(Saurâshtra) community were arrested by the governor of Madura for performing the Brahmanical ceremony of upâkarma, or renewal of the sacred thread. The queen convened a meeting of those learned in the Śâstras to investigate the Patnûlkarans' right to perform such ceremonies. This declared in favour of the defendants; and the queen gave them a palm leaf award accordingly, which is still preserved in Madura.¹' From this time onward the caste followed "many of the customs of the southern Brahmans regarding food, dress, forms of worship and names, and has recently taken to the adoption of Brahmanical titles, such as Aiyar, Âcharya and Bhâgavatar.² Similar acts of state interference or arbitration made the conflicts between the various communities less serious than they would otherwise be, and before long the close proximity of the conquerors and the conquered, the services of the former in exploiting the country and increasing its resources, the growth of mutual acquaintance, the community of action and interest as against outsiders, and other causes contributed to greater cordiality among them; and the advent of the Badugas thus came to mean no other thing than an innocent complication of an already highly complex plethora of castes and tribes.

(To be continued.)

THE PAHARI LANGUAGE.1

BY SIR GEORGE A. GRIERSON, K. C. I. E.

The word 'Pahârî' means 'of or belonging to the mountains,' and is specially applied to the groups of languages spoken in the sub-Himalayan hills extending from the Bhadrawâh, north of the Panjâb, to the eastern parts of Nepâl. To its North and East various Himalayan Tibeto-Burman languages are spoken. To its west there are Aryan languages connected with Kâshmîrî and Western Pañjâbî, and to its south it has the Aryan languages of the Panjâb and the Gangetic plain, viz:—in order from West to East, Pañjâbî, Western Hindî, Eastern Hindî and Bihârî.

The Pahârî languages fall into three main groups. In the extreme East there is Khas-Kurâ or Eastern Pahârî, commonly called Naipâlî, the Aryan language spoken in Nepâl. Next, in Kumaon and Garhwâl, we have the Central Pahârî languages, Kumaunî and Garhwâlî. Finally in the West we have the Western Pâhárî languages spoken in Jaunsâr-Bâwar, the Simla Hill States, Kulu, Mandi and Suket, Chambâ, and Western Kashmîr.

As no census particulars are available for Nepâl we are unable to state how many speakers of Eastern Pahârî there are in its proper home. Many persons (especially Gôrkhâ soldiers) speaking the language reside in British India. In 1891 the number counted in British India was 24,262, but these figures are certainly incorrect. In 1901 the number was 143,721. Although the Survey is throughout based on the Census figures of 1891, an exception will be made in the case of Eastern Pahârî, and those for 1901 will be taken, as in this case they will more nearly represent the actual state of affairs at the time of the preceding census.

¹ Madu. Gaz. I, p. 111.

² Madu. Gaz. I, p. 111.

¹ This article is an advance issue of the Introduction to the volume of the *Linguistic Survey of India* dealing with the Pahâri Languages.

Central and Western Pahârî are both spoken entirely in tracts which were subject to the Census operations of 1891, and these figures may be taken as being very fairly correct. The figures for the number of Pahârî speakers in British India are therefore as follows:—

Eastern Pahârî (1901)	• •	• •		• •		143,721
						1,107,612
Western Pahârî (1891)	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	816,181

TOTAL 2,067,514

It must be borne in mind that these figures only refer to British India, and do not include the many speakers of Eastern Pahârî who inhabit Nepâl.

To these speakers of Western Pahârî must be added the language of the Gujurs who wander over the hills of Hazâra, Murree, Kashmîr, and Swat and its vicinity. Except in Kashmîr and Hazâra, these have never been counted. In Kashmîr, in the year 1901, the number of speakers of Gujurî was returned at 126,849 and in Hazâra, in 1891, at 83,167, and a mongrel form of the language, much mixed with Hindôstânî and Pañjâbî is spoken by 226,949 Gujars of the submontane districts of the Panjâb, Gujrât, Gurdâspur, Kângia, and Hoshiârpur. To make a very rough guess we may therefore estimate the total number of Gujurî speakers at, say, 600,000, or put the total number of Pahârî speakers including Gujurî at about 2,670,000.

It is a remarkable fact that, although Pahârî has little connexion with the Pañjâbî, Western and Eastern Hindî, and Bihârî spoken immediately to its south, it shows manifold traces of intimate relationship with the languages of Râjputâna. In order to explain this fact it is necessary to consider at some length the question of the population that speaks it. This naturally leads to the history of the Khaśas and the Gurjaras of Sanskrit literature. The Sanskrit Khaśa and Gurjara are represented in modern Indian tongues by the words Khas, and Gûjar, Gujar, or Gujur respectively. The mass of the Aryan-speaking population of the Himalayan tract in which Pahârî is spoken belongs, in the West, to the Kanêt and, in the East, to the Khas caste. We shall see that the Kanêts themselves are closely connected with the Khaśas, and that one of their two sub-divisions bears that name. The other (the Râo) sub-division, as we shall see below, I believe to be of Gurjara descent.

Sanskrit literature contains frequent³ references to a tribe whose name is usually spelt Khaśa (অয়), with variants such as Khasa (অয়). Khasha (অয়), and Khaśîra া অয়ািং).⁴ The earlier we trace notices regarding them, the further north-west we find them.

² See the continuation of this article in the next number.

³ Authorities on Kanêt and Khas:—Cunningham, Sir Alexander,—Archæological Survey of India, Vol. XIV, pp. 125 ff. Ibbetson, Sir Denzil,—Outlines of Panjāb Ethnography (Calcutta, 1883), p. 268. Atkinson, E. T.—The Himalayan Districts of the North-Western Provinces of India, Vol. II (forming Vol. XI of the Gazetteer, North-Western Provinces), Allahabad, 1884, pp. 268-70, 375-81, 439-42, etc., (see Index). Stein, Sir Aurel.—Translation of the Râja-Tarangirî, London, 1900, Note to i, 317, II, 430, and elsewhere (see Index). Hodgson, B. H.—Origin and Classification of the Military Tribes of Népál. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal II (1833), pp. 217 ff. Reprinted on pp. 37 ff. of Part II of Essays on the Languages, Literature and Religion of Nepál and Tibet (London, 1874). Vansittart, E.,—The Tribes, Clans, and Castes of Népál. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, LXIII (1894), Part I, pp. 213 ff. Lèvi, Sylvain,—Le Népal, Paris, 1905. Vol. I., pp. 257, ff., 261-267, 276 ff.; Vol. II, pp. 216 ff., etc. (see Index.)

⁴ E.g. Mahâbhārata, VI, 375:—Daradāh Kāśmīrāh Khaśīrāh, Dards, Kâshmīrīs, and Khaśīras. Regarding the equation of the last named with Khaśas, cf. Wilson, Vishnu Purāna II, 186.

Before citing the older authorities it may be well to recall a legend regarding a woman named Khasa of which the most accessible version will be found in the Vishnu Purâṇa, 5 but which also occurs in many other similar works. The famous Kaśyapa, to whom elsewhere is attributed the origin of the country of Kashmîr, had numerous wives. Of these Krôdhavaśa was the ancestress of the cannibal Piśitâśîs or Piśâchas and Khasa of the Yakshas and Râkshasas. These Yakshas were also cannibals, 6 and so were the Râkshasas.

In Buddhist literature the Yakshas correspond to the Piśâchas of Hindû legend.⁷ Another legend makes the Piśâchas the children of Kapiśâ, and there was an ancient town called Kâpiśa at the southern foot of the Hindû Kush.⁸ That the Piśâchas were also said to be cannibals is well known, and the traditions about ancient cannibalism in the neighbourhood of the Hindû Kush have been described elsewhere by the present writer.⁹ Here we have a series of legends connecting the name Khasâ with cannibalism practised in the mountains in the extreme north-west of India, and to this we may add Pliny's remark¹⁰ about the same locality,—'next the Attacori (Uttarakurus) are the nations of the Thuni and the Forcari; then come the Casiri (Khaśîras), an Indian people who look towards the Scythians and feed on human flesh.'

