"The design of the Society is to institute and promote enquiries into the History, Religion, Literature, Arts, and Social Condition of the present and former Inhabitants of the Island, with its Geology, Mineralogy, its Climate and Meteorology, its Botany and Zoology."

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The great delay in the issue of the present Number of the Journal (for which an apology is due to Members) has been unavoidable, and mainly caused by continued heavy pressure of urgent work in the Government Printing Office.

In addition to the Journal each Member receives the first part (Vol. I. Part I. pp. 1-41) of a new edition of Panini’s Sutras, published by Mr. W. Gunatilaka of Kandy with the assistance of the Society.

H. C. P. BELL,
Hon. Sec.

September, 1881.
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ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

CEYLON BRANCH.

THE ANCIENT EMPORIUM OF KALAH IN THE EMPIRE OF ZABEDJ,

AS A CEYLON PORT, AND THE EARLY COLONIZATION OF THE ISLAND, SUBSEQUENT TO THE WAR OF RĀMA AND RĀWAṆA; WITH SOME NOTES ON FA HIAN’S ACCOUNT OF CEYLON.

By H. Nevill, Esq., C.C.S.

In the very complete compilation of ancient accounts of Ceylon, which Sir E. Tennent gives in the first Volume of his work on the Island, he proceeds (after giving most interesting notices of the emporium in Taprobane, or Serendib, through which the luxuries of Eastern Asia were gathered for the markets of the West) to adduce reasons, which appeared to him plausible, as to the identification of the ancient Kalah with the modern Galle.

He first clearly shows the errors into which Bertolacci and other authors had fallen, and then suggests the fresh site, in which, as I now hope to prove, he was deceived by a mere similarity of sound.

In the first place, we at once fail to trace on our S.W. coast the numerous Islands lining the shore, which form so striking a portion of the description of the earlier writers.
Again, the cramped and rocky creek known as Galle Harbour can scarcely be identified with the capacious ‘limen’ or lagoon, and tranquil inland water, which is often spoken of in connection with the emporium of Kalah.

Further, we have every reason to regard the Galle neighbourhood as of comparatively recent civilization, and possessing few ancient historical traditions, and no ancient historical remains. Neither in the extreme corner of the kingdom ever guarded for its legitimate Sovereigns by the loyal, brave, and independent mountaineers of Ruhuna, can we trace the half Tamil district of Kalah, which owned the sway of the Mahárájás of Zabedj, the Sultans of the Isles, who, as Cosmas in A. D. 550, (supported by Abou Zeyd in A. D. 900,) tells us were ‘ενάντιοι ἀλλήλων’ opposed to, or independent of, each other,’ when spoken of in conjunction with the King who had the Hyacinth.

It may be well to remark here that the recurring expression ‘the King who has the Hyacinth,’* scarcely refers to the great gem that was mounted on the pinnacle of a lofty dégoba, and is celebrated by the travellers to the royal city; or yet to the blue statue of Buddha described by Fa Hian, but rather means ‘the King who had the country where the Hyacinth was found,’ i. e. Sabaragamuwa and the adjacent Highlands, ancienely included in Ruhuna.

Further, as we are told by Abou Zeyd, between the kingdom with the emporium and the Hyacinth country lies the pepper country—a remark positively not applying to Galle, but at once understood, if we admit, as I hope hereafter to show is the case, that Kalah is the N.W. coast between the Arippu river (the ancient Kadamba) and the Déduruv-oya; when the expression may be amplified into, between Puttālam District and the Adam’s Peak District lies the plain of the Këlañi river and

the Mahá-oya, which through all tradition has been and still is, the ‘pepper country’; or, in still conciser terms, between Kalah and Ruhuna is the Máyá-raṭa.

Many other arguments might here be adduced, and some will be alluded to further on, but I think it is even already sufficiently shown that Galle was not the ancient centre of Kalah, the Tarshish of Solomon’s fleets, and the rendezvous of Arabs, Persians, Indians, Syrians and Chinese.

