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Sanskrit on Indian astronomy Verse 1.1 (a tribute to Brahmy) by Sūry Siddhānt (Lit. Sun treatise) is a Sanskrit treaty of Indian astronomy in fourteen chapters. [1] [2] Surya Siddhanta describes the principles of calculating the movements of different planets and moons in relation to different constellations and the faces of the orbit of different astronomical bodies. [4] The text is known from the 15th century manuscript of CE palm leaves and several newer manuscripts. It was composed or corrected c. 800 CE from an earlier text also called Surya Siddhanta. According to al-Biruni, 11th-century Persian scholar and polymath, a text called Surya Siddhanta was written by one Lāta. The second verse of the first chapter of Surya Siddhanta attributes the words to the emissary of the sunny deity of Hindu mythology, Surya, as recounted by an asura (mythical being) called Maya at the end of Satya Yuga, the first golden age of Hindu mythology two million years ago. [6] The text claims, according to Markanday and Srivatsava, that the earth has a spherical shape. It treats Earth as a stationary globe around which the Sun orbits – a geocentric model – and makes no mention of Uraine, Neptune or Pluto.[7] as these planets are not visible without telescopes. Calculates the diameter of the Earth at 8,000 miles (modern: 7,928 miles),[4] the diameter of the Moon as 2,400 miles (actual ~2,160)[4] and the distance between the moon of 258,000 miles [4] (now known, that it is at different times: 221,500–252,700 miles [356,500–406,700 kilometers]). [9] [10] Surya Siddhanta is one of several Hindu texts related to astronomy. It represents a functional system that has made fairly accurate predictions. [12] [13] The text influenced the calculation of the solar year in the Islamic luni-solar calendar. The text was translated into Arabic and influenced medieval Islamic geography. [16] Text history Further information: JyotishaW a work called Pañca-siddhāntikā composed in the 6th century by Varāhamihir, the five astronomical treaties are named and summarized: Paulīśa-siddhānta, Romaka-siddhānta, Vasiṣṭha-siddhānta, Sūrya-siddhānta and Paitāmaha-siddhānta.:50 Most scholars place a preserved version of the text differently from the 4th century to the 5th century BC, although it is dated back to about the 6th century BC by Markandaya and Srivastava. According to John Bowman, the earliest version of the text existed between 350 and 400 CE, in which it referred to sexous fractions and trigonometric functions, but the text was a living document and changed for about 10 centuries. he quotes and then quotes ten verses from Sury Siddhant's version, but these ten verses are not included in any preserved manuscripts of the text. According to Kim Plofker, much of the more ancient Sūryi-siddhānta was included in the text of Panca siddhantika, and the new version of Surya Siddhanta was probably altered and composed around 800 CE. Some scholars call Panca siddhantika old Surya Siddhanta and date it to 505 CE. The Vedic influence of Surya Siddhanta is a text about astronomy and time, an idea that appears much earlier as a field of Jyotisha (Vedanga)

of the Vedic period. The Jyotisha field deals with fixing the time, especially forecasting an auspicious day and time for Vedic rituals. Max Muller, quoting fragments of Garga and others as Vedic offerings, states that ancient Vedic texts describe four measures of time – savannah, solar, lunar and lateral, as well as twenty-seven constellations using Taras (stars). [23] According to the mathematician and classic David Pingree, in the Hindu text Atharvaveda (~1000 AD) the idea already appears twenty-eight constellations and the movement of astronomical bodies. The researchers speculated that it could have come to India from Mesopotamia (Iraq). According to Pingree, this hypothesis has not been proven because no uniform table or evidence from ancient Mesopotamia has yet been deciphered that even presents this theory or calculation. According to Pingree, the impact could initially flow the other way, and then flowed into India after Darius's arrival and conquest of the Indus Valley around 500 BC. The mathematics and time storage equipment mentioned in these ancient Sanskrit texts, pingree proposes, such