Numerous passages in Sanskrit literature give further indications as to the locality of the Khaśas. The Mahâbhârata¹¹ gives a long account of the various rarities presented to Yudhishṭhira by the kings of the earth. Amongst them are those that rule over the nations that dwell near the river Sailôdâ where it flows between the mountains of Mêru and Mandara, i.e. in Western Tibet.¹² These are the Khasas the Pâradas (? the people beyond the Indus), the Kulindas¹³ and the Taṅgaṇas.¹⁴ Especially interesting is it to note that the tribute these people brought was Tibetan gold-dust, the famous pipîlika, or ant-gold, recorded by Herodotus¹⁵ and many other classical writers, as being dug out of the earth by ants.

In another passage¹⁶ the Khasas are mentioned together with the Kâśmîras (Kâśhmîrîs), the inhabitants of Urasa (the modern Panjab district of Hazara), the Piśâchas, Kâmbôjas¹⁷

⁵ Wilson, II, 74 ff.

⁶ Bhâgavata Purâna, III, xix, 21. They wanted to eat Brahmâ himself!

⁷ So Kalhana, Râjatarangini, i. 184, equates Yaksha and Piśâcha. See note on the passage in Stein's translation.

⁸ Thomas in J. R.A. S., 1906, p. 461.

⁹ J. R. A. S., 1905, pp. 285 ff.

¹⁰ XVI, 17; McCrindle,—Ancient India as described in Classical Literature, p. 113. Is it possible that 'Thuni and Forcari' represent 'Hûṇa and Tukhâra'?

¹¹ II, 1822 ff.

¹² II, 1858. Cf. Pargiter. Markandeya Purana, p. 351.

¹³ Vide post.

¹⁴ The Τάγγανοι of Ptolemy. The most northern of all the tribes on the Ganges. They lived near Badrînâth. Here was the district of Taiganapura, mentioned in copper-plate grants preserved at the temple of Paṇḍukêsvara near Badrînâth (Atkinson, op. cit. p. 357).

¹⁵ III, 104. ¹⁶ VII, 399.

¹⁷ According to Yâska's Nirukta (II, i, 4), the Kâmbôjas did not speak pure Sanskrit, but a dialectic form of that language. As an example, he quotes the Kâmbôja śavati, he goes, a verb which is not used in Sanskrit. Now this verb śavati, although not Sanskrit, happens to be good Eranian, and occurs in the Avesta, with this meaning of 'to go.' We therefore from this one example learn that the Kâmbôjas of the

(a tribe of the Hindû Kush), the Daradas (or Dards) and the Sakas (Scythians), as being conquered by Krishna.

In another passage Duḥśâsana leads a forlorn hope consisting of Sakas, 18 Kâmbôjas, 18 Bâhlîkas (inhabitants of Balkh), Yavanas (Greeks), Pâradas, 18 Kulingas (a tribe on the banks of the Satlaj 19), the Tanganas, 18 Ambashthas (of the (?) middle Panjâb, probably the Ambastai of Ptolemy), 20 Piśâchas, Barbarians, and mountaineers. 21 Amongst them, 22 armed with swords and pikes were Daradas, 23 Tanganas, 23 Khaśas, Lampâkas (now Kâfirs of the Hindû Kush), 24 and Pulindas 25.

We have already seen that the Khaśas were liable to the imputation of cannibalism. In another passage of the *Mahâbhârata*, where Karṇa describes the Bahîkas in the 8th book, they are again given a bad character.²⁶ Where the six rivers, the Satadru (Satlaj), Vipâśâ (Bias), Irâvatî (Ravi), Chandrabhâgâ (Chinab), Vitastâ (Jehlam), and the Sindhu (Indus) issue from the hills, is the region of the Âratṭas, a land whose religion has been destroyed.²⁷ There live the Bâhîkas (the Outsiders) who never perform sacrifices and whose religion has been utterly destroyed. They eat any kind of food from filthy vessels, drink the milk of sheep, camels, and asses, and have many bastards. They are the offspring of two Piśâchas who lived in the river Vipâśâ (Bias). They are without the *Vêda* and without knowledge.

Hindû Kush spoke an Aryan language, which was closely connected with ancient Sanskrit, but was not pure Sanskrit, and which included in its vocabulary words belonging to Eranian languages. We may further note that Yâska does not consider the Kâmbôjas to be Aryans. He says this word is used in the language of the Kâmbôjas, while only its (according to his account) derivative, śava, a corpse, is used in the language of the Aryas.

Again in the same passage Yaska states that 'the northerners' use the word datra to mean 'a sickle'. Now we shall see that in Western Paharî and in the Pisacha languages generally, tr continually becomes ch or sh. Thus the Sanskrit word putra, a son, becomes puch or push in Shina. We may expect a similar change to occur in regard to the word datra. This word actually occurs in Persian in the form das, but the only relation of it that has been noted in the Pisacha dialects is the Kashmîrî drôt, which is really the same word as datra, with metathesis of the r.

- 18 See above.
- 19 I. e., if they are the same as the Kalingas of Mark. P., LVII, 37.
- 20 VII, 1, 66.
- ²¹ VII, 4818.
- 22 VII, 4848.
- 23 See above.
- ²⁴ Mârk. P., LVII, 40, and Pargiter's note thereon.
- ²⁵ There were two Pulindas, one in the south and another in the north. See Hall on Wilson, *Vishnus* P., Vol. II, p. 159.
- ²⁶ VIII, 2032 ff. A clan of the Bahîkas is the Jartikas (2034), who perhaps represent the modern Jatts. If they do, the passage is the oldest mention of the Jatts in Indian literature.
- 27 Note that their religion has been destroyed. In other words they formerly followed Indo-Aryan rites, but had abandoned them. They are not represented as infidels *ab initio*. In this passage the Araṭṭas are mentioned in verses 2056, 2061, 2064, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2081, 2100 and 2110. The name is usually interpreted as meaning 'a people without kings', but this is a doubtful explanation.

The Prasthalas,²⁸ the Madras,²⁹ the Gandhâras (a people of the north-west Panjâb, the classical Gandarii), the people named Âraṭṭas, the Khaśas, the Vasâtis, the Sindhus and Sauvîras (two tribes dwelling on the Indus), are almost as despicable.³⁰

In the supplement to the *Mahâbhârata*, known as the *Harivaniśa*, we also find references to the Khaśas. Thus it is said³¹ that King Sagara conquered the whole earth, and a list is given of certain tribes. The first two are the Khaśas and the Tukhâras. The latter were Iranian inhabitants of Balkh and Badakhshan, the Tôkhâristân of Musalmân writers.

In another place,³² the *Harivamáa* tells how an army of Greeks (Yavanas) attacked Kṛishṇa when he was at Mathurâ. In the army were Sakas (Scythians), Tukhâras,³³ Daradas (Dards), Pâradas,³³ Tangaṇas,³³ Khaśas, Pahlavas (Parthians), and other barbarians (Mlêchchhas) of the Himâlaya.

Many references to the Khasas occur in the Purdnas. The most accessible are those in the Vishnu and Markandeya Purdnas, which have translations with good indexes. I shall rely principally upon these, but shall also note a few others that I have collected.

The Vishnu Purûna³⁴ tells the story of Khasâ, the wife of Kasyapa, with her sons Yaksha and Râkshasa and her Piśâcha stepson already given. It also tells (IV, iii) the story of Sagara, but does not mention the Khaśas in this connexion, nor does the Bhûgavata Purûna in the corresponding passage (IX, viii). The Vûyu Purûna, on the other hand, in telling the story mentions the Khaśas, but coupling them with three other tribes. Of these three, one belongs to the north-west, and the other two to the south of India, so that we cannot glean from it anything decisive as to the locality of the Khaśas.

A remarkable passage in the *Bhâgavata Purâṇa* (II, iv, 18) gives a list of a number of outcast tribes, which have recovered salvation by adopting the religion of Kṛishṇa. The tribes belong to various parts of India, but the last four are the Âbhîras, 35 the Kaûkas, 36 the Yavanas, and the Khaśas (v. l. Sakas). Here again we have the Khaśas mentioned among north-western folk.

Again in the story of Bharata, the same *Purâṇa* tells how that monarch conquered (IX, xx, 29) a number of the barbarian (Mlêchchha) kings, who had no Brâhmaṇs. These were the kings of the Kirâtas, Hûṇas, Yavanas, Andhras, Ka**n**kas, Khaśas, and Sakas. The list is a mixed one, but the last three are grouped together and point to the north-west.

²⁸ Locality not identified.

