creese, a weapon; ورو Golk meng-amuk, to run a-muck, to murder indiscriminately, to engage furiously in battle.

That the Malays before the introduction of Arabic writing possessed an alphabetic character of their own, can scarcely be doubted, although we are now ignorant what that character was; for whilst so many tribes similarly circumstanced, in Si matra, Java, Celebes, and other islands, have retained even to this day their proper alphabets (all exhibiting traces of a Nagri origin), it is not probable that this race alone should have been entirely unlettered; and we should rather conclude that, from the period of their conversion, being taught to regard with contempt, not only their habits of idolatry, but their ancient literature also, the Malays suffered the memorials of it to sink into oblivion. If what was thus neglected is to be searched for amongst the existing alphabets, the Batta seems to have the fairest pretensions (from vicinity) to be considered as that which gave place to the less convenient character imported from Arabia.

Respecting the general style of the language, which will be best understood from the examples to be given in the praxis, we

## INTRODUCTION.

may here briefly remark, that it is much more chaste and natural than the phraseology of Asiatic languages in general, being free (excepting only in the quaint and obscure pantuns or proverbial sonnets) from forced conceits, and particularly such as depend upon the ambiguous meaning of words, so prevalent and offensive to good taste in Persian compositions. It may be said indeed, that the Malayan style is never metaphorical, the imagery employed in poetic comparison being kept distinct from the subject, in the manner of simile, and not figuratively interwoven with the texture of the sentence. At the same time it must be allowed to, partake of many of the disadvantages incident to rude languages; to be defective in precision, as well as in neatness of arrangement, and to indulge in superfluous repetitions; faults not inconsistent with that simplicity of construction which, with smoothness and sweetness of tone, form its distinguished characteristics. But further observations of this nature would be an anticipation of what belongs to the department of Syntax and Prosody, and in the sequel I shall confine myself to what concerns the progress made by Europeans in fixing and communicating their know* ledge of the tongue.

That the Malayan has not hitherto been cultivated in England with the attention it deserves, must be attributed in a great degree to the insufficiency of the means provided for the instruction of those who might wish to make it an object of study. The Dutch, whose establishments in these parts preceded ours in point of time, and, until the present extraordinary period, acquired much greater importance, employed considerable pains in perfecting their acquaintance with it, as well with a religious as a political view, and published some works which shew the high proficiency to which they attained. Of these the principal is a k translation
translation of the whole Bible, executed with singular skill andaccuracy by the progressive labours of several learned men, and finally, under the superintendence of G. h. werndly, printed in the Roman character at Amsterdam in 1731-3, 4to. 2 vol., and afterwards with the proper Malayan types, at Batavia in 1758, 8 vo . v vol. The same werndiy was likewise the author of an excellent Grammar, of which further mention will be made in the sequel. With such advantages it is matter of no little surprise that they should not also have furnished a work so essential and indispensable to the study of this or any other language, as a good Dictionary, formed from the genuine writings of the nalives, and expressed either in the proper character, or in such consistent European orthography as might prove an adequate substitute. What has hitherto been effected by them and by ourselves in" Malayan philology, will best appear from the following enumeration of printed works, in the order of their publicaion; nearly the whole of which are in my possession.

Subsequently to the appearance of some vocabularies found in the works of the early voyagers, the first regular work in form of a Dictionary, bears the title of "Spraecle ende woord-boeck, in de Maleysche eide Madagaskarsche Taken," by frederick houtman van Gouda, published at Amsterdam in 1604, $4^{\text {to. }}$ oblongo ; republished in $1673,8 \mathrm{vo}$. under the title of " Dictionrum, ofte Woord ende Spraeck-boeck, in de Duytsche ende Maleysche Tale;" and again at Batavia in 1707, 4 to. The original edition contains, at the end of an address to the reader, the autograph of houtman himself, who acquired his knowledge of the language whilst a prisoner at Achin; and also that of gotardus arthus, to whom the book belonged, and who republished the Dialogues it contains at Cologne, 1608, 8vo. which
likewise

Jikewise appeared in English in 1614, 4to. under the title of "Dialogues in the English and Malaiane languages : or certain common formes of speech, first written in Latin, Malaian, and Madagascar tongues, by the diligence and painfull endeavour of Master gotardus arthusius, a Dantisker, and now faithfully translated into the English tongue by augustine spalding Merchant."

The next original publication is that entitled " Vocabularium, ofte Woort-boeck, naer ordre van den Alphabet int 't DuytschMaleysch ende Maleysch-Duytsch. Als mede eenighe Grammaticale observatien;" first composed by caspar wiltens, and afterwards improved and published by sebastian danckaerts. 's Gravenhaghe 1623, $4^{\text {to. Batavia } 1706,4 \text { to. This vocabulary, }}$ which, though not extensive, has considerable merit, was afterwards translated into Latin, and published at Rome by the title of " Dictionarium Malaico-Latinum et Latino-Malaicum, cum aliis quamplurimis. Opera et studio davidis haex," 1631, 4to. The credit of an original composition being here improperly assumed (although explained in the dedication), it becomes necessary to correct a mistake into which $\mathrm{D}^{\mathrm{r}}$. Leyden has been led, who says (p. 184), "The first attempt to form a grammar or dictionary of it, as far as I know, was made by david haex, who published in Malayu and Dutch, a vocabulary with some grammatical observations. At the request of Cardinal Barberini the Dutch was rendered into Latin." To this latter operation only were the study and labour of haex directed, and the translation is evidently the performance of a person unacquainted with the Malayan language.
" Vocabularium; ofte Woorden-boeck, in't Duytsch on Maleys. Eertydts gecomponeerd et uyt-gegeven door casparum WILTENS

## INTRODUCTION.

wiltens ende sebastianum danckaerts. Ende nu (met meet dan drie duysent so woorden als manieren van spreken) vermeerdert uyt de schriften van jan van hasel ende albert ruyl, \&c. door justum heurnium." Amst. 1650, 4to. Batavia 1708, 4to. This, though modestly professing to be only an improved edition of the preceding, has in fact a claim to be considered as an original and much superior work. It was reprinted at Batavia in 1677, 4 to. with improvements by frederik gueynier, and again, at the same place, in 1708 , with still further improvements, by petrus van der worm; in which state it is the best Dutch and Malayan dictionary that has appeared.
"Grondt ofte kort Bericht van de Maleische Taal, door johannes roman." Amst. 1655, Fo.
" Grammatica Malaica, tradens precepta brevia idiomatis linguæ in India Orientali celeberrimæ, ab indigenis dictæ Malajo, succincte delineata labore johannis christoph. lorberi." Vinariæ (Weimar) $1688,8 \mathrm{vo}$. This, we are told by werndly, is a bad translation of the work of J. roman (which I have not seen), with some extracts from that of f. de houtman, by one who was quite a stranger to the language of the Malays.
"A Dictionary English and Malayo, Malayo and English. To which is added some short Grammar Rules and Directions for the better observation of the propriety and elegancy of this language. By thomas bowrex." London 1701, 4to. This, although the work of an illiterate person, possesses considerable merit, and derived, as is evident, no advantage whatever from the preceding publications, of the existence of which the author was probably ignorant. His extensive knowledge of the language of the people whose ports he frequented as a trader, he laudably rendered permanent and useful to his countrymen by committing
to paper all the words with which his memory furnished him; ; but he appears to have been entirely ignorant of the written language, as even the short specimen of words in the original character,

[^1]character, printed at the end of his book, he acknowledges to have been prepared for him at Oxford by that learned and indefatigable orientalist, тномas hyde. Owing to his want of sufficiency in this and some other respects, he has unavoidably fallen into numerous errors, and the sentences he has employed to exemplify the words, being of his own composition, and not quotations, are for the most part incorrect or vulgar, and uncouth in their phraseology.
" Maleische Woord-boek Sameling. Collectanea Malaica: Vocabularia. Hoc est Congeries omnium Dictionariorum Malaicorum hactenus editorum. Non tantum vulgariorum BelgicoMalaicorum, verum etiam rarissimorum hucusque incognitorum." andreas lambertus loderus, Typogr. Bataviæ 1707-8, 4 to. in partes. This useful collection contains the reptiblication of nearly all the Vocabularies that had then appeared, and of which many had become extremely scarce.
" Maleische Spraaklounst, uit de eige Schriften der Maleiers opgemakk ; mit eene Voorreden, behelzende eene inleiding tot dit werk, en een Aanhangsel van twee Boekzalen van boeken in deze tale zo van Europeërs, als van Maleiers geschreven. Door george henrik werndly." Amst. 1736, 8vo. Of this Grammar I cannot speak in terms too favourable. It is the performance of a person who, united to a perfect acquaintance with the Malayan, a knowledge of the principles of general grammar, and who ventured, in framing one for that language, to disengage himself from the trammels of European regimen, and to draw his rules from the language itself. The fault of the work, a very pardonable one, is redundance. To the instruction it affords I confess myself materially indebted. The plan of my own Grammar had been sketched, and the parts filled up, before

I became

I became acquainted with werndly's, or could read the language in which it is composed; but I afterwards compared the whole of what I had written, with his observations, strengthening my opinions by his sanction, and where we differed, availing myself of his judgment when it appeared sounder than my own. In making this avowal I am not by any means afraid of being considered as his copyist by persons who shall take the trouble of examining the two grammars with this view.
"Nieuwe Woordenschat in Nederduitsch, Maleidsch en Portugeesch." Batavia 1780, 8vo. This work, mentioned by Thunberg, I have not seen.
"Resa uti Europa, Africa, Asia, förrattëd ifrdn ar 1770 til 1779. Af carl peter thunberg." Upsala 1789-93, 8vo. iv vol. Vol. II. p. 260-90. A Vocabulary and Dialogues, Swedish and Malayan. The list of words collected by this ingenious na, turalist is rather more accurate than what we find in the generality of books of travels.
"A short Vocabulary, English and Malayo, with Grammar Rules for the attainment of the Malayo language." Calcutta 1798. Of the merits of this work I have not had an opportunity of judging.
"A Grammar of the Malay tongue, as spoken in the Peninsula of Malacoa, the islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Pulo Pinang, \&ce. compiled from bowrey's Dictionary, and other authentic documents, manuscript and printed." London 1800, 410. -6 A Dictionary of the Malay tongue, as spoken, \&cc. In two parts, English and Malay, and Malay and English. To which is prefixed, a Grammar of that language. By john howison, m. D." London, printed by S. Rousseau, 1801, $4^{\text {to. }}$ It is not easy to speak in terms sufficiently measured of this publication, but
but the interests of literature and of oriental education require that its real character should be explained. The long period that had elapsed since the appearance of bowrey's work, its consequent scarcity, and the want of any better to supply its place, rendered the reprinting it, notwithstanding its imperfections, an expedient measure, and it was accordingly undertaken or encouraged by a late worthy, but not learned bookseller. It was suggested to him that the original might be improved by annexing the Malayan characters to the words as they stood in the Roman orthography; and this, if properly executed, would have been highly judicious. But, unfortunately, those persons who were employed for the purpose being ignorant of the language, instead of giving the words in the mode of spelling used by the natives and to be found in their writings, composed them of such Persian characters as best suited their idea of the sounds; and consequently when right, it is only by chance. For the most part, instead of words known to the language, they are merely capricious combinations of letters, some of which (such as the Persian $p$, employed throughout for $\dagger$ ) have no connexion with the Malayan alphabet, whilst all those peculiarly belonging to it, and not to be met with in Arabic founts, are entirely omitted. Although it is difficult to convey to those whoare not conversant with the language an adequate notion of the grossness of this proceeding, the Arabian or Persian scholar will be sensible of it when he perceives that such words as er wisdom, and $ع \mu$ life, are here written and $; 5$; whilst the common Malayan words 4 what, ol the verb substantive, and كوت
 by a work of this description, to the literary reputation of the country amongst foreign oriental scholars need not be insisted
upon; but that which may be sustained by the servants of the East-India Company and others, into whose hands it may have been put for instruction, is a consideration of much more importance. mr. howison having borne a respectable character, and being designated in the Advertisement prefixed, as a learned and ingenious gentleman whose " friendly assistance" enabled the real Editor to lay his specimen before the public, there is reason to believe that he was not a principal in the transaction, although he was induced to let it go into the world with the sanction of his name.
" A rough Sketch of part of an intended Essay towards ascertaining, deducing, elucidating, and correctly establishing the Rudiments of the Juh,wee or Jahwee language, vulgarly called the malay language." By j. s. (shaw). Prince of Wales Island, $1807,8 \mathrm{vo}$. If the reader does not anticipate the merits of this singular work from the foregoing title, his judgment may be assisted by the following short extracts. "It has been generally asserted, says this author, that the Malays have received their alphabetical characters from the Arabians : I think that I have many strong reasons to shew the contrary; and am, therefore, induced to believe, that the Arabians and Persians have borrowed their present chatacters from the Malays." "It has oceurred to me, he adds, from the evident antiquity of the Juh,wee language, in which are to be found the roots of old Persian and Sanserit derivatives, 8ce. that the Malays might, probably, be from the primeval stock of Javan, one of the sons of Japheth, who was the third son of Noak." His opinion of the work last noticed will appear not to differ materially from my own (for we can all see the mote in our brother's eye) when
he speaks of a word " marked as a pronoun by mr. bowrey, and by his copyer, the plagiarist, under the name of howison." It is not, however, in the copying, but the perverting his original, that the demerit consists. mr. shaw's claim to originality is certainly undisputed.
" A comparative Vocabulary of the Barma, Maláyu and T"hái languages." (By J. c. Lexden, m. d.) Serampore, 1810, 8vo. The object of this work, as the learned author informs us, was to facilitate the compilation of a series of Comparative Vocabularies of the languages of the Indo-Chinese nations, and of the tribes which inhabit the eastern islands; for which purpose it was deemed advisable to print and circulate those of the Birman and Malay languages in their proper character, together with the Siamese or T'hái, of which no types have hitherto been cut, in the Roman. The plan reflects credit on those who formed it, and the execution of that part which fell to the lot of Dr. leyden, is a proof of his talents as a philologist, and of his indefatigable industry. It may at the same time be fairly doubted whether vocabularies of this elaborate nature, where the original text only is given, do not serve rather to display the acquirements of the editor, than to attain, in the best manner, the end proposed, of collecting information by means of persons whose pursuits may lead them into those countries. They seem to presume, on the part of the traveller, a perfect acquaintance with the written character, which is not to be expected, or even if he should possess it, a more simple vocabulary, in any familiar tongue, would equally answer his purpose; whilst on the other hand, if unskilled in the literature of the country he visits, as must generally be the case, the book will present to him no other than it a dead
a dead and useless letter. Practically speaking also, there is an obvious advantage in furnishing him with such a vocabulary as will facilitate his operations by enabling him to write down the words he acquires on the same page with the original terms : an attention of which I experienced the benefit, in printed vocabularies, with blank spaces, circulated, many years since, in all accessible parts of the world, for the same useful purpose. These I accompanied also with a short list containing about fifty of the most obvious words, to be filled up by those who, from want of time or energy, might be deterred from the labour of a more. extensive task. With regard to the Malayan part, the terms are in general judiciously chosen, and were, I have reason to believe, communicated to him by mr. raffles, with whom he resided at Pulo Pinang, during the few months of his visit to the eastward, for the recovery of his health; a period unremittingly employed by him in cultivating the languages spoken there, which, to a less acute scholar, would have sufficed only for acquiring the colloquial phrases of the current dialect. The orthography in the Malayan character (with which that gentleman had no concern) is, on the other hand, much to be censured; although an attempt is made to justify this departure from the best standard of writing, in the following passage : " In the Barna and Maláyu series, the most usual native orthography has been generally adopted. In several instances, however, in which it appeared to be very likely to lead to mistakes, a less common orthography has been used, which in general is more auricular than the other, but which, with few exceptions, may be found in some manuscripts." But who, it may be asked, even in the most familiar epistle, much less in what is to be committed

## INTRODUCTION.

committed to the press and to serve for the instruction of others, would think of defending incorrect spelling, by reference to theauthority of some illiterate or careless scribes? The professed. reason is to render the pronunciation more plain, by the insertion of letters not used in the genuine orthography. To what description of persons is this to prove convenient? To the European proficient and to the learned native it must appear trifling at the least. Those who are altogether unacquainted with the character are of course out of the question; and there remain only such as are beginning to study the written language, to whom it can be in any way applicable, and who are thus to be taught a mode of spelling, which it will afterwards require still greater pains to unlearn. It is clearly admitted that the Malayan orthography is by no means so fixed as not to warrant some latitude in this respect, but the least experienced juro-tulis. would not venture to write

 dew, word in the vocabulary, likewise, I think it incumbent on me to remark, that the name of God is improperly rendered by the word توه tīhan. It is well known that these people, who formerly worshipped the ديوات dīwäta deities or demi-gods, were indebted to the Arabs for their belief in One supreme Being, and that all allah or (more usually with the Malays) لill allah tà̀ula God the most High, and "ٌ $h \bar{u} a$ (from the Hebrew) are the genuine Mahometan terms for God or Jehovah. The word توهن tūhan, it is true, is often figuratively (by metonymy) employed for God, but is precisely equivalent in its use to our expression

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expression of "The Lord, Dominus," as in the phrase of توهن سكلين عالم tühan sakalī-an àlam" The Lord of all worlds," or in the compound مثهاتون mahā-tühan "The mighty Lord," and should not have been substituted, in a vocabulary, for the essential name of the Deity.

Of my own qualifications for this attempt to furnish a Malayan Grammar and Dictionary, less imperfect than what have been, in most instances, produced by those who have gone before me in the same career, I shall speak as briefly as possible. During the period of my residence in sumatra, at a very early time of life, I devoted somewhat more than the common attention necessary for all strangers, to the attainment of the language of the country, under the guidance of an elder brother (long since lost to me and to the world ${ }^{*}$ ), who had himself made an extraordinary proficiency, although not in the habit of committing his acquirements to writing. With this advantage $I$ acquired a competent facility in communicating with the natives, and was master of their epistolary correspondence; but it was not until my return to England in the latter end of 1779, that I applied myself to the study of their literature, or laid any regular grounds for the composition of the present works. These, amidst a variety of pursuits and serious occupations, by which their progress has been too long retarded, have gradually profited by my advancement of knowledge in the superior parts of the language, and from simple beginnings, have increased in bulk and improved in matter and form, to the state (very far indeed

[^2]from a perfect one) in which they are now offered to the notice of the public, and more especially of those persons whose duty calls them to the Eastern limits of the British empire, who are best qualified to appreciate the utility of my labours, and to supply their deficiencies. To such, individually, I shall say, in the apposite address of Horace,

Si quid novisti rectiùs istis, Candidus imperti; si non, his utere mecum.

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A

## GRAMMAR

OF THE

## MALAYAN LANGUAGE.

$\mathbf{P}$REVIOUSLY to treating of words, which are the proper subject of Grammar, it is necessary to describe the characters or letters, in respect to their form and sound, by which the words are expressed in writing. The Malays have for this purpose adopted the alphabet of the Arabians, whose literature has in all countries accompanied the introduction of the Mahometan religion; but many of its peculiar sounds, and especially the gutturals, being little suited to the soft pronunciation of the East-insular languages, they are never to be found in the orthography of indigenous Malayan words, and even to those Arabic terms which the Malays have borrowed from their instructors they give a moothness of utterance that nearly prevents their being recognised by an Arabian ear. On the other hand there existed in these languages several masal and other sounds, for which the alphabet, in its original state, had no corresponding letters, and to remedy this defect they were under the necessity of making additions to it; not indeed by the invention of new
forms, but by a slight and obvious modification of those characters whosesounds approached the nearest to their own, and belonged to the same organs of speech; a liberty in which they were justified by the example of the Persians, who had not, however, occasion to carry their alterations. to the same extent.

The course of the Malayan writing, conformably to the known prac-. tice of the Hebrews, Syrians, and Arabians, is from the right hand towards the left, in opposition to that of most of the people of India, and: particularly of the unconverted natives of the interior of Sumatra and, Java, whose alphabets, grounded on the principles of the Sanskrit or Dèva-nägri, proceed, like the European, from left to right:

The letters of the Arabian alphabet, twenty-eight in number, are the: following, and to these the Malays have added six, viz. شَ learner will perceive to be judiciously formed from the cognate. letters ب diacritical points. The several names and powers of all these letters; according to the Malayan manner of pronouncing them, will be exhibited in the following scheme, in the arrangement of which it has been judged more practically useful to place each of the modified characters immediately after its respective original, than to reserve them, as the Malay scribes are accustomed to do, for the conclusion of the series; and this order of the letters, (warranted as it is by the example of the Persians,
 almost indispensable to the construction and use of a Dictionary, where the middle as well as the initial letters must follow alphabetically; for
it is obvious that much embarrassment would be experienced by those who consult it，if letters so nearly connected in their use as $\tau{ }^{\text {and }}{ }_{T}$ ，
 of the points，are perpetually confounding，were，instead of adjoining， to belong to opposite extremities of the alphabet．

THE MALAYAN ALPHABET：

| Figure．Power． | Name．： | Forms according to place and junction． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | \|انا تا ها كا وا <br> ببب با تبو هـب ابب <br> تتـت تا تمر ني فـت رتس <br> ثـث <br> دند له，جـ هد وـ <br> نيذ هذ كذ اذ <br> رير كر ثر سر هر رم ار <br> زيز هز هز تز زا <br> سسس سي مس بسه لس شـُش تشُولبُ ابٌ شه |



To the foregoing, the Malays, in imitation of the Arabians, are aceustomed superfluously to add the compound character sy läm-alifhanzah.

Beside the varieties of form and combination above exhibited, there are many others in practice, which those who are acquainted with the regular alphabet will easily learn by the inspection of Malayan writings. Some of them are produced merely from the haste, and others from the capricious licence of the pen; such as the use of an unindented slanting stroke for the $س$, of a curved stroke or small semi-circle over and under the letters instead of two points, or the slight inversion of the extremity of the $ل$, in place of the final $\alpha$ or $\downarrow$, which latter is likewise, in several shapes, made to connect with the j لذ , the ; and the , but irregularly, the general rule being, that all the letters of the alphabet are in themselves susceptible of connexion with those which precede them in the same word, but that seven of them, viz. $\quad$, 1 , are incapable of forming a junction with any following letter. It remains now to explain and exemplify more fully the powers of the several letters of the alphabet.
$\boldsymbol{l}_{\bar{a}}$ when it occurs at the end of a syllable, or in the body of a word, is always long, and has then, as in بأث bāapa father, كات mäli dead, كات kāta to speak, the open sound of $\bar{a}$ in the Italian and most other languages of the continent of Europe, but not generally quite so broad, and corresponding perhaps more nearly with its sound in our words " brand, pant, harm, malice." Before ng however, it assumes one somewhat broader, and in باغث bānğun arise, تاغث täng̈gan the hand, ماغو māñ $\bar{u}$ dismay, is equivalent to that in our "want, warm, ball." At the commencement of words it is short, unless when marked with the
orthographical character $\tilde{I}$ meddah, denoting extension, by which the * length of the vowel-sound is doubled. In its short state (or that of hamzah, as it is termed) it assumes generally, but with much qualification, the sound of $\breve{a}$ (which occasionally becomes $\breve{e}$ ) in our words ".at, " act, and, after.;" in which case it is marked, or understood to be marked with the vowel fal-hah ( ${ }^{-}$) ; and in like manner, when marked with kesrah ( $)$ ), or dammah ( $)$, it assumes the sound of $\check{i}$ in "imp, " inch, ill," or of $\breve{u}$ and $\check{o}$ in "up, utter, only, obey," but not in "off, " on, order," which an Arabian would represent by fat-hah. But all these apparent intricacies of pronunciation owe their difficulty to the rules by which grammarians attempt to define them, and vanish with practice in the language. The whole system, indeed, of orthographic notation, the refinement of which is the subject of boast with the Arabians, seems to be defective in simplicity, consistency, and even ingenious contrivance. It may be proper to observe here, that although in describing short vowels with our characters, as distinguished from long ones, the prosodial mark is added to the $\breve{a} \cdot \stackrel{e}{i} .0$. and $\breve{u}$, it has not been thought necessary throughout the Grammar and Dictionary to apply a discriminating mark to any other than the long vowels, its absence being sufficient to denote such as are intended to be short.
 ordinary sound of that letter in the words " bib, rub, babble."
 sounded as in " tent, tart, tatter."

ثs. The proper sound of this letter in the Arabic alphabet is nearly that of the English $t h$ in the words' "this, then," or the Greek theta, but by the Malays as well as the Persians it is pronounced as $s$, in the

Arabic words ثنير salāsa Tuesday, and a few others which they have adopted: nor will this change be thought extraordinary by those who have noticed the pronunciation by foreigners of our word "Bath."
 and wherever it occurs, is to be sounded precisely and uniformly as in " jury, judge, joy, major ;" the English being perhaps the only European language that can represent it by a single equivalent character. It must be remarked, however, that we employ the $g$ before certain vowels, and also $d g$, to express the same sound, as in the words " gentry, giant, " badge." Care must be taken to avoid a common error of confounding the English $j$ with that of the Germans and Dutch, which answers to our $y$, whilst for the $e^{\text {the former have recourse to a most uncouth }}$ combination of the letters $d s c h$, 'and thus in a modern publication upon Arabian coins, we may observe the laborious orthography of Hadschadsch

$\tau^{c h}$, as in " chance, church, torch," being the tsch of the Germans, and the $c$ before $i$ and $e$ of the Italians, does not belong to the Arabic alphabet, but is a modification of their $\underset{T}{ }$, by the Persians as well as the Malays. The sound is one perfectly familiar to the organs of these people, as in خوري chūrī to steal, ${ }^{\text {® }}$ كācha glass, جاجت chāchat to puncture.
$\tau^{h}$ hard or $h h$, expresses an aspirate proceeding immediately from the lungs, and consequently stronger than can be denoted by any roman letter. It occurs only in such words as the Malays have borrowed from the Arabic, as حاجي hāj̄̀ a pilgrim to Mecca, حال hāl state, حرام harām forbidden, حق hak right ; but they do not affect to give it the forcible
utterance of the Arabians or Persians, and it is consequently here expressed simply by the letter $h$, as in our words " hope, heart, heavy."
$\dot{c}^{k h}$ is a hard guttural, like the $c h$ of the Germans, and of which likewise no direct example can be given in the pronunciation of English words, although common in our Celtic dialects. The character is found only in words borrowed from the Arabic, as خبر khabar news, خطبب khatïb preacher, خميس khamīs Thursday.
$\checkmark d$ has the common sound of that letter in our words, " did, dead, "added," and in all other European languages ; as داد dāda breast, دوري d $\bar{u} r \bar{\imath}$ thorn; $\quad$ مود $m \bar{u} d a ~ y o u n g . ~$

ذابت $z$ hard, or $d z$, as in " adze," is found only in Arqbic words, as zāt essence,, ذذ zakar memory.
$\boldsymbol{d}$ is always found in the alphabets written by the Malays for elementary instruction, but rarely, if ever, occurs in their books; and appearing superfluous to the Dutch grammarians who have published Malayan alphabets, it has been by them omitted.
$\boldsymbol{r}$ has the same sound as in "run, bar, parent," in all Malayan words, as rūpa appearance, لاري lärī to run, 多
jz soft, as in "zeal, blaze, crazy," is found only in Arabic and Persian
 Instead of modifying the $j$, as the Malays (though uselessly) have done, the Persians have added points to the $j$, and formed their; which has the soft sound of the French $j$.

سs, in the words هاله mälah wrong, oاست mak ripe, sounded as in " son, sister, past," not as in " was, has, lose," where the s partakes of $z$. The Arabic names of this and the following letter and شين shin, are by the Malays of the southern part of Sumatra pronounced sim and shìm.

## MALAYAN LANGUAGE.

ish, as in "shine, bush, fashion," is the ch of the French, sch of the Germans, and $x$ of the Portuguese, and is so pronounced in $\begin{aligned} & \text { ل } \\ & \text { shäh }\end{aligned}$ king, شهس shems sun, and some others borrowed from the Arabic, Persian, and Sanskrit ; but more frequently it is softened to a simple $s$, as
 siksa punishment.
ps or ss, occurs only in Arabic words, as er sabar patient, ee sak proved, our ss in " pass, tassel, kissing." ils Dua

0 dl also occurs only in words' borrowed from the Arabic, and the grammars of that language are not unform with respect to its true pronunciation, some expressing it $6 y^{-} d$, others by $d z$, whilst the Persians give it the sound of a pure $z$. By'the Malays, in most 'places, it is
 weak, however, the Malays give it a sound approaching nearer to the $d$ than to the $d l$ in our words $"$ faddle, meddle."
$b \boldsymbol{t}$, both in the Malayan and the Arabic pronunciation, differs little, if at all, from that of the $\because$, or our common $t$, as in the words tūfän a storm, طبيب tabīb a physician, balāk diyorce. It is not used in any words properly Malayan, although not confined to such as are purely Arabic; for it may be observed, that when the Arabians adopt Greek or other foreign terms, they represent the sound of $t$ by this letter in
 drum, طرابلوس tivābulüs Tripoli, tulk talc.

- Ib it occurs only in Arabic words, as manifest, which the Malays pronounce tlāhir, as in our words "battle, settle," the Arabians dāhir


## A GRAMMAR OF THE

(according to the grammarians) and the Persians zāhir. In some parts the Malayan sound approaches nearly to the $l$.

ع dün. This vague letter, which has been the subject of much disa cussion amongst Hebrew scholars, is pronounced by the Arabians with a peculiar hollow utterance from the interiour of the throat or fauces; but in this they are not imitated by the Malays, who pronounce the
 ìshk love, ا they were written with hamzah and the ordinary vowels. Indeed, it may be said that the guttural part only of the sound is represented by the $\varepsilon$, the vocal part being determined by the marks respectively applied to it: as will be more clearly understood when the nature of these supplementary vowels has been explained. It is here only necessary further to observe, that not having any appropriate European character for designating this mutable letter, it has been judged convenient to mark the several vowels which stand for it with a grave accent.
$\dot{غ} g h, g h r$, is a rough guttural pronounced as in the Irish word "lough" a lake, or with the Northumbrian articulation, and is peculiar to Arabic and Persian words, as غايب ghā̄b hidden, غالـ ghālib vic: torious, غريب gherïb foreign.
$\hat{\varepsilon} n g$, sounded when medial or final as in "kingly, longing, bringing," is a stronger nasal than the final $n$ of the French language, and prevails

 $\hat{\text { Eرv ngaran displeasure. At the beginning of a word the pronunciation }}$ can only be acquired by use, although in fact the same as the medial. Where it occurs in a situation that might give rise to doubt as to the division
division of the syllable, the two letters $\overrightarrow{n g}$ are marked with a connecting circùmflex, which is omitted (to avoid distinguishing signs not absolutely necessary) where no such uncertainty can happen. It will not escape the notice of the phiilologist, that this is one of the sounds attributed to the $y$ ain of the Hebrews, of which the $\hat{\varepsilon}$ or $\hat{\alpha}$, through the medium of the Arabic, is a modification.

- $\quad f$, as in " fife, fifty, skiff," belongs only to words adopted from the
 the Malays, who are not accustomed to pronounce the $f$ (any more than the Arabians the $p$ ) commonly change it to $p$, and pronounce these words pikir, pihak, pitnalh. The grounds of the convertibility of these two letters, not articulated by the same organs, is by no means obvious; but it may be remarked, that the inhabitants of a small island (Pulo Nias) near the coast of Sumatra, pronounce all Malayan words in which the sound of $p$ occurs as $f$, saying fäfan for pāpan a board, fükul for pūkul to strike, füluh for pūluh ten.
di i $p$ is pronounced as in " pen, papal, step," in the Malayan words ثرثت pūput to blow, ثيثي pipipi the cheek, tanigkap to catch. In epistolary and other common writing, it is by no means unusual to mark this letter with only one instead of three points, thereby confounding it with the preceding.
230 $J^{k}$, as an Arabic letter, has a harder sound than that of $c c$ or $c k$ in the words "accost, kick, dock, mocker," and may be better exemplified by the $k k$ in Habakkuk. When found at the beginning or in the middle, it shews the word to be (with few exceptions) of Arabic origin, as قبرل kabüt acceptable, $k$ kadar value, نقير fakir a religious mendicant; but the Malays employ it likewise for expressing a hard sound at the end of
their own words, as olo mäsak ripe, bälik to turn, كلق kalák presently; which however is generally omitted in discourse, seems to form no integral part of the word, and may be considered as an excrescence.
$\leq k$ is pronounced as in "king, make, token," in the words $\frac{s}{\varepsilon} k i j i$ base, كال كال كال $k$ kāāla heada time,
$\dot{\dagger} \mathrm{g}$ hard, as in " gag, get, gig, agog, gut," a letter unknown to the Arabic, but common in the Persian as well as the Malayan language, and a modification of the preceding $ك$, is uniformly so pronounced, as in ثقا religion. The soft $g$ in our words "gentle, region, age," is represented by the letter $\underset{\text { e }}{ }$.
$j l$ has the sound we give to the letter in " lily, lolling, camel," in
 pillow.
$r^{m}$ is pronounced as in "mama, man, am, maim," in the words

© $n$, as in "nun, nonage, nation," in the words nanti to wait, برغ $b$ ûnoh to kill,
g $\bar{u}, \bar{o}, w$, has in the Malayan words $س$ سرسو sïsi milk, كرلت külit skin, Soosok to rub, "tolong to help, the sound of the Italian $u$ and $o$ in "duo, punto," of the German in " gut, bruder, todt," of the Dutch oc in " hoek, toen, stoel," and of the English oo in "loom, tool," or of $o$ in "dont, moping, notice." When instead of the, the short vowel dammal is applied to the consonant, as in لبدي budi understanding, Suidup alive, it is intended to express a vowel sound no mote than half the length of the former. As a consonant the, is represented by $w$, and sounded as in "want, wool, dower," in the words ورن warne colour,
 This letter does not often occur at the beginning of Malayan words as a vowel sound, the $\bar{u}$, in that situation, being expressed by ار رو رو as in

s $h$ being a softer aspirate than in our words' "humble, host, heavy,"
 can, and for the most part as imperceptible as in " honour, hour,
 country, هيل ìlang lost, are accordingly written without the $h$. As an evidence of the propriety of this, so far as the ear is concerned, it may be observed that all travellers have agreed in spelling the word $\bar{u} t a n$ (in the familiar name of örang-ütan) without an aspirate, although written hūtan. When the final $\bar{z}$ is marked with two points, it is by the Arabs pronounced as $t$, and with them generally denotes a grammatical distinction; but the Malays frequently fall into the impropriety of substituting this at the end of their radical words, for the proper $t$.
 to dream, the sound of the Italian $i$, in "si, dolci," the German in " mir, " wir," and the English ee in "bee, seem, agree." 'For the short i, as in بنج minta to ask for, the vowel kesrah is either supplied or understood. As a consonant the s is best represented by $\dot{y}$, sounded as in "young, yes, bowyer," in the words بايغ bāyang a shade, يكوت yäkūt a precious stone. Few Malayan words, however, begin with this letter, the long vowel sound, in that
 idong the nose. At the end of word, when preceded by fat-hah, it takes the diphthongal sound in our words "eye, bay, my, high," which
it has been judged most analogous and consistent to express by ei, as in بالَي bälei a town-hall, بالَي baggei sort. Where the is preceded by b, and the sound is consequently more protracted, it is expressed by $\bar{a} \dot{i}$, as in لاين läin other, هاير. mäain to play.
© nia, a soft nasal, as in our words " maniac, lenient, union," which the Malayan has in common with the Sanskrit alphabet, but is unknown to the Arabic, occurs in the words sleeping, هابت ànyut adrift, بإير bānyir a squall, هاب hānia except, and most frequently in the common forms of the possessive, as matā-nia his eye, in the names of this and other consonants, the vowel $a$ is annexed to give them utterance, they are all equally susceptible of other vocal sounds, and where the nia takes $i$ or $e$, it is more convenient to employ $y$ in the nasal part, and to write banyir rather than baniir.
y $l a$, or the letters J and l , with the orthographical mark $s$ hamzah, have already been sufficiently noticed, no reason appearing for assigning to them conjointly a place in the alphabet.