as a water clock can also then arrived in India from Mesopotamia. However, Yukio Ohashi considers this proposal to be wrong,[24] suggesting instead that Vedic time-measuring efforts to predict the right time for rituals had to start much earlier, and that the impact could flow from India to Mesopotamia. Ohashi states that it is wrong to assume that the number of civilian days per year is 365 in the Indian and Egyptian-Persian years. [26] In addition, adds Ohashi, the Mesopotam formula is different from the Indian time calculation formula, anyone can work only for their latitude, and either there will be serious errors in predicting time and calendar in another region. Kim Plofker states that while the flow of time-measuring ideas from both sides is likely, each of them could develop independently, because loan words usually seen during the migration of ideas are overlooked on both sides when it comes to words for different time intervals and techniques. [28] Greek influence It is assumed that the contacts between ancient Indian scientific tradition and Greece by the Indo-Greek Kingdom after the Indian campaign of Alexander the Great, in particular with regard to the work of Hipparchus (2nd century PCE), explain some similarities between Surya Siddhanta and Greek astronomy during the Hellenistic period. For example, Surya Siddhanta provides a sin table function that parallels the hipparchian chord table, although the Indian calculations are more accurate and detailed. [30] According to Alan Cromer, the exchange of knowledge with the Greeks may have occurred around 100 BC, according to Alan Cromer. According to Cromer, the Indians adopted the Hipparchus system and it remained the simpler system, not the one created by Ptolemy in the 2nd century. , 23 hours, 56 minutes, 23.5 s 686 days, 23 hours, 31 min, 56.1 s 686 days, 23 hours, 30 minutes, 41.4 s Budha (Mercury) 87 days, 23 hours, 16 minutes, 22.3 s 87 days, 23 hours, 16 minutes, 42.9 s 87 days, 23 hours , 15 min, 43.9 s Brhaspati (Jowisz) 4332 days, 7 hours, 41 min, 44.4 s 4332 days, 18 hours , 9 minutes, 10.5 s 4332 days, 14 hours, 2 min, 8.6 s Shukra (Venus) 224 days, 16 hours, 45 minutes, 56.2 s 224 days, 16 hours, 51 minutes, 56.8 s 224 days, 16 hours, 49 minutes, 8.0 s Shani (Saturn) 10,765 days, 18 hours, 33 min, 13.6 s 10,758 days, 17 hours, 48 minutes, 14.9 s 10,759 days , 5 hours, 16 minutes, 32.2 s The influence of Greek ideas on early medieval astronomical theories, especially zodiac symbols (astrology), is widely accepted by scholars. According to Jayant Narlikara, The Edit literature has no astrology, the idea of nine planets and any theory that stars or constellations can influence an individual's fate. According to Jayant Narlikar, one of Surya Siddhanta's manuscripts mentions deva Surya telling Asura Maya to travel to ancient Rome, Representing the Greco-Roman world, where Surya revealed astronomical knowledge in the form of Yavan (lit. Ionian) sanskrit term for Greek speakers:[34] go to Rome, your own city, where, because of brahma's curse, I will reveal this knowledge to you in yavan's guise. The field of astrology probably developed in the centuries after the arrival of Greek astrology with Alexander the Great,[24][35][36] their zodiac signs were almost identical. According to Pingree, CE cave inscriptions from the 2nd century in Nasik mention the Sun, moon and five planets in the same order as in Babylon, but there is no indication that the Indian learned the method of calculating planetary positions during this period. In the 2nd century BC, a scholar named Yavanesvara translated Greek astrological text and another unknown translated the second Greek text into Sanskrit. Then began the diffusion of Greek and Babylonian ideas for astronomy and astrology in India. Another proof of an influential European thought for Indian thought is Romaka Siddhanta, the title of one of Siddhanta's texts of modern Surya Siddhanta, a name that betrays its origins and probably comes from a translation of the European text by Indian scholars in Ujjain, then the capital of the influential Central Indian large kingdom. According to mathematician and measurement historian John Roche, astronomical and mathematical methods developed by the Greeks related to the chords of spherical trigonometry. Indian