We will now proceed to consider a number of facts, which, when aggregated, render it probable, or even certain, that the district alluded to on the N.W. coast was the great emporium of the Eastern trade—the Kalah kingdom. In A.D. 50, when Claudius was Emperor at Rome, a ship sent to collect the revenues of Arabia was caught by the winds and borne to Hippuros, the bold point still known as Kutiraimalai or ‘Horse Hill,’ and which has from the dimmest dawn of tradition been, what it still is, the landmark of sailors, and a sacred spot at which they to this day make suitable offerings to appease winds and waters.

Here the mariners were hospitably received, and after a short stay returned to Rome with an embassy from the King of that district, which, as Pliny tells us, consisted of four persons, the highest bearing the name of Rachia.

Casie Chetty (Jour. A.S., Ceylon, 1848, p. 78.) has proved that Rachia is a corruption of A’rachchiya, and not as Sir E. Tennent fancied, a form of Rájá, since that title was never used for persons of the rank selected for such missions.

Now in this very remarkable embassy to Rome from a point of N.W. Ceylon, we have the most extraordinary confirmation of my views regarding the site of the ancient trade.

For though Pliny gives us a full account and minute description of the Ambassadors, and the details they gave of their country, yet he never even gives a hint that Hippuros was an out of the way and unknown port, but on the contrary we
are naturally left to believe that once there, the mariners recognised the country, knew their way home, and ran no further risk.

Also had there not been regular intercourse between that port and the Red Sea, how would the Romans have found their way home? and is it likely an embassy would have been sent had it not been recognised that there was no difficulty in the relations of the two countries? On the contrary, once arrived, having recruited their strength, the sailors start off home as if on a beaten track, and without comment on their safe return, bring an embassy and presents. Further, from Pliny’s silence, there can be no doubt the embassy went home, and was not condemned to a perpetual exile at Rome; and in consequence doubtless of its safe return with presents, we find another arriving in Rome, when Julian was Emperor.

Fifty years later still, in A.D. 110, Ptolemy gives his wonderful map taken down from the narratives of sailors, which clearly shows how well our N.W. coast was known even in its minutest details, and the course of its rivers inland.

In A.D. 410 Palladius writes, on the faith of a Theban merchant, that in the neighbourhood are a thousand islands, one group called Maniolæ, and five large rivers.

Now, in the boundaries assumed for Kalah we have a chain of islands recently joined and forming the Akkara-pattu of Kalpiṭiya, the long island of Káratístu (no doubt then a group of detached islets), and various others scattered from Puttalam to Kutiraimalai, while on the North are śrīmān, Ramessaram, and the adjacent group, parts of which are now connected by sandbanks, and form Adam’s bridge; doubtless the Maniolæ. Beyond these again are the islands of Jaffna, Delft and many others.

By this hypothesis the untenable supposition of Sir E. Tennent and M. Landresse, that the far distant Mâldives were referred to, is at once avoided.
The five rivers accurately answer to the Arippu or Kadamba river, the Kalá-oya, the Morachchikatti river near Kutiraimalai, the Mi-oya and the Dėdurū-oya.

In A. D. 550 Cosmas, writing the travels of Sopater, tells how on that trader’s arrival at the emporium he learned that the Hyacinth was found beyond the pepper country. This, the ancient Máyá-raṭa, the Maháwaṃsa tells us was bounded on the North and South respectively by the Dėdurū-oya and the Kēlanī-gāṅga, accurately enclosing and dividing the ‘pepper’ from the ‘gem’ districts and the district in which was the emporium.

Again, he says around it are a multitude of small islands containing fresh water and thickly covered with palms producing the Indian and the aromatic nuts.

In the islands now forming the Akkara-pattu as far as Kalpiṭiya are abundant proofs of ancient groves of cocoanut and palmyra palms, and the latter from which palm-sugar, and a sweet paste called pūnatu, is prepared, was perhaps the aromatic nut, and not the areka, which is a hill-growing species and not likely to have been valued by the Western traders. It is also of course possible the aromatic nut was not grown but imported for export, and Cosmas’ informers mistaken in their statement.

With regard to the special notice of the abundance of fresh water even at this day, all visitors are surprised to find that excellent water may be got in all the islands, and the Akkara-pattu, at a foot or so in depth, while on the mainland water is extremely scarce, only obtained by deep wells and ancient tanks.