From the foregoing examination of the letters it appears, that of the thirty-four which compose the alphabet, thirteen are peculiarly and almost exclusively Arabic, six may be considered as peculiarly Malayan, and fifteen are common to both languages; and, consequently, that the proper Malayan words are all expressed by twenty, or, if we reject the $S$ (which never occurs), by nineteen characters.

## Of Consonants and Vowels.

The common division of this and other alphabets into lingual, dental, labial, and guttural letters, seems to be more ingenious than useful, and

- that into radicals and serviles, though essential to Arabic and Hebrew etymology, has no relation to the structure or derivation of words in this language. It will, however, be necessary to explain with some minuteness what relates to the distinction of consonants and vowels, and the nature of those orthographical marks which affect their pronunciation.

The Arabians name the letters of the alphabet $\ddot{e}^{6 \prime}$ huruf, and consider them all as consonants, defining them to be susceptible of motion or utterance (mobiles) by means of the vowels, but not of themselves possessing that power, nor capable of forming syllables. These letters or consonants (for there is no separate term) they distinguish into strong and weak, comprehending in the former class all excepting $\mid \bar{a},, \bar{u}$, and ي $\overline{\text {, }}$, which three form the latter class or weak letters, and are no other than those which we consider exclusively as vowels; the two latter assuming occasionally, with them as with us, the functions of consonants. From this arrangement proceeds (as will hereafter appear) much of the perplexity of Arabian orthography.

By vowels they understand certain supplementary characters placed above and beneath the letters, serving to note the particular vocal sound with which they are to be uttered. These are often by us termed vowelpoints, but injudiciously, as it is of importance to distinguish them from those actual points which permanently accompany and constitute an integral part of many of the characters, being equally necessary to their complete formation with the point over our letter $i$, or the stroke across our $t$. It must at the same time be observed, that neither the supplementary vowels, nor the diacritical points, nor certain other orthographical marks (to be described in the sequel) were known to the ancient Arabic or Cufic style of writing, but have been subsequently introduced
to supply the manifest defects of the original rude system : yet it may be fairly doubted, whether the invention is not a very imperfect expedient, inferior to the Sanskrit and Ethiopic systems, where the effect of the vowel is expressed by a modification of the consonant, and certainly to the Greek and Roman, where the vowels assume their independant place in the series of letters.

These vowels, by the Arabians named حركات harakāt in the plural, from شركت harakat signifying motion, as giving motion or utterance to the consonants, are by the Malays named بارس bāris, which implies lines or strokes parallel to each other, or military array, and also سinجات sinjäta or weapons, from their resemblance, as may be presumed, to lances borne in rank and file. They are by no means in common use with them, but chiefly employed in quotations from the korän and the writings of its commentators, and also in expressing names of places, persons, or things not familiar, as well as to mark the distinction between ordinary words composed of the same letters but differently pronounced, which might otherwise be confounded with each other. They are three in
 $\alpha \dot{\alpha} \dot{\text { i }}$ dammah, which the Malays pronounce dlammah.

بارس د'اتس bāris de-ātas or the stroke above, has the sound of $a$ generally and sometimes of $e$ short, in our words "bad, " banish, bet, bevy," and being placed over any of the strong letters, or consonants as we should term them, enables them to take that vocal sound, which in themselves they are not understood to possess, as in the words
 The effect of its application to any of three weak letters (our vowels) will be noticed when we come to speak of them more particularly,

- كسرע kesrah (.) named also بارس دباو8 bāris de-bāwalk or the stroke beneath, has a sound not differing much from that of our short $i$ in "bit, "bidden, trip," (especially as pronounced in North Britain) but more nearly resembling the short $i$ of the Italians, as in the Malayan words


ض dammiah or dlammah (') named also بارس دهداث̂ bäris de-adāp-an the stroke before or in front, has nearly the sound of $u$ as pronounced in "pudding, cushion, puss," (the $u$ in " bud, turn, upper," being a different articulation), of 00 in "wood, stood, foot," (which is shorter than in "brood, cool, fool,") and of $o$ in "bolster, police, foment," differing from that in "blot, hot, forgot," which would be more aptly represented by alif and fat-hah. The figure of dammah is that of a small , and its position above the consonant, bat somewhat to the left, or forward, as its Malayan name imports. Examples of its application
 to choke up, ${ }^{\text {ung }}$ bontar or buntar (the distinction of sound between 0

 their respective consonants.

Being applied to the several letters of the alphabet, they form syllables that are considered as either pure or mixed. A pure syllable consists of a consonant accompanied or followed (but never preceded in the same syllable) by a vowel, or by what is termed a quiescent letter, or by both,
 consonants, of which the latter is mute, with an intermediate vowel, or with a vowel and a quiescent letter also intermediate, as "بَ ban, bá é peng,


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close with a liquid and a mute, as sart or shart a condition, but this occurs only in Arabic words.

From the foregoing it will appear that the manner of applying the vowels to what are termed the strong letters (our consonants) is sufficiently simple, but it is otherwise with regard to the three weak letters $\mid \bar{a}, g \bar{x}_{\text {; }}$ and $\bar{i} \bar{z}$, owing to their ambiguous properties, being sometimes moveable and sometimes quiescent. By moveable is understood that, like other consonants, they are capable of being put in motion by the application of vowels, and thereby forming syllables, as, wa, wa. By quiescent is meant the state in which they cease to be consonants in fact, are in: capable of the application of the supplementary vowels (though they may be affected by those belonging to the preceding consonant), and perform the function of long vowels, in our acceptation of the terms, as
 in spite of definitions, that they differ in nothing essential but length of pronunciation, from the three vowels denominated (for the sake of dis. tinction only) supplementary ; fat-hah being the representative of $\mid \bar{a}$, kesrah of $\bar{i}_{2}$. and dammah of $\bar{u}$, which, with some change of shape and size, are placed above and below the other characters, instead of assorting with them, as in the orthographical system of mast other classes of language.

When the supplementary or short vowels applied to the weak letters in their moyeable state, or to the strong letters immediately preceding them in their quiescent state, are respectively, fat-hah to í, kesrah to and dammah to', they are said to be homogeneous; and, on the contrary, when they are dissimilarly or interchangeably employed, they are said to be heterogeneous. Fat-hah being applied to 1 moveable (in
that case denominated hamzah), produces no sensible change in the sound of that letter, which, however it may be classed by grammarians, can never perform the office of a consonant in our acceptation of the term, and it continues to be pronounced like $a$, as in ajal fate. When, on the other hand, kesrah or dammah is applied to 1, the proper sound of the letter is extinguished, and it takes that of the
 utama excellent, íti upāma like. When any of the three are applied to, or , which must in that case be moveable (or consonants), regular syllables are formed in the manner of other letters, as in , waktu time, لوo, rvisāl meeting, attainment, yogia it behoveth. In some instances of the application of fat-hah, particularly to the final, the proper sound of the letter gives place to that of the superscribed vowel, as in ड́lé tàāla most high.

When one of the three weak letters in its quiescent state is preceded, in the same syllable, by a homogeneous supplementary vowel (belonging to the adjoining consonant) they coalesce, and the effect produced is that
 when the quiescent letter is preceded by a heterogeneous vowel, the mixture of their sounds produces a diphthong, as وه hau, pei. In Malayan words however the long vowel sounds occurring much more frequently than they do in Arabic, the diphthongs are more usually formed by the association of two of the quiescent letters, than by one of

 observed that at the beginning of words, the long vowels $g$ and l , instead of forming diphthongs, produce the simple long sounds of. $\bar{o}, \overline{\mathcal{H}}$,
 suck; and also that ي preceded by fat-hah, instead of the diphthong ei; sometimes takes the sound of the long $\bar{e}$ of the Italian and other languages of the continent, as in سَيره mērah red, بَير bēr suffer, تَير tēr the castle at chess, بَلَيرُ balērang sulphur.
Where the vowel character appears doubled over or under the last letter of a word, the Arabian grammarians mean to denote that it is to be pronounced as if the syllable were terminated by the letter ${ }_{\text {c }} n \bar{u} n$, from whence this form has obtained the name of تَنْيَن or nunnation, as تُ tan, $\underset{\sim}{w}$ sin, $\underset{\sim}{\text { e }}$ jon; but no instances of this occur in any pure Malayan word.

## Of Orthographical Marks.

The orthographical marks which now remain to be explajned are those
揢 añ̃ga.
(جَ jé jazam (as pronounced by the Malays) signifies ampue. tation, and is also termed بارس ماث bäris mäti or the dead mark. Its form is ( ${ }^{\circ}$ or ${ }^{\circ}$ ), and being placed over any letter of a word, it denotes that such letter is mute, dead, or deprived of the vowel sound that might otherwise be supposed to give it motion or utterance, and only serves to close the syllable produced by the antecedent letter and its supplementary vowel, forming what has been already described as a
 بِنْتِ binting a rampart. It may be applied to all letters capable otherwise of receiving a vowel (of which this is the negation) but is never by the Malays applied to the three weak letters, nor is the occasion for it in
their language so frequent as in Arabic, the genius of the former being unfriendly to the recurrence of consonants without the intervention of a vowel sound.

تَتْدِيْ teshdīd (named also شَيْ shaddu) signifies corroboration, and being placed over a letter in the form of $(-)$, has the effect of doubling it; in which case the former of the two sounds coalesces with the preceding syllable, and the latter, with its proper vowel, forms the subsequent one,
 to separate. It may be applied to any of the strong letters excepting $\ddagger$ $c h, \dot{\varepsilon} n \tilde{g}$, and $n i a$, which letters, not being themselves of a simple nature, could not be doubled without a harshness of sound; and also to the twe weak letters, and , although not to 1. When placed over the, or , the former half of the letter thereby doubled remains quiescent, and the latter half becomes moveable, as in ${ }^{2}$ بُ burwang or būang to throw out, tiyang or tīang a pillar, muzwat or mūat to load, تُتْ tuxvei to reap : but double fetters being in general so little necessary for expressing the liquid or fluid sound of the words, it would be uselessly employing the learner's attention to enter further into the rules by which the teshdid might be applied; for we should bear in mind that these refined orthographical distinctions were invented for a class of languages with which the Malayan has no radical connexion, nor scarcely any property in common: yet are they elaborately taught by the natives to every youth who commences the study of his own with some tincture of the Arabic language; and a copious syllabarium, where all the sinjāta are exhibited, is prepared for his exercise. Examples of this may be seen in the Alphabetum Arabicum, printed at Rome in 1592 (with beautiful types), and in Gladwin's Persian Moonshee, printed at Calcutta in 1795.

Hamzah ('), the most used by the Malays of all the orthographical marks, is either an appendage of the moveable $l$, usually accompanying its supplementary vowel, and consequently placed either above or below that letter, or else it is the representative of or substitute for it, and in its absenc eis placed in front of the preceding letter. So intimate indeed is the connexion, in the opinion of grammarians, between the moveable 1 and this mark, that the former, being present, is made to assume the name of hamzah, loses its proper efficiency, and, like a mere aspirate, adapts its sound to that of the vowel with which the mark is accompanied,
 place although the hamzah were omitted, and its use, when so applied, seems to be no other' than that of denoting the quality of this letter. In this language, however, where the vowels are sparingly employed, the chief use of the hamzah is to express (like our comma or apostrophe) the elision of the $\mid$ moveable at the commencement of a syllable following one of the three weak letters, $l$, , or ي quiescent; and also, but not uniformly, following a consonant rendered mute by jesm; which two circumstances occur most commonly in derivative words formed by an-

 Ka-nantiz-an expectation, ibur comforter, of 1 before, or c at the commencement of a word to which the particle

 مريك إيت marik'itu' for مريكُيت maka üjar and he said, and مكَكُ اوجر marika $\bar{\imath} l u$ those people; and, generally, wherever such elisions occur.

Sometimes

Sometimes the hamzah instead of being a substitute for 1 , represents the $z$ or $\Delta$, which soft aspirate has nearly a similar sound, as ${ }^{2}$, mengambur to scatter, from هبر ambur or hanbur ; مبزُ meng-ünnus to unsheath, from هرنس $\bar{u} n u s$ or hünus; and thus also when the primitive begins with $\overline{\text { Br }} h \bar{a}$, the 1 being then quiescent or vowel, preserves its place in the derivative, and the هـ only is represented by hamzah, as in meng-äbis to consume, from هابس ābis or häbis; ; meng-ālau to drive out, from هالو àlau or hälau. It will not escape remark that hamzah, according to the foregoing account of it, partakes much of the nature of the Greek (') or spiritus lenis, and that in respect to form it is the Arabic $\&$ à̀n diminished in size.
 nifies " union," and is applied only to the initial $i$, which then becomes entirely mute, and a junction takes place between the sound of the last vowel of the preceding word and the next folloring consonant, whereby the two words are made to coalesce. Its use is confined to Arabic phrases, and chiefly, if not entirely (excepting in quotations), to the iof the definitive particle $ل$ l $a l$, which under certain circumstances is modified in
 bismi 'llahi in the name of God. For the rules by which the application of this mark is governed, and particularly for those affecting the letter $ل$ also, of the particle, according to which it is extinguished and its place supplied by doubling what is termed the solar letter which
 'lrahmani' 'lrahimi the merciful and compassionate, the Arabic grammar must be consulted. To the Malayan they may be considered as extraneous.

־َ medd or applicable to $\widehat{T}$, whose sound is thereby lengthened. Its use may be thus considered; that the pronunciation of the syllable requiring two alifs, one of them moveable or consonant, and the other quiescent, but the rules of orthography not admitting of such a repetition of the letter, this mark is placed over the one $\tilde{\imath}$, to denote at the same time the elision
 last. But in Malayan words the long sound of $\mid$ forming a syllable at
 ceptible aspirate to support the supplementary vowel, as in هَآه $/$ häbis or


In some writings, however, we may find a second and smaller I placed beside the greater, which the grammarians affect to consider as another form of medd, and name it and ${ }^{0} 0$ medd 'alif. This smaller I is also employed by itself, and placed above the other characters, whose junction frequently excludes it from occupying that place which the greater I would hold in the line, as in $\mathcal{H}$, for , chay rahmän merciful; but this seems to be nothing more than a fancy of the penman, and to have no influence on the pronunciation. When placed over final, it implies that the letter, in Arabic words, is to be sounded like 1, as in لِّلَ tàala most high ; but the Malays, on the contrary, sometimes introduce this lesser | instead of applying fat-hah to the preceding consonant, in order to produce the diphthongal sound of $a i$ or $e i$, as in $\begin{aligned} & \text { ثك } \\ & \text { päkei to }\end{aligned}$ vear, viations of a sacred or mysterious nature, where one, two, or more words are represented by their initial, medial, and final letters, as aleihi' sselām peace be upon him.

Still ungual ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) or the Arabian cipher 2, when used as an orthographical mark, denotes that the word to which it is applied, athlought written but once, must be doubled or repeated in the pronunciation. This expedient proceeds from the frequency of these reduplication in forming certain indefinite plurals, superlatives, and adverbs, and in expressing the continuance or repetition of action in verbs, as rates ruimaikrūmah houses, revs kāta-kāta words,r roj̀j pūtilh-piùih very white, " māna-māna wherever, r جالز jälan-jälan to walk about, re màin-mä̀n to play or be at play. It must be observed at the same time with regard to the verb, that where reciprocity of action is to be denoted by repetition, a difference of form or inflexion takes place (as will be hereafter more particularly explained), and instead of applying the cipher, the words are written at length, as ترلق tôlong-menōlong to assist mutually. When the cipher is applied to a derivative word, the primitive part only, and not the particle prefixed, is repeated, as $\Gamma$. برما ber-mükan-
 ever, $ا$ קثرتورت per-tūrut-türut a train of followers; retinue. Where the particle is annexed, the cipher may be equally applied and the repetiton take place, as ores ka-suka-suka-an hilarity, فربؤهr per-bünoh-bünoh-an repeated murders; but not with strict accuracy, because a prosocial variation takes place, and the words should be, and more
 bunōh-an, without the aid of the cipher. When the particles 50 eng and $\hat{\imath}$ peng are prefixed to words marked with the cipher, in which the particles are followed by a vowel-sound, it is common to retain the nasal ny in the repetition, and for rift an inquisitive person, to write H and

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and pronounce مثاق meñgira-ñ̈ira, and for مثالر to continue flowing, to write مثالر غثالر meng. àlir-ngālir.

Thus much it has been thought necessary to say on the subject of the elements of which words are composed, and of the characters and signs by which they are expressed in writing. The words themselves, their distinctions, qualities, and uses in serving to convey, either by themselves or by their combination, intelligible and correct meanings (the proper object of Grammar) must now be considered.

## Didision of Words.

The most obvious and general division of the language is into primitive and derivative words. By primitive or simple words are to be understood all words, of whatever part of speech, in their original and unmodified state, whether indigenous or adopted from other languages, as اورع ōrang man, تانه tānah earth, بدي budī understanding, بسر besár great,
 unto, gr weh alas ! By much the greater proportion of primitive Malayan words are; dissyllables, pronounced with a slight stress or accent on the former of the two, as dang a plain, ثينع pīiang betel-nut; whilst monosyllables, as برت brat
 (not composed), as بناتـ benātang a beast, بتيس betīna female, سراي serāya at once, كلغڭار kalañggāra inquisitive, are very rare.

Derivative words are formed from the primitives, by prefixing or annexing certain inseparable and otherwise non-significant particles,' which will be enumerated and explained in their proper place, it being sufficient
sufficient to notice here, that prosodial and other changes in the orthography of the primitives frequently attend their application, as كُدـدان $k a-a d a \bar{a}-a n$ existence, from ال 1 ada to be, كلقارن ka-lapār-an famine, from لأر läpar hungry, ترونك, turūn-kan to lower, from تورن türun to descend,
 memūkul to beat, from ثوكل pūkul strike.

What are properly named compound words, formed by the junction of two or more significant terms, are not frequent in this language, and the few that occur consist either of such as convey nearly a repetition of the same idea (often borrowed from different languages), as سكجّ sukachita joy, عقل بدي àkal-budī̀ understanding, له lelah-leteh languid; or else of words which have become connected in their signification by familiar use, and made to coalesce in sound by the elision of a vowel, as سريكئت marik 'ītu those persons, they; to which may be added يائيت iya-ìtu that is to say, برغسياث barang-siāpa whosoever, سڤو تاغث. sapü-tänğan a handkerchief. There are also a few words of three as well as of two syllables, which occasionally drop thefirst, especially in conversation, as ريمو rimau for هريو arimau a tiger,


 anam six.

## Parts of Sperch.

The usual division of speech, in the oriental languages, is into three parts only, viz. the noun, the verb, and the particle; the first including the adjective, and the last all other words; but this seems much too

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general for the purposes of useful distinction, and although the division into eight parts, which was found applicable to the Greek and Latin, and from them has been adopted into the modern languages of Europe, is not perfectly suited either to these or to the Malayan, I am induced from a consideration of the advantage that attends the employment of known and current terms, to conform in great measure to the principles. of this division, instead of attempting a classification entirely new.

Some difficulty arises from a numerous description of words presenting themselves, which in their primitive or crude state are not confined to, one particular part of speech, but are common to two or more, as جالى jälan to walk and jälan a road, dw sälah wrong and sälah a fault, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ J $t \bar{z} d o r$ to sleep and $t \bar{i} d o r$ asleep. This, however, is no more than occurs in English, where the words " love, dark, dry, wish," and innumerable others, are at the same time noun and verb, substantive and adjective, adjective and verb, and may be employed in the one or the other capacity as the construction requires; and as in their derivative form the parts of speech to which Malayan words of this description belong, are determined in general by the particles (prevalent in proportion as the style is correct and grammatical), it will not be necessary to consider them as a distinct class, but as belonging to the several parts of speech to which they may be eventually referable, either from their place in the sentence or the changes they undergo.

The following are the parts of speech into which, without departing too much from accustomed distinctions, the language may be divided.

Nouns or the names of things, the objects of sense and thought. ApJectiyes or the qualitives of nouns. Numerals or terms of number.

Pronouns

Pronouns personal and demonstrative, including the Article.
Verbs or affirmatives of being, acting, or suffering.
Adverbs or modals.
Prepositions or directives.
Conjunctions or connectives.
Interjections or exclamations.
Inseparable Particles or formatives.

## Of Nouns.

Nouns in this language cannot properly be said to possess the distinctions either of gender, number, or case. The absurdity of attributing difference of sex to things, or to the names of things not organised by nature to reproduce their kind, did not suggest itself to the framers or methodisers of the Malayan tongue. The real difference existing in animate beings, as well as that presumed to exist in vegetables, is denoted by appropriate words expressive of the sex, as laki-läki man, male, קرعtرن the female of animals in general, as اورغ ōrang laki-lāki a man (distinguished from a woman), اورق örrang perampüan a woman (distinguished from a man), كرو جنتن kūda jantan a stallion, كون بتين kūda betīna a mare, ايم جنتّ āyam jantan a cock, ايم بيّ àyam bclīna a hen, maintained that kūda betinna a mare is effectively the feminine of the noun küda jantan a horse, that daughter is the feminine of son, and queen of king, we may answer, without denying the propositions, that such a distinction of terms does not belong to grammar, but like other names of things, they are best sought for in a dictionary.

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Number is not denoted by any variety of termination or change in the form of the noun, but by separate words expressive of plurality or singularity, such as بابت bäniak many, $\hat{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{\varphi}$ bārang some, or by specific numerals. An indefinite plural, however, of a peculiar kind is sometimes employed, which consists in a duplication of the noun, and has already been noticed in speaking of the cipher used to signify it, as
 The opinion may indeed be hazarded, that in this language the noun in its simple state, without any accompanying term to limit or extend its signification, is more properly to be considered as plural than singular ; or, that in order to the determining its number, the application of a term expressing singularity is more commonly necessary than one of indefinite plurality. Thus, for example, in the phrase الور ada ol ol olang delüar there are persons without, the word örang requires no plural sign; but, on the contrary, in the phrase اله ada s'örang de-lūar there is a person without, the article or numeral of unity is indispensable; and
 ير mem-bili āyam to purchase fowls, the words gūnong and äyam are at once understood to be in the plural number. And from hence, perhaps, has arisen the practice of denoting the individuality of all sensible objects by specific terms accompanying the numeral; which are in many instances descriptive of some obvious quality of the thing, although in others quite arbitrary; but the nature of these idioms will be best understood from a single example in our own language, where, in speaking of cattle, we say two, three or more "head;" whilst the Malays (and somewhat more appropriately) enumerate cattle, birds, and animals in general, by the "tail," as كون ليم ايكر küda lima īkur five horses (or
tail of horses), كربز سبيلن ايكر kärbäu sambìlan ikur nine buffaloes, ايم
 the human species the generic term 'اورغ 'ārang sōrang one person, لكلك لو اورغ laki-lāki dūa örang two men,

 lima büah five plantains, زومه سنبو rūmah sa-būah one house, نكري سبور megrī̀ sa-būah one or a city, مات سبيج māta sa-bīji one eye, تلر سبيج telur
 one leaf, رمبت سُّل rambut sa-lei one hair, ثرهن لوباتئ pùhn dūa bātang two trees, كايو سباتي. kāyū sa-bätanig a piece of timber, bātū one tooth,



 sürat sa-pūchuki a note, فركت سراون pūkat sa_rāvoan one fishing.net, كات . kāta sa-pātah one word ; with several more of these idiomatic appendages.to the numerals, whose proper application can only be learned by much practice in the language.

In nquns borrowed from the Arabic the plural is generally formed as in.Malayan words, without attention to the mode followed in the language to which they belong; but on the other hand, the Ȧrabic word © malāikat angels, is indifferently used in singular or plural, or more compmonly in the former.

Cages being understood to signify those changes in the termination of nouns by. which they decline. from the nominative or easus rectus, and

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become oblique, do not apply to the Malayan, in which no such declension takes place. In this language, as in English, the modifications of the sense are effected by means of prepositions or (as they do not necessarily precede) directives, the noun itself continuing unchanged, as дog ka-pada rūmah to a house, درثد رون deri-pada rūmah from a house, \&e $\Delta$
 a house ; so also $\mathrm{v}^{5}$ akan, t bagi, or هثt ka-pada allah unto God, درثّ هونل deri-pada müdal amba from my capital, اوله كرi karuniya baginda by his majesty's favour, دثرن تولث نبي dangan tölong nabī with the aid of the prophet, ثن سين هاري pada siang àrì at daybreak or by day-light; none of which phrases can, without an abuse of speech, be denominated the cases of those nouns.

In the situation of a subjective or accusative case, or where the noun is the subject of the action, no directive is required, as tin päsang $\bar{a} p i$ light the fire, kan küda to gallop a horse. Yet gr akan is sometimes superfluously
 The possessive sense, or what is termed the genitive case of a noun, is expressed by its position, the word denoting the subject of possession always preceding that which denotes the possessor, as بنd benda rajja the king's treasure, جهاي متهاري chāya mata-äri brightness of the sun,
 mountains, كروس اوا kurüs-an awā̄ leanness of the body; or otherwise by the use of a pronoun in the possessive form, as amba
 דین ثور هرت ōrang chīna punia arta goods of or belonging to a Chinese.

It may be remarked, that this latter mode is chiefly (though not exclusively) employed where real possession or property in the subject is understood, whereas the mode by position is more commonly used to imply attribution only, as in the former examples.

The only changes to which the form of nouns is subject are those which they undergo as derivatives, and upon the correct employment of these modifications depend the propriety and delicacy of language, or those qualities which, as much as the choice of terms, distinguish a polite from a vulgar style. Derivative nouns are constructed by means of particles prefixed or annexed, from primitive nouns (although rarely), from adjectives, and from verbs chiefly, and, in a few instances, from other parts of speech; as in Latin " altitudo" is formed from "altus," and "permutatio" from " muto."

From adjectives they are formed by prefixing the particle $ك k a$ - and annexing the particle $0^{\circ}$-an, or by the latter alone. Thus from rendah low, comes كزداهن ka-rendāh-an or رنداهن rendāh-an lowness, humility; from بسر besár great, ka-besär-an greatness; from مبـارن mäti dead, كمتئُ ka-matī-an death; from sälah wrong, كسلاهن sa-salāh-an criminality; and from مانس mänis sweet, manis-an sweetmeats, and Ska-manis-an sweetness. So also from verbs, as


 గك؟ mākan to eat, makān-an victuals. But exclusively of these derivations taking كKa- and $\dot{U}^{\circ}-a n$, which are in general what grammarians term abstract nouns, a numerous class is in like manner formed
from verbs by prefixing the particles $\hat{\text { ther }}$ per, with its varieties pel and
 changes of termination adapted to the sound of the letter with which the succeeding syllable commences. Thus from الو adīu to sleep, repose, are formed ثرتيدورن per-tidōr-an and קرُدؤث per-adū-an a sleeping place, recess for a bed; from مندي mandī to bathe, رومنديـن per-mandī-an a bath; "from بوت būat to do, ثربواتن per-buāt-an work, performance; from اجر ajar to learn, ثلجارن pel-ajār-an a school; from. süruh to order, send, $\begin{gathered}\text { فورy } \\ \text { فسور } \\ \text { pe-süruh an envoy, messenger; and from }\end{gathered}$
 pem-bili-an the article purchased.

So also from جوري chürī to steal, is formed ثهَهوري pen-chūrī a thief; from بونه būnoh to kill, ثمبونه pem-būnoh a murderer; from باير bāyer to pay, ثمباير pem-bāyer payment; from حوجت chūchuk to pierce, ثهجوجت pen-chūchuk a fork, skewer ; from دلثّت dāpat to obtain, قنداثقت pendāpat apprehension, and ثندثاتر pen-dapāt-an acquisition; from ايكست ikut to follow, ث̂شَيكـت peng-ükir a carver or engraver; from lil asoh to nurse, peng-äsah a nurse; from ثالي
 a-taü-an knowledge.

It may be remarked, that the derivative nouns formed with of per, ثر pel, ô pe, express for the most part the place of the action implied by the primitive verb, or the action itself; and that those formed with of pen; ڤ̂pem, © peng, express the agent by whọm the action is performed, the instrument, or the faculty; the former partaking of a neuter

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nouns, or from words in any other parts of speech, as from amba a servant, ثرُثبا" per-ambā-an servitude; from tāpa seclusion, penance, ثرتاڤ per-tāpa a hermit, recluse; from انتار antāra between, ثلترأ pel-antarän a hall, passage. It may, however, be more correct to consider these as deriving immediately from the verbs برهمب ber-amba to serve, ثرتاش per-tāpa to perform penance, and برانتار ber-antāra to lie
 ampat a fourth part, سثرثيثن ' three fifths; but beside these we meet with some derivatives from numerals, expressing titles of command and office, as ثرُراتس peng-rātus a centurion, from راتس peng-lïtus an hundred, and pañiglima a governor, prefect, from ليم lima five: but the origin of the appellation is. uncertain.

Lastly, derivatives may be formed progressively from other derivatives, in a mode that will appear intricate to those who begin to study the language, or who are accustomed only to the ordinary colloquial dialect, but which is not devoid of method and consistency, as may be seen in the word $\operatorname{s}$ sāma alike, same, which becomes by duplication the adverb' Proun säma-säma together, from whence is formed the verb rerere sama-sāma to act in concert, and by annexing a particle, the derivative noun ${ }^{\text {. }}$. ber-sāma-samā-an confederacy, concert. Thus also in the sentence, تياد كام بركلماهث تياد كام بركراثر tiạdra kāmi ber-ka-limpāh-an tiäda kämi ber-ka-koräng-an we are not in a state of abounding, mor are we in a state of poverty, where the two derivatives progressively formed from the verbs كور kṑrang, become verbal nouns in one stage, and finally verbs again. So likewise ${ }^{\text {E }}$
 waist ;

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waist ; and, dūa two, which by the application of $ك k a$ becomes $k a-d \bar{u} a$ both, and then by prefixing $س$ se becomes gكس se-ka-dūäa both together, may, by annexing the transitive particle $s$ kan, become the verb ${ }_{3}$ Slocrem sc-ka-dūā-kan to do a thing by mutual agreement. It may here likewise be noticed that derivatives, although in their full state of formation they generally remain fixed to their proper class, yet sometimes we find them, by a licence not very justifiable, transferred from one
 $\bar{z}$ ang amat säyang dan mengasiàn- $\bar{\imath}$ who is very merciful and compassionate, where the last word is properly a verb formed from the noun Skasih-an pity, but here employed as an adjective. Thus also the transitive verb menalantang to lay upon thie back, is used in the sense of resupinus, "lying on the back;" and جetr meeiuiju, properly " to point to," becomes the adverb "towards."

## Adjectives.

Adjectives or words denoting the qualities of nouns, and which may therefore be termed qualitives, are not (any more than the nouns)i subject to variation of case, genider, or number. That which they undergo in the formation of derivative or abstract nouns expressive of quality, has been already explained. They are connected with the noun by position only, and in simple construction always follow it') as 'Sرن هر kūda pūtih a white horse, هاري واري àrī rāya a féstival day, كثل تثقي kapal ting̈gì a lofty ship; but when a quality is predicated of a noun, or in other words, when in the corresponding English phrase the verb substantive interyenes, the qualitive is in the Malayan made to precede


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bā̄k,ōrang ìtu that man is good, ثوثه كرد راج horse is white, كno son They may be formed from nouns by prefixing the particle $ب$ ber, as بربور ber-būlū feathered, from بروز būlū feathers, بربدي ber-budī wise, from بدي budī wisdom.

## Comparison of Adjectives.

The comparison of adjectives or expression of the relative degrees of quality, is effected by words and particles prefixed, and not by any change of termination.

The comparative degree is formed by means of the words af lebih more, and $د$ deri or deri-pada than, or by either of them separately, as lebih pànas deri daülu hotter than formerly; لبه ثانس در درول
 انيله ; tinğgī aluwan deriokōrong the stem is higher than the stern ini-lah sūchi deri-pada lain this is cleaner than the other.

The superlative degree, by prefixing the intensitive particle $;$ ter, as ترسر ter-besár very great, تركرانی ter-kwāsa very or most powerful, ترلاج ter-läjū very swift ; or by an adverb to which that particle is applied, as
 guppok excessively fat; and these expressions are sometimes enforced by adding the words exceedingly, as ترلال بايق نين ter-lālu bā̃̄k nūan extremely good indeed, ترلبه بسر سكال ter-lebih besár sakāli, or ترلال المت بـر ter-lälu amat besár most exceedingly great; or the latter may be used without the former adverb, as article is prefixed, an absolute expression of the superlative is formed,
 the worst. The inseparable term 4 m mhā is also applied with the
 mahä-ting̈g $\bar{z}$. the most high; and a kind of indefinite superlative is pro-
 rāmıī very populous, mięrah very red.

In strictness, however, the most part of the foregoing examples ought rather to be considered as phrases or members of sentences, than as a comparison of adjectives in the sense of the Greek and Latin grammarians, whose object was to distinguish and to account for certain changes in the form of the words themselves, denoting the degree of their quality, and not to shew how a comparison of ideas might be expressed by a circumlocution.

## Nombrals.

Numerals have usually been classed under the adjective, with which they have many circumstances in common, bat their nature is sufficiently peculiar to entitle them to be considered as a separate part of speech.' They are distinguished into cardinals, ordinals, and fractionals.