²⁹ In the Panjâb, close to the Ambashthas (see above). Their capital was Sâkala, the Sagala of Ptolemy. In verse 2049 of the passage quoted, we have a song celebrating the luxury of Sâkala.—

"When shall I next sing the songs of the Bâhîkas in this Sâkala town, after having feasted on cow's flesh, and drunk strong wine? When shall I again, dressed in fine garments, in the company of fair-complexioned large sized women, eat much mutton, pork, beef, and the flesh of fowls, assos and camels? They who eat not mutton live in vain." So do the inhabitants, drunk with wine, sing. "How can virtue be found among such a people?"

³⁰ At the time that the Satapatha Brâhmanā was written, the Bâhîkas were not altogether outside the Aryan pale. It is there (I, vii, iii, 8) said that they worship Agni under the name of Bhava.

^{31 784.}

³² 6440.

³³ See above.

³⁴ I, xxi.

³⁵ On the Indus, the Abiria of Ptolemy.

³⁶ Kankas have not been identified, but in the list of nations who brought presents to Yudhishthira already mentioned (*Mahabharata*, II, 1850) they are mentioned together with the Sakas, Tukharas, and Rômas (? Romans), i. e. as coming from the north-west.

The Mârkandêya Purâna (LVII, 56) mentions the Khasas as a mountain (probably Himalayan) tribe. In three other places (LVIII, 7, 12 and 51) they have apparently, with the Sakas and other tribes, penetrated to the north-east of India. This would appear to show that by the time of the composition of this work the Khasas had already reached Nepâl and Darjeeling, where they are still a numerous body.37

We may close this group of authorities by a reference to the Laws of Manu. Looking at the Khasas from the Brahmanical point of view, he says (X, 22) that Khasas are the offspring of outcast Kshatriyas, and again (X, 44), after mentioning some south Indian tribes he says that Kâmbôjas,38 Yavanas,38 Sakas,38 Pâradas,38 Pahlavas,38 Chînas,39 Kirâtas,40 Daradas38 and Khaśas are those who became outcast through having neglected their religious duties,41 and, whether they speak a barbarous (Mlêchchha) or Aryan language, are called Dasyus. Here again we see the Khasas grouped with people of the north-west.

Two works belonging at latest to the 6th century A.D. next claim our attention. These are the Bharata Nâ!ya Sâstra and the Brihat Samhitâ of Varâhamihira. The former 42 in the chapter on dialects says, 'The Bahlika language is the native tongue of Northerners and Bâhlîkî, as we have seen above, is the language then spoken in what is now Here again we have the Khasas referred to the north-west. $Balkh.^{43}$

Varâhamihira mentions Khaśas several times. Thus in one place (X, 12) he groups them with Kulûtas (people of Kulu), Taigaņas (see note41), and Kâśmîras (Kâshmîrîs). In his famous chapter on Geography, he mentions them twice. In one place (XIV, 6) he puts them in Eastern India, and in another (XIV, 30) he puts them in the north-east. The latter is a mistake, for the other countries named at the same time are certainly northwestern.44 The mistake is a curious and unexpected one, but is there nevertheless, and

³⁷ Vide post.

³⁸ See above.

³⁹ Usually translated 'Chinese,' but I would suggest that in this and similar passages, they are the great Shin race, still surviving in Gilgit and the vicinity.

⁴⁰ At present mostly in Nepâl.

⁴¹ So Kullûka.

⁴² xvii, 52. Báhlíkabháshôdíchyánán Khasánám cha svadésajá: I am indebted to Dr. Konow for this reference,

⁴³ Lakshmîdhara, a comparatively late Prakrit Grammarian, says that the language of Bâhlîka (Balkh), Kêkaya (N. W. Panjâb), Nepâl, Gandhâra (the country round Peshâwar), and Bhôta (for Bhôṭa, i.e., Tibet), together with certain countries in South India is said by the ancients to have been Paisâchî See Lassen, Institutiones Linguæ Pracriticæ, p. 13, and Pischel, Grammatik der Prakrit-Sprachen, § 27.

⁴⁴ The whole passage (29 and 30) runs as follows:—' In North-East, Mount Mêru, the Kingdom of those who have lost easte (nashtarājya), the nomads (pasupālas,? worshippers of Pasupati), the Kiras (a tribe near Kashmîr, Stein, Râja Taranginî, trans. II, 217) the Kâsmîras, the Abhisâras (of the lower hills between the Jehlam and the Chinab), Daradas (Dards) Tanganas, Kulûtas (Kulu), Sairindhras (not identified), Forest men, Brahmapuras (Bharmaur in Chamba), Darvas (close to Abhisâra), Pāmaras (apparently a Kashmîr tribe, Stein II, 304 ff.), Foresters, Kirâtas, Chînas (Shins of Gilgit, see note39, or Chinese), Kaunindas (see below), Bhallas (not identified), Pațôlas (not identified), Jațâsuras (? Jațțs), Kunațas (see below), Khasas, Ghôshas and Kuchikas (not identified). It will be seen that every one of the above names which has been identified belongs to the North-West,

moreover Varâhamihira is not alone in this. Bhaṭṭâtpala, in his commentary to the Bṛihatsanhitā, quotes Parâśara as saying the same thing. 45

In the section dealing with those men who are technically known as 'swans,'46 Varâ-hamihira says that they are a long-lived race ruling over the Khaśas, Sûrasênas (Eastern Punjab), Gândhâra (Peshawar country), and the Gangetic Dôâb. This passage does not give much help.

Kalhaṇa's famous chronicle of Kashmîr, the Râjataraṅgiṇi, written in the middle of the 12th century A.D., is full of references to the Khaśas, who were a veritable thorn in the side of the Kashmîr rulers. Sir Aurel Stein's translation of the work, with its excellent index, renders a detailed account of these allusions unnecessary. It will be sufficient to give Sir Aurel Stein's note to his translation of verse 317 of Book I. I have taken the liberty of altering the spelling of some of the words so as to agree with the system adopted for this survey:—

"It can be shown from a careful examination of all the passages that their (the Khaśas') seats were restricted to a comparatively limited region, which may be roughly described as comprising the valleys lying immediately to the south and west of the Pîr Pantsâl range, between the middle course of the Vitastâ (or Jehlam) on the west, and Kâshṭavâṭa (Kishtwâr) on the east.

"In numerous passages of the Råjataranginî we find the rulers of Rajapurî, the modern Rajaurî, described as 'lords of the Khasas,' and their troops as Khasas. Proceeding from Råjapurî to the east we have the valley of the Upper Ans River, now called Panjgabbar.

. . . as a habitation of Khaśas. Further to the east lies $B\hat{a}na\acute{a}la$, the modern $B\hat{a}nah\hat{a}l$, below the pass of the same name, where the pretender Bhikshâchara sought refuge in the castle of the 'Khaśa-Lord' Bhagika The passages viii, 177, 1,074 show that the whole of the valley leading from Bânahâl to the Chandrabhâgâ (Chenab), which is now called 'Bichhlârî' and which in the chronicle bears the name of Vishalâtâ, was inhabited by Khaśas.

"Finally we have evidence of the latter's settlements in the Valley of Khaśalaya . . . Khaśalaya is certainly the Valley of Khaiśal (marked on the map as 'Kasher') which leads from the Marbal Pass on the south-east corner of Kashmîr down to Kishtwar

"Turning to the west of Râjapurî, we find a Khaśa from the territory of Parņôtsa or Prûnts mentioned in the person of Tunga, who rose from the position of a cowherd to be

Regarding the Kaunindas or Kunindas, it may be mentioned that Cunningham (Rep. Arch. Surv. India, XIV, 125) identified them with the Kanêts of the Simla Hill States, whose name he wrongly spells "Kunet." The change from 'Kuninda' to 'Kanêt' is violent and improbable, though not altogether impossible. It would be simpler to connect the Kanêts with Varâhamihira's Kunatas, but here again there are difficulties, for the t in 'Kanêt' is dental, not cerebral. Such changes are, however, not uncommon in the 'Piśâcha' languages.

45 A similar but fuller list is also given in Varâhamihira's Samâsasamhitâ, in which the Khaśas are classed with Daradas, Abhisâras and Chînas.