Sopater was presented to the King of the district in which was the emporium, who was independent of, or opposed to, the King that had the Hyacinth.

In A. D. 850 Soleyman, a trader who had made many voyages, described Adam’s Peak and the district around as that which produced the gems, thus identifying the Hyacinth country of Cosmas with that part of Ruhuna.
The Island was then (A. D. 850) still subject to its two Kings, he tells us. When in his continuation of this work Abou Zeyd describes Ibn Wahab's voyages (Tennent's Ceylon, Vol. I, p. 587) the still water lagoons in which he so delighted, and where he spent months in coasting about, could only have been one of the lagoons either of Jaffna, Kalpiyiya, or Batticaloa, "and it is evident from the narratives of Soleyman and Ibn Wahab, that ships availing themselves of the monsoons to cross the Indian Ocean, crept along the shore to Cape Comorin, and passed close by Adam's Bridge to reach their destined ports."

At page 591 of the same work it is said:—"The assertion of Abou Zeyd as to the sovereignty of the Maharaja of Zabedj at Kalah, is consistent with the statement of Soleyman, that 'the Island was in subjection to two monarchs.'"

In this we find still another strong support for our argument, since the whole N.W. coast and Jaffna has from the most ancient times been peopled by Tamils and Moors, thus accounting for the district being under the Maharájás of Zabedj, who from B.C. 100 to A. D. 700 extended their empire and ruled the Malay Islands, Kalah, and Travancore; and it satisfactorily accounts for the silence preserved by the priestly annalists of the Kings who possessed the Hyacinth, as to the commercial wealth of their rivals who governed the territory in which was the great emporium.

Sir E. Tennent also quotes the "Garsharzsp-Namah" of about the 10th century, in which the Maharájá having requested Persian aid against the "Shah of Serendib," one Baku, a fleet is sent, which lands at Kalah and obtains a signal victory over Baku; and this seems authentic, as the empire of Zabedj was then breaking up, and the Kalah Viceroy likely to seek aid from Persia, whose merchants profited so largely by its trade, and indirectly proving the old enmity between Ruhuna and Kalah, a feud at once understood as between the Tamil port and the Siphalese capital, but not applicable to Galle.
This Baku may have been only a General, or he may have been the Parákrama Pándi or Báhu, who in 1059 was Viceroy of Ruhuna according to the Maháwaṣa, which also refers to the Solian conquest and frequent irruption of foreigners during the end of the 10th century.

Baku in either case is no doubt a corrupt spelling of Báhu. Still later in 1347 Ibn Batuta visited the district where the traders went for cinnamon, and landing at a place called 'Battāla' (either Puttalām or some port nearer the Battala-oya) whence he crossed a river (the Dēduru-oya) and reached the port of 'Salāwat,' still called in Śiṅhalese by that name, a little on the Battala side of which the infidel King's territory ceased, thence turning inland he reached 'Kankār' (? Gaṅgā śripura), either Gampola or one of the Sabaragamuwa towns on the Kēlaṇi-gaṅga, and ascending Adam's Peak he descended to 'Dinaur' (Deva-nuvara, Devundara), or Anglice Dondra, whence he returned by 'Kāli' and 'Kolambū,' then a flourishing port, to 'Battāla.'*

This route would have been from Dondra, by the ancient port of Weligam and the village of Hiniḍum, through the Walaláwiṭi-kóralé to Kalutara, and not Galle; and 'Kāli,' doubtless is a corruption of the word Kalu-gaṅga-tara=Kalutara, i. e. the ferry over the black (kālu) river.

I would here invite special attention to the expression "the infidel King" used by Ibn Batuta, when contrasting the King of the district in which was the port with the Buddhist King who ruled the rest of Ceylon. Its use by the Arabian in this context shows the King of Kalah was not a Buddhist, but of a religion hostile to that of the priestly annalists, who drew up the chronicles of the Kings of Anurádhapura and Polonnaruwa, and accounts for their silence upon the flourishing port and busy commerce settled in the maritime state of

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Kalah, the *point d'appui* as it were of the hated Tamils, so hostile to their religion.