The cardinal numbers are as follows: : سوالت suātu, سات sätu, asa;
 five; انم anam six ; توجه tūjuh seven; دلمّ delāpan, لولمّ düläpan, and
 blas eleven; لوبلس dūa-blas twelve; تيثt بلس tīga-blas thirteen; دوثره



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 laksa ten thousand; سُورله sa-püluh laksa one hundred thousand; sa-rātus laksa a million. In borrowing the word laksa from the Sanskrit the Malays have, very arbitrarily, changed its signification from an hundred thousand to ten thousand; 'which often gives rise to misunderstandings in their transactions with merchants from the continent of India. In some Malayan countries, but not universally, the term $\overline{\text { In }}$ لير $k u r$ is applied to the numeration between twenty and thirty, in the same manner as $\mathbf{~}$. Blas to that between ten and twenty, and thus instead of لدو ثوله سوات dūà pùluh sūātu twenty-one, they say w سليك sa-likhur, for twenty-two C düa-likhur, for twenty-three CIIga-tīhur ; and agreeably to this we find the date of an epistle given in fac simile by Valentyn (Vol. I. p. 121.) thus expressed, deri-pada sa-likur ārī būlan sawväl tāun sa-rību dan sa-rātus dīa a-pūluh sātu on the twentyfirst day of the month sawäl in the year (of the hejrah) 1121 [A. D. 1709.]

The numbers mid-way between each ten are expressed, especially in conversation, in a peculiar manner, as, for twenty-five, they familiarly say
据 tang̈ah lima püluh half of fifty; and upon the same principle, for one hundred and fifty, تغر et tangah dūa rätus, literally, half of two hundred, that is, of the second hundred. Thus also for two and an half, they say تئ tanigah tiga half of three, and for three and an half, تثر tangah ampat half of four. Nine is often expressed by a phrase implying the deduction of one from the next following ten, as for

of seventy; for ninety-nine, كرُ سرأس korang asa sa-rātus wanting one of an hundred, or, an hundred less one. Th gevisl yonst timed bovital
-It may be observed, that a contraction of the numeral of unity becomes the indefinite article, as $\quad$ sa-kata a word, or, one word, a man, or, one man. The same takes place in most other languages.
The ordinal numbers are as follows: pertäma (for the Sanskrit
 second; كتئ $k a$-ïga the third; :un's ka-ampat the fourth;

 tüjuh ràtus the seven hundredth.

Fractions of numbers, which have already been noticed in speaking of derivative nouns, are thus expressed : dew sa-tañgah' an half; ${ }^{\prime}$


 one and an half, as before explained. Of multiples and divisionals examples are as follows : ثئث لثن tìga làpis three fold, triple, triplex;

 tīga kāli ampat jādi dūa-blas three times four makes twelve;
 se-telah ber-himpun būang tīga-tīga jeka. tinğgal asa bǟk jeka tinğgal dūa jähat having added together (these numbers) cast away the threes (divide by three); if one remains it is lucky, if the remainder be two it is unlucky.
The foregoing system of numeration, evidently founded upon that of

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the Hindus, from whom the Arabians, and through them the Europeans derived their knowledge of arithmetic, must have been familiar to the Malays, and incorporated with their language long before the introduction of the Arabic character, and accordingly they have not adopted the practice of inverting the order of numeration and proceeding from the units to the decimals and hundreds, as the Arabians usually do when they express a date or other number in words at length. The ciphers or figures employed in their more formal writings are those of the latter people, viz. $\left.\right|_{1}, r_{2}, \Gamma_{3, \mathcal{F}_{4}}^{4}, \circ$ and $०_{5}, 46, \vee_{7} \wedge 8,99, .0$, 1. $10,||11| r .12,, r \cdot 20,1 \cdot 100$, الथ alif 1000 : but in their epistles and ordinary transactions they more commonly employ the numerical figures which, although of Hindu origin and not materially changed in form, we now consider as European.

No instances having occurred of the Malays employing as numerals: the letters of the alphabet arranged in a particular series, well known to Arabic scholars, and as such to the Malays themselves, under the name of $\operatorname{l}$ : abjd or abjid, it seems unnecessary to enter further into the de-

 $\because, \leftrightarrow, \dot{\tau}, \dot{\sim}, \dot{\infty}$, the hundreds, and $\dot{\varepsilon}$ a thousand.

## Of-Pronouns.

Pronouns may be divided into personal, demonstrative, and relative.
Personals are those substitutes for names by which the person who: speaks of himself, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken, of are designated without a repetition of the name. When applied to inanimate
inanimate things, though considered as of the third person, they fall more aptly, in this language, into the class of demonstratives.

To the personals belong the possessive pronouns, which are not distinct words, but produced, as the possessive form of nouns, either by annexing the term ورن punia own, to the pronoun, or, more usually, by the respective position of the words, as explained in treating of the noun.

Amongst the personal pronouns some are found to prevail more in. one, and some in another of the various countries where the Malayan language is spoken. Those belonging more particularly to the politer style, which is also that of books, are fixed and uniform, whilst, on the. contrary, those employed in the bazars, are often local, and consequently. little known beyond their own district. The following enumeration contains the whole that occur in the best writings, or are recognised in the dialects of the different islands.

## Pronouns of the First Person.

$\boldsymbol{S} \boldsymbol{a k u}$ or (when connected with another word) $ك k u, \mathbf{I}, \mathrm{me}$, we, us, appears to be the simplest term by which the first personal is expressed, and is generally employed by superiors addressing their inferiors, but. sometimes between equals, and in certain cases by inferiors, as اكت بورر aku süruh I order, منورت تيهك menūrut tìtah-ku to follow my direc-:
 When thus contracted to $ك$ it is made to coalesce with and form a part of the verb or noun with which it agrees in construction, and especially in the possessive form, as in the preceding example. It is sometimes, but rarely, used as a plural, and only where another word canveying the

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the idea of plurality is joined with it，as＇ك丁 ك ك $a k u k a$－dūa we two，both of us，أك سكليع aku sakati－an all of us．When this personal follows a vowel or nasal sound，it is often changed to 4 ，in order to avoid the
 attend upon me．
Tou amba I，me．This word properly signifies a servant，and when employed as a pronoun should in strictness be considered as of the third person，but use has determined it to the first，as erms amba kāta I say， natural to say，in a style of humility，it © a amba－mu tāu thy servant knoweth，or كانة tāsih pada amba－mu give to thy servant；which phrases are equivalent to $I$ know，give to me，and being from their fami－ liarity liable to abbreviation，it may have become the practice to drop the possessive，and to say more briefly amba tāu，käsih pada amba． Thus，as in many other instances，the different parts of speech usurp each other＇s pláces，and as pronouns are defined to be substitutes for nouns，so this and some similar nouns become substitutes for pronouns．
uncōta．What has been said of amba applies also to this
 bünioh bēta daülúu alas，kill me first！
＇ísen säya，signifying a slave，implies，when used as a pronoun，more humility than the preceding；but as language，and particularly thelan－ guage of compliment，is not always to be construed fiterally，we must not understand that the person who employs the term necessarily regards himself as the slave，or even as the inferior of him to whoin he addresses himself，but only that it is his intention，by an affectation of humility， to shew his politeness；and accordingly we find it much used by Malays งเ⿱亠䒑⿱日十月
of
of rank, in conversation with the superior class of Europeans; as منت تولث sāya minta tōlong I request assistance,

فتا فثا pätek seems to express still more humility than säya, and
 tüān-ku dañ̈gar-kan apā-lah khabarənia päteh $\mathbf{O}$, my lord, give ear I
 de $1 \hat{\xi} \hat{S}$ g $\bar{u} \bar{u}$ appears as a pronoun of the first person in some vocabularies published at Batavia, and may have been borrowed from the Chinese; but it is vulgar, and does not occur in any good Malayan writings.
كيت hitta we, us. : This personal plural is used for the singular by royal personages. When employed by others it frequently includes in its signification, along with the speaker, the person addressed, and cannot thereffore imply any circumstance of superiority or linferiority, as in
 oursi-Whien a greater number than two is meant to be expressed, it is usual to annex the term 1 orang person, and to form the compound word
 (كالميaiki we, us, on the contrary, excludes the party addressed, but, like $k$ sita, is often employed for the singular in the style of sovereigns, as ${ }^{2}$ كا كياه كاكي ka-besár-an kāmī our greatness ; it is not, however, confined to this tone of superiority, and the phrases
 poor, are not uncommon. When, in order to express several persons, the word eytorang is annexed, no elision takes place, both because the final vowel is long, and in order to distinguish the compound from งทัดแ

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 sakali-an orang acheh we are all of us men of Aching.

## Pronouns of the Second Person.

Sangkau, or, by contraction, s kim thou, thee, you, ye, appears to be indifferently used both in the singular and the plural, by superiors and inferiors, as in the following examples: كبليهله الثكر كثد توانم kambalıे-la/s añ̈太kuu ka-pada tüān-mu return thou to thy master; g
 añgkau-lah ing $\mathbf{O}$, my Lord, thou art He who knoweth (all things) : في منتري سكلير تورتله اثفك كتاكت ايه Wei mantric sakalt-an türut-lah angkkau katā-ku ind O members of my council, be ye obedient to these my words! When abbreviated to $s$ tau it is generally employed in a tone of overweening authority, approaching to contempt, as al


) dîkau you, thee, appears to be only a modification of Set and $k a u$, in order to accommodate it to the sound of the preceding vowel or nasal and avoid a hiatus, as درمان ديكو deri-māna dīkau from whence (art)
 nischäya ku-bünoh akan dîkau if thou dost so, I shall certainly put thee to death; in which instances the words mana angkau and akan anigkau would be unpleasant to the ear of a native. It is never (or, if lever, under very peculiar circumstances only) employed as the agent or nominative case to the verb, but is the object or subject of the action, and generally follows a preposition. This would seem to entitle it to being considered as a case of the pronoun sta ans ka, were there not /a zurvö neil - 12 more
more consistent mode of explaining why it is found in the latter situation alone, which is this ; that in the place of a nominative preceding the verb, as well as the other parts of the sentence immediately connected with it, the occasion would not exist for any qualification of the original pronoun, because no hiatus could be there apprehended.
$\mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{s}}$ kämu, $\mathrm{p} m u$ thou, you, thee, are used by the superior addressing the inferior, as تيان كالمي ol بردنيس دثر كام tiāda kāmì māū ber-damī-an danğan kāmu we do not chuse to make peace with you; هي كام سكلين hei kämu sakult̄-an ho! all ye! When abbreviated to $p m u$ it is, as well
 the verb, or to the noun as a possessive, in the manner of an inseparable particle, as باير اولهم هوتغك bāyer ūlih-mu ūtang-ku pay thou my debt,
 When its plural is formed by the addition of it, a still greater distinction is marked between the parties,_ as جأث
 hence.
تون tūan, which properly signifies " master," is employed as a pronoun personal in addresses from inferiors, and, politely, amongst equals. In form it appears to be a substitute for the third personal, but is effec-
 pergi whither do you mean to go ? تون ثور بسك tūan pūnia suka as you please, أـ تون apa tūan māū mākan what do you chuse to eat? In all which instances it is evident that the possessive was originally understood to accompany the word tüan, and that the phrase was تون تns tūan amba or tuān-ku my master or my lord. By a singular delicacy of language, this word when applied to the Divinity and signifying

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signifying The Lord, is invariably written with the aspirate tühan, to distinguish it from the more familiar appellation, as توهن سرو سكلين tūhan serra sukalī-an the Lord of all hosts, تله tiäda tūhair hänia allah there is no Lord but God.
 pronoun's: in some European vocabularies, but they are provincial and vulgar, and not to be found in good Malayan writings.

Pronouns of the Third Person.
0) .ar ina he, she, him, her, it, has no positive character of superiority or inferiority; yet it is considered more respectful (as in other languages) to designate the person spoken of, as well as the person spoken to, by his or her name, title, or other description, than by the use of a pronoun, and instead of tüan or 比 but not commonly, written yt ing.

In order to avoid the hiatus produced by successive vowel sounds, and collisions unpleasant to the ear (as noticed in speaking of the pronoun
 pinta diva pergi ask him to go; كنا layer whither is he going to sail ? tina kanal akan diva he recollects him, It may be observed, in reference to what has been said of ديكو dīkau (p. ${ }^{1}{ }^{4} 6$ ) that hiya, although generally; is not always in the situation of an objective or a subjective case, as in the last example but one, it forms the nominative to the verb, , $m \vec{a} \vec{u}$; and evidently takes the place of in the word to mana.

As applied to inanimate things its use is not frequent, the more customary form of expression requiring that the noun should be repeated with the definite article ; yet it is by no means incorrect to say, when speaking of moveables, مغلوركى لغی meñgalüar-kan diya to take them away.

In the possessive form of the noun, and also in the indefinite form of the verb (preceded by the particle $\Delta d e$, as will be hereafter explained) this pronoun, being annexed to either word, undergoes an entire change of letters, and instead of iya is written and pronounced nia. We may conjecture from analogy that this was at first intended for inya (the $n$ being frequently interpolated, as ô pontong for pötong, to improve the sound) and afterwards;' for the sake of brevity, expressed by a single character scarcely differing at all in sound from that pronoun,
 pūkul-nia he struck, , de mintā-nia he asked.

Although 1 iya and دي diya are sometimes employed in the plural, it is more commonly expressed by annexing 'اورؤ ōrang, as ديـورغُ سكت برهايم dī'örang suka ber-mī̄̄in they, on those persons, love to play, كاس vāsih dī’ōrang pūlang allow them to return.

مشاي marīk'ītu or marīka îtu those persons, they, them, as مريكـ'يـت
 pur davigan örang folàm in ofder that they may not mix with Mahometans, سروهله كمبال مريكـ'يـت storuili-lah kambäli marīk'ìtu order them to return. In sense it is nearly synonimous with 'ديـُورُ dī'örang, but much less common in conversation.

Personals, equally with nouns, of whose nature they so much partake; assume the possessive form, by annexing the word ${ }^{\text {thinia }}$ own; belonging to; or otherwise by the position of the word betokening the

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subject of property (explained at p. $3^{22}$ ), as ,

 iya or دي ثورن diya pünia his, her's, theirs ; ثدثُ pedang-ku my sword, تثل هـب anangan amba my hand, matä-mu your eye, انتكا ana thy child, بين تور binini tūan your wife, ملوتل mulūı-nia her mouth, فـكاه pusakā-nia his inheritance.

## Pronouns Demonstrative or Definitive.

This class may include not only demonstratives proper, but also the definite articles, together with relatives and interrogatives, which, in this, as in other languages, are for the most part the same words employed in a relative or interrogative instead of a demonstrative sense. They are enumerated as follows, $\hat{z}$ iang that which, those, who, whom, the; as


 ${ }^{\alpha}$ رو ر The pronoun ${ }^{\text {i }}$ nen seems to be only a vulgar substitute for $\begin{gathered}\text { iang } \\ \text { ian }\end{gathered}$

ثد كثيكت ايت pada katīka ìtu at that time, سبب ايیت sebáb ìtu on that account, سطيتي رإ sakīt-lah räja $\bar{t} t u$ the king was sick.
 īni atau lāin either this or another, انيله بايق ايترلا بورق inī-lah bā̄̄k ī̀ūu-lah büruk this is good, that is bad.
 apa by what means? سورg suirat apa ini what writing is this?

سياك si-āpa (being the preceding interrogative personified by means of a particle commonly prefixed to proper names) who, whom, which, as , أى سيافـ akan sī-āpa to whom (relatively as well as interrogatively), رياث ثور بولح si-āpa pünia büdak or بورى سياثـ bū̀dak sī-äpa whose servant?
o māna, is properly the adverb "where," but is used idiomatically to signify " who, whom, which, what," as اورغ مان ايت örang mäna ītu who is that man? بنو هان benūa māna what country? كود مان. kūda mäna which horse?
dirī self, is commonly joined to personal pronouns, and, as in English, partakes múch of the nature of a noun, as dī̀ī kāmu take care of thyself, اي سدغ تيكم اكى دريپ iya sudah tīkam akan dirī-nia he has stabbed himself. When the personal precedes, this definitive is changed to كنديري kindììī, as سنديري sindìī or
 كنديري diya kindīrī he himself. Sometimes, however, it is employed, but rather quaintly, for the second personal, as اثـ ديري كات apa dìrī kāta what dost thou say?
iya-ìtu may be considered as a compound pronoun, but is only employed to express the phrase of "that is to say."

The definite article being thus classed with the pronoun, it may be proper to observe, that the indefinite article $s a$ or $س s \bar{a} a, 2 n$, is no other than a contraction of the numeral of unity (as in most European languages) and has already been noticed as such.

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## Verbs.

The verb, in the same manner as the noun, may be distinguished into primitive and derivative.

The primitive verb is, in its original signification, either transitive, as
 to walk, تبلر tīdor to sleep; or ambiguous, as f | ajar to teach or to learn , تثغ tung̃gū to guard, keep, or to dwell.

The derivative verb is either the primitive determined to a transitive or intransitive sense by the application of particles, or it is a verb constituted by means of those particles from other parts of speech, as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. In conversation the primitive verb is frequently employed to express both the transitive and intransitive sense, where a more correct style would require the derivative, in order to avoid the ambiguity of meaning to which verbs of that description are liable, as in the instance of $\dot{\xi}$ tegg $\bar{a}$ to stand, or to set up, where the latter sense would be more clearly expressed by the same verb. in its derivative form, . menegg $\bar{a}$.

The particles used to denote the transitive are either prefixed, or annexed, or both.

The prefixed particles. are mien, eomeng, pomem, and pre, being in fact varieties of one and the same particle' modified according to the letter with which the primitive word begins, in order to render the pronunciation more grateful to the ear.

The annexed particles are $k$ ك. $k$ and $\bar{i}$. Examples of their application in forming derivative verbs are as follows.
$\int_{0}$ men may precede words beginning with the letters $\boldsymbol{c}_{\mathbb{E}} \mathrm{ch}$, and

 seethe, 0 , men-damei-kian to pacify. It sometimes also precedes
 beginning with this letter more usually undergo a change that will be hereafter explained, and توثٔ tūtup would in the derivative form become . menūtüp.
Fo meng is used before a vowel sound, an aspirate, and also the letter



 interpose, meng-hadler-kan to make ready, bring forward,

 with $\mid a$ or $\Delta h$ followed by a quiescent letter or what we term a long vowel, those previous letters are suppressed, and the particle unites with the long vowel, as from ايكت inst to bind, © هابس meng-ikat, from
 by the orthographical mark hamza.

- mem precedes the letters $\quad b$ and $\omega_{i} p$, as mem-bäyer to pay, , mem-benasā-kan to destroy, dino mem-bünoh (or dion
 .
$\rho^{m e}$ precedes the letters, $r, J h, m$, $n$, and, $w$, as rūsak to spoil, مرروث大 me-rupä-kan to represent, pourtray, to fling, cast, me-lantas to pass through,
put
put to death, مهابوقي me-mäbūk-ī to inebriate, منثتيكن me-nantïkan to expect, مورتاك me-wartā-kun to report, publish. It also sometimes occurs before the soft aspirate $\gamma$, as مهنتر me-hantar to convey, me-hēla
 the track; but meng is the particle more commonly employed in this situation, with the omission of the aspirate.

It appears by the foregoing that the simple application of the particles is confined to certain initial letters, and it being necessary that the transitive sense should equally be given to words beginning with the other letters of the alphabet, but which by collision with the particle would produce that harshness of sound so carefully avoided by these people, recourse is had to the expedient of modifying, in a peculiar manner, the first syllable of the primitive, when commencing with one or other of the letters $t$, ש $k$, $k$, or particle, which is also itself susceptible of the variety of termination already mentioned. It may be supposed that the observance of these minute rules is not unattended with difficulty, but the learner will find it more serious as matter of study than of practice, and that the latter will be much facilitated by the smoothness of pronunciation resulting from these changes.

When the primitive word to which the transitive particle is to be prefixed begins with $\boldsymbol{t}$, the derivative is formed by ounitting that letter and making the final consonant of the particle men coalesce with the following vowel sound : thus from ترُ tōlong is formed menōlong to assist; from تورت tūrut, هنورت menürtut to follow; from
 menāngis-kan to beivail; and when a reciprocity of action is meant to
be expressed, the verb is repeated in the two forms, as تولغ منولغ tölong menōlong to give mutual assistance, تغلس منغلس tang̃kis menanğkis to parry each other's thrusts.

When the primitive begins with $s$, that letter is changed to via; and the particle $p m e$ is prefixed; or it may be considered that the $m$ is dropped, and the $\quad n$ of the particle 0 men changed to nia: thus from مبمثي meneniampei to cause to arrive; from
 to satisfy; and from ميرم menyïranc to besprinkle.. This modification of the particle sometimes takes place in forming transitives from words beginning with $e^{\text {and }}{ }^{\text {a }}$, as from meniunjong-kan to raise to the head, and from جوچي chūchī pure, مبوجي meniūchī to purify ; but the more correct inflexions would be men-junjong-kan and oنهوجي men-chūchī.

When the word begins with $\boldsymbol{H} \boldsymbol{p}$, that letter is changed to $\boldsymbol{m}$, $\cdot$ and the particle $p m e$ is prefixed, or the $\boldsymbol{p} p$ is dropped, and the second $;$

 hold; and from $\begin{gathered}\text { pūtus, } \\ \text {, } \\ \text { memütus to break off. }\end{gathered}$

When the word begins with $\} k$, that letter, in the formation of thetransitive, is dropped, and the particle ${ }^{\circ}$ meng being prefixed, its final letter coalesces with the vowel: thus from mengīāta to acquaint; from. كلور ka-lūar, meñ̈galūar to take or put
 mengīpas to fan or to. winnow; from كنل kanal to recollect,
 veñ̈gutaū-ī dan meng̈anal dañ̃an peng̈ataū-an dan peng̈ganal iang

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semporna to know and to remember with perfect knowledge and recollection.

The annexed particles 5 -kan and $-i$ may be employed either in
 meñ̈gunüs-kan pedang to unsheath a sword, هربنساكن نكري kan negrì to ruin a country, مسروري كبر mem-bhärṻ-ï kabūn to renew a plantation; or, independently of the prefix, to form a transitive verb; as همبرسكא الش ambüs-kan āpi blow the fire, لئسن كور lepas-kan kūda let loose the horse, نتنوين O د de tantū-ї-nia bechāra he ascertained the matter, A لمرركنف دندي de lumūr-kan-nia dinding he daubed the wall. It may be observed, that the imperative form does not admit of the prefix though it does of the annexed particle, and that the infinitive seldom dispenses with the former.

The particles, or modified particle, e ber, C ب bel, e e, denoting the intransitive sense, are prefixed to the verb or word verbally employed, without any annexed particle, as براجر ber-äjar or بلاجر bel-äjar to learn, برJيم , برهايت ber-ānynit to drift or float away, برير ber-dīiri to stand up ber-dīam to keep silence, برستيم ber-sinyüm to smile, برسور: ber-sūrak to shout, برثارغُ ber-pärang or to run away, rبرنتك be-rintik-rintik to fall in drops. In most instances the particles $p$ ber and $ب$ be may be indifferently employed, the former being more usual in writing, and the latter in conversation ; and it may be observed that these two intransitive prefixes are much more simple in their application than the transitive, and coalesce with all the letters of the alphabet. The other modification, $ل$ bel, which seldom occurs, precedes only a vowel sound, although from analogy it might be supposed to coalesce with $ب$ balso, as in the formation of derivative nouns;
but although they write pel-bhägi division, the verb is ثلبيأث ber-bhāgi to become divided. Before $J l$ it may admit of a doubt whether the prefix be $ب$ bel or $ب$ e $b e$, as the Malays avoid double letters in writing, and rarely avail themselves of the orthographical mark $(-)$ teshdidd, by which the duplication of the $\rfloor l$ might be expressed.

Although the foregoing distinction between the effects of the transitive and intransitive particles, is founded upon the obvious tenor of the language, yet many exceptions to the general rule occur, which it is proper to notice.
Some verbs not strictly intransitive, inasmuch as they admit a subject or accusative case, nevertheless assume the intransitive prefix, as $ج$, bel-äjar to learn (a lesson), برسیث, ber-simpan to have (money) in keeping; yet as distinguished from the same primitives with the transitive prefix, of ofeng-äjar to teach, menyimpan to put by, lay up, they are considered in the light of intransitives. A few anomalies however, appear, which this explanation will not account for, as بريرم - ber-kirim sürat to send a letter; and when the particle for (which will be particularly noticed hereafter) is introduced between the intransitive prefix and the verb, the latter commonly admits the annexed transitive particle and expresses a transitive sense, as بر برسمبيكن $b c-$ per-sambah-kan khabar to communicate intelligence (to a superior); and in like manner there are instances of the transitive particle being prefixed, where the verb is notwithstanding employed intransitively, as بus


 peculiavities will appear under the next head.

The verbs denoting being and the progress of existence, called verbs substantive, are ال ada to be, is, and $j a \bar{a} d i$ to become, wax; answering to the Latin SUM and fio.

These verbs being in their nature intransitive, do not require the intransitive particle بر ber (though they admit of being rendered transitive, with a facility peculiar to this language, and then assume the usual prefixed and annexed particles) as اد بايت ada bā̄̄k is good; اد بايت ada bāniuk there are many; دمان اد روcه de-māna ada rūmah where is the house ? اداله ثد همب adā-lah pada amba I have (there is to me) ; بُّ bagi pātek ada permāta sa-bīji thy servant hath a precious stone; جكلو ان اي بركندران jekalau ada iya ber-kandarān if he has
 a mere shadow.

When used without an adverb or modal, ul ada does not appear to be confined to the present nor any definite time, as اد سـُورغُ راج بنو عجم ada
 نور ثولع ada s'örung anak-nia perampüan he had one daughter جاءث سوسه هات اد سلامة داتعُ كبال nōna pū.ang jāñ̈gan sūsah āti ada salāmat dātang kambāli your mistress is gone, do not be grieved; she will come back in safety, هندق اد اي سو andak ada iya süchi he ought to be clean, هندقله ان الي لبه درثد ثهباير هوتغث andak-lah ada iya lebih deripada pem-bāyer ütang-nia he ought to have more than sufficient to pay his debts.

Employed as an auxiliary it is equivalent to a participle of the present tense, as اورغُ ان ماكن ōrang ada mākan the people are eating, كانقانت ال . $k$ 'änak-ānak ada ber-mā̃n the children are playing, or at play.

It is much more frequently understood than expressed, as بنرل بحكرام benár-lah becharā-mu your counsel is right.

When used in an active or transitive sense, it signifies to cause, give existence to, or occasion to be, as ot ot meng-āda or meng-adā-kan kwasā-nia to give existence or occasion to his power.

The other verb substantive $j \bar{d} d i$, in its simple intransitive form, signifies to become, to wax, as دي جاد كاي diya jädi kāya he becomes rich, هاريet àrı̄̄-pūn jädi pānas the day waxes hot.

In the transitive form its signification is nearly the same as that of the preceding verb, viz. to cause to become, to constitute, to create, but
 stitute a king, توهن يـُ مأجديكن عالم tūhan àang men-judī-kan ālam the Lord who created the world, ${ }^{\text {oicras }}$ men-jadi-kan diri-nia garūda transformed himself into a griffin. Contrary, however, to one of the most consistent rules of the language, the transitive form of this verb is often employed intransitively, as men-jädi (but never, with both the prefixed and the annexed particles, الملام men-jadī-kan) isläm to become a Mahometan, كث انجاد aku men-jādi tūah I am growing old, انقر ثرمثون سله منجباد بنتي anak-nia perampüan sudah men$j a ̄ d i$ bunting his daughter has become pregnant, دجديكنث راج de jadī-kan-nia räja he became a king. In the last example the irregularity is the most striking.

Verbal nouns are formed in the usual manner from both of these
 duction; and even in its primitive form, اد $a d a$ is sometimes made a noun, as النار اد دان تياد antāra adáa dan tiäda between existence and nonexistence, between is and is not.

Distinctions

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## Distinctions and Relations of the Verb.

The distinctions of active and passive voices, of mood and tense, apply but imperfectly, and those of person and number not at all, to the Malayan verb. $\ddagger n$ order, however, to conform as much as possible to ideas rendered habitual by the practice of reducing the grammar of other languages to the standard of the Greek and Latin, it becomes expedient to consider the verb under the most applicable of the established rules, and to explain those departures from them which are peculiar to this language.
The personal pronoun or the noun that stands in the relation of a nominative case or agent, commonly precedes the verb, and it rarely happens that any words beside the qualitive or the modal (and that ge-
 amba chāri I seek, بركات
 balúm ada ter-būka the new warehouse is not yet opened. But when the verb is preceded by the indefinite particle $د d e$ or sign of the aorist; the nominative case is then always made to follow, and the accusative or subject frequently to precede the particle, as د دثرلبتث de per-lambat-nia he delayed, تياد د تريم الله ثوساث tiäda de terīma allah pūasāānia God will not accept his fasting, سثالي اي د بونه راج sopāya ia de bünoh raja that the king may put him to death, هدب د ثوكل هرت هـب د رمعُس ambala. de pūkul arta ambo de rampas-nia me he beat, and my goods he plandeed. In the following example the agent in the former part of the sentence, contrary to the general rule, appears to follow the verb in order to preserve and maintain uniformity with the construction of the latter part, which obeys the rule last-mentioned,


كداث اكى دي jeka gūgur iya (for iya gūgur) atau de gugūr-kan kudā-nia akan diya if he fall, or if his horse throw him.

The passive voice (as in English and French) is found only in the form of a participle, and is rather a branch of the transitive than a distinct species of verb. It is denoted by the inseparable particle $;$ ter prefixed, as ترتولس ter-tūlis written, تربونه ter-bünoh slain, ترثيله ter-pīlih chosen : but to avoid harshness of sound in pronunciation, the, $r$ of the particle is sometimes dropped, as تلمثو te-lampau exceeded, تثرالس te-perälas founded.

The moods of the verb may be named and ranked as follows, viz. the imperative, indicative or assertive, conditional, and infinitive or indefinite; which admit, for the most part, of being expressed in the present, the past, and the future tenses or times.

The imperative mood, in its second or characteristic person (the third being more strictly a permissive) is in this language the original and simplest form of the verb,* and the only one in which a perfect sense

[^4]can be conveyed without the assistance of any other word or particle, as
 does not admit of the prefixed, although in some instances it takes the annexed transilive particles $k$ Kan and $i$, and very commonly the intensitive d lah, as tepas-kan anjing let loose the dog, ثسسك انجـع pūlang-kan gādei return the pledge, marī-lah come, bēng̃un-lah waken, arise:

When the pronoun of the second person accompanies the imperative, it is made, as in other languages to follow the verb, as لاري كام lārī kämu run thou, جالم كاعهورؤ jālan kām'ōrang march ye!

It may be observed that these personals are such as imply inferiority of condition (persons in that relative situation only being liable to receive commands) and that a well-bred native would express himself otherwise to his equal or his superior, and instead of دودت كام dūduk kāmu or ( $\mathrm{d} u \overline{d u k}$ añgkau sit thou, would say دودق اغثو dūduk
and the rudest of savage life are known to be communicated, in terms equivalent to "give, " take, come, sit, eat, go." But without reasoning à priori, what unbiassed person will not admit that the Latin inflexions "damus, dabam, dabo," are more likely, with respect to the letters which compose the words, to have proceeded from "da" give, than from " dare" to give, and "imus, ibam" rather from " i " go, than from " ire" to go, or from any other mood or tense of the verb. Upon the same principles I should say
 burdan to carry, from بر bur bear, and ران rändan to drive, from by annexing the syllables يدن idan and dan to the simple roots, and not by the contrary mode of proceeding; whatever the native grammarians, who speak technically rather than philosophically, may assert. In some languages, I am aware, the proofs are not so striking, but artificial refinements may have taken the place of more original expressions.
dūduk, or, still more politely, سيلكنل تون دونى silā-kan-lah tūan düduk be prevailed upon, Sir, to sit down.

A species of qualified imperative, which may be termed a recommendative (expressed in English by the auxiliaries " should" and "ought") will be noticed in speaking of the conditional mood of the verb.

The indicative or assertive mood partakes of the simple quality of the imperative, particularly in the first and second persons of the present.
 عنـت sāya minta I ask, كام مينم kāmu mīnum you drink, käta thou speakest, كامْـورِ ثرجاي kam'örang perchäya ye believe. It assumes however both the prefixed and annexed transitive and intransitive particles, as مهاي مننست تيته تون sāya me-nanti tītah tūan I wait your orders, رُك سرهك انتكث كثد تاغثن aku sarah-kan anak-ku ka-pada tāng̃anmи I commit my child to your hands هدبـ بركيرم سورة اليب amba ber-kirim sürat ini I send this letter. If the transitive forms in these two persons are not so familiar to the ear as in the third, it is because they must be employed to assert what, from the action itself, is sufficiently known to the person addressed. The third person, on the contrary, and particularly in the past tense, is a more habitual form of the verb, and admits of the easy application of those particles, دي برجالل دهول diya ber-jālan daülu he walks first, دي بهبامنه تاغثنر diya mem-bäsuh tāng̈an-nia he washes his hands, انجحع مببور روس anjing mem-būru rüsa the dog pursues the deer, اورغُ ايست سدغ ممبايرهوتغث has paid his debts.

In the interrogative form of the indicative the personal is usually made to follow the verb, as أتس كات كام apa kāta kāmu, or كام


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كان ثرثك كالمـروغ ka-māna pergi kām'ōrang whither are ye going? But
 or with the proper interrogative particle J دمناه اغثو داثقت ايت , de-manā-kah añgkau däpat ìtu where did you get that? Where the nominative case is other than a pronoun personal it more commonly precedes the verb, as كمناكه بررغ سدغ ترب٪ ka-manā-kah bürong sudah terbang whither has the bird flown? أثبيله راج هندق كمبال apabilā-kah räja andak kambäli when does the king mean to return?

In the assertive form the agent or nominative always precedes, and the subject or accusative, as well as the object or dative and ablative cases, in plain construction, always follow the verb, but without being liable to varitty of termination or other change of form that can justify the expression of the one governing or being governed by the other; as توكن
 ōrang memīkul bäban men carry burthens, كاثِ برلاير كتيبر käpal ber-läyer ka-tīmor the ship sails to the eastward, هوجن جات كدالم لارت üjun, jätu
 rules are dispensed with, and inversions of the order of words are not uncommon.

The rules which govern the assertive apply equally to the conditional or potential form; the word which precedes it in construction and causes the verb to express a conditional or potential, instead of an assertive or positive sense, not affecting the application of the transitive or intransitive particles, as جكت تون داتـ jeka tūan dūtang if you come, كالو راج ملارغ kālau rāja me-lāran'g if the king forbid, داثن كالي برانتغ dāpat kāmī ber-ontong provided we are successful, سثاين جاثن هـب كن روثي sopāya

agar sopāya anak-nia men-jädi älim. in order that his children may become learned.