46 LXVIII, 26.

chosen Queen Diddâ's all-powerful minister. The Queen's own father, Simharâja, the ruler of Lôhara or Lôharin, is designated a Khaśa, and his descendants, who after Diddâ occupied the Kashmîr throne, were looked upon as Khaśas.—That there were Khaśas also in the Vitastâ valley below Varâhamûla, is proved by the reference to Vîrânaka as 'a seat of Khaśas' Of this locality it has been shown . . . that it was situated in the ancient Dwaravati, the present Dwarbidî, a portion of the Vitasta valley between Kathai and Muzaffarâbâd.

"The position here indicated makes it highly probable that the Khaśas are identical with the modern Khakha tribe, to which most of the petty hill-chiefs and gentry in the Vitasta valley below Kashmir belong. The name Khakha (Pahaṛi; in Kashmirî sing. Khokhu, plur. Khakhi) is the direct derivation of Khaśa, Sanskrit \acute{s} being pronounced since early times in the Panjāb and the neighbouring hill-tracts as kh or h (compare Kashmirî $h < Sanscrit \acute{s}$).

"The Khakha chiefs of the Vitastâ valley retained their semi-independent position until Sikh times, and, along with their neighbours of the Bomba clan, have ever proved troublesome neighbours for Kashmîr."

We have already noted that another name for the Khasas was Khasiras. The name Kasmîra (Kashmîr) is by popular tradition associated with the famous legendary saint Kasyapa, but it has been suggested, with considerable reason, that Khasa and Khasîra are more probable etymologies. At the present day, the Kâshmîrî word for 'Kashmîr' is 'kashîr,' a word which is strongly reminiscent of Khasîra.47

Turning now to see what information we can gain from classical writers, we may again refer to Pliny's mention of the cannibal Casiri, who, from the position assigned to them, must be the same as the Khaśîras. Atkinson in the work mentioned in the list of authorities gives an extract from Pliny's account of India (p. 354.) In this are mentioned the Cesi, a mountain race between the Indus and the Jamna, who are evidently the Khaśas. Atkinson (l. c.) quotes Ptolemy's Achasia regio as indicating the same locality, and this word not impossibly also represents 'Khaśa'. Perhaps more certain identifications from Ptolemy are the Kácıoı Mountains and the country of Kácıo. 48

In other places⁴⁹ he tells us that the land of the 'Οττοροκόρροι (Uttarakurus) and the city of 'Οττοροκόρρα lay along the Emodic and Seric mountains in the north, to the east of the

⁴⁷ The change of initial kh to k is not uncommon in Piśâcha languages. Thus, the Sanskrit khara, an ass, is kur in Bashgalî Kâfir, and in Shipâ a language very closely connected with Kâshmîrî, the root of the verb meaning 'to eat' is ka not $kh\hat{a}$.

⁴⁸ Serica VI, 15, 16, in Lassen I.A. I2, 28.

⁴⁹ VI, 16, 2, 3, 5, 8; VIII, 24, 7, in Lassen I.A., I², 1018.

Kasia mountains. The latter therefore represent either the Hindû Kush or the mountains of Kashgar in Central Asia.⁵⁰

To sum up the preceding information. We gather that according to the most ancient Indian authorities in the extreme north-west of India, on the Hindû Kush and the mountainous tracts to the south, and in the western Panjâb there was a group of tribes, one of which was called Khaśa, which were looked upon as Kshatriyas of Aryan origin. These spoke a language closely allied to Sanskrit, but with a vocabulary partly agreeing with that of the Eranian Avesta. They were considered to have lost their claim to consideration as Aryans, and to have become Mlêchchhas, or barbarians, owing to their non-observance of the rules for eating and drinking observed by the Sanskritic peoples of India. These Khaśas were a warlike tribe, and were well known to classical writers, who noted, as their special home, the Indian Caucasus of Pliny. They had relations with Western Tibet, and carried the gold dust found in that country into India.

It is probable that they once occupied an important position in Central Asia, and that countries, places and rivers, such as Kashmîr. Kashgar in Central Asia, and the Kashgar of Chitral were named after them. They were closely connected with the group of tribes nicknamed 'Piśâchas' or 'cannibals' by Indian writers, and before the sixth century they were stated to speak the same language as the people of Balkh. At the same period they had apparently penetrated along the southern slope of the Himâlaya as far east as Nepâl, and in the twelfth century they certainly occupied in considerable force the hills to the south, southwest and south-east of Kashmîr.

At the present day their descendants, and tribes who claim descent from them, occupy a much wider area. The Khakhas of the Jehlam valley are Khaśas, and so are some of the Kanêts of the hill-country between Kângrâ and Garhwâl. The Kanêts are the low-caste cultivating class of all the Eastern Himâlaya of the Panjâb and the hills at their base as far west as Kulu, and of the eastern portion of the Kangrâ district, throughout which tract they form a very large proportion of the total population. The country they inhabit is held or governed by Hill Râjpûts of pre-historic ancestry, the greater part of whom are far too proud to cultivate with their own hands, and who employ the Kanêts as husbandmen. Like the ancient Khaśas, they claim to be of impure Râjpût (i.e. Kshatriya) birth. They are divided into two great tribes, the Khasiâ and the Râo, the distinction between whom is still sufficiently well-marked. A Khasiâ observes the period of impurity after the death of a relation prescribed for a twice-born man; the Râo that prescribed for an outcast. The Khasiâ wears the sacred thread, while the Râo does not.⁵¹ There can thus be no doubt about the Khasiâ Kanêts.

⁵⁰ According to Lassen, p. 1020, the Kάσια όρη of Ptolemy are the mountains of Kashgar, i.e. 'Khaśa-gairi,' the mountain of the Khaśas. See, however, Stein, Ancient Khotan, pp. 50 ff. The same name re-appears in Chitral, south of the Hindû Kush, where the river Khônar is also called the Khashgar. For further speculations on the subject the reader is referred to St. Martin, Mêm. de l' Acad. des Inscr. Sav. Etrang. I sêrie vi, i, pp. 264 ff., and to Atkinson(op. cit.), p. 377.

⁵¹ Ibbetson, op. cit., § 487. Regarding the Râos, see the next instalment of this article.

Further to the east, in Garhwâl and Kumaon, the bulk of the population is called Khasiâ, and these people are universally admitted to be Khaśas by descent. In fact, as we shall see, the principal dialect of Kumaunî is known as Khasparjiyâ, or the speech of Khas cultivators. Further east, again, in Nepâl, the ruling caste is called Khas. In Nepâl, however, the tribe is much mixed. A great number of so-called Khas are really descended from the intercourse between the high-caste Aryan immigrants from the plains and the aboriginal Tibeto-Burman population. But that there is a leaven of pure Khas descent also in the tribe is not denied.⁵²

In this way we see that the great mass of the Aryan-speaking population of the Lower Himâlaya from Kashmîr to Darjeeling is inhabited by tribes descended from the ancient Khasas of the Mahâbhârata.

(To be continued.)

MISCELLANEA.

THE TRADITIONAL DATES OF PARSI HISTORY.

PROF. S. H. Hodivala, M. A., of the Junagadh College has been lately devoting considerable attention to the early history of the Indian Parsis. and read on the 25th of October last, before the "Society for the Prosecution of Zoroastrian Researches" a paper on the "Traditional dates of Parsi History" of which the following is a summary.

The lecturer first pointed out that chronological statements about certain interesting events in the early annals of the Indian Parsis many are found noted down at random on the margins and flyleaves of many manuscripts, but that very few of them are properly authenticated, that some of them are nameless, and even where the name of the writer happens to be known we are left entirely in the dark as to the sources of his infomation or his competence to form a judgment. Moreover, not one of them has been hitherto traced to any book or manuscript written before the middle of the eighteenth century. Lastly, they exhibit among themselves the most bewildering diversity and the same event (the first landing at Sanjân) is placed by one in V. Samvat 772, (A.D. 716) by another in V. Samvat 895, (A.D. 839) and by a third in V. Samvat 961(A.D. 906). There is the same conflict as to the year in which the Persian Zoroastrians were, according to these entries, obliged to abandon their ancestral homes. According to one, it was in 638 V. Samvat (A.D. 582), according to another in 777 V. Samvat (A.D. 721). A much later event, about which for that reason, if for no other, we might suppose they would be in agreement, is the subject of a similar conflict. The old Fire Temple is said to have been brought from Bansdâh to Navsâri according to one of these entries in 1472 V. Samvat (A.D. 1416), but another would place the event three years later, giving the actual day and month, as Rôz Mâhrespand, Mâh Shahrivar, V. Samvat 1475 (A.D. 1419); and not the least instructive fact about these rival dates is that both of them are demonstrably wrong.