Having pointed out how well the site I have given corresponds with ancient descriptions, I will adduce analogies to its ancient name of Kalah, far surpassing that of 'Kāli' (Kalutara) and Galle; for though a more fallacious ground could not be selected as the base of an argument, yet it may be a corroborative proof of value when taken in connection with other and more direct proofs.

In the district between the Arippu-river and Dēdurū-oya the principal river is the Kalā-oya, or 'Kalah-river'—the port of Kalpiṭiya is still called by the natives Kalputti, *i. e.* 'the Kala sandbanks'—the opposite point on the mainland is Kāratīvu, *r & l* being mutable, and the name signifying 'Kalah Island.'

In the commencement of this paper I have alluded to the absence of ancient historical remains, and traditions in the neighbourhood of Galle; let us see how far the proposed site is supported by such corroboration.

When Wijaya landed and founded the historical dynasty of Ceylon, he arrived near the mouth of the Mī-oya at the present Puttalām, B. C. 543.

He thence proceeded a short distance inland, where, after marrying the daughter of one of the Native Chiefs, he gradually extended his power, till from his capital of Tammanṇa Nuwara he acquired possession of the greater part of the Island, and ultimately became so strengthened by bands of adventurers from the coast, that he repudiated his wife and native allies, reducing many to the rank of slaves.

Although the annalists of the Mahāvaṇsa confine the narrative to the conquerors, and have only sneers for the aborigines, the so-called Yakkhos and Nāgas, yet it is clear the assertion of their previous utter barbarity is quite unfounded, and we have abundant proofs that they had attained considerable civilization, although inferior to that of their Aryan invaders. Thus
we are told that one of their towns was called Lankāpura, and was the capital of the kingdom; hence they had a King and Chiefs under him, they had gathered into towns and were not mere savages or (as one popular idea supposes) the same as the present Rock Veddās;* also they understood jewellers’ craft, since a “throne of gems” was an object of strife.

Where Wijaya first landed, the Princess whom he married was met near the tank, though this tank was doubtless used merely as a reservoir of water and not for irrigation; while—most important—here the Princess or Chieftain’s daughter distributed rice to his followers, which was obtained from the shipwrecked boats of mariners. Now, had there not been considerable commerce on the shore of the lagoon, it is clear rice would not have so occurred, not from one special wreck, but from the wrecked boats, as if such were of frequent occurrence. This, too, is supported by the tradition extant (Pien-i-tien, Book LXVI.) when the Chinese travellers Hiouen-Thsang and Fa-Hian heard that Wijaya had come as a merchant to the district, and there, by his tact gradually acquired royal power. I think we must deduce that the emporium of Ceylon existed as a trading station long prior to his advent.

It may be well at some length to notice the tradition as recorded by these ancient Chinese authors. Hiouen-Thsang, who—unlike the simple matter-of-fact Fa-Hian—has always a ready ear for, and pen to record, the romantic, says the tradition was that a South Indian Princess on her way to be married, with her retinue, was waylaid by a King of the lions, and carried off captive to his mountain home, where she bore him a son and daughter. When the son attained puberty, he consulted with his mother and arranged to escape with her and his sister to her people. With this object he carefully explored the mountain paths, and at last succeeded in his plan and escaped with

*S. उद्देि, vēddō.
his mother and sister. The mother, however, having warned him his parentage would disgrace him in the eyes of her countrymen, they concealed the real nature of his father. Meanwhile the King-lion ravaging the neighbouring lands in search of his family, the King of the land to which the lion-son had gone was in extreme peril from him, on which the lion-son treacherously killed his own father with a dagger—the father dying with forgiving love to his son.

On the *eclaircissement* that ensued, the King deciding he must not break his pledge of reward, and also refusing to allow the parricide to remain in his territory, equipped two vessels, and in one sent off the lion-son with a retinue of men to seek his fortune, and in the other sent off a retinue of women. The history is here silent, but as the ships were sent off in this manner, each on its own course, it is only natural to suppose the lion-son's sister and mother were banished in that with a female retinue, which is said to have gone towards Persia. That which contained the lion-son and his male retinue reached "the isle of jewels," and as many valuable articles of merchandize were procurable there, they settled, and after killing some of the chief merchants already settled there, married their widows and established a kingdom, calling it "the Lion-kingdom."