From the conditional as explained in the foregoing examples, and which may be termed the conditional-assertive, we must distinguish a recommendative form, which being expressed in English by the auxiliary " should," seems to belong to the subjunctive mood, but may with more propriety be regarded as a qualified or conditional imperative. Like the simple imperative it rejects the prefixed transitive and intransitive particles men and $\quad$ ber, but assumes the indefinite particle $\Delta d e$ (whose extensive use and peculiarities will appear in the sequel) and is preceded either by the adverb $\begin{gathered}\text { maka ere, before, now, whereas, or the auxiliary }\end{gathered}$ andak-lah should, ought, or by both, as in the following examples, مكث د ثوتعغ دثر ثيسو it with a knife, مكت د رندثُكن م maka de randang-kan-nia you are to fry it, مكث تياد د بونه اكي .دي maka tiäda de būnoh akan diya you are not to kill him, مكت د ثرُوليهر niaka de per-ūlīh-nia in order that he may obtain, مكت هندقله د بواث大كنر maka andak-lah de būäng-kan-nia he should or ought to throw it away, مكت هندقله ثواس دو بولن maka andak-lah puăsa dūa bülan should or must fast two months, هندقله جاغث الي كتغثلم andaklah jäng̃an iya ka-tiñ̈ggal-añ he ought not to loiter behind, مكت هندقله maka andak-lah de pārang ülih rāja akan marik'itu the king ought to make war on those people.

When the verb substantive is introduced, the indefinite particle is omitted, as هندقله اد الي سوع andak-lah ada iya süchi it should be clean, هندى اد اي كواس لودق دياتس كود andak ada iya kwāsa dūduk de-ātas kūda he ought to be able to sit upon a horse, هندى ان الي لبه درثد ثهبليرهوتغث andak
ada iya lebih deri-pada pem-bāyer ūtang-nia he ought to have more than wherewithal to pay his debts.

The optative, which in other languages is likewise classed with the subjunctive or conditional mood, in this seems to belong (as the preceding) to the imperative, and requiring the indefinite particle $\Delta d e$, is nearly allied to the recommendative in point of form, as د بري الله كارو سديكت de brı̄ allah kamārau sedīkit God grant a little fair weather, بارغ د سمثيكل الله bārang de sampei-kan allah may God cause it to arrive. The optative or obsecrative expressions, צاراث , garāng-an, are much employed in giving energy to this mood.

The infinitive mood rarely dispenses with the transitive and intransitive particles, which seem to belong in an especial manner to this form of the verb, as ثرثْ كام منهاري انتـ pergi kāmu menchārī ontong go thou to seek for gain, لمبت منولي lambat menölong slow to assist, مور مبجبراكن (ان مثرجاكى لي to plan and to execute it, سني براغكت sedīa ber-ängkat ready to set out, . suka ber-mā̄n glad to play, ثركت براير. pantas ber-käta fluent of speech, rendy at speaking.

The distinction of temses or times to which the action of the verb vefers, being effected by the use of speeific words expressive of the past, the present, or the future, and not by any alteration in the form of the verb itself, the subject might with propriety be treated under the modal or adverb, but the learner who is accustomed to the method of European grammar, will naturally expect to find whatever has relation : to the verb exemplified in this place.

Where the assertion of acting or suffering is unqualified by any par-
ticular attribution of time, the present or existing time must of course -be understood, as هnبب ليهت amba tīat I see, mata-ārī nāīk
 jang meng̃ $-a-t \bar{a} u-\bar{i}$ God who knoweth, or is all-knowing; but it does not reject the addition of modals, which serve to mark the time with more precision, as اينله همب بوت سكارغ ini-lah amba büat sakärang this I do, or am doing, now ; دي مكى جوثك diya mākan jūga he still eats, or is eating ; ثاثك ايْ ثرهر براير pāgi inni praü ber-lāyer this morning the vessel
 ini mengāoün-kan anakanda baginda my dear brother is now coming to receive in marriage the daughter of your majesty.

Where the present time is denoted by modals expressing a continuity or existing duration of action, the verb, although not altered in form, may be considered as assuming the nature of the participle present and . gerund. The modals employed for this purpose are lís lagi still, more, سراي sambil, سربل serāya, and serta whilst, when, at the same time, as soon as, whereupon, with, together with, as لات لات lägi dātang coming, لآث تيدر lāgi tīdor sleeping, or, still asleep, برجالن سِمبل برسنه ber-jälan sambil ber-sinnyum walked on, smiling; كان مغئوجفت سمبل برلينت dan meng-ūchap sambil ber-līnang āyer mäta and said, the tears at the same time trickling down; مبمبه سراي مبالـ اير مناث meniambah serāya meniàpu àyer matā-nia made obeisance, at the same time wiping 2way her tears, en essuyant ses larmes ; د دتروان سراي بركات de tertawä-nia serāya ber-kāta he laughed, saying, سرت اي داتغ serta iya dātang as soon mhe comes, upon his coming; سرت تيب مورة ايه serta tīla sūrat īni upon the arrival of this letter.

A present continuity of action is in like manner implied by prefixing the
the verb substantive أ $a d a$, as دي ان مندي diya ada mandī she is bathing, dìōrang adáa ber-jālan they are walking. It must be remarked, however, that the verb substantive is not confined to the present time, but may be connected with a modal of the past, though not of the future.

Beside,these, a gerund in form as well as in sense, being in fact a verbal noun iafinitively applied in construction, is produced, as other verbal nouns, by prefixing to the simple verb the particle $k a$-, and annexing the particle .an, as متجاري تياد كليهاتث سبب كلندوثنله سايوثر matcl-ärī tiäda ka-liāt-an sebáb ka-lindōng-an-lah sāyüp-nia the sun was not to be seen 'by reason of the shadowing of its wings ; تياد أـ يـع كداغرن لاگث tiäda apa iang ka-dāñ̄gar-an lāgi nothing was any longer to be heard; كارن kārna būmi santiāsa ku-datāng-an āyer by reason of the earth continually imbibing water.

The past time is most commonly expressed by modals, which in the construction of the sentence precede the verb. Those chiefly employed
 or done," as تله اله أتو بلم اله telah ada atau balúnı ada has been or is not yet; دي تله برلاير diya telah ber-lāyer he has sailed; كاعي سدلا هنـع kāmī sudah menang we have won; بورغُ سد8 تربـ bürong sudah terbang the
 have done working; نيبر tū̀ba-tība māsuk lālu dūduk suddenly entered and then sat down.

The same words are also employed in the formation of participles of the past, as تله سطڤي telah sampei arrived; تله telah or سدلا مات sudah nāāti dead; تله ثاكي telah pākei worn; تاهن يـع تله لال tāun āang telah lālu the past year, or, year that has elapsed: and where the sense is decidedly
 derham zang sudah ter-büang the money that was thrown away, بري

 ter-panggang the house was burned down ; هابس ترمرك äbis ter-mäkan eaten up.

The time imperfectly or indefinitely past is usually expressed without


 pārang-kan-nia ūlih segala pahluwā̃n he was attacked by all the warriors, or, all the warriors attacked him; was heard by the king, or, the king heard; in which latter examples it will be perceived that a passive form is given to the verb, although the sense is active, by the preposition d $_{\text {g }}$ ulilh; as in Latin, factum est a TE is used for tu fecisti. The imperfect is also sometimes denoted simply by annexing the particle $\$$ lah, as oك pergī-lah rāja ka-pada tūan putrī and the king went to the princess; ايتثرن بريبيله itu-pün ber-nianyī-lah thereupon sang.

The means of expressing in this language a simple future tense are extremely defective, the modals or adverbs, and auxiliary verbs employed for this purpose (like " will" and "shall" in English, the former of which includes the idea of volition and the latter of compulsion) being words which possess independent significations, not always strictly compatible with the use made of them to denote simple futurity of time. The auxiliaries chiefly used in conversation are $\quad$ mäū will, intend, برله

am about to return ; دي ماو تيلر diya māū tīdor he will, or, is going to fall asleep ; دي تياد ماو تورت diya tiāda mā̄̄ tūrut he will not follow; كنـت ; nanti amba dātang I shall come; نـبـ داتـ sumboh shall presently be restored to health.

Those used in writing and in correct discourse, are هنلى andak will, intend (but which more commonly denotes a conditional or qualified imperative) Skan to, and the indefinite particle $a d e$, which forms as 2orist of the future as well as of the past, as مندقله اغثك مهتاكم نمام andaklan̆ angkku meniatā-kan namä-mu will you, or do you intend to make known your name? دي هنلت براثكت diya andak ber-äng̃kat he intends to set out; اثثال تون اكن برلاير apa-kāla tūan akan ber-lāyer when will you, or, are you to sail ? گرور أكم داتعٌ مبارع نگري garūda akan dātang me niürang negrī the griffin will come, or, is coming to ravage the country ; تياد د المثِ الله اكى ديكو tiäda de ampun allah akan dīkau God will not pardon thee ; نسجلي د شكس راج اكى ثمبونه ايـت nischāya de siksa räja akun pent-bünoh ìtu the king will certainly punish that murderer.

## Inflexions of the Transitive Verb.

زäbat to touch or handle.

## Imperative Mood.

jābat touch.
جابتله اغثك jäbat-lah ung̃kau touch thouهندقله د جابته andak-lah de jäbat-nia let him touch.

Indicative

## Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.
 touch.

الثك, anïgkau men-jäbat thou touchest. \&cc.
لي منجابت diya men-jäbat he toucheth.
المي منجابت kāmì men-jābat we touch.
اغثر منكابت angkau men-jàbat ye touch.
marīk 'ìtu men-jäbat they touch:
Past Tense.
اكت تله جاببت aku telah jābat I have touched.
.
diya telah jäbat he hath touched.
كامي تله جابت kāmī telah jäbat. we have touched; 8 Cc .

## Indefinitely Past Tense.

de jäbat-nia he touched.
de jäbat ūlilh diya it was touched by him, or, he touched.
Future Tens.
اكك هندى منهاببت aku andak men-jābat,
 touch.

- $\quad$ ang kau andak jäbat, \&cc. thou wilt touch.
diya akan jäbat, \&cc. he will, or, is to toucb.


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كالمي اكن جاببت kämī akan jābat, \&cc. we will, or, are to touch.

## Conditional Mood.

خجك دي منجابست jeka diya men-jäbat if he touches.
سشاي كامي مانكابت sopāya kāmī men-jäbat that we may touch.
dāapat marīkìtu men-jäbat should they, or provided they should touch.

## Infinitive Mood.

منكابتك men-jäbat-kan to touch.

## Participles.

Of the Present.
lāgi jäbat or لاثٌ جابت lāgi de jäbat touching, still touching, or, continuing to touch.

سرت serta, or سراي منكبابت seräya men-jäbat touching, or, whilst touching.
ada jäbat is touching.
Of the Past.
selah jäbat, سدا د جابله جاببى sudah de jäbat having touched.

## Of the Passive Past.


 touched.

## Gerund.

 touched.

## Verbal Nouns.

pen-jäbat one who touches, handles, or who holds an employment.
per-jabāt-an and كرجباتث $k a-j a b a ̄ t-a n$ what is touched or handled; an employment or office.

تولث tōlong to assist.
Imperative Mood.
تولثغ tōlong assist.
تولٍ كōlong kämu assist thou.
andak-lah de tōlong-nia let him assist.
andak-lah de tölong akan diya let him be assisted, or, let assistance be given to him.

Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.
منولڭ menōlong I assist. كام منولِ kāmu menölong thou assistest. diya menölong or مي منولغ كالمي منولغ kāmī menölong we assist. كامُورِغ منولغ kam’örang menōlong ye assist. di'örang menölong they assist.

Past Tense.
amba sudah tōlong I have assisted.
كام سده تولغ kānıu sudah tōlong thou hast assisted.
diya sudah tölong he hath assisted.
كالمي سده تولخ kāmī sudah tōlong we have assisted, \&c.
Indefinitely Past Tense.
: د د تولte tölong-nia he assisted.
Future Tense.
 منلول menōlong, I will or shall assist. نـو amba I will assist or am going to assist,

كام هندق منولغ kāmu andak menōlong, \&cc. you will assist.
diya akan menōlong he will, or is to assist.
كالمي اكن منولغ $k$ kāmī akan menōlong we will assist.

diörang akan menōlong they will assist, or are to. assist.

## Conditional Mbod:

ز jeka amba menōlong if I assist.
sopāya diya menölong that he may assist.
لاثقت كابي منولغ dāpat kāmī menōlong should we, or provided we should assist.

MALAYAN LANGUAGE.
Infinitive Mood.
 تولغ صنولغ tōlong-menōlong to assist mutually.

Participles.
Of the Present.

سرت serta, or سرت seräya menṑlong assisting, or, whilst assisting.

اد تولع ada tōlong is assisting.
Of the Past.
.
Of the Passive Past.


Gerund.
 assisted.

Verbal Nouns.
ثنولـ penölong one who assisteth.


ماكن

سامس sāmun rob.
ساهنكو sāmun-kau rob thou.
هندقله د سامنف andak-lah de sāmun-nia let him rob.
Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.

كام مبامس kāmu meniämun thou robbest.
دي مهامن diya meniämun he robbeth.
كامي مهامس $k a ̄ m i ̄ ~ m e n i a ̈ m u n ~ w e ~ r o b, ~ \& c c . ~$
Past Tense.
هسب تله سامن amba telah sāmun I have robbed.
كام تله سامن. kamu telah sāmun thou hast robbed.
دي سدل سامن diya sudah sāmun he hath robbed, \&cc.
Indefinitely Past Tense.
de sämun-niáhe robbed.

Future Tense.
 shall rob.

كام هندى مبامس kamu andak meniämun you will rob.
دي اك مبامن

Conditional Mood.
جكت هـب مبالمن jeka amba meniāmun if I rob.
سثاي كامي مثامن sopāya kāmī meniämun that we may rob.
داقثت كالهـورعٌ میامن dāpat kām’ōrang neniämun should ye, or, provided you do rob.

## Infinitive Mood.

مبیم meniämun to rob.

## Participles.

Of the Present.
lāgi sāmun or لآثُ سامس lāgi de sāmun robbing or continuing to rob.

سراي میامن sambil, سرت serāya meniämun robbing, or whilst robbing.
ada sāmun. is robbing.
Of the Past.
سدل د سلمس sudah de sāmun having robbed.
Of the Passive Past.
ترسامن ter-sämun robbed.
يـ亡 سدلا ترسامن
Gerund.
بركسهونى ber-ka-samūn-an that is to be robbed.

Verbal Nouns.
קثامن peniämun a robber.
ثرسامن per-sāmun one who has been robbed.
Sa-samūn-an robbery.

## Inflexions of the Intransitive Verb.

تيدر tìdor to sleep.
Imperative Mood.
تيدر tìdor sleep.
تيدرله كام tīdor-lah kàmu sleep thou, or go thou to sleep.
andak-lah de tīdor-nia let him sleep.
Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.
برتير diya tīdor or
Past Tense.
اكت سده تيدر aku sudah tïdor I have slept.
اثغكر سدء تيدر angkau sudah tĩdor thou hast slept.
كالي سدلا تيلر kāmī sudah tīdor we have slept.
Indefinitely Past Tense.
د دتيدرث de tīdor-nia he slept.
Future Tense.
هنلى تيدر andak tīdor I shall sleep, or, ama going to sleep.

解 هندى تيدر ankau andak tidor thou wilt sleep, or, art going to sleep.
diya akan tīdor he will sleep, or, is going to sleep.
Conditional Mood.
جكُ دي برتيدر jeka diya ber-tīdor if he sleeps.
سثاي كامي تيدر داقثت كامـورغُ تيلر däpat käm'örang tidor should ye, or, provided ye should sleep.

Infinitive Mood.
.
Participles.
Of the Present.
lāgi tīdor sleeping.
سرابي برتيدر serta, or سرت sambilya ber-tīdor sleeping, or, whilst sleeping.

اد تيدر ada tīdor is sleeping.
Of the Past.
سلا تيلر
Of the Passive Past.
We cannot look for this participle as belonging to an intransitive verb, but inasmuch as the generality of these verbs may be rendered transitive, and from تير tīdor to sleep, may be formed مليدركن men-tīdor-kan to put
put to sleep, so we may have the passive participles تزليدر ter-tīdor put to sleep, and يـغ سدل ترتيدرiang sudah ter-tìdor that hath been put to sleep.

## Gerund.

 to sleep.

Verbal Nouns.
pen-tīdor a sleeper, sluggard.
per-tidōr-an a sleeping place, bed. كتدور ka-tidōr-an sleep, the act of sleeping.

جالى jälan to walk.

Imperative.
. ${ }^{\text {ja lan walk. }}$
جالنله
andak-lah de jālan-nia let him walk:
Indicative Mood.
Present Tense.
هـب جالك mba jālan or برجالى ber-jälan I walk. كالعي برجالن kāmī ber-jālan we walk.

Past Tense.
كام ملي جالى kāmu sudah jälan thou hast walked.
di'örang telah ber-jälan they have walked.
Indefinitely Past Time.
de jälan-nia he walked.
Future Tense.
هلـب ماو andak, māū, هندق akan ber-jālan I shall walk.
de jālan amba I shall walk.
كامُورُ käm'örang akan ber-jälan ye will walk.

Conditional Mood.
جكت كام برجالث jeka kāmu ber-jālan if you walk.
سشلي دي برجالن sopāya diya ber-jälan that he may walk.
dāpat kām'ōrang ber-jälan should ye, or, provided you should walk.

Infinitive Mood.
 to walk.

## Participles.

Of the Present.
لُكُّ جالى lägi jālan walking.
sambil ber-jālan walking, or, whilst walking.
ada jälan is walking.

## Of the Past.

تله برجالن telah ber-jälan having walked.
Gerund.
, بركجلانن ber-kajalān-an that, or, who is to walk.

Verbal Nouns.
ثنجالم pen-jälan a walker.
per-jalän-an a journey or march.
كجلانت ka-jalän-an the act of walking.
In the foregoing scheme of inflexions, certain words expressive of time, condition, volition, and other circumstances of action and suffering, have, in imitation of the English and French grammars, been employed in framing the moods and tenses of the verb, though in strictness they should rather be considered as co-efficient members of the sentence to which they belong, united to the verb in construction, but neither constituting a part of it, nor influencing its form; those changes alone which result from the application of inseparable particles (the origin perhaps of the moods, tenses, and persons of the Greek and Latin verbs) being. properly the inflexions of the word.

Some further account of the manner of employing these verbal particles (with the exception of the transitives and intransitives, already sufficiently explained) may be here given with advantage to the learner.
ت ter being prefixed to the verb denotes the passive participle, as
 having the force of the Latin adjunct -Tus, as in "ama-tus, doc-tus,
lec-tus (for leg-tus), fac-tus, audi-tus." Though usually applied to the simple form of the verb, it is sometimes found united in the same derivative word with $\hat{f}$ per (which will presently be explained) and the intensitive $\downarrow$ lah. When preceding $\hat{\beta}$ per, the, $r$ of the former of the two particles is dropped, euphoniæ gratia, as te-per-sā̀yang compassionated, ثه pada māsa īang māna te-per-anaklalt iya at the time when he was born.
When the passive participle is followed by the directive dور $\bar{u} l i \hbar$ by or through, the sense becomes active, as ofor , maka ter-liat ülih-nia now there was seen by him, or, he saw.
ر per is prefixed to verbs transitive, and when employed in the formation of verbal nouns, denotes an active sense. In the former situation it appears to express a continuity of the action, and sometimes an intensity, but its specific use is not very obvious, and it seems to be rather conducive to the elegance than essential to the meaning of the words, as in the following examples : متري مكللي د ثرجامجيور mantrì sakalī-an de
 de per-ganti-gantī-nia deri-pada suātu ka-pada lāin handed it back and forward from the one to the other ; مياث داثّ ثربايكي تخري siäpa däpat per-bāīk-ī negrì who can improve the condition of the
 right ; هندت د ثسرتاكא טثن نية andak de pe-sertā-kan dangan niat (the
 de per-sängat-nia mudāh-nia and he carries to excess his liberality;
 obtained that with much trouble; كروكي per-wakill-kan s'örang akan gantī-nia to commission a person to act in his stead; كارن

## A GRAMMAR OF THE

كند هندق بثراستريكن انتد it is my wish to provide a wife for my child.
$\checkmark$ de. This indefinite particle answers in some measure to the English infinitive particle " to," as well as to the auxiliaries "do, doth, did, may, will, shall," and in its application to both the past and the future partakes of the nature of the Greek aorist, as will appear in the following examples adapted to each of those significations, viz.
$د$ de to. هن هندقله د برثركك maka andak-lah de büang-kan he ought to throw away ; مك to be fried; يَئ تياد دماكن اورغ iang tiäda de mäkan ōrang which men are not to eat, or, which is not to be eaten; دان جاثُ د ثلون ثه مكان dan jānğan de palū-nia pada mukä-nia and he is not to strike her on


 banting amat käin ītu you are not to beat that cloth too much ; لياد د تربيلي بإيكع tiäda de ter-būlang bäniak-nia their numbers are not to be counted,
$د$ de do, doth, did. ثرلمبت د de per-lambat-nia he delays, doth, or

 compel him; ; apabīla ōrang laki-lāki memandang pada istrī-nia dan de pandang istrī $k a$-padā-nia when a man looketh at his wife, and his wife doth look at
 amba de rampas-nia me he struck, or, did strike, and my goods he plundered; jeka de gūgur-kan kudā-nia akan diya if his horse do throw him.
$\checkmark$ de may. $\quad$ سثاي الي د بونه الج sopāya iya de bünoh räja that the king may put him to death; ; obtain ; بإ bärang de sampei-kan allah may God cause it to arrive.
 akan diya God will certainly punish him ; تياد د امثق راج اكى ديكر tiäda de ampun räja akan dikkuu the king will not pardon thee.

When this particle, being prefixed to the verb, is placed in a state of contrast or antithesis to the same verb with the transitive or intransitive prefix, it conveys a passive sense, as aiang menïlik dan iang de tïlik he who favours and he who is favoured;

 بري u jeka mātì àng memrī ataut iang de brī if either the giver or he to whom it was given, be dead.

When the verb to which it is prefixed is followed by the directive dillilih by or through, it likewise assumes a passive form, although the sense is active, as ستله د دثراوهل ران se-telah de danğar uulihe räja as soon as it was heard by the king, or, the king had heard; ; مكن هندتله د ثارؤ
 narik'ītu war ought to be waged by the khalif, or, the khalif ought to wage war against those people.

The particle however is not essential to this passive form, for they say, in the imperative mood, بوت اوله كام büat ülih kāmu be it done by thee, for, do thou.

When it is preceded by دثر dañgan with, درثد deri-pada from, and some other directives, it causes the verb to assume the character of a
participial noun, as برار يخ جاد دثن د ديرس bārang īang jādi dañãan de dīris any (grain) produced by irrigation; دثر د دهجمان dañgan de sahajajnia with design, purposely; دثر د تصدكنث كبال dañgan de kesad-kan-nia kambāli with the intention of returning; درثد د لهـت اورغُ يحْ هلت اكى لي دي deri-pada de līat ōrang iang halat akan diya from being seen by men who are not related to her ; كارب د جول kārna de jūal for the purpose of selling or of sale.

A peculiar change in the construction attends the employment of this particle, viz. that the pronoun personal or other agent is made uniformly to follow the verb, and the subject generally to precede it and the particle, as حكت همب د سور راج jeka amba de süruh rāja if the king should order me; كرلثر تيدن دماكى بسي külit-nia tïdak de mäkan besi his skin the iron would not penetrate.

The following sentence containing examples of several forms or inflexions of the verb, may serve to exercise the learner in the application
 jekalau terbit fajar tatkāla iya mākan maka andak-lah de būang-kan-nia bärang iang ada de-dālam mülut-nia sopàya jānğan ter-parlan nuakānan $\bar{i} \nmid x$ kamedīan deri-pada süang if the dawn should appear while he is eating, he ought to throw away whatever is in his mouth, that the victuals may not be swallowed after day-light; (at the commencement of a fast).

## Adterbs or Modals.

Adverbs are words employed to modify the action of verbs and the qualities of nouns, denoting the circumstances of time, place, condition, degree, \&cc. under which they appear in a sentence.

That all adverbs and other indeclinable words, as they are termed, have gradually been formed from other parts of speech, has been ably shewn by an acute grammarian of the present day, and his theory, if it wanted support, would receive it amply from an analysis of the modale of this language, there being few instances in which their derivation from verbs, adjectives, or nouns (particularly the two former) is not more or less apparent. At the same time it may be suggested, that whatever they were in their original state, having gone through the stages of corruption and reproduction, their nature is no longer the same, and having assumed nerv and useful functions, it would be unfair to exclude them from ranking next in order to those more important species of words whose origin does not admit of being so distinctly traced.
It has become a practice, though perhaps an unnecessary one, because encroaching on the province of a dictionary, to enumerate in grammars all the adverbs (as well as other indeclinables) that are found in a language. In the Malayan this cannot be done with any precision, their numbers, from the facility of their derivation, being almost unli. mited ; but those in most current use shall be given ander three general heads, as adverbs of time, of place, and miscellareous, instead of branching them into a more detailed variety.

Adverbs of Time.

 bantar lāgi presently, جوڭث jūga, جو jūa still, بلم balúm not yet, كمدين kamedīan afterwards, سلع sedang, 'سلع selang, whilst, 'سراي serāya àt once, then, ثرنه pernah, ot penah ever, مكن maka ere, 'كائ kādang, lārang-kāli sometimes, ثارثّ pāgi to-morrow, اثكثال apa-kāla;
 tatkāla, سلكين , سكتبك se-katīka then, at the time wheneian so often as.

## Of Place.


 ka-mārī hither, لy lālu past, س̂̀ع se-panjang along, انس atas above,
 \& sabrang over, beyond. The six latter are employed as directives or prepositions also.

## Miscellaneous.

U demekīan thus, in this manner, بكلكن bagīnitu so,



 tainly, تراتر ter-utama especially, بو bahwa whereas.

A more useful distinction of adverbs arises from the manner of their formation, and they may accordingly be considered, with the exception of those whose origin cannot now be traced, under the following classes, viz.

Words belonging to other parts of speech adverbially employed without any change in their form ; as بايق bāik well (properly, good), بايق
 billa اثكالapa-käla when (properly, what time).

Words rendered adverbial by duplication; as P تيب tïla-tība accidentally (from تيب tība to arrive), Prū̄rī̄ehūrī by stealth (from جوري chūrī to steal), 「 ganti-ganti by turns, interchangeably (from


 loudly, vociferously (from $\dot{\varepsilon}$ 审 gärang loud). In this way the adverb is more commonly formed from verbs than from adjectives, because the duplication of the latter is sometimes employed to denote an excess of the quality or sort of superlative degree, as ${ }^{\mathrm{P}} \mathrm{r} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { r }}$ ب besár-besár very great.

Adverbs produced by the application of particles to words belonging to other parts of speech, and especially to adjectives. The particles thus used are $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ we and $\boldsymbol{y}$ ber prefixed and $\boldsymbol{0}^{\circ}-a n$ annexed. By the first of these, which is the most regular adverbial sign, the same effect is produced as by adding the syllable ly to English adjectives, as سبر sebenar truly, from بنر henar true, سبتل se-betul rightly, سبلن se-ganap completely, سلاير se-lā̀n differently, سبابي se-bāniak as many as, läma as long as, and verbs, as سكتيكت se-katīka whilst, from katika point of time,

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تثغلل ting̈ggal to leave, سكورؤز se-körang-körang at the least, from كور körang to want, سراس se-rāsa as if, like as, from راس rāsa feeling, tact, لكو lākūu manner, conduct; if the two latter examples should not rather be sa-rāsa and $s n-l \bar{a} k \bar{u}$, and the particle be supposed a contraction of j sāma together, alike, or of سات sätu one, as is more evident in the word سرؤب sa-rūpa alike, or, having one and the same appearance.

Adverbs made by prefixing this particle wse are not uncommonly put into the possessive form by annexing the personal pronoun ania (see p. 49), as سثاتوتث se-patūt-nia properly, ستغّوهث se-sung̃gūh-nia truly, and by the pliability of this language become a sort of adverbial nouns, as دثر سثاتوتث dang̈an se-patūt-nia according to propriety, دغ dangan se-sung̃gūh-nia with truth, or, in good earnest. Future instances will occur of this conversion of one part of speech into an. other.

بر ber, which is in common the sign of the intransitive verb, is also employed adverbially, as برول ber-mūla (but more usually mūla) at first, P برتورت ber-tūrut-tūrut consecutively, Pبرلتن ber-gantiganti interchangeably.
$\bullet^{*}-a n$, which is employed in the formation of verbal nouns (see p. 33) is also sometimes annexed to various words in forming adverbs,

 pantas-an expertly, adroitly, from tomantas quick, expert; بنسامس ber-säma-samä-an together, in company, from سāma together, alike. But this last derivative word assumes also (without the duplication) the character
character of a noun, as جكت ان برسما’ن انتار كدوان jeka ada berasamāan antāra ka-duā-nia if there be an equality between them, برسها’. بهاي دان. mer-samā-an bhāya dan salāmat an equality of danger and safety.

Many adverbs are subject to degrees of comparison like adjectives, as
 daulū-kan sūdāra bāpa perampūan deri-pada sūdāra ībī̀ the brother of the wife's father (may see her) preferably to the brother of her mother.

## Prepositions or Directites.

Prepositions, so called from their usually preceding the words to which they are related in the sentence, may in respect of their employment (which is that of pointing out the direction of movement to or from an object, or the coincidence of position with it), be termed directives.

Not admitting of discretional formation from other parts of speech, like the adyerb, their number is more definite, and they may without inconvenience be detailed, though not precisely, as some of them partake so much of an adverbial signification as to render their class doubtful.

It may be proper in the first place to particularise certain prepositions of very general use, which are commonly employed in composition or in conjunction with other prepositions, with adverbs, or particles. These are,

د de at, in, on; as د كاكي كُنـع de kākī gūnong at the foot of the mountains; د د دالث بوكت de bälik bükit at the back of the hills; د ثنتي لاوت de pantei lāūt at or on the sea-beach.

When connected with other prepositions it modifies their signification and serves to form new prepositions, which are likewise formed by its junction with adverbs and some other words, as $x \mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{v}$ de-bärvah beneath,

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 de-blākang behind, $ل$ de-dālam within, $د$ db ل de-lüar without, outside of, $\begin{aligned} \text { U } \\ \text { d de-sabrang on the other side of (a river). But when joined }\end{aligned}$ with adverbs, the sense of the compound word is often adverbial; as 6
 Ska to, unto, coalesces with the word to which it is prefixed, as كثاسر ka-pāsar to the bazar, كتيّر ka-tīmor to the east, كتاس ka-tāman to the garden. In the same manner as the foregoing it is connected with other prepositions and with adverbs, and follows similar rules, as كــاتس $k a$-ātas up to, to the top of, $x$ y $k a-b a \bar{w} w a h$ to the bottom of (implying the motion or direction upwards and downwards), SR كاداثن $k a$-adāp-an to the front, into the presence of. So also when connected with adverbs, the sense commonly becomes adverbial, as eh ka-māna whither, كسان $k a-s a ̈ n a t h i t h e r$, \&ec.
$\mathcal{J}$ der from, does not coalesce with the words to which it has imp.
 the interior country, unless when united with adverbs of place, in order to form new modals and directives, as دراتس deri-ātas from above or upon, در . 0 derimāna from whence, درسان deri-säna from thence; which in pronunciation seem to be compound words, though it must be remarked that the, $r$ being in itself an unconnected letter, we cannot readily acertain whether a syllable ending therewith does or does not coalesce in writing with that which follows. The same observation applies to the preposition $\checkmark d e$, which is also an unconnected letter, but as a syllable it may be inferred to coalesce from the compound word being sometimes


- The tro foregoing prepositions ك $k a$ to, and deri from, when placed before nouns or verbs, are commonly associated with another peculiar preposition, ثد pada, which appears however to be expletive and not to alter the signification, as كثد روon ka-pada rumah to the house,
 lāñ̃it from the sky, درثد سبب ايـت deri-pada sebâb ītu from that cause, درثد مغُّابسكن هرتاث deri-pada meng-ābis-kan artā-nia from having consumed his property. It is more particularly employed in forming the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs, as انيله تغثُ درثد لايـ inīlah ting̃gi deri-pada lā̀̄n this is higher than the other; دهول درثد زمان. ايت
 live a solitary life. When used as a separate preposition it signifies to, at, for (but never froni), as ثد ماس ايـت pada mäsa ìtuc at that time; كواس ثد ; لايق ثد جباتنر عثالهك نگري $k$ kwāsa pada meng-ālah-kan negrī able to conquer, or, to the conquest of the country; بلج ثد سكل هاري حاجي balanja pada segala $\bar{a} r \bar{\imath} h \bar{a} j \bar{\imath}$ money for the expence of every day's pilgrimage. It is also frequently introduced between the verb and the noun in its objective and even in its subjective sense, where in our language a preposition. would not be thought necessary, as تولعٌ ثدكت tōlong pada-ku assist me; مهو ج anıpunī-lah pada marīk'ītu pardon those people thenūuji pada allah to praise God.

س $s a$, which appears to be a contraction either of سأم sāma together, alike, or of سلعت sātu one, is employed only in composition and then conveys a signification of union or unity, as سنام sa-nāma namesake, 'سكهند sa-ka-andak of one mind, B. b

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سكال sa-käli at once, سرؤ sa-rūpa having similar appearance. The words thus compounded become adverbs, and in some instances it is difficult to distinguish this contraction from the adverbial particle w se, before noticed.

اورlilih by, per (Lat.) is peculiarly used in changing the form of the verb from active to passive, as بوت الم būat ulih-mu be it done by thee, for, do thou; بِ امبل اوه ارج ايت de ambel ūlih räja ìtu there was taken by the king, for, the king took.

The other most common prepositions are as follows, viz. S akan to,




 in opposition to, بالن bälik on the other side of, behind, قدر kadar about, circiter, last preposition, which is familiarly used in Sumatra before the objective case, as بار سلا تون كام bäwa semā tūan kāmu carry to your master; but it does not often occur in writing, and when it does, seems to be identified with سام sāma together or along with, as in جكلو ثد سام تثه جالن jekalau pada säma tañah jälan if at or about the middle of the road.

The words lارو8 bāwah under, لور lüar out, سيسي sīsì .beside, by the side, سبله sa-blálh on one side, and some others, do not acquire the force of prepositions unless when in connection with de, دderi, as دلاورا de-lāwah beneath, دلور de-lūar without, دبلكي de-blākang behind, de-sa-bláh on one side of, د سبله ka-ätas to the top of, up to, , deri-lūar from out.

## Conjunctides.

Conjunctives are employed to denote the connexion in sense between words not immediately dependant upon each other in construction, and between different clauses or members of the same sentence.