The most important of these statements is the one which makes Roz Bahman, Mâh Tir, V. Samvat 772 (A.D. 716) the date of the first landing of the Parsi "pilgrim fathers" at Sanjân. That the Parsi roz mah here given does not tally with the Hindu tithi was proved to demonstration by the late Mr. K. R. Cama in 1870, but the year has for all that been accepted by many inquirers, perhaps only for want of anything more satisfactory to take its place. The earliest authority for this entry hitherto known was the Kadım Târikh Pârsioni Kasar a pamphlet on the Kabisâ controversy written by Dastur Aspandiàrji Kâmdinji of Broach in A.D. 1826. The lecturer first showed that this entry can be carried back somewhat further, as it occurs in a manuscript of miscellaneous Persian verses belonging to Ervad Manekji R.Unwalla, which is at least a hundred and fifty year old. There can be no doubt that Dastur Aspandiârji

⁵² Regarding the origin of the Nepal Khas, see Hodgson and Sylvain Lêvi, op. cit.

THE PAHARI LANGUAGE.

BY SIR GEORGE A. GRIERSON, K. C. I. E.

(Continued from page 151.)

While Sanskrit literature⁵³ commencing with the Mahâbhârata contains many references to the Khasas, until quite late times it is silent about the Gurjaras. They are not mentioned in the Mahâbhârata or in the Vishnu, Bhâgavata, or Markandêya Purâna. In fact the earliest known reference to them occurs in the Srîharshacharita, a work of the early part of the 7th century of our era.

According to the most modern theory, which has not yet been seriously disputed, but which has nevertheless not been accepted by all scholars, the Gurjaras entered India, together with the Hûnas and other marauding tribes, about the sixth century A.D. They rapidly rose to great power, and founded the Rajput tribes of Rajputana.54 The Gurjaras were in the main a pastoral people, but had their chiefs and fighting men. When the tribe rose to power in India, the latter were treated by the Brâhmans as equivalent to Kshatriyas and were called Râjpûts, and some were even admitted to equality with Brâhmans themselves, while the bulk of the people who still followed their pastoral avocations remained as a subordinate caste under the title of Gurjaras, or, in modern language, Gûjars, or in the Panjâb, Gujars.

So powerful did these Gurjaras or Gûjars become that no less than four tracts of India received their name. In modern geography we have the Gujrât and Gujrânwâla districts of the Panjab, and the Province of Gujarat in the Bombay Presidency. The Gujrat District is a Sub-Himalayan tract with a large proportion of Gujars. It is separated by the river Chinâb from the Gujrânwàla District, in which Gujars are more few. In the Province of Gujarât there are now no members of the Gûjar caste, as a caste, but, as we shall see later on, there is evidence that Gujars have become absorbed into the general population, and have been distributed amongst various occupational castes. In addition to these three tracts Al-Birûnî (A.D. 971-1039) mentions a Guzarât situated somewhere in Northern Râjputâna.55

In ancient times, the Gurjara kingdom of the Panjab comprised territory on both sides of the Chinab, more or less accurately corresponding with the existing Districts of Gujrât and Gujrânwâla. It was conquered temporarily by Sankaravarman of Kashmîr in the 9th century.5c The powerful Gurjara kingdom in South-Western Râjputâna, as described by the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang in the seventh century, had its capital at Bhinmâl or Srîmâl, to the North-West of Mount Abu, now in the Jodhpur State, and comprised a considerable amount of territory at present reckoned to be part of Gujarât, the modern frontier between that Province and Râjputâna being purely artificial. In addition to this kingdom of Bhinmâl, a southern and smaller Gurjara kingdom existed in what is now Gujarât from A.D. 589 to 735. Its capital was probably at or near Bharôch. Between these two Gurjara States intervened the kingdom of the princes of Valabhi, and these princes also seem to have belonged either to the Gurjaras or to a closely allied tribe. 57

Tod, J.,—Annals and Antiquities of Rajpûts and Gurjaras or Gûjars:—
Tod, J.,—Annals and Antiquities of Rajasi'han, London, 1829-32. Introduction. Elliot, Sir H. M., K.C.B.,—Memoirs on the History, Folklore and Distribution of the Races of the North-Western Provinces of India. Edited, etc., by John Beames. London, 1859. I, 99 ff., etc., (see Index). Ibbetson, Sir Denzil, K.C.S.I.,—Outlines of Panjáb Ethnography. Calcutta, 1883, pp. 262 ff. [Jackson, A.M.T.],—Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Pt. I., App. III. (by A. M. T. J.), Account of Bhinmâl, esp. pp. 463 ff. Smith, Vincent A.—The Gurjaras of Rajputana and Kanawi, J. R. A. S., 1909, pp. 53 ff. Bhandarkar, D. R.—Foreign elements in the Hindu Population. Indian Antiquary, XIL. (1911), pp. 7 ff. esp. pp. 21 ff.

54 See Mr. V. Smith's note below.

55 India (Sachau's translation. I. 202). Mr. Bhandarkar (Lc., p. 21) locates in the north-eastern part

see Mr. V. Smith's note below.

India (Sachau's translation, I, 202). Mr. Bhandarkar (l.c., p. 21) locates in the north-eastern part of the Jaipur territory and the south of the Alwar State. The Gujuri dialect spoken in the hills of the North West Frontier Province is closely connected with the Mêwâti spoken in Alwar at the present day. On the other hand, as stated in a private communication, Mr. Vincent Smith considers that it must have been at or near Ajmer, about 180 miles to the North-East of the old capital Bhinmâl, 58 Râjataraṅgiṇi, v. 143-150, and Stein's translation, I, 99.

57 Bombay Gazetteer (1896), Vol. I, Part I, pp. 3, 4.

The Gurjaras who established the kingdoms at Bhinmâl and Bharôch probably came from the West, as Mr. Bhandarkar suggests. The founders of the Panjab Gurjara kingdom which existed in the 9th century presumably reached the Indian plains by a different route. There is no indication of any connection between the Gurjara kingdom of the Panjâb and the two kingdoms of the widely separated Province of Gujarat.58

As may be expected, the Gûjar herdsmen (as distinct from the fighting Gurjaras who became Râjpûts) are found in greatest numbers in the north west of India from the Indus to the Ganges. In the Panjab they are mainly settled in the lower ranges and submontane tracts, though they are spread along the Jamna in considerable numbers, Gujrat District is still their stronghold, and here they form 131 per cent. of the total population. In the higher mountains they are almost unknown.

In the plains tracts of the Panjab they are called 'Gujars' or 'Gujjars' (not Gûjars), and they have nearly all abandoned their original language and speak the ordinary Panjabî of their neighbours.

On the other hand, in the mountains to the north-west of the Panjab, i.e., throughout the hill country of Murree, Jammu, Chhibhal, Hazâra, in the wild territory lying to the north of Peshawar as far as the Swat river, and also in the hills of Kashmîr, there are numerous descendants of the Gurjaras still following their pastoral avocations. Here they are called 'Gujurs' (not 'Gujar' or 'Gûjar') and tend cows. Closely allied to them, and speaking the same language, is the tribe of Ajars who tend sheep.

The ordinary language of the countries over which these last mentioned people roam is generally Pushtô or Kâshmîrî, though there are also spoken various Piśacha dialects of the Swât and neighbouring territories. In fact, in the latter tract, there are numerous tribes, each with a Piśâcha dialect of its own, but employing Pushtô as a lingua franca. The Gujurs are no exception to the rule. While generally able to speak the language, or the lingua franca, of the country they occupy, they have a distinct language of their own, called Gujuri, varying but little from place to place, and closely connected with the Mêwâtî dialect of Râjasthânî, described on pp. 44 ff. of Vol. IX, Pt. II of the Survey. Of course their vocabulary is freely interlarded with words borrowed from Pushtô, Kâshmîrî, and what not; but the grammar is practically identical with that of Mêwâtî, and closely allied to that of Mêwârî.

