I 3

admixture of Arabic and Persian, is called Urdū or Hindūstānī), Bihārī, and Bengālī. The Dravidian dialects of Southern India, Telugu, Tamil, Canarese, Malayālam, though non-Āryan, are full of Sanskrit words, and their literatures are dominated by Sanskrit models.

3. A form of Semitic writing was introduced into the northwest of India by way of Mesopotamia, probably about 700 B.C. The earliest Indian adaptation of this script, known from coins and inscriptions of the third century B.C., is called Brāhmī or 'writing of Brahma.' Though written from left to right it bears clear traces of having once been written from right to left. From the Brāhmī are descended all the later Indian scripts. The most important of these is the Nagari ('urban writing,' or perhaps writing of the Nagara Brahmins of Gujarat) or Deva-nagari ('city writing of the gods,' a term of late but obscure origin), which assumed its characteristic shape about the middle of the eighth century A.D. Sanskrit is most commonly written in Devanagari in Northern India, but other modern Indian characters, such as Bengālī or Oriyā, are also employed in their respective provinces; while in the non-Arvan south the Dravidian scripts are regularly used.

4. The Devanāgarī alphabet consists of forty-eight letters, thirteen vowels and thirty-five consonants (including the pure nasal called Anusvāra, and the spirant called Visarga). These represent every sound of the Sanskrit language. The arrangement of the alphabet in the table facing p. r is that adopted by the ancient Indian grammarians, and being thoroughly scientific, has been followed by European scholars as the lexicographical order in their Sanskrit dictionaries ¹.

5. The vowels are written differently according as they are initial or follow a consonant. They are—

(b) Diphthongs:
東(^) e³, 東(^) ai 4, 潮(1) o³, 潮(1) au 5.

probably be useful. The unchangeable Anusvāra (before a semivowel, sibilant, or \$\frac{1}{6}\$ h: cp. 42 B I) has precedence of every other consonant: hence tig samvara, tind samsaya precede tig sa-ka. The changeable Anusvāra (10; 42 B 2) occupies the place of the nasal into which it might be changed. Thus tid sam-ga would be found beside tig sanga. Similarly the unchangeable Visarga (before a hard guttural or labial) has precedence of every other consonant. Thus tid santation antahkarana and tid antahyura follow tid antahkarana and tid changeable Visarga (before a sibilant) occupies the place of the sibilant into which it might be changed. Thus tid santasstha might be written.

1 There is no sign for medial (or final) a, as this vowel is considered to be inherent in every consonant;—e.g. $\overline{\bullet}$ = ka.

2 Medial or final I is written before the consonant after which it is pronounced;—e.g. (a ki. Originally both I and I were written as curves to the left and the right respectively above the consonant; but for the sake of clear distinction were later prolonged with a vertical downward stroke, the one on the left, the other on the right.

 3 Though based, in nearly all cases, on $\check{\rm ai}$ and $\check{\rm au}$ respectively, e and o are at present, and have been since at least 300 B.C., pronounced like the simple long vowels $\bar{\rm e}$ and $\bar{\rm o}$ in most European languages.

⁴ Though etymologically representating āi and āu, ai and au are at present, and have been since at least 300 B.C., pronounced as ăi and ău.

⁵ The medial forms of the vowels are in combination with consonants;—e.g. 有 k, written as follows: 有 ka, 有 kā, 有 ki, 有 ki, 有 ku,

¹ As Anusvāra and Visarga cause beginners much difficulty in finding words in a glossary, the following note on their alphabetical order will