Instead of the customary distinctions of copulatives, disjunctives, discretives, adversatives, causals, exceptives, and other classes almost as numerous as the individual words arranged under them, but which do not appear to answer any purpose of grammar, they may be summarily divided into direct and indirect conjunctives, according to their respective properties.

The direct conjunctives are دأن dan and, and atau or, which serve to unite two or more words standing in equal relation, or parts of. a sentence grammatically independant of each other, as مياري دأن بولن mata-ārī dan bülan sun and moon ; أمس اتو הيرى amas atau pērak gold or silver ; سيع اتو مالم sīang atau mälam day or night; منت بإيق دان تريم minta bāniak dan terìma sedīkit säja to ask for much and receive a little only. It may be remarked that the preposition دثر
 anğgör dañgan ayer wine with water, for, wine and water.

All other conjunctives may be considered as indirect, connecting words in unequal relation, and parts of sentences between which a contingent dependance is inferred, as سدغ كلو بايق sedang kalau bäzk sufficient if good ; نمت هدب باير هوتغ كام كلو جوكث واغ همب nanti amba bäyer ütang kāmu kalau cinūkup wāng amba I shall pay your debt if (or provided that) my money be sufficient ; جاغث كام براءكع ملهكن دغٔ كارن مُّورغ jäñ̈an
jāñ̈gan kānux ber-añgkat meleinkan dañgan kārvan s'ōrang do not set out on your journey unless with a companion.

The indirect conjunctives may be enumerated as follows, viz. جك






 sambil, سلـ selang whilst, سراي seräya then, at the same time, withal, al māūu whether, كاس māsa what though, צراغن garāñ̆gan, انته antah forsooth? an? nonne? تاكل tāgal, كارن kārna, سبب scbáb because.

Whatever may have been the origin of the two direct conjunctives, which from their obvious use must have occurred very early in the progress of language, little doubt can exist that the others (as well as adverbs and prepositions) were originally nouns or verbs, or phrases -which for the sake of brevity in utterance have been contracted; as already noticed in treating of the adverb. Thus the word oلينك meleinkan unless, is properly a verb signifying " to change," and that verb is a derivative from لاين lāīn, an adjective signifying "other, different."

It is not uncommon to employ together, without any apparent advantage to the sense, two conjunctives, each of the same meaning. This happens more particularly where one of the synonimous words is borrowed from the Arabic, as اكرن سبب , كار agar sopāya in order that kārna sebáb because, مهدان نول sahadān puila moreover.

Interjections or Exclameations.
Interjections are sudden expressions of feeling, for the most part unconnected with other words in discourse. Not unfrequently, however, they are found in the same relation to nouns and personals as in other languages, where they are considered as signs of the vocative case,
 some instances, as will be seen in the following enumeration, the exclamation itself consists of more than one word.

ي $y \bar{a}$ or $\bar{a} \bar{a} 0!$ (invocation and intreaty); ايو ay $\bar{u}$ oh! (affection); اله adoh, الووهي adōh-ī oh! alas! (pain, grief); هي hei oh! alas! (grief,


 ing) ; وله roallahi by God! (This and most other imprecations are


 garäng-an prithee! nay! (solicitation).

## Particles.

Although the application of most of the inseparable particles employed in the formation of derivative words, has been already shewn when treating of those words to which they respectively attich, yet as some of them still remain unexplained, and their importance in the structure of the language gives them a claim to be considered as a part of speech, they shall be here collected in one point of view, with the

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distinction only of particles prefixed and particles annexed. In order to avoid unnecessary repetitions, it will be sufficient, in the instances of those already explained, to refer to the places where the examples will be found.

## Particles Prefixed.

14 بر ber is employed as the sign of the intransitive verb (p. 56), and also in the formation of adjectives from nouns (p. $3^{8}$ ), and of adverbs (p. 90).

0 men, $=0$ meng, p me (being modifications of the same particle) are employed as the signs of the transitive verb (p. 52).
Hèn, tong, pem, the (being modifications in like manner of the same particle) are employed in forming derivative nouns, which commonly express the agent or instrument (p. 34).
f per, ل d pel are also used in the formation of derivative nouns, which signify for the most part the action or the place, and partake of the intransitive and passive, as the former particles do of the transitive quality of verbs (p. 34).
j ter is the sign of the passive participle in verbs (p. 61), and of thesuperlative degree in adjectives (p. $3^{8}$ ).
$\checkmark$ de expresses the indefinite time in verbs (p. 69), and is also a preposition (p. $\mathbf{9 1}^{1}$ ).
isa is employed in the formation of verbal and other derivative nouns, which take at the same time the annexed particle $\bullet^{\circ}$ an ( $\mathrm{p}, 33$ ).

When prefixed to numerals it expresses the ordinal (p.41) ; and it is also an inseparable preposition (p. 92).

W lah, as a prefix seems to be only a contraction of the adverb
telah past or done, and is applied to express the past time in verbs and
 she has miscarried. The form is however colloquial, and rarely, if ever, occurs in correct writing.
$\mathbf{v}$ se is employed to give an adverbial sense to words, whether primitive or derivative, in any other part of speech, as سبنرى se-benar-nia truly, from بر benar true; هبرارسن se-hārus-nia properly, from هارسى hārus proper; rem se-mäna-mäna any where, wherever, from of mäna where; سبروg se-ber-mūla in the: first place, from commence. There is also a particle written $س s a$ and $L \bar{L} s \bar{a}$, which is a contraction from سات sätu one, and of سات säma alike, as sa-läpis single, from لآش läpis fold;芜 $s u-\bar{a} t \bar{t}$ with one accord, from ها
It may be remarked that in these prefixed particles the supplementary vowel $\alpha$ فi fat-hah is pronounced as a short $e$ and not as an $a$, excepting in the instances of $\leqslant k a$ and $\downarrow l a h$, and in a few words implying titles of office, where $ث$ is pronounced pang, as pang-ūlu a superintendant, and not as in in peng-ïbur a comforter.

## Particles Annexed.

5 kan is a sign of the verb transitive, and is usually annexed where the particle oomen or e-meng is or might be prefixed (p. $5^{2}$ ).
ي $\bar{\imath}$ is employed in the same manner, and has the same transitive power as the preceding particle (p. $5^{2}$ ).
${ }_{4}$ an belongs to the formation of verbal and other derivative nouns, to which the particle $ك k a$ or $\hat{\jmath}$ per is commonly prefixed (p.33).
$\$$ lah, if it be not merely expletive, may be considered as giving determination

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mination to the word to which it is annexed, and be called an intensitives particle, as ini-lah this (which I point to), نبله marī-lah come!

$\delta k a h$ is an interrogative particle that may be annexed to words in any part of speech that become the subject of a question', as رجاكه rajā-kah is it the king? " لاينكه atau lǟn-kah or another? انته هندت يِ بونهالكه أك antah andak de bünoh-niā-kah aku I know not whether it be his intention to kill me.
d tah is likewise an interrogative, and seems not to differ in its application from the preceding particle, as detoren meñapátah wherefore? كana-manā-tah whither?
© nia, ك $k u$, ; $m u$, $k a u$, although already described as contracted personal pronouns, yet being annexed in the manner of other inseparable particles, and producing in common with them a prosodial effect to be hereafter described, are included in this enumeration.

ثور puin is annexed indifferently to words in all the parts of speech, seeming to be generally expletive and to serve only for giving roundness to the phrase, as كامثغثون سكـ kāmī-pūn suka we are pleased; ميـغ ثون تيلت مالم ثور تيلى sīang pūn tīdak màlam pūn tīdak it was not day, neither was it night; هكتُ سواتثون تيان naka suātu-pūn tiäda but there was not one; tiya pūn iung tāu he it is who knoweth. Adverbs are formed in a few instances by the addition of this particle, as
 to affect the prosodial quantity, and therefore, although frequently cannected in writing with the preceding-word, it may be doubted whether it should in strictness be considered as an annexed particle.
a nda is an addition to words expressive of relationship, in the courtly
courtly style, in order to distinguish them from the ordinary appellations, and is, in a grammatical view redundant, as àe àyanda for à āyah father; انكند انكد anakanda, and sometimes, for anak child;
 younger brother or sister, or, figuratively, lover and mistress, as in the Canticles, "my sister, my beloved!"

The changes that take place in the consonants of primitive words upon prefixing particles, and which seem chiefly designed to prevent a harsh concurrence of sounds, have already been explained in treating of the verb and verbal noun, but those which, upon annexing particles, affect the place and length of the vowels, are more properly the subject of prosody and will be found under that head. Their regular adjustment serves, more than any other criterion, to distinguish the degree of correctness in writing the language.

## Of Sintix.

Having treated of words individually and the classes to which they are referable, we come now to speak of their construction in sentences, or that part of grammar called Syntax, and by the Arabians and Malays


The characteristic of the Malayan construction is simplicity, the words assuming in general that order which we may conceive to belong to the natural course of ideas. The rules of syntax must therefore be few, and where there are no inflexions, no changes of termination to denote case, gender, or number, there cannot be concords, in the sense of the Latin grammarians. The connexion of the words with each other is ascertained partly from their own nature, and partly from their relative

D d
position,
position, which answers the ends of regimen; and consequently there can be no arbitrary dislocations to exercise skill in collecting the scattered members of a sentence.

The necessity also for going into much detail in this place is diminished in consequence of most of those rules having been already noticed in treating of the different parts of speech to which they have reference. For the purpose, however, of bringing them into one point ofview, they shall be here repeated with as much brevity as possible.

The nominative case, or noun or pronoun denoting the agent, in general construction precedes the verb, and the noun or other word which is the subject of the action or the object to or from which it is directed, generally follows the verb, as كود ماكن رهعـت küda mäkan rumput a horse eats grass, دي تاله جالن diya tāu jälan he knows the road, راه برألثكت
 درلاغثـت

But under certain circumstances, as when the verb is preceded by the indefinite particle $د$ de, the word denoting the agent is made to follow, and the subject to precede the particle and verb, as كبون هـب د روسق ڭاجه $k a b \bar{u} n a m b a$ de rüsak gājah my plantation the elephants have ruined, د دساث د شكس اللג

In the interrogative form of the indicative the agent may either precede or follow the verb, as درهان داتغ كام deri-māna dātang kānu from whence come you? كمان تون ثركث ka-māna tūan pergi whither are you going? In the subjunctive or conditional, as in the indicative or assertive mood, the agent usually precedes, as جكت تون ماو داتع jeka tūan māū dātang if you chuse to come; yet by an allowable inversion it sometimes follows, as سڤفلي برچري هوسه sopāya ber-cherrei müsuh that the enemy may disperse.

In the imperative the agent almost ever follows the verb, as باغنلd الغك,
 $k a t \bar{a}-k u$ ini hear ye these my words! It is likewise not uncommon in grave discourse to separate the personal pronoun from its immediate
 as $k$ كات $k$ âta ulih-mu be it said by thee, for, " say thou." The agent is found however in some instances to precede the imperative, especially where the command is circumstantial, as دان كوڤندغ اكن دي دثن مات هتيم dan kau-pandang akan diya dañgan māta atī-mu and do thou look stedfastly to Him with the eyes of thy heart. The imperative may also be employed without any pronoun or other agent being expressed, as pülang se-bantar inni return this instant; ثولغ سبنراير mākan sit down, eat.

In the passive, which is properly a participial form of the verb (as in English), the noun of suffering commonly precedes the participle, and seems in strictness to be a nominative case to the verb substantive understond, as هـب تراجر اله צروك amba ter-äjar ūlih gurū-hu I am taught by my religious instructor, where هدب اد تراجر amba ada ter-äjar would be the more regular, though less usual mode of expression. The noun of action in this form is separated from any immediate connexion with the verb, by the intervention of the prepositions اوله ülih or deri-pada by or from, as in Latin "per magistrum meum," or "a magistro meo." But the noun of suffering may also be made to follow the participle, and the noun of action, with its prepositions, to go before, as اوه צروك تراجر هuبulilh gurü-ku ter-äjar amba.

The noun, in simple construction, precedes and is immediately fotlowed by its qualitive, as اور

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mädang luwas an extensive plain; but they may also be separated
 babal a person who is ignorant, كيلت ئث تُكس kilat iang tang kas sharp
 lēbar a wide road; by which the existence of the quality is more strongly expressed than if the pronoun were omitted. Under some circumstances the qualitive may be placed before the noun, particularly when it is the emphatic word of the sentence or subject of the assertion, as بسر رألئي رأ besár mälegei räja great is the king's palace, بايت نام هـب bā̄k näma amba good is my reputation; in which expressions the verb substantive ol ada is understood, and would, without the inversion, have the effect of detaching the qualitive from its noun. But if the sentence be analysed we shall find that it easily resolves itself into the general rule, for without an ellipsis it would be نام هnب اد نام باين näma amba ada näma bā̄k my reputation is a good reputation.

The qualitive of a noun understood may in like manner precede the noun expressed, as ساتك suākit äti sick (at) heart; where the person to whom the word säkit applies is the noun understood; بوت مانت سبله būta māla sa-bláh blind (of) an eye; ; لمبت كدناثْ lambut ka-datāng-an slow (in) coming; هين بلي hīna budī mean (of) intellect; or thus with an intervening preposition; tīt täkut akan mänusiya afraid of mankind (the name of the sensitive plant or mimosa); مابق دثن منوّن
 deri-pada ka-menāng-an joyful from victory.

Numerals (which it has been thought right to distinguish from adjectives or qualitives) usually precede the noun, as انم انمؤن anam bülan six months, توجه ثثكت اثـ ناركث tüjuh panğgkat äpi närka the seven stages
or gradations of hell-fire. It is not uncommon to make them follow the noun, as بورغُ المثر būrong ampat four birds, لمبس سراتس lembiu sa-rātus an hundred oxen, روعه لو rümah dūa two houses; but in this situation
 and connect themselves with the numerals, according to a peculiar idiom already described in treating of that class of words. In imitation of numerals, with which they are so nearly allied, adjectives of multitude generally precede the noun, as سكل ثوهن كايو segala pūhn kāyūu every timber-tree, بايت اورغُ كدتاغ̂ bāniak ōrang ka-datāng-an many persons are coming; but they may indifferently be made to follow. The ordinal numbers should always follow the noun, as هاري كتيخ $\bar{\alpha} \bar{i}$ ka-tīga, or, still better with the article, هاري يـع كتيـث $\overline{\text { àriz }}$ iang ka-tīga the third day, كي今ُث هاري , $k a-t \bar{g} a \bar{a} r i \bar{i}$ would be understood to signify " the three days," and كلو هاري ka-dūa ārī " both days."

When two nouns stand together without an intervening verb, the former is generally to be understood as the subject of possession, and the latter as the possessor, which in Latin would appear in the genitive or possessive case, as بند راع benda räja the treasures of the king, or, the
 حهاي مثهاري chäya mata-ārī the brightness of the sun. In such combinations as جاور امس chāwan amas a vessel of gold, كوت بات kōta bātu a fortress of stone, توكُ بسي tūkang besì a worker of iron, ايكّ لالوت inkan lāūt sea-fish, راج جن. rāja jin a king of demons, بنو هيرن benūa chīna the country of China, تانه جاو tānah jäwa the land of Java, although possession is not strictly implied, the latter words would equally appear as genitives in languages admitting of the distinction of eases. Certain
nouns may, however, stand in connexion with proper names and titles, without partaking of any possessive sense, as تون ثتري tūan putrī the. princess, نبي مكمد nabī muhammed the prophet Mahomet, راج اسكنلر räja iskander the king Alexander; and synonimous words standing for the same object must of course be excepted; such as untan rimba belantāra, which signify a waste tract of country overrun with woods; تيري كلبو tìrei kalambū the curtains (of a sleeping apartment).

A verb in the infinitive mood immediately following a noun, partakes of the nature of a possessive noun, and becomes subject to the same rules, as تند براهي tanda berāhī a token of loving, رومه برماين rūnah ber$m \bar{a} \imath n$ a house to play in, or, a play or gaming house.

When a pronoun personal directly follows the noun, whether annexed or otherwise, simple possession is implied, being the ordinary mode of
 or in the contracted form, رومع rūmah-mu your house, هرتأث artā-nia his effects, بالـ كالمي bāpa kāmī our father.

When any one of the three contracted personal pronouns, ك $k u$, $p$ $m u$, nia is annexed to 2 verb, it changes its verbal quality to that of
 formably to this your opinion ; تياد لايق روت ثاكيل tiāda lāyik rūpa pākeinia the style of his dress is not becoming ; سفرت بايغ جوثّ ادان seperti bāyang jūga adā-nia like a mere shadow is his existence; 3 ثركير دان داتغث اورغ ايس tiäda ka-tantū-an pergīnia dan dātang-nia ōrang it $t u$ there is no certainty respecting the goings and comings of that man.

The natural order of words being so little deranged in this language, the occasion for any signs of agreement between the relative and its antecedent is scarcely perceived, and their concord, like those already described,
described, is known only by position. The pronoun īang, when employed as a relative, may be said generally to refer to the last preceding noun, as اورغ كلي اتو برعلم انو بديمان يـع تياد لايت ثربواننى ōrang kāya atau ber-ìlmu atau budīmän īang tiāda lāyik per-būāt-an-nia men rich, or learned, or wise, whose actions do not correspond. Here its antecedent is اورع ōrang men, from which it is separated by the intervening qualitives; but most usually it is itself the next following word; as منولع ڤرمثُون يـعٌ امثور لاكث سدل مانت menōlong perampūan īang ampūnia lāki sudah mäti to assist a woman whose husband is dead.

The interrogative pronouns naturally precede the word which conetitutes the subject of inquiry, as أف نمام apa namā-mu what is thy name? the verb substantive الد ada is, being understood; سياث اليع siäpa
 the interrogative may be preceded by words connected with it in signifi-
 كهعر gampar apa īang ku-dañgar what clamour is it I hear? Or with an interrogative particle annexed, as ثرلو اثاته ايـت pülau apā-tah ītu what island is that? انن سيڤاكه ايكن anak sīapā-kah īni whose child is this?

Adverbs or modals as applied to modify the action of verbs, usually follow them in construction, as كاص speak slowly; ننـت مبنتر nanti sabantar wait awhile; ; الي تاء مnباج بايق iya tāu nem-bācha bā̄k-bā̄̄k he knows how to read well; مفلع هابس سكال sudah äbis sakāli entirely finished. But they may also precede the verb and its nominative case, as سنتياس اي داتـغ كاري santīāsa iya dātang kamārī continually he comes hither; بارو مسارغ بيست سبڤفي blāāū sakārang bēta sampei it is but just now that I arrived.

As applied to adjectives they oalmost always precede in regular construction,
struction, as ترلاز باكخن ter-lälu bägus extremely handsome, مباغڤس ڤاهـت sāñ̃at päit very bitter, هـرْ مات ampir mäti nearly'dead; but an emphasis is sometimes given to the degree of quality, by letting the adverb follow the adjective, as بسر'ترلال ساث̂ت besár ter-lālu sāñ̈at most eminently
 wäng bäniak amat too much money.

The variety of adverbs being unlimited, with many idiomatic anoma. lies, there is much latitude in the modes of applying them to these as well as to other parts of speech, the knowledge of which must be acquired by practice in the language; such for instance as سام رات sāma rāta on a' footing of equality, مام مانسُي sāma mānusīa fellow-man, يـع مان گُراثن
 why not? سرت ثرُّ serta pergi to go together. The term lf mahä, eminent or eminently (borrowed from the Sanskrit) is never used as a distinct word, but-only in composition, as ceme mahä-besár eminently great, glorious. Thus also it is more usual, though less correct, to write مهراع maharäja than $\quad$ ماراج $m a h \bar{a}-r a ̄ j a$.

Prepositions or directives are, in their most regular and ordinary application, placed after the verb and before the noun, serving to denote the course of the action as it respects the object, either to it, from it, by it, or in any other imaginable direction; as برجالن كثد نگري ber-jālan kapada negri to walk to the town; دسورهى اكى اتوس ايست de sūruh-nia akan utūs-an $\bar{i} t u$ he gave orders to the ambassadour; ان ثداكت ada padā-ku there is to me, or I have; اد ثد راج ايسع سبول نغري ada pada rāja ìtu sabūah negrī there is to that king, or, to that king belongs a city ; همبز ي كلور ; mem-bri hormat bagi allah to give honour unto God
 from the warehouse; منريّ درثف تاثن هيט men'rima deri-pada tāngan laki-
 masūk-nia ka-dālam astāna he entered into the palace; دثراركث بركليلَ نُريّ de per-arak-nia ber-kotiling negrì he proceeded in triumph round the city ; دثربوت ارله وكيلن de ber-büat' ülih zoikil-nia acted by his representative; تربث ا, ترك كـكلآت terbang arah ka-salätan to fly towards the south.
ESuch is the manner of employing prepositions in their plain significations, directed to material or sensible objects; but in the progress of language they seem to have been transferred from thence and applied by analogy to verbs and other subjects of the understanding, to which an ideal locality is thereby attributed; as أي هندق اكى برليار iya andak akan ber-läyer he intends to sail ; دنورنث كی هندي de türun-nia akan mandī they went down to bathe; برحاكثّ اكن ڤركرجاُن ber-chākap akan per-karjäan to shew an alacrity for work ; تاكت درثد هرك الله tākut deri-pada morka allah afraid of the wrath of God; ;رْنتي درثد برثارغ pada ber-pärang to desist from fighting; ترجث ter-chāninang deri-pada me-läat astonished at seeing; انتار ان دان تياد antära ada dan
 nianuània near to losing his life.

The two direct conjunctives, دان dan and, and atau or, must, as their use requires, stand between the words or parts of the sentence

 dan ber-suka-sukā-an to eat, and to drink, and to make merry ; برتيدر اتو . dرJ : meng-älah-kan mūsuh atau ber-tunduk ter-älah to conquer the
F.f enemy,
enemy, or to stoop to him, conquered. It may be proper to notice that the conjunctive دان being always pronounced short, although written with a long vowel, is throughout this Grammar and Dictionary written dan instead of dān.

Of the indirect conjunctives those which affect the verb in its conditional mood always precede it, as مثtلي كامي مراس sopāya kāmī me-rāsa that we may feel ; ملينك د لاريمن meleinkan de lārī-nia unless he run away; جكلو تون ماو برماين سان jekalau tūan māū ber-niā̀n sāja if you mean only to jest. Many are employed chielly to mark the commencement of a paragraph, and are often written in ink of a different colour, as مبرمول
 lāgi-pūn, تمباهن ثول tambāh-an pūla, ثهدان sahadān moreover, كهري ka-tā̄-ī be it known, كمدير درثد ايست kamadīan deri-pada ītu furthermore, subsequently to that ; and when a different part of the subject is taken up, مكت ترسبتله ڤركتا" $\quad$ maka ter-sebut-lah per-katā-an now it is related in the story. Others mark the beginning of sentences, of which ofaka is by much the most frequent, occurring, indeed, either as an adverb or a conjunctive, in almost every line, yet scarcely admitting of a translation. In the body of the sentence it may often be rendered by our
 balúm ada pūlang maka lā̄̄n ōrang dātang one person is scarcely gone ere another arrives; at the beginning, by " now, but, and," or any other expletive; the employment of many of these redundant words serving merely the purpose of distinguishing the sentences and parts of sentences from each other, in a language to which our system of pointing is unknown. Other conjunctives, as $j u \bar{g} a$ or jūa only, $\quad$, $j \bar{u} g a$ adā-nia thus alone it is, affect principally the close of periods, and like.
the former are for the most part expletive. For the mode of applying them properly or consistently with the received idioms, a moderate degree of practice will avail more to the learner than many rules.

Interjections or impassioned exclamations are not, in any language, considered as the subject of grammatical rules. In composition, however, which does not always represent the language of nature, they are thrown in (as the name imports) with such discretion as to prevent them from injuring, if they do not improve the construction of the sentence. The most common among them precede nouns or personal pronouns, in what would be termed the vocative case if these admitted of declension, and they frequently stand unconnected with any verb or other words, as
 باء كمـورغُ سكلين niah kam'örang sakulī-an away, all of you! Some follow the interrogative pronouns, as أت گُراثن كهندك apa garāng-an ka-andak$m u$ what, prithee, is thy wish? Many of them are imprecations of blessing or cursing, and in imitation of the Arabian style, are connected with the name of the Deity.

The foregoing observations apply chiefly to what grammarians consider as the first part of syntax, or that which relates to the agreement of words, as the second does to their government. This latter term implies an influence possessed by the one word capable of obliging another to conform to it in certain particulars, such as person, gender, and number; which conformity, in Latin and Greek, is usually expressed by the terminating syllable: but in a language where no influence of this kind prevails, nor any change takes place in the verb or the adjective in consequence of their connexion in sense with an antecedent nominative case or noun substantive, it cannot be said, with any practical or useful meaniag,

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meaning, that the one word governs or is governed by the other. The second part of syntax therefore is not applicable to the nature and construction of the Malayan language.

## Of Dialects.

The general uniformity of the Malayan written language has been elsewhere noticed, but the oral tongue, both in respect to pronunciation and the use of peculiar personal pronouns and other words, differs considerably in different parts of the East-insular region. What relates therefore to dialect applies more especially to the latter, although the former is not entirely exempt from variation in the orthography.

The most striking distinction of dialect is that of the mode in which the short vowel (usually denoted by fat-hah) which terminates a great proportion of the whole mass of words, is pronounced in different districts. At Malacca, Kedah, Trañggänu, and generally on the coasts of the peninsula, it has the sound of $a$, as in the words كوت amba همب köta, رات rāta, جثرگت jūga, whilst in the ancient kingdom of Menanğkäbru in Sumatra, as well as in the Malayan establishments along the coasts of that island, and even in the interior districts of the peninsula which acknowledge a political dependance on Menang̈käbau as the parent state (according to the interesting notice by Mr. Raffles, in his paper on the Malayu nation published in his Asiatic Researches) these words and others of the same description are made to terminate with 0 , and are pronounced ambo, kōto, rāto, kapālo, jūgo. But however the question of originality may be decided, the claim of superior authority, arising from a more enlarged intercourse with the rest of the world and consequent cultivation and refinement, must be allowed to the
dialect
dialect of Malacca; and with regard to European philology, it has been in a great measure fixed by many valuable publications under the sanction of the late Dutch East-India Company, whose servants had opportunities of perfecting their knowledge of the language at those places where it is held to be spoken in the most correct idiom.

Other distinctions of dialect may be perceived in the following variations of orthography and pronunciation.


 twinkling, كرجت karchut for كرجت karjut an aquatic plant; of $b$ into جابست chāwang for جارغ chäbang a branch, جابع




 jāwap for جارت jāwat to receive in the hands; of $\dot{H} g$ into $\dot{\delta} k$ (or
 for كت ketta a couch, كندي kundī a water-pot, for بك bagi unto; the introduction of $\boldsymbol{p}^{m}$ or ${ }^{\boldsymbol{c}} \boldsymbol{n}$ at the end of the
 pāyan for تغاية tapāyan a large jar, كنتر kuntum for كوتم kūtum a bud,

 mintar for
 G $\mathbf{g}$ powder,
 سولق suiduk a spoon. It must be observed, that in many of these latter instances the word is more generally written with the inserted letter than without it.

Amongst the words whose pronunciation varies whilst their orthograph is fixed, we may enumerate qantas and lintas through, lambing and limbing a spear, lambong and limbong the flank, lambei and limbei to beckon, eves kambang and kumbang full blown as a flower, Sos kanchap and kunchap an unblown flower, $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ and chumar foul, mucilage, 5 Rena and kennei hit, ورن varna and (by a vulgar transposition) rūna colour, حرo hormat and romat honour, $\bar{j}$ art ī and rent $\bar{\imath}$ meaning, اربت arta and retta effects.

As being in some measure connected with the subject of dialect, it may not be thought irrelevant to notice in this place certain peculiarities in the language, however difficult it may be to account for them satisfactorily. The most obvious is that of the frequent, and as it may seem, unnecessary use, in writing, of the harsh Arabic letter 3 in the termination of indigenous words, which are, notwithstanding, commonly pronounced (unless in formal recitation) with a soft vowel sound, as tundu

 enter, mäsa for foumsak ripe, ana for ill anal child; conformably to the general smooth nature of the language; for, with the exception of this anomalous letter, it will be found that nineteen words out of twenty close either with a vowel, an aspirate, a nasal, or a liquid, and even where a mute occurs in that situation it is, in familiar discourse, softened
into a vowel or aspirate, as caneh for mas gold, dāreh for dārat the shore, kreh for كرس kras hard, külah for كرلت kūlat a measure,
 practice be a provincialism, it must be allowed that in the countries where it prevails the people speak a softer dialect than where either the mute letter or the hard guttural is retained in pronunciation.

The employment of the 3 as a final letter, although it is not found in any other part of a genuine Malayan word, we may presume from its universality to be as ancient as the introduction of the Arabic character, but we have no direct proof of its existence in the oral language of the Malays previously to that period. There are not wanting, however, some glimpses of light to direct our opinion as to its originality, if not in this, in some at least of its cognate tongues. Although not frequently occurring in the Batta, Rejang, Nīas, or Lampung languages of Sumatra and its neighbourhood, I find it to prevail in the dialects of the Philippines, particularly the Pampanga (of which, as well as of the Tagala, Bisaya, and Yloco, I possess copious dictionaries, both printed and manuscript), and what is not a little remarkable, it is found also in the dialect of the great East-Insular, or, as it has been termed, Polynesian language, spoken in the island of MADAGASCAR, where, for instance, the word anak child, is pronounced zanach, according to Flacourt, and annach, according to Drury's very genuine vocabulary ; ${ }_{j}$ olo māsak to boil, and also, ripe, is, in both these senses, massac; تون tūak the sweet juice of certain palms, is toak; chichak the house-lizard, is tsatsac; sunduk:a spoon, is sonrouc. These two authorities (and they are quoted in preference to that of vocabularies formed in later times by persons conversant with the Malayan) may be admitted
admitted as sufficient evidence of very high antiquity in the use of this termination, as it must have existed before the separation of the tribe which emigrated to an island situated at the western extremity of the Indian seas. Of its general prevalence in modern writing I am myself competent to speak, having in my possession a voluminous collection of the correspondence of two eminent merchants (Capt. Francis Light and Capt. James Scott) with the princes and chiefs (who, it is well known, are themselves all traders) in almost every country where the Malayan language is spoken.

Another peculiarity worthy of remark is an apparent disposition in the language to employ words nearly resembling, although actually differing in sound, but having no grammatical relation as derivatives or otherwise, to represent ideas closely connected with each other in signification. It is almost unnecessary to observe, that this is independant of the sameness in common orthography which frequently appears between words entirely remote in sense, and which should properly be, and sometimes are distinguished in writing by the application of supplementary vowels and orthographical marks, such as $\quad$. besi iron and $\quad$, bis $\bar{i}$ handsome ; بِّتْ bintang a star,
 bantan the name of a city called Bantam, and

 bülah the whole, and $\quad$, برَuluh the bambu-cane. These, in fact, prove nothing more than the inaptitude of the Arabian alphabet to express the sounds of a foreign language; for from that alone can arise any doubt respecting the sense of the words, their pronunciation being sufficiently
distinct; but in the following enumeration we shall observe approximations so near as to become almost equivocal, both of sound and sense, without any regard to the characters, whether Arabic or European, in which they may be written. This must necessarily be found embarrassing to the learner, but rather after he has made some progress in the language, and is able to cope with difficulties, than in the outset of his study.

Amongst many more instances that present themselves in the Dictionary it will be sufficient to point out some of the most striking; as لايو lày $\bar{u}$ to






 rindang shady, كِنُ bough; تله tagoh or tuggoh stout, firm, tagap stout, muscular; كايت kāāt a hook, crook, كايل kāāl angling, بالس bälas to make a return.

By persons superficially acquainted with the language, the difficulty of accounting for these approximations will be resolved in a summary way by supposing the one word to be a provincial corruption of the other; but I know them to exist in their separate meanings not only in. the same spoken dialect, but also in works quite unconnected with that dialect, and where the indiscriminate employment of the one for the other would destroy the sense of the passages where they occur.

H h

## Of Prosody.

Prosody is that part of grammar which treats of the accent and quantity or measure of syllables, and of their due arrangement in forming metrical composition, or verse as distinguished from prose.

## Of Quantity.

It will not be necessary here to enter into the question of the difference or the identity of accent and quantity, which has divided the learned world. With respect to the Malayan it is sufficient to observe, that long syllables, or syllables containing a long vowel, are generally, though not always accented, especially in a final syllable; that when the first syllable of a dissyllable or penultimate of a trisyllable is long, it is always accented, as بونه bünoh to kill, täkut afraid, that when both syllables are long, the former only has a perceptible accent, as y ما mālü ashamed, $m \bar{a} r \bar{n}$ come, تاري tü $\bar{\imath}$ deaf; that when both syllables are short, an accent is in general given to the first; or, it may be said, that in all doubtful cases the accent inclines to the former rather than to the latter syllable : as lambat slow, لمبـت ganti to change, كنل kanal to recollect, but in certain words, as بسر besár great, كملم kalúm not yet, a decided stress is laid upon the last. It must at the same time be observed, that the accent or syllabic emphasis in Malayan words is for the most part much less strong than in the languages of Europe.

It has already been stated that when particles are annexed to primitive wonds in order to form derivatives, a prosodiad change takes place, the long vowel being usually auppressed or rendered ahort ip the syllable to
which it belonged in the primitive, and a proportionate length of sound given to the short vowel of the other syllable. The rules by which these changes are governed being of importance to the due knowledge of the most artificial and delicate part of the language, must here be detailed with a minuteness which their utility alone can excuse.

By long vowels we are to understand, in our acceptation of the terms, the quiescent letters $\mid \bar{a}, \boldsymbol{u}$, and $\bar{z}$, and by their being rendered short is meant that they give place to their corresponding short or supplementary vowels, fat-hah, dammah, and kesrah, as will appear in some of the examples hereafter given; but as these people are in the habit (common also to the Persians and Turks, and even to the Arabians themselves) of neglecting to mark these supplementary characters in their writings, the vowel is in fact altogether omitted, and the sound only must be understood to remain in the pronunciation of the next preceding consonant. From the authority of such books as appear to be written with the most skill and precision, these rules are compiled, and they would be more perfect if the native writers were themselves more consistent with each other.