The existence of a form of Mêwâtî or Mêwâri in the distant country of Swat is a fact which has given rise to some speculation. One sept of the Gujurs of Swat is known as 'Chauhân,' and it is known that the dominant race in Mewar belongs to the Chauhân sept of Râjpûts. Two explanations are possible. One is that the Gujurs of this tract are immigrants from Mêwât (or Alwar) and Mewâr. The other is that the Gurjaras in their advance with the Hûnas into India, left some of their number in the Swât country, who still retain their ancient language, and that this same language was also carried by other members of the same tribe into Râjputânâ.

The former explanation is that adopted by Mr. Vincent Smith, who has kindly supplied the following note on the point:-

"The surprising fact that the pastoral, semi-nomad Gujur graziers and Ajar shepherds, who roam over the lower Himalayan ranges from the Afghân frontier to Kumâon and Garhwâl, speak a dialect of 'Hindî,' quite distinct from the Pushtô and other languages spoken by their neighbours, has been long familiar to officers serving in the Panjab and on the North-Western Frontier. 59 In 1908 the Linguistic Survey made public the more precise information that the grammar of the speech of the still more remote Gujurs of the

⁵⁸ The above account of the early history of the Gurjaras is based on information kindly placed at my disposal by Mr. V. Smith.

⁵⁹ Ibbetson, Outlines of Panjab Ethnography (1883), p. 265.

Swât Valley is almost identical with that of the Râjpûts of Mêwât and Mêwâr in Râjputânâ, distant some 600 miles in a direct line. In the intervening space totally different languages are spoken. Why, then, do the Muhammadan Gujur herdsmen of Swât use a speech essentially the same as that of the aristocratic Hindû Râjpûts of Mêwâr? The question is put concerning the Gujurs of Swât, because they are the most remote tribe at present known to speak a tongue closely allied to the Mêwâtî and Mêwârî varieties of Eastern Râjasthânî.

"But dialects, which may be described as corrupt forms of Eastern Râjasthânî, extend along the lower hills from about the longitude of Chambâ through Garhwâl and Kumâon into Western Nepâl, so that the problem may be stated in wider terms, as:—' Why do certain tribes of the lower Himâlaya, in Swât, and also from Chambâ to Western Nepâl, speak dialects allied to Eastern Râjasthânî, and especially to Mêwâtî, although they are divided from Eastern Râjputânâ by hundreds of miles in which distinct languages are spoken?'

"It is not possible to give a fully satisfactory solution of the problem, but recent historical and archæological researches throw some light upon it. All observers are agreed that no distinction of race can be drawn between the Gûjars or Gujurs and the Jâts or Jatts, two castes which occupy a very prominent position in North-Western India. It is also agreed that several other castes in the same region, such as Ajars, Ahîrs and many more, are racially indistinguishable from the Jatts and Gûjars. The name Gujar appears in Sanskrit inscriptions as Gurjara, and nobody can doubt that the modern Gûjars represent the ancient Gurjaras. Long ago the late Sir Denzil Ibbetson recognized the fact that in the Panjâb it is impossible to draw distinctions in blood between Gûjars and many clans of Râjpûts, or, in other words, local enquiry proves that persons now known as Rajpûts may be descended from the same ancestors as are other persons known as Gûjars 61 Mr. Baden Powell observed that 'there is no doubt that a great majority of the clan-names in the Panjab belong both to the "Râjpût" and the "Jût" sections. And this indicates that when the numerous Bâla, Indo-Scythian, Gûjar and Hûṇa tribes settled, the leading military and princely houses were accepted as "Râjpût," while those who took frankly to cultivation, became "Jât".62 Mr. D. R. Bhandarkar has demonstrated recently that the ancestors of the Râuâs of Udaipur (Mewàr) were originally classed as Brâhmaus, and were not recognised as Râjpûts until they became established as a ruling family.63 In fact, there is abundant evidence to prove that the term 'Râjpût' signifies an occupational group of castes, which made it their principal business to rule and fight. That being the traditional business of the ancient Kshatriyas, castes known as Râjpût were treated by the Brâhmans as equivalent to Kshatriyas, and superior in rank and purity to castes engaged in agriculture. We may take it as proved that there is nothing to prevent a Râjpût being descended from a Brâhmau, a Gûjar, a Jatt, or in fact from a man of any decent caste. Consequently the Gujur herdsmen and Ajar shepherds of Swât may well be the poor relations of the Râjpût chivalry of Mêwâr, and the present divergence in social status may be the result of the difference of the occupations to which their respective ancestors were called by Providence.

"If the Swât Gujurs and the Mêwât and Mêwâr Râjpûts come of one stock, it is not so wonderful that they should speak a language essentially one. Certainly there is no difficulty in believing that all the Himalayan tribes, both in Swât and east of Chambâ, who speak forms of Râjasthânî, may be largely of the same blood as the Râjpûts of Eastern Râjputânâ. Of course, I do not mean that a pure race is to be found anywhere in India—almost every caste is of very much mixed blood.

⁶⁰ Linguistic Survey, Vol. IX, Part II (1908), p. 323. [In the passage quoted from Vol. IX of the Survey, the particular Råjasthånî dialect was Jaipurî. But further enquiry has shown me that Mêwâtî and Mêwârî are more akin to Gujurî than is Jaipurî. This is a matter of small importance. Jaipur lies between Mewât and Mewâr.—G. A. G.]

between Mewât and Mewâr.—G. A. G.]

61 Thbetson, op. cit., p. 265.

62 'Notes on . . . the Râjpût Clans (J. R. A. S., 1899, p. 534).

63 'Guhilots' (J. Proc., A. S. B., New Ser., Vol., V. (1909), pp. 167-187); 'Atpur Inscription of Saktikumâra', Ind. Ant. Vol. XXXIX (1910, p. 186). [So, in Mahâbhârata VIII, 2076, a Bahlîka Brâhmaṇa may, if he choose, become a Kshatriya.—G. A. G.]

"Not only are the Jatts, Gûjars, Ajars, etc., related in blood to the Rájpûts, but we may also affirm with confidence. that that blood is in large measure foreign, introduced by swarms of immigrants who poured into India across the north-western passes for about a century, both before and after 500 A.D. The Gurjaras are not heard of until the sixth century, but from that time on they are closely associated with the Hûnas (Huns) and other foreign tribes, which then settled in India and were swallowed up by the octopus of Hinduism—tribes insensibly, but quickly, being transformed into castes. It is now certain, as demonstrated by epigraphical evidence, that the famous Parihâr (Pratîhâra) Râjpûts were originally Gurjaras or Gûjars; or, if we prefer, we may say that certain Gurjaras were originally Pratîhâras; and it is practically certain that the three other 'fire born' Râjpût clans—Pawâr (Pramâr), Solaŭkî (Chaulukya), and Chauhân (Châhamâna)—were descended, like the Parihârs, from ancestors belonging to a Gurjara or cognate foreign tribe.

"We are not able to identify the locality beyond the passes from which these ancestors came, nor do we know what tribal names they bore before they entered India, or what language they then spoke. Further, it is not possible at present to be certain concerning the road by which the Gurjaras, Hûṇas, etc., entered India. Probably they came by many roads. But the legend locating the origin of the fire-born clans at Mount Âbû and much evidence of other kinds indicate that the principal settlements of the foreigners were in Râjputânâ, which became the great centre of dispersion.

"We know that as early as the first half of the seventh century, Bhinmâl (Srîmâla) to the north-west of Mount Âbû, was the capital of a kingdom ruled by Vyâghramukha Châpa. The Châpas were a subdivision of the Gurjaras. A coin of Vyâghramukha was found associated with numerous slightly earlier Hûṇa coins of the sixth and seventh centuries on the Manaswâl Plateau in the outer Siwâlik Hills, Hoshiyârpur Distriet, Panjâb, which at that period undoubtedly was under Hûṇa-Gurjara rule. Early in the eighth century, Nâgabhaṭa I, a Gurjara, who had then become a Hindû, established a strong monarchy at Bhinmâl, where Vyâghramukha had ruled a hundred years earlier. Nâgabhaṭa's son, Vatsarâja, greatly extended the dominions of his house, defeating even the king of Eastern Bengal. In or about 810 A.D., Nâgabhaṭa II, son and successor of Vatsarâja, deposed the king of Kanauj and removed the seat of his own government to that imperial city. For more than a century, and especially during the reigns of Mihira-Bhôja and his son (840-908 A.D.), the Gurjara-Pratîhâra kingdom of Kanauj was the paramount power of Northern India, and included Surâshṭra (Kâṭhiâwâṛ) within its limits, as well as Karnâl, now under the Government of the Panjāb.