mathematical astronomers in their texts, such as Surya Siddhanta, developed other linear angle measures, made different calculations, introduced versailles, which is the difference between radius and cosine, and discovered different trigonometric identities. [38] For example, when the Greeks adopted 60 relative units for the radius and 360 for the perimeter, the Indians chose 3,438 units and 60x360 for the circuit, thus calculating the circumference-diameter ratio [pi, π] of about 3.1414. The tradition of Hellenistic astronomy ended in the West after late antiquity. According to Cromer, Surya Siddhanta and other Indian texts reflect the primitive state of Greek science, but played an important role in the history of science by translating it in Arabic and stimulating Arabic teachings. According to Dennis Duke's research, which compares Greek models with Indian models based on india's oldest manuscripts, such as Surya Siddhanta, with fully described models, a Greek influence on Indian astronomy is highly likely. Surya Siddhanta was one of two Sanskrit books translated into Arabic in the second half of the 8th century during the reign of The Abbasid Caliph Al-Mansura. According to Muzaffar Iqbal, this translation and translation of Aryabhata had a significant impact on the geographical, astronomical and associated Islamic scholarship. [40] Play media content Medium (round) movement of planets according to Surya Siddhantha. Play media A variation of Mercury's true position around his average position according to Sury Siddhanth. The content of Surya Siddhanta is written in the classic tradition of Indian poetry, where complex ideas are expressed lyrically with a rhyming meter in the form of terse shloka. This method of expressing and sharing knowledge facilitated the memorization, recall, transmission, and retention of knowledge. However, this method also meant secondary rules of interpretation because numbers do not have rhyming synonyms. The creative approach adopted in Surya Siddhanta was to use symbolic language with dual meaning. For example, one, the text uses the word that means moon because there is one moon. For a qualified reader, the word moon means number one. [41] The entire trigonometric function table, sine tables, steps to calculate complex orbits, predict eclipses and maintain time are thus provided by text in poetic form. This mysterious approach offers more flexibility in poetic design. [41] Surya Siddhanta therefore consists of mysterious principles in Sanskrit. It is a compendium of astronomy that is easier to remember, transmit and use as a reference or help for the experienced, but is not intended to offer commentary, explanation or proof. [18] The text contains 14 chapters and 500 shlokas. It is one of eighteen astronomical siddhanta (treaties), but thirteen out of eighteen are believed to have been lost in history. Surya Siddhanta text has survived since ancient times, was the most famous and most referred astronomical text in the Indian tradition. [5] The fourteen chapters of Surya Siddhanta are as follows, for many quoted translations of Burgess:[2][43] Chapter Surya Siddhanta Chapter # Title Reference 1 Medium Movements of Planets [44] 2 For Real Places of Planets [45] 3 Direction, Place and Time [46] 4 Eclipses, and especially lunar eclipses [47] 5 Parallax in Solar Eclipse [48] 6 Eclipse Projection [44] 7 Planetary Conjunctions [49] 8 Z Asterisms [50] 9 Heliacal (Sun) Climbs and Settings [51] 10 Moon's Risings and Settings, Its Cusps [52] 11 On some malicious aspects of the Sun and Moon [53] 12 Cosmogony, Geography, and Creature Dimensions [54] 13 Armillary 12 Sphere and other instruments [55] 14 with different counting time modes [56] Methods for calculating time using shadow cast by gnomon are discussed in both Chapters 3 and 13. Time Description Author Surya Siddhanta defines time as two types: the first, which is continuous and infinite, destroys all animated and inanimate objects, and the second is the time that can be known. The latter type is further defined as having two types: The first is Murta (Measurable) and Amurta (non-errable). Amurta time is the time that begins with the atoms (Truti) and Murta is the time that begins with Prana, as described in the table below. A further description of Amurta's time can be