We have only here to understand by lion, not the quadruped but a Gangetic hill chieftain, with the title of Siṅha (not uncommon), and the tradition is a highly probable partial account of the origin of the Tamil coast race (which I assume to be the Yakkhos of ancient accounts) as settled in N.W. and E. Ceylon, in the country of the Nāgas or aboriginal snake worshippers.

This is again supported by a passage in Upham's *Rājāvali* (p. 168) not hitherto connected with the above tradition. In this second legend the *Rājāvali* says that the Yakkhos came to Ceylon when the country was lying devastated and depopulated by the wars between Rāma and Rāwaṇa.
In combination we have from these traditions a very consistent story, that when the aboriginal (Nága) race of Ceylon was weakened by the Indo-Aryan invasion perpetuated in the Rámáyana, a subsequent Tamil colony came from the South of India, established itself as Yakkhos, and was organised by an out-cast Prince of mixed Gangetic and South Indian blood, who landed at a port frequented by merchants already settled there, attracted by productions affording a lucrative trade.

This we may call the pre-Wijayan era, and accounts for the Gangetic and Bráhman Wijaya arriving at its port when the Island was inhabited by two races—Nágas (snake worshippers)* and Yakkhos (probably a form of Saivites).

Hionuén-Thsang goes on to relate that 500 demon women, who lived in one of the towns, seduced a party of merchants who had arrived to trade, and each bore a son to her paramour. Their Queen, who seduced the chief merchant, bore a son who, after his father, whose name was Seng-kia (Siṅha) was called Seng-kia-lo.

The legend goes on to tell how Seng-kia-lo secretly deserted his wife after her lavish kindness: how she followed him to a neighbouring kingdom and implored him to return to her, and upbraided him with his ingratitude: how he replied she was of demon origin, justifying his repudiation: and how on her appealing to the King, he, struck with her beauty and moved with pity, took her to wife and protected her: how during the night all the inmates of the palace were murdered and mutilated, and on the next morning the refugee announced to the people that his wife was a devil, and in the night had flown to Ceylon, and fetched a party of other devils, who had killed and eaten the inmates of the palace and the King who had just married her. On this he was elected King, and proceeded at once to form an army and return to Ceylon, where he entirely conquered the Island, exterminating many of its

* Note (1).
inhabitants, and driving away the others to a neighbouring Island, and then, having destroyed their town, established a kingdom in his name "Seng-kia-lo" (Siṅhala) to which people rapidly collected from other countries. Let us treat this as a true tradition, merely garnished by the persons who gave it to Hiouen-Thsang with the false representation that the unhappy wife was really a devil, as it suited her betrayer to represent when he effected the murder of the King, who had taken her part against him, together with the inmates of the palace. It is scarcely surprising the Buddhist annalists omitted to record in their chronicles this horrible crime and the successful conspiracy that brought Seng-kia-lo back from India again, to the land of his birth, as a conqueror of the whole land; nor, priding themselves on their pure Gangetic race, would the Kings descended from Wijaya care to see it recorded that Wijaya was the son of a Gangetic Chief and a Yakkho Princess. On the other hand, there was absolutely no inducement for Hiouen-Thsang to invent the story, had it not been the current oral tradition.

I should also here refer to the extract from the Pradipikāva, given by Alwis at page xxv of the Introduction to his Sidat Sangarāva, in which Guruḷugōmi* quotes from the lost Aṭuvās (original Siṅhalese commentaries on the Pāli Scripture) compiled B.C. 92.

He says: "Since King Siṅhabāhu took the Siṅha (lion) captive, he was (called) Siṅhala, and his descendants were (thence also called) Siṅhala," so the name Siṅhala is derived from the circumstance of the lion being taken captive by Siṅhabāhu,
who was begotten by a lion and was conceived in the womb of a Royal Princess, the daughter of Kâlinga Chakrawarti.” I give Alwis’s translation, but he should have translated it, ‘daughter of the King of Kâlinga, King of Kings;’ as Chakrawarti (चक्रवर्ति) is a King to whom other Kings are vassals.