"I take it that the Gurjaras and other foreign tribes settled in Râjputânâ, from the sixth century onwards adopted the local language, an early form of Râjasthânî, with great rapidity. They brought, I imagine, few women with them, and when they formed unions with Hindû women, they quickly learned the religion, customs, and language of their wives. I am inclined to believe that during the period of Gurjara rule, and especially during the ninth and tenth centuries, the Râjasthânî language must have been carried over a wide territory far more extensive than that now occupied by it. It seems to me that the Gujurs and Ajars of Swât, and the similar tribes in the lower Himâlayas to the east of Chambâ, should be regarded as survivals of a much larger population which once spoke Râjasthânî, the language of the court and capital. For one reason or other the neighbours of those northern Gujurs and Ajars took up various languages, Puṣḥtô, Lahndâ, or whatever it might be, while the graziers and shepherds clung to the ancient tongue which their ancestors had brought from Râjputânâ, and which probably was spoken for a long time in much of the country intervening between the hills and Mêwât. If this theory be sound, the forms of the Himalayan Râjasthânî, should be more archaic than those of modern Mêwâtî or the other

 $^{^{64}}$ I have a suspicion that they may have been Iranians, perhaps from Sîstân, but I cannot profess to prove that hypothesis.

dialects of Râjputànà, just as in Quebec French is more archaic than current Parisian.c5 I do not see any other way of explaining the existence of the Rajasthana outliers, if I may borrow a convenient term from the geologists. The historical indications do not favour the notion that the Gurjaras, etc., came viâ Kábul and thence moved southwards, dropping settlements in the Lower Himâlayas; they rather suggest immigration from the west by the Quetta and Kandahar routes or lines of march still further south. Settlements dropped among the Himâlayan Hills by invaders speaking a Central Asian language could not possibly have picked up the tongue of eastern Râjputânâ. The ancestors of the Swât Gujurs must have spoken Rajasthani and have learned it in a region where it was the mother tongue. The far northern extensions of that form of speech must apparently be attributed to the time when the Gurjara kingdom attained its greatest expansion. We know from inscriptions that the dominions of both Mihira-Bhôja and his son, Mahêndrapâla (cir. 840-908 A. D.), included the Karnâl district to the north-west of Delhi.

"My answer to the problem proposed at the beginning of this note, therefore, is that the Guiurs, etc., of the lower Himâlayas, who now speak forms of Râjasthânî, are in large measure of the same stock as many Râjpût clans in Râjputânâ, the Panjàb, and the United Provinces; that their ancestors emigrated from Rajputana after they had acquired the Rajasthani speech; and that the most likely time for such emigration is the ninth century, when the Gujara-Râjpût power dominated all northern and north-western India, with its capital at Kanauj.66"

Turning now to the other explanation, we may premise by stating that the Gurjaras may possibly have entered Rajputana from two directions. They invaded the Sindh Valley, where they have practically disappeared as a distinct caste, the Gakkhars, Janjûâs, and Pathâns being too strong for them. 67 But their progress was not stopped, and they have probably entered the Gujarât Province and Western Rîjputâna by this route. In Gujarât they became merged into the general population, and there is now in that province no Gûjar caste, but there are Gûjar and simple Vâņiûs (traders), Gûjar and simple Sutars (carpenters), Gûjar and simple Sonars (goldsmiths), Gûjar and simple Kumbhars (potters), and Gûjar and simple Salâts (masons). cs

Gûjars, as distinct from Râjpûts, are strong in Eastern Râjputàna, their greatest numbers being in Alwar, Jaipur, Mewâr, and the neighbourhood. Here they are a distinct and recognised class, claiming to be descended from Rajpûts.69 These must have come along the other supposed line of advance from the north. Several Gûjar-Râjpût tribes, such as the Châlukyas, Châhamânas (Chauhâns), and Sindas, came to Râjputàna from a mountainous country called Sapâdalaksha.

^{65 [}As a matter of fact Gujurî is more archaic in its forms than its nearest congener, modern Mêwâtî. See the Gujurî section below.—G. A. G.]

⁶⁶ For historical, epigraphical, and numismatic details, see V. A. Smith—
"The Gurjaras of Râjputâna and Kanauj" (J. R. A. S., Jan., April, 1909);
"White Hun Coins from the Panjâb" (Ibid., Jan. 1907);
"White Hun Coins of Vyâghramukha" (Ibid., Oct. 1907);
"The History of the City of Kanauj, etc." (Ibid., July 1908).

D. R. Bhandarkar-"Foreign elements in the Hindu Population" (Ind. Ant., 1911, pp. 7—37). Mr. Bhandarkar (p. 30) thinks that Eastern Rajasthânî is derived from Pahârî Hindî; but I do not think he can be right.

be right.

67 Ibbetson, l. c., p. 263. Mr. Vincent Smith is of opinion that the position of their principal settlement, that at Bhinmâl, North-West of Mount Abû, indicates that the Gurjaras came from the West, across Sindh, and not from the North down the Indus Valley. They could have entered Sindh either vià Makrân, as the Arabs did later in the end of the 7th century, or through Balûchistân by roads further north. If they came from Sîstân and spoke an Eranian language, they would soon have picked up an Indian tongue. On this theory, the Gujars of the Panjâb would have entered that province from the south, proceeding up the Indus Valley. Mr. Smith points out that the Panjâb Gurjaras probably are a later settlement. We hear of them first in the Kashmîr chronicles in the 9th century.

68 Brandarkar I a. 22

⁶⁸ Bhandarkar, *l. c.*, p. 22.
⁶⁹ In 1901, the total number of Gûjars in Râjputâna was 462,739. Of these, 46,046 were enumerated in Alwar, 184,494 in Jaipur, and 50,574 in Mewâr. Bharatpur, adjoining Alwar, had 44,875.

Mr. Bhandarkar⁷⁰ has shown that this Sapâdalaksha included the hill-country from Chamba on the west, to Western Nepâl on the east, thus almost exactly corresponding with the area in which Western and Central Pahârî are now spoken. Now, in this tract at the present day it may be said that, while there are plenty of Râjpûts, there are no Gûjars. The main population is, as we have seen, Khaśa, in which the non-military Gûjars must have been merged.⁷¹ The Sapâdalaksha Gûjar-Râjpûts, on the other hand, have provided Mewâr with its Chauhâns. We have seen that one of the Swât Gujur septs is also called Chauhân, and the second of the two explanations for the presence of the Gujurs in their present seats is that they are not a backwash of immigration from Râjputâna, but are the representatives of Gurjaras who were there left behind while the main body advanced and settled in Sapâdalaksha. Instead of taking to agriculture and becoming merged in the population, they retained their ancestral pastoral habits and their tribal individuality.⁷²

We have seen that there were originally many Râjpûts in Sapâdalaksha. In the times of the Musalmân rule of India many more Râjpûts from the plains of India took refuge amongst their Sapâdalaksha kin and there founded dynasties which still survive. Particulars regarding these will be found in the Introduction to the three Pahârî languages and need not be repeated here. Suffice it to say that it is plain that down even to the days of late Musalmân dominion the tie between Sapâdalaksha and Râjputâna was never broken. And this, in my opinion, satisfactorily explains the fact of the close connexion between the Pahârî languages and Râjasthânî.

We thus arrive at the following general results regarding the Aryan-speaking population of the Pahârî tract.

The earliest immigrants of whom we have any historical information were the Kha'as, a race hailing from Central Asia and originally speaking an Aryan, but not necessarily, an Indo-Aryan, language. They were followed by the Gurjaras, a tribe who invaded India about the sixth century A. D. and occupied the same tract, then known as Sapâdalaksha. At that time, they also spoke an Aryan, but not necessarily an Indo-Aryan, language. The Gurjaras the bulk followed pastoral pursuits and became merged in and identified with the preceding Kha'a population. Others were fighting men, and were identified by the Brâhmaus with Kshatriyas. In this guise they invaded Eastern Râjputâna from Sapâdalaksha, and, possibly, Western Râjputâna from Sindh, and founded, as Râjpûts, the great Râjpût states of Râjputâna. The

⁷⁰ l.c. pp. 28 ff. Sapådalaksha becomes in modern speech sawå-låkh, and means one hundred and twenty-five thousand, a reference to the supposed number of hills in the tract. At the present day the name is confined to the 'Siwålik' hills.