The most general rule, but admitting of exceptions as will hereafter appear, is, that upon annexing a particle, the long vowel in the first syllable of the primitive, if a dissyllable, or, if a trisyllable, in the penultimate (the situations where they usually occur), becomes short, and the short vowel (expressed or understood) in the second or last syllable becomes long. Thus كرن kūda a horse, when the contracted pronouns $n i a, \leqslant k u$, or $p m u$ are annexed in order to form the possessive, changes the, for its corresponding short vowel dammah, the fal-hah for its cor-
 kudā-ku
 to be, when San or \& lah are annexed, becomes جَديكن jadī-kan to cause to be or happen, or جَديله jadī-lah be thou! يات niäta evident,
 nia, becomes بِنير binī-nia his wife; and thus also in trisyllables, مَوس mieniūsu to suck, upon annexing $\bar{i}$, changes the, of the original penultimate for dammah, the dammah of the last syllable for, , and becomes مَسْوي meniusī̄i to suckle, and كَببال kambāli back again, upon annexing the particle كَبَليكن kanbali-kan to restore. .In those complex derivatives which are formed by the successive application of annexed particles, these particles themselves are affected by the same rule as the primitive and undergo a similar prosodial change. Thus when to the verb بوكَ büka to open, with the indefinite prefix د de, $\cdot$ are annexed the transitive particle $k$ Kan, the pronoun $n i a$, and the intensitive particle \& lañ, the combination becomes u niā-lah he opened it ; where $\uparrow$ or (as a medial) $\check{j}$, being followed by another particle, changes its short vowel for the 1 quiescent, in the same manner as the primitive word ; and so also, in a less complicated instance, كنل kanal recollect, becomes د كنلّلاله de kanal-niä-lah he recollected.

When it happens that the first syllable of the primitive, if a dissyllable, or the penultimate, if a trisyllable, does not contain a long vowel, that syllable remains unchauged; but if the last syllable also be short, the augment of quantity nevertheless takes place in it, as from •َثَ pada.

 تُنتوكن: 'tantū-kan to ascertain.

When the last syllable instead of being pure, or consisting of a con-
sonant and a vowel (as in the foregoing examples), is impure or mixed, consisting of a short vowel between two consonants of which the latter is mute; (or, as we should express it, more simply, when the word ends with a consonant), that vowel, whether the preceding syllable be long or short, does not become long in consequence of the annexing any particle
 forms بَبَل babal-nia his ignorance; بَبْ benar true, بَرْ benar-nia its

 forms تورتك türut-kan to follow ; yet under these circumstances, although the latter syllable cannot become long, the former, if long, may be short-
 the Lord, becomes تُتمْ tuhan-mu thy Lord ; داكثف dākap embrace, becomes د دكثيش de dakap-ìnia he embraced. In this, however, the native writers are not uniform, and they appear to write indifferently süruh-lah and سروهله surūh-lah give orders, , ساكتله säkit-lah iya and sakīt-lah iya he was sick; although the latter should not be considered as correct.

By annexing the particles ${ }_{\varphi}$ an and $i$, the last syllable of the word, whether mixed or pure, that is, whether ending with a mute consonant or with a vowel sound, becomes long; it being understood, in the former case, that the final consonant detaches itself from the mixed syllable, leaving it therefore pure, and connects itself with the particle; thus هاَنـ
 although if San were annexed, no change of quantity would take place, and the word would be "هاَّقْكَ pānas.hot, becomes كثناسש ka-panās-an heat; fíntor to arrange, becomes

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 annexed, becomes كسبرين sambüt-i to receive, as كنل kanal to recollect, becomes de kanāl-i-nia he recollected him, which with skan would be ${ }^{\text {S }}$ de kanal-kan-nia. It must be observed, that when the syllable preceding either of these two particles ends with the quiescent letters $I$, , or , the character ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) hamzah, equivalent to a short $a$, should be placed after such letter, especially the 1; or a ( ${ }^{-}$) teshdīd may be placed over the, or , which denotes their being repeated in the pronunciation;

 puji-an worship, and $p u j i-\bar{i}$ or or mode however is very unusual, and serves only to exemplify these elaborate niceties.

When both syllables contain long vowels, the former is shortened, and the latter remains unchanged, as from هإلٍ $\bar{l} l \bar{u}$ ashamed, is formed
 from oرير mārī hither, marī-lah come! from ثريه päkei to wear, .

When the word contains a short vowel in the former syllable, and a long vowel in the latter, both syllables remain unchanged, being already in the state adapted to receiving the particle, as sampei-kan to cause to arrive, from سیشي sampei to arrive; سقتين saktī-an power, from سقتي saktī powerful (by supernatural means) ; درسبركنف de serbī-kan-nia he rushed on, from سربو serbū to rush; ناه mencherrei-kan to separate (trans.) from ${ }_{\text {fرer }}$ cherrei to separate (intrans.).

Simple monosyllables consisting of two consonants with one intermediate short vorvel, should follow the rule given with respect to final syllables
syllables so constituted, and become long only when $\quad$ or are annexed; and when the intermediate vowel is already long, it should so continue; but words of this description are rare in the language, and derivatives from them scarcely, if ever, occur. It is necessary however to observe, that there are many words which in our orthography have the appearance of monosyllables, and seem to our organs to be so pronounced, but which are considered by the natives as being of two syllables. Amongst these the most obvious are words commencing with a mute and a liquid, as brī give, ثربي prì manner, برت brat heavy, برس bras rice, $\hat{\varepsilon}$, kring dry, بلس blas the decimal adjunct, blah split, which might without impropriety be written bĕrī, bĕrás, kĕring, bĕláhl, and they accordingly follow the rules of other dissyllables. So also the words, , mā̈ū to will (sometimes written olo māhū), 战 tāu to know (written tāhūu), ثاه thigh (written yرار pāwah), are not considered as being of one syllable only. It should at the same time be remarked that ol and at, when upon annexing the possessive pronoun they undergo the prosodial change, become (تاهور ) his knowledge, and his thigh; implying that the latter syllable of the primitives should be written with fat-hah and not dammah, as might otherwise be presumed.

When a particle is annexed to a word ending with the aspirate $s h$, it is sometimes omitted, as sormed from
 to chuse. In the word انترهاي anugräh-i he bestowed, the aspirate is made to take its place before, as in the other examples it follows the assumed long vowels. Although inaudible in pronunciation, it appears to be considered as an effective letter in the application of these rules.

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It remains now to notice those changes in the length of the vowel which take place upon the duplication of a word (a practice common in this language), and which may be either accompanied by the accession of a particle or not. In those instances where a particle is annexed, the rules above explained apply to them as to single words, and accordingly

 earliest time; from لاي. lāīn 'different, برلاين لَيينَن ber-lāin-laīn-an various. To account for the repetition of the letter z in the second part of the word, it must be observed that the former belongs to it in its primitive state, and the latter is the long vowel which the last syllable requires upon annexing the particle ${ }_{\mathcal{J}}$ an, the l in the first being at the same time suppressed or changed for fat-hak; as likewise in the word me-nawōng-ī to shelter, from نَّ vowel required in consequence of annexing the particle $\bar{i}$.

But an explanation of the change of vowels where a simple duplica. tion takes place, without any particle being annexed, is by no means so obvious. In the instances of بربكَيبَاكَي ber-bagei-bāgei diffuse, from باكِئ
 kanak-kānak young children, from اننق anak child, it will be observed that the first syllable of the primitive, when long, is shortened in the former part of the duplication, whilst in the latter the word remains in its original form, whether the last syllable be long or short; and this will be found to have some analogy to the first general rule respecting the change of quantity in single words; for as in this case the first syllable is shortened upon annexing a particle, so in the other it is shortened upon annexing a repetition of the word itself. It may be presumed that
there is something gratifying to the ear of a native in this metrical disposition of the long and short sounds, although our own may not be sensible to its advantages. In common writing, however, it is more usual to mark the duplication of the word by the , كانتى , but the distinction is notwithstanding observed in pronunciation.

Such are the intricate rules by which the changes of quantity in words, upon the application of additional syllables, may be said to be governed; although in fact the rules themselves are no more than inferences from the practice of good writers; and should they not be at first intelligible to the student, he should not on that account be discouraged, as he may possess a very competent knowledge of the language without having mastered them; their accurate employment being obligatory upon the writer rather than upon the reader and translator. I had myself read many books before I thought of combining them into 2 system, and probably might have remained content to take them as I found them, had I not conceived the idea of rendering the experience I had acquired, of use in the instruction of others.

It must be acknowledged that many of the words are much disfigured with respect to their original appearance, by the dislocation of the long vowels, and for this reason perhaps as much as from ignorance, many scribes, not particularly tenacious of correct orthography, adopt a degree of licence, and do not scruple to introduce the long vowels in places where the supplementary only should be expressed or understood; writ-
 pātūt for بیاتُت pātut ought, بينه bīnī for bīni wife; and in many instances it is difficult to say on which side the authorities preponderaté,
$\mathbf{K} \mathbf{k}$

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 ركا remarkable when it is considered that the Arabic alphabet was adapted, at no very remote period, to the language of these people, with which it had no original connexion, that the art of printing has not lent any effective aid to fix a standard of orthography, and that so far as my limited researches enable me to make the assertion, the Malays have never attempted to form a grammar of their mother tongue.

## Of Versification.

With respect to the second part of Prosody, which treats of metrical composition, termed علم شعر ilmu sidr, although the Malays are passionately fond of poetry, and their language abounds with poetic works, yet so imperfectly has it been reduced to system, that it admits of little being said of it as an art. By the natives themselves I am not aware that any thing didactic on the subject has been written, and were such to be discovered, it would prove to be nothing more than a transcript from an Arabian treatise ; the source of all their modern knowledge. This; indeed, is evident from a passage in the celebrated Malayan work named
 räja-räja the Crown of all Sovereigns (quoted by Werndly), wherein
 ايـ andak-lah iya meng̃o-a-taū-ī segala ìlmu siàr seperti àrul dan käfiyat dan lāin deri-pada itu " it behoveth him (the scholar) to be acquainted with the whole art of poetry, such as metre, rhyme, and other matters of that kind." The terms he here employs belong to the Arabian system of prosody, which it would be superfluous to detail in this place. Those who
who wish to render themselves masters of it are referred to the Tractatus de Prosodia Arabica of the learned Clarke, to the Grammatica Turcica of the celebrated Meninsei, and to the Dissertations on the Rhetoric, Prosody and Rhyme of the Persians, by Gladwin, whose most useful labours have contributed eminently to facilitate the study of oriental literature. The following obseryations are intended to be confined as much as possible to what is properly Malayan verse; which, interwoven as it is with the manners of the people, must have been cultivated by them long before the introduction of Arabian literature.

The more common terms for verse including rhyme, are sejà and ساين säyak. Rhyme, it must be understood, is an essential part of every kind of metrical composition, blank verse being unknown to the Malays.

Their poetry may be divided into two species; the شعر siàr or shiàr (often pronounced sāyer), which they also name quo madah eulogium, and نظم nadlam or nazam arrangement, and the pantun, which is also named سلوك selōka stanza, from the Sanskrit.: The former compositions have a fair claim to the denomination of poems, being usually of considerable length, and serious in point of style. The subjects are sometimes historical (as, for instance, a poem in my possession on the war between the king of Mangkāsar and the Dutch, under the famous Cornelis Speelman), but are oftener romances, in which supernatural agency is a distinguished feature. Some of them contain panegyrics, and others an unconnected succession of moral reflexions, the burthen of which is the poet's complaint of the caprice and untowardness of fortune, the evils attendant on poverty, the unkind neglect of relations and friends, and above all, the difficulty of finding liberal patrons amongst the great. They are written in rhyming couplets, the lines of each couplet

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couplet running lengthwise, with a point, small circle, or other mark to denote the interval, instead of being placed under each other, as in our poems; the page by this means exhibiting a double column.
The pantun, selōka or stanza, consisting of four short lines alternately rhyming, is sententious and epigrammatic; but its essential quality and that from whence it acquires its name, is a quaint allusion, by which it affects to express more than meets the ear. The first two lines of the quatrain are figurative, containing sometimes one, but oftener two unconnected images, whilst the latter two are moral, sentimental, or amorous, and we are led to expect that they should exemplify and constitute the application of the figurative part. They do so in some few instances, but in general the thought is wrapt in such obscurity, that not the faintest analogy between them can be traced, and we are even disposed to doubt whether any is intended or occurs otherwise than by chance. Yet (as Dr. Leyden has observed) " the Malays allege that the application of the image, maxim or similitude, is always accurate;" and this is in some measure evinced by the eager attention (surely not to be excited by mere nonsense) paid to the poetical contests which give birth to these, often extemporaneous, productions, and the applause bestowed upon such as, to the taste of the by-standers, contain the most witty and pointed allusions; for " these pantuns (adds the same writer) the Malays often recite in alternate contest for several hours ; the preceding pantun always furnishing the catchword to that which follows, until one of the parties be silenced or vanquished."

With regard to the metre of their poetry, it appears to be regulated by the ear of the composer, rather than by rules previously established for his guidance, and is consequently subject to much licence in the disposition
disposition of the long and short, or, more properly, the accented and unaccented syllables. But notwithstanding this, a general similarity of cadence prevails throughout all poems of the same class, and the principles therefore on which the verse is constructed should not be considered as an hopeless subject of investigation.

Whether there may not be a variety in the measure of the شعر siàr or regular poems, I am not prepared to say, but as all those in my own collection are uniform in this respect, and as they also correspond with the specimens given by, Werndiy and Leyden, it may be concluded that any other measure is by no means common. The lines of which the couplets are formed consist at the least of eight syllables, the most perfect lines being those of nine and ten. Lines of eleven, twelve, and even of more syllables occur, but they are unpleasing to the ear, and seem to be the produce of necessity rather than of choice. These syllables resolve themselves into four metrical feet, with a pause after the second. Of the length and quality of the feet it is not so easy to judge as of their number, and the result of my analysis, I am aware, may not prove satisfactory to others. In order to place the subject in a point of view the most convenient for examination, a few lines shall be taken indiscriminately from a poem, and to these shall be subjoined a dissection of each in the usual metrical notation, here to be understood as representing accented and unaccented syllables.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { لال بركات راج بِّساور }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Lälu ber-kāta rāja bañgsāwan

Ka-pada istrī ūang dermāwan
L 1
Isuk

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## Isuk kakanda ber-mā̄̄n ka-ūtan <br> Pergi men-chārī per-burū-an <br> Putrī bonğsū menanğar kāta <br> Lālu meniähut serta suka <br> Bā̄̄-lah kakanda pergi segra <br> Anak palandok bäwa'kan sàya

"Then said the illustrious king to his gracious consort, to-morrow we intend to take our sport in the forest, in pursuit of game. Upon hearing this, the eldest princess (he had married the seven daughters of his predecessor) joyfully replied, " go without delay, my brother, and bring me 2 young fawn."

The syllables of which these lines are composed may be thus noted, agreeably to the usual pronunciation of the words, and to their order as they are expressed in the European characters.


From this analysis it appears that the metre may consist of the following feet: the dactyl (containing one long and two short syllables), the trochæus (one long and one short), and the amphibrachys (one long between two short), or, as the foot is not familiar in Latin verse, we may consider it as a trochæus preceded occasionally by a short syllable. The disposition of these feet in the line seems to be at the will of the composer, with this restriction only, that the syllable preceding the pause should not be accented. Let us now examine the foregoing lines by the test of the inferences here drawn:

The first contains a dactyl, a trochæus, the pause, a dactyl, and a trochæus; the second, an amphibrachys (or a trochæus preceded by a short syllable), a trochæus, the pause, a dactyl, and a trochæus; the third, a dactyl, a trochæus, the pause, an amphibrachys, and a second amphibrachys; the fourth, a dactyl, trochæus, the pause, and two trochæi; the fifth, two trochæi, the pause, an amphibrachys, and trochæus; the sixth, a dactyl, trochæus, the pause, and two trochæi; the seventh, a dactyl, trochæus, the pause, and two trochæi; the eighth, a dactyl, trochæus, the pause, a dactyl, and a trochæus. It is proper to observe, that WERNDLY summarily resolves the whole metre into feet consisting of a long and a short, and a short and a long syllable, or, into trochæi and iambi; but he does not demonstrate their aptitude by any scansion of the measure, and I have in vain endeavoured to reconcile them to the rhythmus or cadence of the lines, which is, however, in itself quite determinate, and not devoid of harmony. Its chief failure seems to be owing to the too frequent coincidence of the words with the metrical feet, both being commonly trochæi; for, in our poetry, the distinction between a rhythmical and a prosaic line, depends much upon the dividing the syllables of our words, which are also for the most part trochai, by the contrary measure of the iambic feet of which our heroic verse is composed.

In the pantuns, although the four lines of which they consist are thrown into the form of a stanza by the alternate rhyming, the measure is most commonly the same with that of the siàr (but with a more frequent recurrence of double rhymes), as in the following examples :


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Kūda pūtǐ ètam kukū-nia
Akan kūda sultān iskander
Adenda ētam bāniak chumbṻ-nia
Tīdak bülih kāta zang benar
" A white horse whose hoofs are black, is a horse for sultan Iskander. My love is dark, various are her blandishments, but she is incapable of speaking the truth."

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كالو تون جالث دهول }
\end{aligned}
$$

Kālau tüan jālan daülu
Charī-kan sāya dāun kamböja
Kälau tūan māti daūlu
Nantī-kan säya de pintū surga
"If you precede me in walking, seek for me a leaf of the kamböjaflower (plumeria obtusa, planted about graves) ; if you should die before me, await my coming at the gate of heaven."

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { برغ }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Būrong pūtih terbang ka-jäà } \\
& \text { Lāgi tutūr-nia de mākan sumut } \\
& \text { Bīi màta jantong àti } \\
& \text { Surga de-māna kīta menūrut }
\end{aligned}
$$

" A white bird flies to the teak-tree, chattering whilst it feeds on insects. Pupil of my eye, substance of my heart, to what heaven shall I follow thee?"


Bras makān-an perapāti
Bülik kechil ampāyan kāin
Tüan s'ōrang paī̀ta àti
Tidak ber-päling pada iang lā̀n
Bïlik kechil ampäyan kā̄̄n
Be-kāyūh ka-pūlau Lorang
Tïdak-lah ber-päling pada āang lā̀n
Ujūd pada tūan s'ōrang
" Rice is the food of pigeons. A small chamber (serves) for a wardrobe. You alone are the lamp of my heart, to no other shall I direct my view. A small chamber (serves) for a wardrobe. Row the boat to pulo Lorang. To no other shall I direct my view, existence being with thee alone."

The fancy and talents of a poet might perhaps embody these rhapsodies with connected sense, but in a prosaical garb they can only expect to be noticed for their singularity. Their measure, which is our present object, will be found to embrace the same number and description of feet as those lines which have been already analysed. Some variety in the number, length, and arrangement of the lines in a stanza may be occasionally met with, but they should rather be considered as the irregular productions of poetical license, than as constituting different species of the pantun. Such, for instance, is one of eight lines, in which the first Mm rhymes

әрп！${ }^{5}$


 ＇วๆч！











## －әиЋчу fo




 －әи！̣ Кдәлә јо риә әч̣？






clude (and to which may in no small degree be attributed the softness of the tongue), without any regard to the preceding consonant. We accordingly find the word كات kata (or more properly its final letter) rhyming with دي diya, tānia, or any other words terminating in the vowel fat-hah or even in !, which, although long in that position, would not be therefore accented. So also the word هكال sakāli rhymes with هال auti, بوم būmi with جات aid
 ending with كـرك kesrah or with And in like manner the word هول. An
 ending with dammah or with $g$.

When the rhyme is between syllables ending with a consonant (rendered mute by jezm) there must be an accordance not only of the final consonants but of the preceding short vowels, as in därat and
 abang and anang; nor is the rhyme thought to be vitiated when by the accordance of the first consonant as well as of the vowel and the final consonant, an identity instead of a likeness is produced between the terminating syllables, as in the case of جالم jālan and بولن būlan, كـك
 and tambang. This last, according to our own rules, would be considered as a perfect double rhyme, and such occur very frequently in the pantuns, giving fluency and vivacity to their lines, but the coincidence of the penultimate syllables is not deemed requisite even in those, and in the more extended compositions is rarely to be found.

It must be allowed that when we examine the rhymes of the most correct Malayan poetry, many irregularities or deviations from what may be regarded as the general laws, are discoverable; such as words
being made to rhyme with the same word both in sense and sound; others, to rhyme to the eye instead of the ear, as هاري ari with فاكي pākei, اورغ ōrang with $\hat{\varepsilon}$ عور kürong; short syllables, with long ones both
 شيطان sētān; words ending with, $r$ or with' $p m$, to rhyme with those ending in $ل l$ or with $\quad n$-but in the earlier days of our own poetry were not offences as great as these committed and overlooked, and how many ages of progressive refinement did it not require to bring our metre and our rhyme to their present state of comparative correctness?

In order to enable the learner to apply the foregoing rules and observations to the practice of the language more fully than he could have the means of doing from the occasional short examples given in the course of the Grammar, and to supply in some degree the want of books printed in the Malayan character, as well as the scarcity of manuscripts in any other hands than those of the natives, I have judged it indispensably necessary to subjoin for his use, a Praxis, consisting of extracts from several of their works, both in prose and verse, which will serve to exercise and promote the skill he may have acquired, until opportunities are afforded him of having access to more ample and more original sources of information.

## PRAXIS.

## Letter from the King of Tranggānu to Capt. Francis Light of Pülo Pīnang.














 كيت دثربوت مورت الين ثد ليم بلس هاري بولى صفر ثد هلري الحد ثد سنه . .
" Whereas this friendly epistle, having its source in a pure mind, comes from his gracious majesty Sultan Mansür Riäyat Shäh who is seated on the royal throne of the kingdom of Tranggān $\bar{u}$, the abode of peace;

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and may the Almighty Lord cause it to reach the hand of our friend and favourite, the Governor of Pülo Pinang, who, in the enjoyment of tranquillity, friendship, and health, resides within the territory of the English Company, and exercises the functions of a government renowned throughout the Eastern and the Western countries; who is valiant, powerful, discreet, faithful, intelligent, and wise in managing the concerns of his friends and connexions in these parts; who is endowed with firmness and constancy, and at the same time manifests a mild and gentle nature in his transactions of reciprocal kindness and accommodation with all the (neighbouring) princes and chiefs. May God increase his rank and honours; may he bestow upon him fame, consequence, and glory; may he bless him in this world with length of life, and protect him from every kind of danger and mischief unto the last period of his existence. Furthermore, be it known to our friend, that we have directed Seiyid Abdallah and Nakhoda Bāwa to proceed to the country of Kling (coast of Coromandel) to bring away a ketch-rigged vessel belonging to us. When, through the favour of God, it shall arrive at Pūlo Pinang, we beg of our friend to furnish assistance to those persons in all their concerns of business, and especially in case of sickness and difficulties, and also to give orders for their sailing immediately upon the change of the monsoon. There is nothing whatever that we can present to our friend as a token of remembrance, excepting a piece of fine calico. This letter is written on the $15^{\text {th }}$ day of the month Safar, being the first of the week, in the year (of the hejrah) 1200 (an. Ch. 1785)."

Extract of a Letter from the Same to the Same.





 دلاوت بغثلز دروسق تمباڭث كثل ايـت دمكينله كتاث كثد كيت مكت كيت ثون بنركنله

 ايـت انم ثتي مكت دتريمان هرثّث افين ايـت لاد دان امس مكت كـديم كيـت ثون تاهوله





 كيت
" Moreover we desire it to be known to our friend that an English Captain named C., commanding a small ship with two masts, arrived here from Bengal, bringing a letter from the räja (Governor) of Bengal addressed to Us, which we received with all the ceremony and respect due to letters from great princes, as well as with much pleasure and satisfaction. This letter expressed a desire that we should render assistance to the Captain, which was accordingly complied with in every particular.

Some days after his arrival he requested permission from us to bring his vessel into the river of Tranğg $\bar{a} n \bar{u}$, in order to repair some damage her copper had sustained by striking on a rock in the Bay of Bengal. Such was his statement to us, and we, believing it a just one, allowed him to enter the river; but he had not been long there when he began, clandestinely, to sell opium to inhabitants of the place, other than our authorised trader. The quantity sold was six chests, for which he received payment in pepper and gold. This transaction coming to our knowledge whilst the vessel was still in the river, we caused the people who had purchased the opium to be brought before us, and these pointed to Captain C. (as the vender). Being herein guilty of a serious offence within our realm, it was our design to inflict a punishment upon him ; but from the consideration of his being under the English colours, together with his having brought a letter from the raja of Bengal, we refrained from doing any thing whatever to him. As it respects the $r a j a$ of Bengal we feel much delicacy, and now request that our friend will dispatch a letter to him on the subject, in order that he may never allow that Captain to come again to Trañggānū. Such is the business we have to make known to our friend." ( (It may be presumed that the letter in the Governor's name was an imposition.)

## Letter from Südāgar Nasr-eddīn to Captain Light.



 ك.
























$$
\text { الكلام دثربوت سررة ثد انم ليكر هاري بولن مكرم ثد سنة Ir. } 1
$$

"Whereas this letter comes from me Dà̀u Sūdāgar Nasr-eddīn, of Tranggannū, and may the Lord who created the world cause it to reach 0 o
the

## A GRAMMAR OF THE

the presence of his honour the Governour who holds the chief command within the territory of Pūlo Pīnang, bestowing upon him dignity and happiness to the latest period of his life. Moreover, be it known, I pray, to his honour, that if it be agreeable to him, it is my request that he should make the purchase of a ship. She should be a new one, about two or three years old, of good qualities, and capable of loading about three thousand five hundred pikul. It is proposed that his honour sl:ouild take one third share, Mr. F. one third, and myself one third. It is fürther desirable that Mr. F. should provide a good crew, for her, and stores such as are proper for a ship of war. My reason for making a point of this is, that at the present time the seas to the eastward are extremely foul (much infested with pirates), which renders good ammunition essential; for the practices of the Malays are well known to his honour. Now with respect to the ship if; with the blessing of God, she arrives in safety at Tranggānū, it is my intention to embark, on her myself, and proceed with her to the other side (eastward) of the land of borneo. Mr. F. should lade on her an investment of cloths to the amount of about four or five thousand rupihs, and about four hundred chests of Patna opium. On these goods $\mathbf{I}$ am willing to pay a premium of thirty per cent., valuing the opium at three hundred and thirty-five dollars the chest. Upon the ship's arrival here I shall take out of her such articles as will sell in the Tranggānūu market, and such as are not suited to it, I shall take with me on the voyage. Beside these I shall lade on the vessel the goods I may have on hand. Now as to the profit that may be obtained on the goods carried to the eastward for sale, it may be shared amongst the three. This plan, in my opinion will be more advantageous than that of proceeding to China, as pepper and
tin fetch a better price at Trañ̈ggānūu than at Pūlo Pinnang. (The force of this argument is not obvious.) If these proposals should meet with his honour's approbation, I beg he will write to Mr. F. requesting him to put Captain Carnegie into the command of the ship; he being a person with whom I can converse, and to whom I have already communicated every information respecting the trade at all those places which we now propose to visit. With regard to the opium I may carry to the eastward, I think it will fetch four hundred dollars the chest. When the trading voyage to the eastward has been completed, and the ship returns to Tranggänū, those articles of produce, such as pepper and tin, that may remain on hand after the sailing of all the vessels (of the season) for China, can be shipped for Bengal; and thus two or three profits may be made in the course of the one year; as his honour well understands. He should, if he approves of it, dispatch a letter to Mr. F. in order that he may immediately take the necessary steps against the arrival of Captain Carnegie. Finis. Written on the twenty-sixth day of the month Muharram in the year 1206 (1791)."

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"We have now to communicate to our son the event of Südāgar Nasr-eddin's return to the Divinity, leaving a transitory world for one that is eternal. Upon the occasion of his death we had already forwarded an express by land (across the peninsula) describing, for the information of our son, the trouble and affliction into which we have been thrown by this visitation of Divine Providence. With respect to the concerns of our son, let not his loss make an alteration in any one transaction, but (on the contrary) let us proceed in the same path of reciprocal accommodation on every needful occasion, with frequent and uninterrupted exchanges of communication; for Trañggānū and Pūlo Pīnang should be considered as one."

## Extract of a Letter from Sūdāgar Priya a relation of Sūdāgar Nasr-eddīn.

 سسغي كثمرك مودتله ادند كا'ولون مكت سمثي ادند





 سیل







Ir.v مسبيلن ليكرهاري بوان مكرم ثد ستة
" Be it known to my respected elder brother that I sailed from Pülo Pinang and proceeded to Pērak, and upon my arrival there travelled into the interior country, and from thence descended into the country inland of Pähang (on the eastern side of the peninsula). My journey for about two months lay through the woods, but, by the assistance of God, I at length reached Pähang. When I arrived there I heard for the first time the intelligenoe that-my older brother, Südägar Nasreddin, had been received back to the mercy of God. From excess of affliction my soul seemed to take its flight. But what help was there for it? Such was to be his fate, and the decree of the Divinity was executed upon his servant. I then sailed from Pā/iang for Trañggānū, and upon my arrival there my grief was augmented on beholding all the children of my departed brother left as orphans, his house standing empty, and all his goods and effects carried off and lodged in the palace. Even the wearing apparel of his children had been in like manner conveyed to the palace, as were all his keys. Upon my appearance (although the legal representative of the deceased) not one article was

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restored; but only his Majesty gave orders that I should take the trade. into my hands and buy and sell (as usual); but every piece of goods I might wish to draw from the warehouse must be made known at the palace, when the keys are to be brought, and the doors opened by aperson sent for that purpose. This conduct towards me is that of half: confidence and half distrust. Such is my present state; but by the blessing of God Almighty I intend in the course of this season to request his Majesty's leave to retire, and to return to the presence of my mother and all my brothers. Written on the twenty-ninth day of the month Muharrann, in the year 1207 (1792)." (The king, whose agent he was, having undertaken to make good all his mercantife engagements, judged it necessary to secure the property. What relates to the family, if correct, derogates from his character for justice; but the circumstances may be exaggerated.)

Extract of a Letter from the King of Përak to Captain Light.







 لاڭث

لاثث تغه كيت بحراكى مكت ددالم نغري ثيرق ثون ماهل ثول بنه ساكُو ايت دان تانه


" With respect to the Governour's overtures for a friendly intercourse with us, we are much gratified by them, and sincerely desire his friendship; but the circumstances of this country of Pērak may be compared to those of a beautiful woman, who, beautiful as she is, has a husband, and that husband happens to be extremely jealous. There is a person, however, who notwithstanding this pays addresses to her. She is enamoured, but the husband is violently severe. What the situation of the woman is, such is that of the country of Pērak. The Governour wishes to be on terms of intimacy, but the person whose severity is to be apprehended is well known to him. Furthermore, with respect to the gentleman lately arrived from Bengal, who desires to be furnished with young seedlings of the Sago tree, in order to his taking them back with him and planting them in Bengal; such not being procurable at Pūlo Pinnang; our attention has been directed to the Governour's wish, but these plants are very scarce in the country of Pèrak, and the soil where they grow' very dear. Written on the seventh day of the month Sawāl, being Monday, in the year 1201 (1787)."

Letter from the King of Siläng̈ūr (Salangore) to the Governour. General of Bengal.
’يوإين مورة: تولس سرت اخلم يايّت درثد حضرة عولان ثالكت سري سلطان ابراهيم خليته :الموتنيس






 تيداله كيت داثت شهعان بارع تاهو كيران محبت كيت كيت جكلو اد كاسه سايع كثد نغري






"Whereas this sincere and friendly epistle comes from the presence of Mülāna Paduka Srī Sultān Ibrahīm the khalif of the Faithful, who holds his court seated on the royal throne of the kingdom and trading city of Silāñ̈ūr, the abode of propriety; and may the Lord of all worlds cause it to reach in safety the hands of our friend the General who governs the port and country of Bengal, together with all its bays and coasts; who is faithful and wise, liberal to the poor and needy, and who affords protection to all merchants arriving and departing; who resembles a lofty tree in the midst of a plain, the branches of which are shady, the scent of its blossoms fragrant, and its fruit pleasant to the taste; beneath which the servants of God find shelter, satisfy their hunger, and assuage their thirst. Furthermore we transmit this leaf of
paper to our friend to make known to him that of our former letter we have not hitherto received any acknowledgement whatever, and also to state our desire, that if he has any favourable regard for this country of Silängür, he will, as soon as possible, snpply us with the Company's colours, and the necessary instructions, as a token of our mutual friendship; and with respect to the export produce of this country, such as tin, pepper, wax, and canes, all of these we offer to our friend with perfect good will. For that purpose it is we write the present, as an engagement (on our part), and to give it the more validity affix our seal to the paper. Written on the hill of Silāngūr, the fourth day of the month Safar, being Wednesday, at three o'clock, in the year 1200 (1785)."

Extract of a Letter from the King of Silañoūr to Captain Light.




 اورغ اثـ ثربواتى كيت كثد اورغ

" That is to say, from his Majesty who reigneth and holds his court on the hill of Silāngūr. . . . . . Furthermore, with regard to what is mentioned is the letter from our friend; should we interfere in the con-.

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cerns of the King of Achin, we must give umbrage to the people of that place, and occasion them to harbour resentment against us. With what propriety can we say to them "do so" or "do so," seeing that they have a right to act as they please in the affairs of their own country ? How can people, situated as we are to the eastward, understand what relates to that country, its subjects, and its government? Were we now to do any open injury to the Achinese or to act with treachery toward them, they would owe ue a grudge; and at this time there is no matter of discussion between us and the people of Achin. Written on the sixth day of the month Muharram, being Monday, at ten o'clock- in the forenoon, in the year 1202 (1787)."

## Extract of a Letter from the Same to the Same.










"We have directed a person whose name.is Gürū Khatīb, with two persons in his company, to present themselves to our friend, in order that
that if it can be conveniently done, our friend may afford bis assistance in providing them with a passage on board of a ship; it being their intention to proceed on the pilgrimage (to Mecca); and if possible, in expediting the departure of these three Priests, so that they may save the monsoon. Should there be an English vessel bound to Judah or to Mokha, we request our friend to accommodate them with a passage on her; or if not bound to those places, on a vessel going even so far as Cochin. We likewise request that he will cause good care to be taken of them; and moreover that he will furnish them with a document under his hand, to serve them as a token in case of meeting with any Englishmen, who may assist them in consequence of seeing our friend's signature, and prevent them from experiencing a long detention at every port, for which their supplies would be inadequate. 1206 (1791)." (Applications of this nature occur very frequently, and may be considered as a proof how little of religious bigotry subsists amongst these Mahometans, who give the preference to an European vessel for the conveyance of their pilgrims.)

Letter from the King of Johor and Pahang to the Same.