found in Puranas, where Surya Siddhanta digs into a measurable time. [57] Time described in Surya Siddhanta[57] Type Surya Siddhanta Units Description Value in modern time units Amurta Truti 1/33750 seconds 29.6296 micro seconds Murta Prana - 1 4 seconds Murta Vinadi 6 Pranas 24 seconds Murta Nadi 60 Vinadis 24 minutes Murta Nakshatra 60 Nadis One Sideréal day Thirty of these sideréal days consist of a month (Savana) consisting of as many sunrises. The sunny (saura) month is determined by the sun's entry into the in this way months to make a year. North Pole star and South Pole star One of the most interesting observations made in Surya Siddhanta is the observation of two polar stars, one at the North and South Poles. Surya Siddhanta chapter 12 verse 42 description is as follows:
नेरोरुमयतो-ध्रुवतो नम-।-निरक्षदेशसंस्थानामुभये क्वितिजाभ्रिये।
१२:४३॥
This translates as There are two stars of the pole, one each, near the north blue pole and the south blue pole. From equatorial regions, these stars are visible along the horizon. Currently, our north pole star is Polaris. It is the subject of research to find out when this astronomical phenomenon has occurred in the past so far adding this particular update to Surya Siddhanta. The Surya Siddhanta sine wave table contains methods for calculating the sine wave value in Chapter 2. Divides a quadrant of a circle with a radius of 3438 into 24 equal segments or sins, as described in the table. In modern times, each of these 24 segments has an angle of 3.75°. [59] Table Sines [60] No. Sine 1st order difference 2nd differences in order No. Differences in Sine 1, second order differences 0 0 - - 13 2585 154 10 1 225 225 1 14 2728 143 11 2 449 224 2 15 2859 131 12 3 671 1 222 3 16 2978 119 12 4 890 219 4 17 3084 106 13 5 1105 215 5 18 3177 93 16 1315 210 5 19 3256 79 1 4 7 1520 205 6 20 3321 65 14 8 1719 199 8 21 3372 51 14 9 1910 191 8 22 340 9 37 14 10 2093 183 9 2 3 3431 22 15 11 2267 174 10 24 3438 7 15 12 2431 164 10 Order difference 1. Burgess says it's unusual to see that the 2nd row difference increases like sins and each, in fact, is about 1/225th of the corresponding sine. [60] Earth Axis Slope Calculation (Ecliptic Tilt) Ranges from 22.1° to 24.5° and is currently 23.5°. [61] According to sine wave and sin calculation methods, Surya Siddhanta also tries to calculate the slope of the Earth of modern times, as described in Chapter 2 and verse 28, the skewness of the Earth's axis, the verse says: The sine of the greatest declination is 1397; by this multiply each sine and divide by radius; the arc corresponding to the result is said to be declining. The greatest declination is the slope of the ecliptic plane. With radius 3438 and sine 1397, the corresponding angle is 23.975° or 23° 58' 30.65, which is approximate to 24°. [63] Planets and their characteristics The Earth is a sphere Thus, everywhere on the [surface] of the Earth's globe people suppose that their own place is higher [than others], but it is is located in a space where it is not above or below. —Surya Siddhanta, XII.53Translator: Scott L. Montgomery, Alok Kumar[5][64] The text treats the Earth as a stationary globe around which the Sun, Moon, and five planets orbit. He makes no mention of Ur, Neptune and Pluto. It presents mathematical formulas for calculating orbits, diameters, predicting their future locations and warns that minor corrections are necessary over time for patterns for different astronomical bodies. However, unlike the heliocentric model of the solar system, Surya Siddhanta relies on an incorrect geocentric model. [65] The text describes some of its patterns using very large numbers for divya-yuga, stating that at the end of this yugi, the Earth and all astronomical bodies return to the same starting point and the cycle of existence is repeated again. These very large numbers based on divya-yuga, when divided and converted into decimal numbers for each planet, give quite accurate lateral periods compared to modern western era calculations. [66] Symmetrical Periods[66] Surya Siddhanta Modern Values Moon 27,322 days 23.32166 days Mercury 87.97 days 87,969 days Mars 687 days 686.98 days Venus 224.7 days 2 24,701 days More 4,332.3 days 4,332,587 days Saturn 10,765.77 days 10,759,202 days Solar calendar part of the luni-sun calendar is