⁷¹ We see traces of this merging in the great Kanêt caste of the Simla Hills. It has two divisions, one called Khasiâ and the other Râo (Ibbetson l. c. p. 268). The former represent the Khasas, and it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the Râos are Gûjars who have become merged into the general population and have adopted a name Râo, indicating their closer connexion with the Râjpûts.

⁷² The writer's personal opinion upon this disputed point is given at length near the end of this article (p. 166).

⁷³ It is possible that the Gurjaras, at the time that they first entered the hills, did not speak an Indo-Aryan language. We are quite ignorant on the point. But this must not be taken as suggesting that the languages of their descendants, the Râjpûts and the Gujurs, is not Indo-Aryan. It is now-a-days certainly Indo-Aryan, and belongs to the Inner-Group of these languages.

Indo-Aryan, and belongs to the inner-group of these languages.

74 It is interesting, on this point, to note that the Central Pahârî of Kumaun and Garhwâl (i.e., of Eastern Sapâdalaksha) agree with Eastern Râjasthânî in having the genitive postposition kô and the verb substantive derived from the achh, while in the Western Pahârî of the Simla Hills (i.e., Western Sapâdâlaksha) the termination of the genitive is the Western Râjasthânî rô, while one of the verbs substantive (a, is) is probably of the same origin as the Western Râjasthânî hãi. As for Gujarâtî, the genitive ends in nô, and the verb substantive belongs to the achh group. West of Western Pahârî we have the Pôṭhwārî dialect of Lahndâ. Here also the genitive termination is nô, but the verb substantive differs from that of Gujarâtî. On the other hand Gujarâtî agrees with all the Lahndâ dialects in one very remarkable point viz., the formation of the future by means of a sibilant. We thus see that right along the lower Himâlaya, from the Indus to Nepal, there are three groups of dialects agreeing in striking points with, in order Gujarâtî, Western Râjasthânî and Eastern Râjasthânî.

The Khaśas were, we have seen, closely connected with the tribes nicknamed 'Piśâchas' or cannibals, of North-Western India. I have elsewhere contended, and I believe proved. that the wild tribes of the extreme North-West, immediately to the South of the Hindû Kush, are modern representatives of these ancient 'Piśâchas,' and I have classed the languages now spoken by them and also Kashmiri, as belonging to the 'Pisacha Group.' This Piácha Group of languages possesses many marked peculiarities strange to the Arvan languages of the Indian Plains, and several of these are clearly observable in the various forms of Western and Central Pahârî,—strong in the extreme west, but becoming weaker and weaker as we go eastwards. It is reasonable to infer that in this we have traces of the old language of the Khasas, whom Sanskrit tradition makes to be related to the Piśachas.75 But the Pahâri languages, although with this Khasa basis, are much more closely related to Rajasthani. This must be mainly due to the Gûjar influence. We have seen that the Gûjars occupied the country, and became absorbed in the general population, but at the same time they must have given it their language. Then there was a constant reflux of emigration on the part of the Gûjar-Râjpûts from Râjputâna and the neighbouring parts of India. These re-immigrants became, as befitted their Kshatriya station, the rulers of the country and to-day most of the chiefs and princes of the old Sapadalaksha trace their descent from Rajputs of the plains. The re-immigration was increased by the oppression of the Mughul rule in India proper, and there are historical notices of tribe after tribe, and leader after leader, abandoning their established seats in Râjputâna, and seeking refuge from Musalmân oppression in the hills from which they had originally issued to conquer the Gangetic Valley.76

In Sapadalaksha proper (the hill-tract with Chamba for its western and Kumaon for its eastern extremity) the Khasas and the Gûjars have kept themselves comparatively pure from admixture with the Tibeto-Burmans who overflowed from beyond the Himâlaya and also occupied the southern slope of the range. Here the Aryans succeeded in arresting their Tibeto-Burman competitors in the race for possession. On the other hand, in the east, in Nepâl, the Tibeto-Burmans forestalled the Khaśa-Gûjars, and when the latter entered the country they found the others already in possession of the chief valleys. The bulk of the population of Nepâl is Tibeto-Burman, and the Khas conquerors have ever been in a minority. The result has been a considerable racial mixture, which is well described by Hodgson and Professor Sylvain Lévi in the works mentioned in the list of authorities. Most of the Khaśas of Nepâl are of mixed descent. Here it is unnecessary to do more than record the fact, and to refer the ethnologist to the works above mentioned for particulars. What concerns us now is the language, and that has followed the fate of the Khas-Gûjar tribe. While still distinctly allied to Râjasthâní, the Aryan language of Nepâl presents a mixed character. Not only many words, but even special phases of the Grammar, such as the use of the Agent case before all tenses of the transitive verb, and the employment of a complete honorific conjugation, are plainly borrowed from the speech of the surrounding Tibeto-Burmans. These changes in the speech are increasing with every decade, and certain Tibeto-Burman peculiarities have come into the language within the memory of men alive at the present day.

⁷⁵ Attention will frequently be called to these Khaśa traces in dealing with each language in the following pages. See especially the section devoted to Western Pahârî.

⁷⁶ For details, see the Introductions to each of the three Pahârî Groups.

The question of the language spoken by the Gujurs of Swât is different and more difficult. Two opposing theories have been given in the preceding pages, and the present writer will now attempt to give his own views on the subject. It must, however, be observed that these views are founded on imperfect materials, and are only put forward as what seems to him to be the best explanation till further materials become available.

We do not know what language was spoken by the Gurjaras of Sapâdalaksha. It has been stated that it was not necessarily Indo-Aryan. This is true merely as a confession of ignorance. We simply do not know. All that we can say is that in some respects (such as the use of hands as a postposition of the genitive, the form chhañ, for the verb substantive, and the use of his to form the future tense) its modern descendant, Râjasthànî, shows points of agreement with the Piśâcha languages of the north-west.

These Sapâdalaksha Gurjaras came into Eastern Râjputâna, and their language there developed into Modern Râjasthânî. But as has been shown in the part of the Survey dealing with Râjasthânî, this is not a pure language. The Gurjaras settled among a people speaking an Indo-Aryan language of the Inner Group akin to Western Hindî. They adopted this language, retaining at the same time many forms of their own speech. The result was Râjasthânî, a mixed language in which, as has been shown elsewhere, the influence of the Inner Group of Indo-Aryan languages weakens as we go westwards. In the north-east of Râjputâna, in Alwar and Mewât, the influence of the Inner Group is strongest.

Now the Gujurs of Swât speak this mixed Mêwâtî Râjasthânî, and not the language of the Sapâdalaksha Gurjaras, whatever that was. Of this there can be no doubt. Swât Gujurî therefore must be a form of Mêwâtî Râjasthânî, and we cannot describe the latter as a form of Swât Gujurî, for we know that it originally came from Sapâdalaksha, not from Swât.

Mr. Smith has described how the Gûjars of Râjputâna can have entered the Panjab, and, whether the details of his theory are correct or not (and the present writer, for one, sees no reason for doubting them), we may take it, that the main point,—their entry from Râjputâna—is proved.

We are thus able to conceive the following course of events. The Mewât Gûjars went up the Jamnâ Valley, and settled in the Panjâb plains. There they amalgamated with the rest of the population and lost their distinctive language. Some of them settled in the submontane districts of Gujrât, Gujrânwâla, Kângrâ, and the neighbourhood. Here they partially retained their old language, and now speak a broken mixture of it, Pañjâbî, and Hindôstânî. The use of Hindôstânî forms in this mongrel submontane Gujarî, far from the River Jamnâ, on the banks of which Hindôstânî has its proper home, is most suggestive.

Finally, other Gûjars, more enterprising than their fellows, went on further into the mountains, beyond the submontane tract, and are now-a-days represented by the Gujurs of Swât, Kashmîr, and the neighbourhood.

These last wander free over the mountains of their new home, and have little intercourse with the other inhabitants of the locality. They have hence retained the original language which they brought with them from Mewât. But even here we shall see in the specimens sporadic waifs picked up on their journey—stray Hindôstânî and Pañjâbî forms, retained like solitary flies in amber, within the body of the Gujur speech.