 ريو















" That is to say, from Pāduka Srī Sultān Mahmūd Riàyat Shāh, who possesses the royal thrones of Johor and Pahang and all the districts subordinate thereto. . . . . . . If it should appear to our friend to be a proper measure, we request him to communicate to the (Governour) General of Bengal the subject of this letter, making known to him that the Dutch Company employed a force against Riy $\bar{u}$ (Rhio), in order to subdue the Būgis inhabitants and to set up a Malayan king. It pleased the Divine Will that the Būgis people should be conquered in an attack made by (the troops under) Jacob Peter Van Braam the commandant, on which occasion they all ran away and abandoned Riy $\bar{u}$, leaving us Malays in the place. Upon this a treaty (or capitulation) was agreed to
between the commandant and ourself, together with all the chiefs on the spot, and interchanged in writing between the two parties. When the business of the treaty was solemnly completed, he returned to Batavia. Some time after this there came another Dutchman, named Peter Rody, to reside at Riyu $\bar{u}$, by whom all the articles of the treaty with us and the, chiefs were infringed. During these transactions the Illänon (a piratical people from Mindanao) invaded Riy $\bar{u}$, and by God's permission entirely ruined the country. The Dutch made their escape and returned to Malacca. With these circumstances we make our friend acquainted, requesting that he may communicate them to the General of Bengal. If we are in the srong with respect to the Dutch Company, let him fix the guilt upon us, and if, on the contrary, we have acted correctly, we beg that the General will lend his aid to see us righted; there being no quarter towards which we can now look with hope, excepting the EnglishCompany, who, in the present days, are renowned from the western to these eastern regions; and who have the power of relieving the oppressed. Allow me further to mention, that being arrived in the dominions of the chief of my family, the sultan of Tranggänū, I have committed my interests to his care; both in relation to the English and to the Dutch Company, whether for good or for evil. I have only to, add that there is nothing I can offer to my friend, in token of my regard, but my prayers offered up every night and day. Written on the 29th day of the month Muharram in the year 1202 ( 1787 ).

Extracts of Letters from the King of Trañggān $\bar{u}$ to Captain Light.
مباڭُعْول كيست يتاكن كثد انق كيت تتكال راج سيم لودق د سغثور مكث ابي مبورل مسغثلم



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 ترسورة ثد ليم بلس هاري بولى شعبان سنة I I I 1







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" In addition to this we acquaint our son that whilst the king of Siam remained at Sanğgöra he gave orders for summoning the king of Kedah, the king of Patānī, and the king of Tranğgānnū (to do homage). The reply from the king of Patāñ̄ being in terms not conciliatory, his country was invaded by the Siamese, subdued, and laid waste. With regard to the letter addressed to us, we stated, in answer to it, that it never had been customary from the earliest times to appear personally before the king of Siam, but only to convey to him a flower of gold (filagree), and another of silver. Some time after this there arrived an envoy from him, who demanded that an hundred pieces of cannon, and likewise all Siamese subjects who were settled in Trangggānū, should be delivered to him. He further required a variety of rich articles of furniture. His demands upon us were highly exorbitant and oppressive. Our alarm on the occasion was very great, and we roused the country in order to be in a situation to resist the king of Siam; but through the aid of God and of his Prophet, he returned to his own territory; car-
rying
sying off with him a number of the Patanese whom he had seized, (the Patānī country being intermediate between the dominions of Siam and Trañggānū). We shall now proceed to make our son acquainted with the genealogy of the kings of Johor down to our own time, for his consideration." (On this descent he grounds his resistance to the king of Siam's claim of personal homage.) "Written on the fifteenth day of the month Shdbän, in the year 1201 (1787)."


#### Abstract

"The king of Siam still persists in requiring that either your royal and gracious father or the heir apparent should appear in his presence; but from the beginning of time, through all generations, the kings of Johor never did personal homage to the kings of Siant, but only sent complimentary messages. With regard to this journey to the .presence of the king, your royal father has not yet made up his mind; but on the other hand the king has declared, that if his will is not obeyed, he intends to enter our country in the fifth month from this time. Now if our son feels any concern for our situation, he will give orders for a couple of guarda costas to proceed to this place in the course of four months, bringing with them a set of English colours. . . . . . . . There is nothing we can send in token of our affection but two pieces of cloth; they are not a suitable gift, and must be considered merely as if we presented him with a flower. This letter is written on the sixth day of the month Safar, being Friday at nine o'clock, in the year 1202 (1787)."


" The reason for making this request is that we still continue at variance with the king of Siam, and are unable to ascertain his good or his bad intentions. We have transmitted to him the flower of gold and the
the flower of silver, together with the usual present (in money), but no answer from him has been yet received. In (the beginning of) this year he came to Patānī and smote it, utterly ruining and laying it waste, and putting to death the principal people. On this account it is we are apprehensive that in the ensuing season he may perhaps come and invade Tranğgänūu. If a ship could by any means be spared, it would assist in enabling us to resist the power of Siam. . ....... Furthermore, with respect to the articles forwarded to us by our son, they are arrived, but we have taken only such as we fancied, namely a time-piece, two pair of mirrours, a piece of green and one of purple velvet, two pieces of gold tissue, and one parcel of lace; the value of which amounts to one thousand five hundred and ninety-two Spanish dollars. Written on the third day of the month Safar, on the night of Thursday, in the year 1207 (1792)."

Passages extracted from a Romance containing the Adventures of Indra Laksäna, Indra Mahadèwa, and Dētea Indra.








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" The prince then smiling (at the defiance sent by the enemy) went to sooth the affliction of his wife, and addressed her thus: " $\mathbf{O}$ my love, thou who art to me the soul of my body, farewell! If perchance it should be thy husband's doom to fall (in the approaching battle), wilt thou cherish the memory of him with some degree of fond concern? Wilt thou wrap him in the scarf that binds thy waist? Wilt thou bathe his corse with thy tears pure as the dew that hangs at the extremity of the grass? Wilt thou bestrew it with the flowers which now adorn the folds of thy hair?" The princess upon this wept the more abundantly, and embraced the neck of Indra Laksäna, her arm enfolding it as the muskscented epidendrum entwines the $a \tilde{n} g s \bar{k} k a$ tree (pavetta indica). Such was the picture she exhibited; whilst Indra wiped away the tears from her eyes."








 منجاد ث大ليثرلارهات دان نمن ككند
" Upon the arrival of Indra Mahadêvaa at the palace, he seated himself by the side of the princess (his bride) and said to her smiling,
" My love, my soul, in what manner is it your intention to dispose of yourself, as I am obliged to proceed in the search of my brother? If it be your design to accompany me, you should lose no time in giving orders for the necessary preparations, as my departure must be immediate." When the princess Seganda Ratna heard these words, she held down her head, and with glances sweet as the blue lotos flower in the sea of honey, replied, "What plans, my love, am I, a young female, to pursue but those of my lord alone? For is not a wife under the guidance of her husband?" Indra Mahadēwa shewed his satisfaction at hearing these expressions from the princess, embraced and kissed her, saying, "Thy good sense adds grace to thy lovely features, thou shalt be the soother of my cares, my comforter, my companion."

مستله سدء اي بركات دمكين ايـت مكت اننر مهديو ايتُون برجالنل دثرن سثمباو كلين دثر







 ميگث ددداڤث لارن اكى ثارغ
" Having spoken thus, Indra Mahadēwa bent his course wherever his uncertain steps might lead. With an anxious heart and suffering from hunger and thirst, he penetrated into forests of great extent, ascended high
high mountains, and crossed wide plains. The sun was now set, and the moon rose in all her splendour as if to serve him for a torch. The prince although fatigued proceeded towards the hills of Indra Kīla, and as he passed, the tender branches of the climbing plants waved with the wind, and seemed inclined to follow the beautiful youth. As the dawn gradually arose, the clouds in the border of the sky assumed a variety of shapes, some having the form of trees, and some resembling animals; but the trees of the forest were still obscured from sight by the dense vapour rising from the dew. The light of the sun now began to appear, glancing from the interstices of the mountains like the countenance of a lovely virgin, whilst its beams shooting upwards exhibited the appearance of flags and banners waving in front of an army marching to battle."













 هـكتيك






دان اد يثع برثاليث تياد ماو مليهت موكت ديو اننر كياثن
" The king was highly pleased with the manners and disposition of Dēwa Indra, as well as with his graceful person and superior understanding. He said to him, " Partake of betel, my son.". Dễoa Indra having accordingly partaken, returned the betel-stand to the king, who thus addressed him:" I have sent for you, my son, in order to make known to you a resolution taken by me some time since; that to the person who having counted out ten large measures of sesame seed and as many measures of sand, thoroughly blended together, should be able to separate the grains of the one from the grains of the other, and to complete the performance of the task in the course of a day; to such person alone should I give the hand of my daughter in marriage." Dēwa Indra smiled on hearing the king's words, knowing them to proceed from the artful suggestion of the princes (his rivals), and bowing replied, "whatever may be your majesty's injunctions, your servant is ready to execute them." The sand and the sesame seed being then provided and mixed together in the court before the palace, Dḕva Indra made his obeisance, descended to the spot, and as he stood beside the heap, silently wished for aid from the king of the ants; when instantly the monarch made his appearance, followed by his whole army, consisting of the population of nine hillocks.

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Upon receiving the directions of Dēwa Indra for separating the grains, each individual ant took one seed in his mouth, and in this manner the separation was presently effected, and the grains laid in distinct heaps, not one being wanting. This done, the king of the ants and all his train disappeared, and returned to the place from whence they came. Dēwa Indra reascended the steps of the palace, and having taken his seat and made obeisance, said, "Your majesty's commands for the separation of the sand and the sesame seed have been obeyed by your mean and humble slave." The king expressed his amazement, and all the ministers of state, the warriors and the people in general were astonished at witnessing this proof of the supernatural power of Dēwa Indra; but with respect to the princes, some of them shook their heads, some bent them down, and others turned them aside, being unable to support his looks."
(The striking resemblance of this incident to one in the allegory of Cupid and Psyche by Apuleius, will appear from the following passage, and, I hope, excuse its introduction). "Venus being incensed against the beautiful but unfortunate Psyche, after much personal ill treatment imposed on her many severe tasks. In the first place having collected in a great, promiscuous heap, an immense quantity of seeds, consisting of wheat, barley, millet, poppy, vetches, lentils, and beans, " separate, said she, this mass of seeds, let each of the several species of grain be placed distinct from the rest, and see that the work be accomplished before night." Psyche overwhelmed by the contemplation of a task so prodigious and so impracticable within the allotted time, remained stupified and motionless ; when an ant who observed her situation and commiserated her difficulties and her affliction, immediately summoned the populous tribes of six-footed people from the neighbouring field. These, obeying
the call, hastened to her assistance, and having separated, grain by grain, the confused heap, and deposited each sort apart, presently disappeared from her view."

Passages extracted from the Malayan version or paraphrase of the Ramayana, a celebrated Hindu Pofm.

حتي براثت لاث مكت تون ثري مندو دري ثون حاملله ستله داتثله كثد ديواس اكى برانت مكت تون ثري ثرن برانتله سـورُ







 تباد براني ثاتك سكلين بييكن شهدان مكت تيته همراج راون جاءث كام كام تكت







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" It was not long before the young Queen Mandu Derrei became pregnant, and when the usual period had elapsed, she was delivered of a female child whose features were exquisitely beautiful, and her complexion like that of the purest gold. Whoever beheld the infant was filled with astonishment. Orders were then given by Maharaja Rawana to summon his brother Maharaja Bibisanam (Vivishana), together with all the astrologers and diviners, that they might examine the horoscope, and ascertain whether the future destinies of the child were to be happy or miserable. "See you, my lords (said he), that this business be carefully performed, and that nothing is concealed from me." Upon this, Maharaja Bibisanam (who was himself deeply skilled in the occult sciences), as well as the other astrologers, consulted their books, and having so done, they all shook their heads. "Wherefore, inquired the monarch, do my lords all shake their heads?" "O king of the world! (replied the wise men), your servants were proceeding to make their report, though under feelings of strong apprehension lest they should offend your majesty; and they beg your majesty to be persuaded that what they shall declare is not the work of their own fancies, but discovered from the
horoscope, and which your servants dared not to hide." Maharaje Rawana then said, " Be not afraid, neither conceal any thing, but make known to me the result of your inspection." "Allow us then, O king of the world! (answered the astrologers) to throw ourselves at the feet of your majesty, and humbly to solicit pardon when we pronounce that the fortunes of this royal infant will be eminently happy, and that the personage who shall obtain her in marriage will soon become the sovereign of all the kingdoms of the earth, aud no one in this world whom the gods have created shall exceed him in valour and might." "If such be the case (said Maharaja Razwana), to what purpose should a little wretch like this be suffered to live? It will be best to dash it against the stones, and thus deprive it of life in the speediest manner." Upon hearing this the queen exclaimed, "O Maharaja Raveana, can the king of the world have the heart to see the brains of the infant scattered on the floor? If it must be put to death, there are many other (less cruel) modes of effecting it." "In what manner then (said Rawana to his queen) should you advise that it be destroyed?" "Let us, my lord (answered the queen), cause a coffin to be made for it, and let this coffin be cast into the sea." The king expressed his consent, and immediately gave orders to skilful artists, for the construction of an iron coffin. When it was completed and presented to Maharaja Rawana, the queen directed that it should be lined with folds of gold muslin. She then took the child to her breast and suckled it ; and having so done, with many tears, delivered it to the nurses and female attendants, in order to its being placed in the iron coffin; which the king commanded his brother to commit to the deep. This was accordingly put into execution; but by the interposition of the deities, the coffin floated on the sea.















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" It happened that at this period a certain Räja, named Mahärishī Kala was in the daily habit of performing penance, which consisted in going down at an early hour to the sea-side, and immerging himself to the waist, while he adored the (rising) sun. As soon as it attained its meridian height, he regained the shore, and returned to his palace. During the whole of his reign he had been in the uninterrupted practise of this penance. One morning when he was thus performing his devotions in the water it chanced that the iron coffin came, with the rolling motion of the waves, towards his feet. As soon as the day's penance was completed,
completed, he gave directions to his people to draw it to the shore, and this being done, he perceived it to be an iron coffin of most curious workmanship. He then had it conveyed to the palace, and calling his wife, said to her, "My queen, behold this chest of iron which $I$ have found: what, I wonder, may be its contents." The queen drew near, and they both sat down beside it. Upon its being opened by the command of the king, a vivid light issued from it, that shone through all the palace. They then perceived within the chest a lovely female infant, whose complexion was like burnished gold, and her conntenance resplendent as the full moon. Nothing in those days could equal the beautiful symmetry of her features."













 إيورن سثيله كنكّري ايت
" Raja

## A GRAMMAR OF THE

" Räja Mahārishī upon this immediately descended from the palace, and taking forty seeds of the lontar palm tree (borassus flabellifera) planted them in a row. "To that person (said he), who shall be able to shoot an arrow through the forty stems of these palm trees (when they have attained their full growth), will I bestow the hand of this my daughter in marriage." This done he returned to the palace and gave to the infant the name of Putrī Simla Dêvē. In proportion as she advanced in years the charms of her person increased. Her name became cellbrated in all regions, and fame widely reported that the beauty of the daughter of Raja Mahārishī surpassed that of every other princess of the age. All who beheld her were lavish in her praise, and no eyes could be satiated with the contemplation of her charms. By the time she had reached her twelfth year she had many suitors amongst the sons of the most powerful sovereigns of the surrounding countries, who were anxious to obtain the hand of the princess Sita Dēwī. To these Mahārishī repeated his declaration that she should become the prize of him who could shoot an arrow through the forty palm trees which he had planted in a row. Upon hearing this condition the princes all assembled with the intention of exercising their respective skill in archery; but Mahārish $\bar{\imath}$ thought it necessary in the first place to ascertain from them, what princes were present, and who (that might be expected) were absent. "Those who are present, answered they, we know, but of others we know nothing.". "I am not aware, said the king, of any prince who has failed to appear, excepting only the son of Dasarata Maharaja, and being the son of so great a monarch it is incumbent on me to invite him. Have the patience, my lords, to await my return." Mahärashī immediately proceeded on his journey to Mandu-pūrü-nagara, and after some time reached the capital of that country.

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 دثن مهارشي لال دبوان ماست كدالم استينان دردق برسام
 كات مهارشي اكن سثل ثري حال احرال.ايت سكلينث دكتاكنث كثد دسرت مهراج








 راج جبراث









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 جلد راج دالم نگري ايين حتي مكس لغتسان ثرن ثرگّيله سرت سدراث سري رام
" It was announced to Dasarata by his officers, that Mahärishi Kala was arrived from the country of Derūt-perwa in order to obtain an audience of his majesty, the king of the world. As soon as Dasarata received this information he instantly went forth to welcome the stranger, and met him at the gate of the castle. . Having embraced and kissed each other, Mahärishi was conducted into the palace, where they sat down together. Dasarata then inquired what object had induced Mahärishi to undertake so long a journey, and when the latter had made him fully acquainted with every circumstance, he gave directions for calling to his presence two of his sons, who were named Buradan (Bharata), and

Chatradun (Satrughna). Upon their making their appearance he said to them, " Go, my sons, in the company of Mahärishi, and perform whatever he shall require of you." Mahärishi, after paying the usual compliments, descended from the palace and took his departure, along with the two brothers. When they had got without the gate, Mahärishi addressed them in these words: "The journey to my dominions, O my sons, may be performed by four different routes. One road will require only seventeen days travelling, another twenty, the third, twenty-five, and the fourth, forty days. On the road requiring seventeen days there dwells a female rakshāsa, named Chakīn, of a size so enormous, that for her pillow, she makes use of a hill. During the reign of Brahma raja he repeatedly sent armies of hundreds of thousands, with orders to put her to death, but they could not accomplish it. In these days also Maharaja Rawana has sent his warrioss to summon her to his presence, and upon her refusal has employed means to destroy her ; but the result was her seizing and devouring many thousands of his trooops. In the road requiring twenty days there is a rhinoceros named $\operatorname{Agn} \bar{\imath}$ Ganda, whose bulk is like a mountain, and his hide is rough as the coat of the nanğha (artocarpus integrifolia). The road requiring twenty-five days is infested by a monstrous snake named Süla Nakinn, the length of which is one thousand three hundred cubits, and when he exhales his breath all the trees and herbs are scorched as if consumed by fire. With regard to the remaining road, which requires forty days to travel it, the journey is not attended with any danger whatever. Now, my young men, which of these routes do you think it best for us to pursue?" To this the brothers replied, "We think it most advisable to pursue the route of forty days, as it is free from every kind of danger." Upon hearing this answer,

Mahärishi

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Mahärishi said to himself, "These youths are evidently not suited to my purpose, and the best thing I can do is take them back to their father." He accordingly returned and presented them to Dasarata, who inquired the occasion of seeing him (so soon) again. "I have had reason (answered Mahärishi) to form an opinion that these two princes would prove unequal to the performance of what I should require of them. If it be your majesty's inclination to do me kindness, you will gratify me in allowing your son Srī Rāma to accompany me. Any other of your sons it will be in vain for me to take, as they are not calculated to support the high . reputation of your majesty. Your son Srī Rāma, on the contrary, will fulfil my expectations, and add celebrity to his father's name." Srí Rāma was accordingly sent for, and upon making his appearance, Dasarata said to him, " Proceed my son, along with Mahārishi, and what he shall require of thee, do thou execute." "If it be your majesty's command, answered Rāma, I am ready to obey; but the object of my journey being fulfilled) I shall immediately return to the presence of your illustrious majesty." Having said this, he threw himself at the feet of his royal father, and took his leave of him and his mother. Laksamäna, his brother, expressed a wish to accompany him; but Dasarata and the queen would not consent to part with him. Upon this Laksamäna wept, and still urged for permission to go with his (beloved) brother. "Do not, said the father, persist in leaving us; but consider that in the absence of your elder brother, you must supply his place in your mother's sight." The queen, however, being affected by his tears, consented to his bearing his brother company; "For, said she, were he even to remain, he would not (on his father's death) succeed to the throne of this kingdom;" (in preference to one of the sons by another wife, for whom Dasarata
designed it). Laksamana accordingly set out along with his brother Srı̄ Rāma.














 مكت كات سري رام هي جاكين برديريله اثكا
"When Srī Rāma arrived at the habitation of the rakshäsa or giantess named Chakin, whose size was like that of a mountain, he found her still asleep. He said to himself, "This monster being a female, if I should kill her in her sleep, what will the world say of me?" He then proceeded to awake her. She started, and upon seeing Rāma at the foot of her couch, she cried out, "Ho! young man, whither art thou going; and what is the occasion of thy coming hither? If it be thy $\mathbf{Y}_{\mathbf{Y}} \quad$ intention
intention to pass onward, go thy way." Rāma replied, " My object in coming to this place is to put thee to death, I was just now about to kill thee in thy sleep, had I not reflected on what mankind would think of such an (inglorious) act; considering also that thou art a female." Upon hearing these words from Rāma, the giantess laughed heartily, and said, "What is thy name, young man?" "I am Srī Rāma, answered he, the son of Dasarata Maharäja." "I feel great compassion for thee, said she, both on account of thy youth and the comeliness of thy person, as well as on account of thy being the son of a powerful king, illustrious in his descent, and respected for his virtues. Whithersoever it is thy wish to go, proceed forthwith." "From the spot where I am, answered Rāma, I shall not move, until with this hand I have put thee to death." "O son of Dasarata Maharäja, said she, hast thou not heard the fame of my prowess, not only in the early days of Brahma Räja, but also in these of Maharäja Rawana, who ordered his innumerable armies to attack me, and which I put to flight, devouring by hundreds such of his people as came within my grasp. What then canst thou be to me, and what are thy pretensions to superior valour?" To this Srī Rāma made no other reply than desiring her to stand up and defend herself." (The circumstances of the combat, in which the female rakshäsa, of course, is slain, resemble those which we have read in the Arabian Tales.)




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 ديوي

## A GRAMMAR OF THE

"نيوي هي ادند هندق دبرنهكه اكى كلند سري رام ايت ثد بيكار ككند بايق جوكت ادتد






















 ريرمان دتربثكنه كادر
" Upon Maharäja Ravoana's hearing the complaint of his sister (that her
her face had been mutilated) his wrath was kindled like a flame of fire, and lie exclaimed, " O , my sister, is it thus that Laksamāna displays his manhood and his valour against a woman? If he really wishes to give proofs of his courage, let him exert it against men who will oppose him with equal strength and resolution. Then, indeed, (and not till then) he may boast of manly qualities. He has no sister, but Srì Rāma has a wife, and upon her will I avenge myself for the injury your person has sustained from his brother." (He had cut off her nose by accident.)
" Rawana instantly gave orders for calling two of his attendant rakshäsas, who had both the form of dogs, and directed them to bring his chariot. Having mounted it, he crossed over from Lanğka-pürī, and in a short time reached the main land. One of the rakshäsas he instructed to assume the appearance of a golden, and the other, of a silver roe. " Proceed both of you, said he, to the ground before the dwelling of Srì Rāma, and there play and skip about." In obedience to the command of their master, they went towards the house, whilst Rawana himself followed the two roes in his chariot. When they reached the space in front of the house, they began to bound and skip until they attracted the attention of Sïta Dërvē, who said to Räma, "I beg of thee, my lord, to catch me those two (beautiful) roes." "As to catching them alive, answered Räma, it is out of my power, but if you wish it, I will shoot them with my bow." "By no means, replied Sita; it is not my object to possess them dead, as it is for my amusement I want them." Rāma, taking with him his bow, descended from the house, and calling to Laksamāna said to him, "Remain at home, my brother, for the protection of your sister Sita Dāw̄̄, whilst I go in chace of those two roes." Laksamāna promised he would, and Rāma went in pursuit of them.
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same time feel the strongest apprehension and anxiety, were he to leave your highness unprotected?" "Now, cried the princess, I perceive what are your views. You wait the death of Srī Rāma, that you may then possess yourself of his wife." Laksamāna upon hearing these words from Sītu Dētē̃, answered with tears; "Now, indeed, it is impossible that I should do otherwise than go, in order to disprove a charge against me so entirely unfounded, and by which my feelings are so deeply wounded. That I weep, however, is not the effect of this reproach, but of my being obliged to neglect the trust reposed in me by Srì Rā̀ma when he committed your highness to my care." He then described a circle round the house, marking the ground with his finger, and pronouncing at the same time these words: " $\mathbf{O}$ ! earth, receive from me (my sister): Sīta Dē̃oū, as a sacred deposit. Whoever shall overstep this line, do thou swallow him up." This precaution taken, Lahsamāna set out with four attendants. When he was at such a distance from Sitta Dēwī̀ as to be no longer within hearing, Maharäja Rawana drew near, in the disguise of a Brahman, and standing in the walk before the house, said aloud, " O ! daughter-in-law of Dasarata Maharäja, bestow upon me thy alms." To which she replied, "I have nothing, my good Brahman, to offer thee, excepting this flower in my hand, which is at thy service." " O! princess Sìta Dērū̃, said he, whatsoever thou deignest to bestow, I shall accept." Upon hearing these words from the holy man, she reached out the flower towards him, when he said, " 0: Sita Dēwī, it is not in my power to overstep this (magic) line of Laksamäna. If thou art disposed to treat me with indulgence and favour, thou wilt thyself reach it to my hand." Sita thereupon descended the steps of the house, to the ground before it, and held out the flower to the Brahman,
who again said, " If your highness may so far condescend, oblige thy servant, $O!$ princess, by extending it beyond the line of the circle, it being impossible for thy servant to transgress that boundary, and great will be the religious.merit of freeing me from the restriction it imposes." Sita Dēwī then, standing within the circle, but extending her arm beyond it, presented the flower to the (pretended) Brahman, who suddenly seized her by the hand, and carried her with him into the air."

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"The king (in the course of his travels for the purpose of gaining intelligence.
intelligence of Sīta) met with a stork which was drinking at the side of a lake, and inquired of the bird whether it had seen any thing of his wife, Sīta $D \bar{e} w \bar{z}$, who had been carried away from him. To this the stork replied: "As to your honour's wife, my young lord, your humble servant knows nothing of her, nor is he acquainted with the name of Sìta Dēwē; but when your servant was taking a drink of water from this lake, happening to cast his eye towards the heavens, he beheld Maharaja Ratoana conveying a beautiful young woman through the air, in his flying chariot. This is what your servant saw, but who the young person was, he is quite ignorant. She wore a dress of a crimson colour, worked with gold, and two or three pieces torn from it, she let fall into the lake (as she passed over it)." "O stork, cried Rāma, from you it is I first hear tidings of my wife. Tell me now what reward you claim from me, that I may invoke the deities to grant the boon." "Your slave, replied the stork, makes bold to request of your highness, that when he has taken his stand in one lake, his neck may be extended to a length sufficient to reach four others, that he may be enabled the more easily to provide himself with food." "My good stork, said Rāma, if I intercede to have your wish granted, you may, I fear, have cause before long to repent of the consequences." "My lord, said Laksamäna, if the neck of the stork be lengthened in that manner, he will certainly be taken in a noose." "Brother, answered Rāma, his wish, whatever it be, I must obtain for him. The blame is not mine." Räma then uttered a prayer, and instantly the neck of the stork grew to the length desired. As soon as the two princes had taken their departure, there came a boy to the lake to fish, who perceiving the neck of a bird so
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enormously long as to resemble a huge snake, threw a noose over it, and thus catching the stork, led it away to market, for sale."




 انثق هـب دواورغ










 كَرّيع بايت ايـب
: "When Srī Rāma heard these (conciliatory) words from Balia-räja he attempted to take back from his hand the arrow (he had shot at him), which the latter would not give up to him, but afterwards threw it on the ground. The (enchanted and unerring) reapon thereupon took a $\because$.
fight
flight into the air, and in its descent pierced the breast of this king (of the monkey tribes). He grasped the hand of Rāmu, placed it to his wounded breast, and then raised it to his eyes. "Rāma, said he, I have two dying requests to make to you. The one is that you do not give my wife to (my brother) Sugrīva, and the second that you will take my children under your protection. With regard to Sugriva you will not find his qualities of advantage to you, for his word is not to be trusted; but the person from whom you may expect useful service is the son of another of my brothers, named Hanümàn.". Having spoken these words he let go the hand of Räma, and immediately died. At the moment of the departure of his spirit, a vivid light was seen to issue from the crown of his head, in the form of a palm tree, and to ascend to the skies. Rāma gave orders to Sugriva to support the body, and Laksamāna to wash it, whilst he himself poured the water for the purpose. This being done, he commanded them to bring wood of aloes, and sandal wood, and camphor, and saffron, and amber, and spikenard; and with the assistance of Laksamäna he burned the corpse of Batia-räja (on the pile). When this ceremony was performed, he proceeded along with Laksamäna and Sugriṽa to the palace of the deceased. Upon this occasion every individual of the monkey kind, small and great, harmless and mischievous, old and young, seated themselves in the presence of $\mathrm{Sr} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ Rāma. Among these was one aged monkey, named Pätah Jambün; the younger brother of Baliza-räja's father, whose venerable beard reached to his waist. Him Srī Rāma (now become the regulator of the conquered state and sovereign disposer of honours) seated above Sugriva, placing Sugriva above the sons of Balīa-räja, and these above the other monkies assembled."

مكت سري رام ثرن مبطار سودران كدالم كوت لال كاستان مكث سري رام ثرون دودقله لثم















 دثر نام يـغ جاهـ
" Srī Rāma conducted his two younger brothers, Bardän (Bharata) and Chetradān (Satrughna) into the fort, and then to the palace, where he sat down with them and Laksamäna. Having made their salutation and prostrated themselves at the feet of Rāma, they tendered to him the kingdom (bequeathed to them by their father), and urged him to return and assume the government ; " in order, said they, that we and the rest of your subjects may have the opportunity of doing homage to your
highness,
highness, and that we may perform together the ceremony of burning the corpse of our beloved father." To this Rāma replied in the follow* ing words. "Why, my brothers, do you address me in this manner, since our father has already bestowed upon you the sovereignty of the kingdom? My sentiments are, that his is the inheritance on whomsoever the father confers it; and that if we disobey his will, we assuredly forfeit all pretensions to virtue and its rewards. This world, we must recollect, is not to be eternal, nor to become the property of one individual ; and it should be our object to leave a good name by acting justly, and making a proper distinction between right and wrong. Seat your, selves, my brothers, in the government of the kingdom, and whilst upon the throne do not be supine and indifferent to its duties. Do not fail to thew kindness to the army, and do not suffer any kind of oppression to the people in general. Neglect not to build fortifications and to provide a store of arms. Do not, my brothers, avoid the occasions of consulting with your ministers and the commanders of your troops upon every kind of business or operation. Wholesome advice you will follow, and evil counsel you will lay up in your minds; for when ministers are wicked, their evil acts are imputed by the public to their sovereign. Whenever you pronounce judgment let it be done after full investigation of the truth. Remember (that you are in the presence of) the deities. Take care to preserve the shrine of our father, and with regard to my mother, I leave her as a sacred deposit in your hands. Shew her due reverence. That kingdom which your father designed for you, is now, my brothers, your own possession. Attend to the admonitions I give you, in order that it may be durable, that you may enjoy tranquillity, and that the memory of B b b
our venerable ancestors may not be disgraced. Better is it. to die with reputation than to live under reproach."












 ميهث براتس








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 مبار رعيت برجالن كلعثُوري
" Brother, said Maharäja Ratvana what means can we devise to put to death this diminutive monkey (who has played such mischievous tricksj,
tricks), seeing that of all the various weapons employed not one has had the effect of wounding him?" Hanumān (overhearing this question) replied, " $\mathbf{O}$ my lord, if your imperial majesty wishes to slay your servant, and that his death should be immediate, cause his whole body to be wrapped in cloth; when so wrapped let oil be thrown upon him, and that being done, let the body of your servant be consumed by applying fire to the cloth, from the head of your servant down to his feet." Having heard this, Maharäja Rawana gave instant orders for wrapping folds of cloth round his body, which his people proceeded to put in execution; but as soon as Hanumän felt the wrapper, he began to increase his own size, and although some hundred pieces of cloth were used, still were they insufficient for wrapping him, for the more they attempted to wrap, the more his bulk was enlarged. The king then gave command for opening the warehouses, and all the cloth stored therein was brought forth and employed to wrap the body of Hanumān, but still it was not sufficient. All the cloth that could be found in the king's palace was expended to as little purpose. He then ordered a request to be conveyed to Sïta Dḕvĩ, that she would furnish such cloth as might be in her possession. As soon as Hanumän heard that Sīta Dē̃ō̃ was to be called upon to contribute, (thinking it time to desist), he clapped his tail between his legs, and cried out, "It is enough; I can no longer endure this torment; begin now to throw the oil upon me." Maharäja Rawana then gave orders for pouring oil over him, and when his people had poured out some hundred jars, he directed them to set fire to every part of his body. The wrapping cloth was all presently in a flame, but the person of Hanumān did not sustain the smallest injury. When only a small portion of the cloth, at the extremity of his tail, remained uncon-
sumed, he jumped upon the roof of the king's palace and set it in a blaze; he then jumped upon the houses of the nobility, the ministers, and principal officers, and finally upon those of all the inhabitants of the city of Lañgka-puriz, which were burnt in a general conflagration; the house in which Sita Dēvē resided alone remaining untouched by the flames. This being accomplished, he plunged into the sea, and as soon as the fire of his tail was extinguished, he repaired to the presence of his royal mistress; to whom he said, " $\mathbf{O}$ princess come now along with me, and suffer thy slave to convey thee to $\operatorname{Sr} \bar{i} R \bar{a} m a$, thy beloyed.lord." "Thou knowest, $\mathbf{O}$ Hanumän, replied the princess, that I have bound myself by a solemn vow, neyer to suffer any male being to put his arms about my body, excepting my honoured lord alone, (and cannot therefore be the companion of thy flight). But is not this Srī Rāma a valiant personage, unrivalledkin this world, and boasting a fame as extensive as the universe? Now when the wife of such a man has been ravished from him, is he incapable of effecting her recovery himself, that he should commission another person to execute for him the office of restoring his wife to his bosom? Must not his high reputation be tarnished in the opinion of mankind? I will tell thee, Hanumān, what is the desire of my heart; that he may himself put Maharäja Rawana to death, and rescue me with a mighty arm, and a prowess wortly of his exalted name. Lay these my sentiments, O Hanumän, at the feet of my lord, and fail not to communicate to him my resolution." The princess then added; "Pursue the route I shall point out for thy return. Ascend the mountain of Sarandīb, where thou wilt perceive a black rock, the spot whereupon ADAM alighted in his descent from heaven. Make thy obeisancée to this rock, embrace and kiss it ; and having so done it will serve thee
for.