based on Surya Siddhanta. Different old and new versions of Surya Siddhanta manuscripts give the same solar calendar. According to J. Gordon Melton, both Hindu and Buddhist calendars used in South and Southeast Asia are rooted in this text, but regional calendars have adapted and modified them over time. [69] Surya Siddhanta calculates the solar year at 365 days 6 hours 12 minutes and 36.56 seconds. According to Whitney, Sury Siddhanta's calculations were tolerably accurate and achieved predictive usefulness. In Chapter 1 of Surya Siddhanta, the Hindu year is too long by almost three and a half minutes; but the revolution of the moon is right in a second; Mercury, Venus and Mars within minutes; Jupiter within six or seven hours; saturn within six and a half days. Surya Siddhanta was one of two Sanskrit books translated into Arabic during the reign of Caliph Abbasid al-Mansura (754–775 AD). According to Muzaffar Iqbal, this translation and translation of Aryabhata had a significant impact on the geographical, astronomical and associated Islamic scholarship. [40] Editions Translation of SŪrya-Siddhānta: A Guide to Hindu Astronomy, with Notes and the addition of Ebenezer Burgess Originally published as Journal of American Oriental Society 6 (1860) 141–498. Burgess's comment is much larger than his translation. Surya-Siddhanta: The Hindu Astronomy Handbook by Ebenezer Burgess, ed. Phanindralal Gangooly (1989/1997) with a 45-page commentary by P.C. Sengudt (1935). Translation of Surya Siddhanta by Babu Deva Sastri (1861) ISBN 3-7648-1334-2, ISBN 978-3-7648-1334-5. Just a few notes. The translation of Surya Siddhanta takes the first 100 pages; rest is a translation of Siddhanta Siromani lanceol Wilkinson. See also Indian units of measurement Indian Science and Technology Reference ^ P Gangooly (1935, Editor), Translator: Ebenezer Burgess (1930), Translation of Surya Siddhanta: Hindu Astronomy Handbook, University of Kolkata, page 1 ^ a b c Markanday, Sucharit; Srivastava, P. S. (1980). Physical oceanography in India: A historical sketch. Oceanography: The Past. Springer New York. p. 551–561. doi:10.1007/978-1-4613-8090-0_50. ISBN 978-1-4613-8092-4.. Quote: According to Surya Siddhanta, the earth is a sphere. ^ a b c Plofker, Kim (2009). Mathematics in India. Princeton University Press. p. 71–72. ISBN 978-0-691-12067-6. ↑ a b c d Richard L. Thompson (2007). Cosmology of Bhagavata Purana. Motilal Banarsidass. p. 16, 76-77, 285-294. 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Earlier, in the late IV or early 5th century, the anonymous Hindu author of an astronomical textbook, Surya Siddhanta, had tabulated the function of a sine wave (...) ^ John Bowman (2000). Columbia Chronology of Asian History and Culture. Columbia University Press. p. 596. ISBN 978-0-231-50004-3.. Quote: approx. 350-400: Surya Siddhanta, Indian work on astronomy, now uses the sexagesimal fraction. Contains references to trigonometric functions. The work is changed in subsequent centuries, it took its final form in the 10th century. ^ Brian Evans (2014). The development of mathematics over the centuries: A brief history in cultural Worldly. p. 60. ISBN 978-1-118-83979-9. ↑ a b c David Pingree (1963), Astronomy and Astrology in India and Iran, Isis, Tom 54, Part 2, No 176, pages 229-235 with footnotes ^ a b Duke, Dennis (2005). Equant in India: The mathematical basis of ancient Indian planetary models. Archive of the history of science. Springer Nature. 59 (6): 563–576. 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PMID 11196987. ↑ a b There are many obvious signs of direct contact between Hindu astronomy and Hellenistic tradition, e.g. the same mixture of elliptical arches and decaffeination vertebrae is found with Hipparchus and early Siddhantas (note: [...]. In Surya Siddhanta, zodiac signs are used in a similar way to mark arcs on every big circle. Otto Neugebauer, The Exact Sciences in Antiquity, p. 9 Acta historica scientiarum naturalium et medicinalium, Courier Dover Publications, 1969, p. 186. ↑ a b The table must be of Greek origin, although it is recorded in the Indian numerical system and in Indian units. It was probably calculated about 100 B.C. by an Indian mathematician familiar with the work of Hipparchus. 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