## A GRAMMAR OF THE

for a position from whence to spring when thou jumpest back to the presence of thy master." Having heard these words he threw himself at the feet of the princess, and then left her to proceed on his journey. Having ascended the mountain of Sarandīb, and approached the black rock, that sacred spot where the prophet ADAM first touched the earth, he prostrated himself before it, grasped it with his arms and kissed it. He then shook himself, and reduced his size to the height of a span only; when making a spring from the rock, he jumped towards the city of Lakar-katakian, and in an instant arrived there. Upon presenting himself to Srī Rāma, he was asked at what time he had returned? He replied, " this very moment," and then throwing himself at Räma's feet, he made a full report to him of all that he had seen, of all that he had heard, and all that he had done, from the commencement of his embassy to its ultimate completion. Every circumstance was faithfully narrated. Srī Rāma, after expressing his joy at hearing that Sìta Dēvō̃ was still living, addressed Hanumān in these words. "O Hanumān, every proceeding of thine, every act thou hast performed merits my approbation as good service, with the exception only of what relates to the burning of the city of Lañgka-purr̄. This was not an act of manly valour. I feel sentiments of strong compassion for the (unfortunate inhabitants of the) city. And what useful purpose could its destruction answer?" Hanumān hung down his head and remained silent. After a short pause Rāma said to him ; " Now, Hanumān, what is your opinion as to the most practicable means of transporting our army, which consists of many hundred thousand troops, to Lang̃ka-pürī, which (as you know) is an island surrounded by the sea?" "My opinion is, replied Hanumān, that our only effectual operation will be that
of damming out the sea by a mole, to serve as a bridge for marching the army into Lañgka-pūrī."

اركي مكت هنومان ثون دسورهث ماسق اوله مهراج راون كدالم ثاگر مكت تتكال هنومان
 راج رثـ ثخجثى مكث دلثكثر لال اي دولق دُاتس ايكرث مكث هنومان دان مهراج راور ثون سام تثغيث ستله سده اي لودق مكث سڭل كات سري رام دان سورت ايتثون د انمجقكنث كثد مهراج راون
" Orders were then given by Maharaja Rawana for admitting Ha$n u m a \bar{n}$ to the audience (as ambassadour from $S r_{\bar{i}} R \bar{a} m a$ ). When he was introduced to the presence, he perceived the monarch seated upon a high throne, surrounded by all the feudal princes, the nobles, ministers, and warriours, and resolving that his master's consequence should not suffer from any degradation of himself, he extended his tail to the length of an hundred fathoms, and having coiled it in spiral folds, he sat upon it; by which means he and Maharāja Rawana were seated at an equal degree of elevation. Having thus placed himself, he communicated the proposals of $\operatorname{Sr} \bar{\imath} \operatorname{Ra} m a$, and delivered his letter to the Maharāja."





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" It has already been mentioned that the wife (of Indra Ajit), the princess Komāla Indra Dēwī, was in a swoon (at the time of his departure for the field of battle, under the walls of Lang $k a-p \bar{r} \bar{i})$; but upon hearing the war shout of his army, she suddenly started, and awoke from her state of insensibility. Perceiving that he was no longer near her, and intelligence arriving of his being slain, she wept and fainted away. Her mother came to her, lamenting and weeping, and sprinkled her with rose water. Upon recovering she threw her arms about the neck of her infant daughter, and then loudly gave vent to her grief in these words: " Alas my honoured lord! O thou who wert the ornament of my life, thou art lost, and where shall I search for thee? thou hast vanished, and where shall I seek thee? Where is now my lord, that his sister (spouse) may find him? In the plain, I pray thee, where is my lord? in the mountains, where is my lord? in the woods, where is my lord? In the field of battle have you chanced to see my brother, where his sister may find him out? Why did my lord abandon this his unfortunate and
and wretched mate? At the very moment of his pressing her to his bosom, he disappeared from her sight. In what place is he concealed from the view of his disconsolate, forlorn sister? My brother was endowed with superior wisdom. None could equal him, none could be placed in comparison with him. Alas, those ferocious beasts have glutted their appetites (with his flesh), savage as the rhinoceros who devours its own offspring ! Alas, my lord, thy child is left, a helpless and destitute orphan ; she is reduced to the state of one in need of charitable protection; to the state of a captive slave, liable to be profaned by the touch of vulgar hands." The princess then bid farewell to her mother, with the intention of ascending the funeral pile of her husband; but the mother, with a flood of tears, embraced and kissed her daughter, endeavouring with sweetly-affectionate words to sooth and divert her from the resolution of burning herself. "Think not, my child, said she, of making thyself a sacrifice whilst the age of thy infant is yet so tender. When she shall stand less in need of thy care, do as thou mayest judge right." The princess then seized a kris, and attempted to stab herself, but her mother snatched the weapon from her hand."

Extracts from the Poem of Radii Mantri and Kami Tambuhan.

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تربغله الي ثرُث ماري
ايتثو برجالن مغمثيري
كنا سـيكر بورغ
كدالم فاكُر كوت يـُ بريكست
هعڭثف د تن كن تمنموهن
تونكث جوب تغكف ثرلامن
سرنديست نى داتـعٌ مهراكى ديرين
هندق د تغثغـ بورغثون لاري
ككت وي كمان بورغ نم تادي
وير دنداني میهبه لالو ثرثُّتُ بتثاله تيڤو بجار لاكُت
لنتس كثنتو بركروبع
د ليهتث لورغُ اداله تربع منيثق كثد كوت بات باتو
لكور سثرت انت ثرراتو
لكوث تيدت لاكثت ترصبر
لاليله دثّ ثمنداثٔ مات تهوله اكى هات تولنث
برداتـغ سمبه لربلاكع
جاءْنله ممندغٌ كهد انت اورعٌ
ثتري توانى كونى سهات
كارن دكاول ثانكت سوري
مساكى تيدى بكثند بري
تيدقله اكت ماهو كهبالي
اكنٌ نـ هندت برتان سنديري
كتاث ڤالمن نسرلهـ ماري
الي ثون تاكت داتـعٌ برلاري
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* اولهث ردين لالو د سهعيـت
* جاته كثوهن جمثاكت برأثت رور

* برداتـع سمبه كّ تداهن
* سقرت دسور اورغ
* كن تمبوهن بغكت سراي برديري
* ردين برتيته كثد ويردنداني
* هندقله تغكف باو كاري
* جكلو كدالم كوت يــِّ تثغّي
* برجالنه الي ثرُثْ سـُورع
* دتنتثى درجله لوبـع
* رديـ ثون سكر ثركت كسيـت
* كتاث ككند سيڤاكه ايـت
* سرت ترثندئ هتيف بردبر
* حيران ترجغع تياد تركات
* وير دنداني ترسنهم مانس ثـر رسان
* دليهتث رادن حيران ترجعـع
* ثُيراث وي بايكت براغُكت ثولـغ
* اثاتكث نه سله مندثر ورت
* جاثنله كيراث تونكت هنثيري
* جكلو سدل تونتُ براستري
* ردين برتيته درج برسري
* ثنغكو ثنتو سورل كاريه
* ويز دندالي مبهبه لال ثرثكت
* تيته دثغلّل ردين منتربي

سرش

|  | * | سرت داتِّ لونق مبهبه |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ثامه وي بكت ثنتو كوت | * | رديه ترسنم سرايل برتيته |
|  | * |  |
|  | * | دسوره كالي كوت بك باتو |
| ميرلا ثدم ورناث موكّ | * | ركين برتيته دثر هو هرك |
|  | * | هندتله سغر اغثك برك |
| سكارغ كهجّهغ | * |  |
|  | * | فنغلور ثنتو ترالو تالكت |
| كّهغ | * |  |
| بروله هات بكّند | * | دبوكان ثنتو اوله سغالمى |
|  | * | . |
|  | * | تتكال ماسق رديّ منتري |
|  | * |  |
|  | * |  |
| ددالم هتين سيڤاله اورغ |  | كى تمبوهن كركّ |
| رديو ترسنهم مانس بركات | * | هندقله لاه كا كبالق كت |
| كان تون هند | * | اده امسك بك بديابري |
|  | * | جهاي مات وجه برسري |
| هندق برتان تون سنديري | * |  |
| بتائ | * | دمناكه نمُت ديس نكّ |
| كاين نه | * | يا وي اثـ نمام تون |
|  | * | مناغِس تنكن كـ |
| موران مانس مبري | * | برداتـغ سِبه |
|  | * | نمان ثاتكّ كه تمبوهن |
|  | * | دتيهكن اوله ثانكت سوري |
| كبنجر كولن مبينغ | * | اكى ثآي نك تونك |
| كباكر كولن تيدتله | * |  |


| ترنله | * | دثلقّ لير سراي د بوجن |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | ترنك سغرت بريانيري |
|  | * | دهيم ارله رديّن منتري |
| ثرا رسان ترلال ثري | * | ثد ثيكر بكّل ثرثّري |
| مركاله كلق ثرهيسوري | * | سبب ثربوّن ريّن متري |

Upon coming in sight of the ornamented pleasure garden,
The heart of the prince felt new rapture.
The blossoms were the subject of his admiration,
And the birds drew near as if to welcome his steps.
Radin immediately took his arrow-tube,
To shoot the birds that were within his view.
They alighted upon every rambutan tree,
And flew and hopped around;
Some on the flower-bearing nagakehsir,
Fluttering about in every direction;
All seeming to invite the approach of Radin Mantri,
Who still advancing nearer to them,
Blew an arrow through his tube
And struck a serendit bird.
It descended near to a tree bearing chumpaka flowers,
Within the enclosed precincts of the garden,
And falling gradually,
Alighted upon the loom at which Kani Tambuhan worked.
One of her companions hastening towards her, said,
" Will not your highness gently try to catch it?
" As if it had been commissioned hither,
" The bird comes to deliver itself up."

Kani Tambuhan instantly arose,
And endeavoured to seize the bird as it ran from her.
Radin (in the mean time) thus addressed Wira Dandäni;
" Which way, my brother, flew the bird we saw just now?
" I wish you to catch and bring it to me."
Wìra Dandāni made his obeisance, and then went his way.
" If, said he, it has fallen within these lofty walls,
By what contrivance shall I be able to get at it ?"
He proceeded onward, alone,
Until he reached the gate of the:enclosure.
There, espying through a crevice,
He perceived the bird fluttering about.
Radin presently followed him to the spot,
And looking through an interstice of the wall,
Said, "Who may that be, my brother,
" Whose appearance bespeaks her the daughter of a prince?".
Continuing to gaze, his heart began to throb,
And he could no longer restrain his impatience.
His astonishment deprived him of utterance,
His senses being overpowered by what his eyes beheld.
Wìra Dandāni smiled, though with feelings of anxiety, Knowing the state of his companion's heart;
And as he perceived him lost in admiration, Thus spoke, as he stood behind him.
" I think it is advisable that we should return,
" And leave off gazing at the daughters of other men.
Eee
"Your
" Your servant has heard it reported
"That the person you see, is no other than a captive princess.
" Do not, I pray your highness, remain so near,
" As she is guarded by the order of your royal mother.
"So soon as you are married (suitably to your rank),
" Can your father have any objection to giving her to you?"
Radin replied, with an animated countenance,
" I do not chuse to return,
" Order the keeper of the gate to come hither,
"That I may question him myself."
Wira Dandāni bowed and left him.
He said to the porter, "Follow me immediately;
" By Radin Mantri is your attendance required."
Affrighted at the summons he came running,
And when he drew near, made his obeisance,
Bending his head to the earth.
Radin, smiling, said to him,
" Open this gate my old friend."
The porter, still approaching, said respectfully,
" Your slave is afraid to do what his mistress has forbidden.
"Her orders to me are to guard these stone walls,
" And not to suffer any one to enter."
Radin said to him angrily,
His face glowing with passion,
" You must open it instantly;
" And no person beside myself shall enter.
MALAYAN LANGUAGE. ..... 199
" If you refuse, be assured
" I shall immediately cut your head to atoms."
The gate-keeper became exceedingly terrified;
His body quaked and his bones rattled.
Without being able to say one word in reply,
He drove back the bolt of the door.
The entrance being thus opened by the old man,
The indignation of the prince was soothed.
He stepped forward and passed into the garden,
Leaving his companions withoutside the gate.
Upon Radin Mantri's entering,
He was observed by all the young attendants,
Every one of whom ran away,
Leaving Kani Tambuhan entirely to herself.
Radin drawing near whilst her back was towards him,
Suddenly snatched her shuttle and seized her hand.
Kani Tambuhan being alarmed looked about,
Saying to herself, "Who can this be?"
She tried to run behind the garden-seat,
When Radin, smiling sweetly, said to her,
" O! my lovely celestial nymph,
"Whither do you wish to flee?

* Your eyes glisten, your countenance glows ;
" Do not, my soul! be terrified or angry.
" Your brother's motive for coming hither,
" Is only to make inquiry of yourself,
" What country gave you birth,
" And what events have brought you to this place'?
"What, let me ask is your name,
"And how do you name the cloth you are wèa ving?"
Kani Tambuhan wept and hung her head,
Her mind being extremely agitated.
Gently making her obeisance,
She said with a sweet, affecting voice,
" The name of your servant is Kani Tambuliun,
" And that of my work is karingsang wayang.
"Our gracious mistress has given directions,
"That we should all be daily employed in weaving,
"For the lady whom your highness is to take to wife,
"The princess whom you are going to woo at Banjar Kulan."
To this Radin replied with a laugh,
" To Banjar Kúlan I am not going."
He embraced her neck, and caressed her, saying,
" O! my life, how beautiful thy countenance;
" Thou art to be compared to the celestial nymphs,
"And if thou vanishest from me; where can I search for thee?"
Radin Mantri then proceeded to kiss her,
When she cried out, and wrested herself from him.
All the damsels now thaught of interfering,
And felt indignant at his conduct.
" This proceeding of the prince (said they)
" Will presently draw upon us much anger from the queen."

|  |  | * |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | لال برسبد بكثلد سكنديري | * |  |
|  | بوغكن اي كدالم هوتك | * | باو الرالم ميتمبرهن |
|  |  | * | الي بركات ثرلاهر |
|  |  | * | سعرت ثاسنك |
|  |  | * |  |
|  |  | * | ثيكرله ايل د دالم هات |
|  | مارهن تيدن داثت | * |  |
|  | مليهت لوك كـ تمبوه* | * |  |
|  | بار سيتمبن سلرك | * | برتيته ثول ثريّريسوري |
|  |  | * | جكلو منداثتك فلى انتى منتري |
|  | Fr تورن برجاله | * | لالوهل بغكت كـ |
|  | ثلبلي برجالى | * | د'يرث大كه |
|  |  | * |  |
|  | مغكّ دتنتّ | * | تتكال بولى ثرنها راي |
|  | كى تمبوهن تيدن منوله كبلكئ | * |  |
|  | ترسنلر سديكت كاكي دسيت | * | ستله سثي كلور |
|  |  | * | برثيكرل إي دوبالم هتير |
|  | لال برسهر اكن ديريّ | * | تركنغكه كاسِه |
|  | دثّ كلكد رديّن اينو | * | تيداله رثاث اكت برتمr |
|  | تمنث كدو ترلال كـبيّن | * |  |
|  |  | * | ثلبي بركاك ثد كـ |
|  | سشاي سِر برتو تون | * | عاسق كهوته ثربرون |
|  | ثنتين اندها ترلا ثرّير | * | ستله سطثي كتلي سوثي |
|  |  | * | الهه لـو بدنر لا لا |
|  |  | * | هتين ساغت برسايوا |
| برهنتي |  | Fff |  |

## A GRAMMAR OF THE

هاري ايد جرثّ دسوره ثادعكى * تيدتله دإثت ثاتكت سالهكن

جكك بِتمو لثم كاكي منتري

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ث ثلباي بركات كثد ثرمثرن } \\
& \text { سديكت لا'ث ملالري هوتن } \\
& \text { كى تموهن برجالن ثول }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تركنغك كات ردين اينو بانو }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ثلبلهي برثالغ سراي بركات } \\
& \text { نايكله لودوت كـ تمبوهن }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تمهثت نى سیت تياد بركترهن } \\
& \text { برتهبه كنده هاتب ك تم تمبوهن } \\
& \text { هواتثور تيدق ابت كتان }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كارن سدلا تغثِّي هاربي } \\
& \text { ثلباءي مباهت ثرلامر P } \\
& \text { ثاتكث دتيهكّ راتو ثرمثون } \\
& \text { د } \\
& \text { كبنجركولن مينيغ ثقري }
\end{aligned}
$$

| MALAYAN L |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ككلله ترنك | * | . |
| سكل فاسن ك. | * | ستله دلثر ك. |
|  | * | هتيث بلس ساثّله كـيّه |
| باسهله كاين. | * | ايرمكتاث جوثّ بره |
| تتكال ددالم نكري تنجيّغ | * |  |
| سهسافم مرساءي سغسار | * |  |
| هندقله مات برسهسام | * |  |
| هنهر لوله هاس هتوبك | * |  |
| تياد ترڤندعٌ | * | ثامه وي بونه بيت ديت دهول |
| كرجاك تيته ثرميسوري | * | برتيته ثول رديّ ثري |
|  | * |  |
| مغونس كرس لال دسارغّك | * | تياد اكى بونه ثد ثررسان |
| دتيكى داد ترس كبلاكِ | * |  |
| زبهله الي ثرلاهـ* | * | هرساي تيكم كن بمبوهن |


هتيث بلس ساثتله كسيثن
أير متاث جوثت برهمبورن
بر كچل ثاتكت ثليهر
* *
نيتى ڤاتكت ر سلام
معُكه دكنـُ برتمبه ثيلو
ثامن وي بونه بيت دهول
برتيته ثول رديم ثتري
مندثر كات دمكين اين
تياد اكى بونه ثد ثررسان
كرس سمثان متام ثنجي
* * زبهله اي ثرلاهنم
مرساكي تيكم كن بمتبوهن
"The queen then gave command
For calling the bostangi to her presence.
The bostangi attended, and drawing near,
The royal personage said to him;
"Take with you Sı Tambuhan,
" And convey her to the woods."
To which she added, in a low voice,
" Extinguish her so that she shall be no more seen.
" Dare not to vary from my orders."
The bostangi retired, making lis obeisance.
The hearts of all who were present throbbed,
Their countenances became pale, and their bodies trembled.
They

They thought within their hearts,
This queen's disposition is most wicked;
Her mind is diabolically vile;
And over her passion she has no command.
All the princesses felt emotions of pity,
On perceiving the situation of Kani Tambuhan.
The queen again sàid,
"Let $S \bar{z}$ Tambulian be immediately taken away;
" And should you meet the prince (in the forest),
" Desire my son to come to me with speed."
Kani Tambuhan then arose,
And with slow steps decended (from the palace),
Followed by her'consoling friend Kani Tedahan;
The bostaingi walking in front of them.
To those who beheld her departing,
She appeared like the moon amongst passing clouds;
Like the moon in the fulness of her orb,
Which seems the brighter the more it is contemplated.
Every beholder was filled with comprassion.
Kani Tambuhan did not give a look behind her.
Having reached the outer gate,
She sat down awhile to rest her feet;
Impressed with the idea
That her existence drew near to a close.
She reflected on the tenderness of her husband,
And then upon her present condition.
" There appears no probability of meeting " (said she) my lord, Radin Inu."
The tears gushed from her eyes;
And her two attendants sympathised with her.
The bostangi said to Kani Tambuhan;
" Let us proceed, my lady, with more expedition,
" Towards the forest where game abounds,
" That we may the sooner find the prince."
Having reached the bank of a river,
The strand of which was beautifully smooth,
She felt extreme lassitude,
And grasped the hands of her two female friends.
Her respiration became violent
As the sound of rushing wind.
She reposed for a moment beneath a tree,
Doubtful of being able to proceed.
The bostangi again said to the women,
" I pray you keep moving slowly onward:
"We shall presently have passed.the wood,
" And shall arrive at the hunting-ground.".
Kani Tambuhan set forward once more,
Making an effort to draw her feet after her.
The notes of the velvet-coated birds,
Added only to her melancholy,
Serving to remind her of Radin's conversation,
When he amused her in the hours of repose.

$$
\mathbf{G} \mathbf{g} \mathbf{g}
$$

They

They now came to a level rock,
Formed by nature like a seat.
Their conductor turning towards them, said, " Here, my lady, is our resting place."
Kani Tambuhan got up and sat upon it,
Her feet hanging down from excess of fatigue.
Kani Tedahan, her faithful attendant, said;
" The apprehensions of your servant are strongly excited,
" Led as we are into this wilderness,
" Where there is no mark of human footstep."
These words increased the anxiety of her mistress.
And pearly drops ran down her face.
She uttered not a word,
But only wiped the tears from her eyes.
Her two attendants also wept,
And continued in a state of stupefaction.
Kani Tambuhan rising from her seat, said,
" Wherefore, my old man, are we brought hither?
"The day being now far advanced,
"Is the prince Radin Mantri still at a distance?"
The bostangi replied in a serious tone,
" This, my lady, is the limit of our journey.
" Your slave received command from the queen,
"To conduct your highness into this wood,
" And here to put you to death,
" On account of your cohabitation with Radin Mantri,
" Who
" Who was matched with a princess at Banjar Kulan,
" And may now refuse to take her to wife."

## Hearing these words from Kani Tambuhan

He was affected with strong emotions of pity.
Approaching, he mildly said to her,
" Pardon, $\mathbf{O}$ lady! whatever offence I may be obliged to commit.
" How can your slave avoid it,
" Under the terror of being put to the test of an oath?
" This day, my orders are to extinguish your life,
" And I cannot possibly evade them."
" If you should meet with my lord the prince,
" Gonvey to him my humble salutation,
" With my wishes for perfect happiness in his marriage,
" And a long and prosperous reign."
Kani Tedahan having attentively listened
To all the commands of her mistress,
Was overwhelmed with grief;
And as she bent her head upon her lap,
The tears gushing from her eyes,
Moistened the garments of Kani Tambuhan.
" From your childhood, said she, I have taken care of you,
" Whilst we still dwelt at Tanjong-püra.
" No difference ever arose between us ;
" And we have been companions in misfortune.
" Your servant's wish has long been,
" That in death also we should be companions.
" Reflection only augments my grief,
" And my heart melts within me.
" Slay me first, $\mathbf{O}$ my father!
" That I may not witness the fate of my mistress."
The princess then said with dignity,
" Proceed to execute the commands of your queen!"
Her words thus pronounced
Excited pity in the heart of the bostangi,
Whose own feelings would have restrained him from the deed.
He drew his kris, and again he sheathed it;
But thrust, at last, the long and well-tempered blade
Into her breast, till the weapon appeared at her back.
Kani Tambuhan on receiving the fatal wound,
Fell without a struggle to the earth."

Specimens of the Pantun or proverbial Sonnet.


" Butterflies sport on the wing around, They fly to the sea by the reef of rocks.
My heart has felt uneasy in my breast,
From former days to the present hour.
They fly to the sea by the reef of rocks.
The vulture wings its flight to Bandan.
From former days to the present hour,
Many youths have I admired.
The vulture wings its flight to Bandan,
Dropping its feathers at Patani.
Many youths have I admired,
But none to compare with my present choice.
His feathers he let fall at Patani.
A score of young pigeons.
No youth can compare with my present choice, Skilled as he is to touch the heart."

" A maiden draws water from the well;
The bucket falls off, leaving only the cord.
Hh h
Consent

Consent, my life, to the departure of your friend,
And do not grieve at the separation."

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جاغْ دلثّثم با }
\end{aligned}
$$

" The heron flies into the air,
And dashes down the fish it had caught..
Forbear to grasp burning embers,
Or, feeling the heat, you will quickly let them go."

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كرأهي بريسي "ايز.نارر }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { سمثي مسرًا ددالم توبه }
\end{aligned}
$$

" Large ants in the bambu-cane.
A flasket filled with rose-water.
When the passion of love seizes my frame,
From you alone I can expect my cure."

Extracts from a moral and satirical Poem:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { مشاي ومام }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جكلو تيدن ساله سوات } \\
& \text { مععبتُور تيدت ماهو كسيت }
\end{aligned}
$$

"If you, my son, are about to take a wife,
You should look for these four qualifications ;
In order that your family may be prosperous,
And your friends may have pleasure in frequenting your house.
In the first place, chase a person of good birth ;
In the second, let her be the owner of some thousands;
Thirdly, elegant in person and sweet in countenance;
Fourthly, of good understanding and accomplished manners.
Should she be deficient in any one of these,
Take not such a woman to wife.
If you do, your friends will avoid your company;
And you will sit moping like a spectre."

" It is true that those of the present race are wise;
They have much science, but plain good sense is wanting:
They:

They are able to count the stars in the sky,
But cannot tell when their own faces are smutted.
Their employment is mutual obloquy and recrimination,
And every place is filled with inquisitive tattlers.
In these days the behaviour of young women is immodest,
Flirting and toying with the young men.
It was not the case with maidens of former times,
Who possessed much delicacy and senserof shame.
Circumstances are now very different,
And all sort of conversation is familiar to them.
Where there are a number of youthful gallants,
There you will find the young women assembled,
Whose manners assume a variety of hues.
The consequence of all this is but too obvious.
Even the children now o'days (imitate their elders);
And both boys and girls are equally forward.
They play about promiscuously together,
With all the familiarity of man and wife.
Are not such things evident signs,
That the end of the world is drawing near?"

Extract from the Annals of the Kingdom of Achin.


 هاري













"The king our sovereign died on Sunday the eighth day of the month zu'l'kàdah, in the year 1088 (1677), and Paduka Sri sultan Ghayat Släk began his reign -on the same day. He sat on the throne during the period of eleven years and eight days, and died on Sunday the seventh day of the month zu' $\mathrm{l}^{\prime} h \ddot{j j} a h$, in the year 1099 ( 1687 ), uponwhich day also Paduka Sri sultan Kamalat Shah became king; and his reign lasted eleven years, four months, and two days, when he was deposed, After this there was a succession of four queens, on the throne of Achin, the seat of peace, and these female reigns continued during a period of sixty years, nine months, and seventeen days. Sultan Beder al-älam Sherif Häsham Jamäled-din ascended the throne on Wednesday the twentieth day of the month rabial akhir, in the year 1111 (1699), and when he had reigned two years, four months, and twelve days, it pleased

God in his mercy to visit him with contractions in his feet and his hands, so that he was no longer able to perform the offices of prayer; upon which he voluntarily abdicated the government, and retired to a place called Tanjong, where he died in the year 1113 (1701). On Saturday the seventeenth day of the month ramadan, Perkasa Alam ibn Ibrälīm obtained the crown and had reigned only two years, three months and twenty days, when he was deposed from his government on Wednesday the seventh day of the month muharram. After an interregnum of about three months duration, in the year 1115 (1703), the son of Beder al-älam succeeded to the throne, by the title of Paduka Srï sultan Jamāl al-ālam."

The Memoirs of Kei Damang and his Family, written by Inchī La'ūdīn, his youngest Son, thus conclude.









"From the period of the loss of their noble father, it is not to be conceived-
conceived what cares and troubles have been experienced by every individual of the family of Kei Damang; the consequence of having left their native land of Samangka. The sons were separated and scattered over various countries, as their fortunes happened to lead them. Some remained in the island of Sumatra, some proceeded to the island of Bali, whilst others sought those parts of Java which lie beyond the jurisdiction of the Dutch Company. Such were their resting places. Like birds they directed their flight to wherever the trees of the forest presented them with edible fruit, and there they alighted. They were in the state of chickens who had lost their careful mother. When they found persons who were disposed to favour and compassionate them, to those they devoted their services. Such has been the condition of Kei Damang's sons since the death of their noble parent. For the information of all respectable persons desirous of knowing their story, this narrative has been committed to writing, and so faithfully, that those who read may consider themselves as eye-witnesses of the adventures it relates. But the Almighty alone knows what is good and what is evil for (or, of) his servants in this world."

## Extracts from Legal and Theological Works.




 الي تياد برجهاي " The
"The subject of this chapter is the prayers to be used on the occasion of eclipses of both kinds, namely, those of the sun and those of the moon. In the first place (it should be mentioned that) the learned have not ascertained the true nature of the eclipse of the sun, for shining as he does with his own light, it should not be liable to variation. But with respect to the eclipse of the moon, as she has no light in herself, and only derives it from the brightness of the sun, it follows that when that light is hid from her by the earth's being in the line between her and the sun, she should become obscured or eclipsed";



 إيث
"Thus it is (speaking of the visibility and invisibility of the Deity) with the light of the sun which is transmitted to the moon; for the light of the latter is not its own proper light, but only that of the sun communicated to it, and consequently the moon possesses only a reflected light from that of the sun. On this account it is that we sometimes see the moon shining with a full, and sometimes with a diminished light, and that at other times she is entirely deprived of light:"
تطب



2n." The keblat (or direction of the face in prayer), varies according to the different situation of countries (with respect to the temple of Mecca). For the keblat of Egypt the North star must be brought to bear in a direction from the hinder part of the left ear ; for that of Irak, in a direction from the hinder part of the right ear; for that of most part of Yemen, from the fore part of the left side; for that of Sybia, from the back; for that of Gujerat, from the right shoulder; for the keblat of most Malayan countrits and of Achin, the North star must be in a direction from the fore part of the right flank."





 إيت كارن 0ليت بولى ايی برلاينليين هبـ برلاينيين تمثت تربت مهاري

[^6]of it. When the (new) moon has been observed from any town, it is incumbent upon the inhabitants of any other town agreeing with the former in respect to the time of sun-rise (situated in the same meridian), to commence their Fast also, in consequence of such agreement ; but where a coincidence with respect to the time of sun-rise does not exist, it is not required that the Fast should take place in that town where the moon has not yet been seen, because the difference of the time of her becoming visible may be occasioned by the difference of the time of surrise at the two places (that is, by the difference of their longitude)."






 أيثت
" It behoveth us to know, and to bear in mind, and to believe, and to regulate our actions by the meaning of the words $ل$ language, in Persian, and in the language of the people of Pase (the Malayan). This symbol of Unity signifies in Arabic, "I have no other existence than that of God." As rendered in Persian it has the same meaning, and in the language of Pasē it has likewise the above-mentioned signification. Now the result of all these meanings and the intention of all that has been stated is to prove the Unity of the essence of the Almighty,

Almighty, with all his perfections, and also make manifest his greathess and his glory comprehended in that Unity." 'Tlis perversion of the meaning of the well-known Mahometan symbol or profession of faith, "there is no god but God," appears to be a pious fraud of some sect, to answer the purposes of their mystical doctrine. Pase here spoken of was formerly a city of considerable note, on the northern coast of Su matra, afterwards subjected to the dominion of Achin, and reduced 'to insignificance. The book from whence these extracts are made, written in a fine hand and with uncommon accuracy, was probably composed at that place.)





. " When God Almighty had created the Holy Ghost, that is to say the pure Spirit, he said unto him, thou shalt be as a mirror, and in thee alone shall be beheld all existing things. Some time after the creation of the Holy Ghost, God created all spirits or souls, and the Holy Ghost is to all spirits what the stem is to the branches, and they are to him what the branches are to the stem; but branches which cannot be separated from their stem nor fall off from it,"
 وجونث


" Now there is no other existence distinct from the existence of God, and all these numerous objects (of sense) serve only to manifest the existence of the One; so also do all visible qualities and visible attributes serve only to manifest His sole existence."


" Whocver understands the words above-mentioned will certainly know (what is meant by) his, proceeding from God, and his (ultimate) return to Him, and will certainly be aware that his own external nature is not distinct from the essence of the Deity."


 ايت جبر
" It is with this object that some of the learned commentators have adduced an example (of identity and diversity) in the instance of " wave" and " water ;" for with respect to appearance and name, the wave is to be distinguished from the water; but if you view and consider them with respect to their real, internal nature, wave is not distinct from water, or only so far as regards exterior form and name."

Genesis,

## Genesis, Chap. xlv.




















 ايسي Ll1
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[^0]:    Very probable it is that the inhabitants of both islands, Jova and Sumatra, before they had embraced the Mahometan faith, were of the religion of Brahma. Will you let me have for a moment again the letter from Mr. Marsden, in order to peruse the requests of that learned gentleman, and should I be able to furnish him with any information, I shall be happy to embrace the opportunity.

    I remain, \&c.
    To Charles Holloway, Esq.
    A. Couperus." Calcutta.

[^1]:    *Thus he speaks of himself. "By nineteen years continuance in East-India, wholly spent in navigation, and trading in most places of those countries, and much of that time in the Malayo countries, Sumatra, Borneo, Bantam, Batavia, and other parts of Java, by my conversation and trading with the inhabitants of which places, I did furnish myself with so much of the Malayo language as did enable me to negociate my affairs, and converse with those people without the assistance of a prevaricating interpreter, as they commonly are. In the year 1688 I embarked at Fort St. George for England, which proving a long voyage, and I being out of imployment, did at my leisure time set down all that came into my memory of the Malayo language; which together with some helps that I have attained since, has furnished me with so much of that language as I think may be of great use to trade and conversation in the Malayo country . . . . and I finding so very few Englishmen that have attained any tollerable knowledge in the Malayo tongue, so absolutely necessary to trade in those seas, and that there is no book of this kind published in English, to help the attaining that language; these considerations, I say, has imboldened me to publish the insuing Dictionary, which I am sensible has many imperfections, I having had very little help to assist me, and not having had the opportunity of conversation with any Malayo since I begun this work, nor in several years before,"

    A copy of this Dictionary full of manuscript corrections, made at an early period, as appears by the writing and the orthography, accidentally came into my possession. At the end of the first or English and Malayo part, the following extraordinary memorandum occurs. "Soe far Corrected by henry smith. My Dictionary which $y^{\text {e. foregoing should have bin onely the Coppy off, is so strangely }}$ perverted thro' Ignorance of the genuine Elegancy and Meaning of the Wordes in this language, that it would have puzled a learned Malayer to have pickt out the meaning of the short sentences, for they are very concise in there discourse useing noe circumlocutions or tautalogie." The hand-writing of the memorandum is the same with that of the corrections, which are for the most part judicious, and the name is written in the style of a signature. Nothing further respecting this henry smith has ever come to my knowledge.

[^2]:    * Mr. John marsden died in London on the 13th April 1786, having then nearly completed his fortieth year.

[^3]:    gosanilutiai

[^4]:    * In the Latin, Greek, German, Persian, and many other languages, the imperative seems to be the most obvious basis of the inflexions of the verb, yet it has not been so regarded by grammarians, who assign this property, some to the third person of the preterite tense, and others to the infinitive mood. Sir William Jones says, that the latter $\approx$ is properly considered by the oriental grammarians as the spring and fountain of all the moods and tenses." It is with diffidence I venture to state my opinion in opposition to such authority; but to my mind it appears more probable, both in point of form and sense, that the infinitive, which so far from conveying a simple idea, approaches in fact to the character of an abstract nomn, (as in the phrase, " to give is better than to receive,") could never have been the source of that mood in which the earliest sentiments of childhood

[^5]:    Extract of a Letter from the King of Tranğgañü to the Same.
    
    
    
    
    
     ثـ

[^6]:    " Upon a person's saying to the Prophet (on whom be the blessing of God, and peace), I see the (new) moon, he began his Fast, and he gave command to all men to fast also. When the fasting shall have been duly observed for thirty complete days, of which a respectable person is to bear testimony, it is proper to discontinue it, although the moon should not then have become visible, nor any vapour arisen to obstruct the view K k k