Guruchgomo goes on to quote Sanyut Sagiya: “So likewise both King Wijaya, the son of the Siñhala [this we must bear in mind is grandson of Siñha] who having subdued the Yaksha, took Lakdiva [Lañká], also his younger brother King Sumit, who reigned in Siñhapura, also his son Panûwas Déva, who having left Siñhapura became King of Lakdiva, and his sons and grandsons, were Siñhala.” This passage I have translated afresh as Alwis’s version fails to convey the original correctly.

It indicates that Wijaya,* grandson of Siñha, leaving his

* It may be well here to append an amended table of the successors of Wijaya, which I suggest as probably correct:—

Dévānapiyatissa, B. C. 241, is a well-established date, and may be taken as the starting point.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>King</th>
<th>B. C.</th>
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<td>Dévānapiyatissa</td>
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<tr>
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I quite agree with Turnour in regarding the reigns of Muṣasiva and Paṇḍukâbhaya (60 and 70) as preposterously long, and it will be seen by halving these we get a reduction of 65 years, which sum has proved to be an introduction fraudulently inserted to carry back the Wijayan era.

I have followed the Mahâvâsya in allowing 37 years between Paṇḍuwasa and Paṇḍukâbhaya, though this interval is open to doubt, and I shall perhaps elsewhere be able to elucidate it. With reference to the reign of Wijaya, I follow the Mahâvâsya in giving it as 38 years. May we not suppose the Suļu Râju Ratnâkara gives it as 30 years, because the former dates his reign from his accession on his father Siñhabâhu’s death, and the latter from his return from India at the head of an army to conquer the Island? The new light thrown upon the subject by the Chinese accounts renders this explanation highly probable.
younger brother Sumit to rule the paternal kingdom Sihipura, established the kingdom of Lakdiva (Laṅkā), but was succeeded by his nephew (Panḍuwas Dēva), son of Sumit who left Sihipura to ascend the throne of Lakdiva.

I think I can scarcely leave this part of my subject without alluding to another legend of the Rājāwali that is also unnecessarily regarded as an idle falsehood. This is the story that during the life of Gautama Buddha he caused a fire to break out in Ceylon which drove away the Yakkhos who had subsequently to the Rāma era taken possession of the part of Ceylon, where Buddha foresaw his religion would be greatly cherished. This fire, we are told, drove the Yakkhos to the sea and to the Island of Yakgiridivayina, and by depopulating the land of these Yakkhos prepared the way for its settlement by the race destined to introduce the Buddhist cult.*

Let us merely suppose that Mahinda and his disciples learned when building their temples at Anurādhapura, that a former city had existed on that spot, the inhabitants of which were driven from the country by an excessive period of heat and drought, during the life-time of Buddha himself. Can we wonder that such enthusiastic missionaries should seize the tradition, and by saying the drought and heat was a fire sent by Buddha, and not accidentally happening during his life, thus obtain a hold upon the faith of the newly-converted people and a special halo of sanctity upon their own mission? Nor in this connection must we forget the Abhayagiri monastery was itself founded on the site of an ancient temple of the former religion; and that in days before the large irrigation works were constructed there is nothing whatever forced or improbable in the tradition of such a drought.

I think then these legends, thus connected, are all consistent, and show that after the wars of Ráma a second race, the Yakkhos, intruded in Ceylon from South India, drove out the enfeebled Nágas from the Anurádhapura district, as they spread in from the N.W. coast and the trading ports, and were again driven back to the Coast and Islands by excessive heat and incessant drought, but subsequently, and about the Wijayan era, an Aryan race spread back again to the interior, where Wijaya's descendants formed again the city to which their Gangetic kinsmen came to preach the law of Buddha.

Fa-Hian naively tells us:—“This kingdom was originally uninhabited by man; only demons, genii [Yakkhos] and dragons [Nágas] dwelt there. Nevertheless, merchants of other countries trafficked with them. When the season for the traffic came, the genii and demons appeared not, but set forward their previous commodities marked with the exact price; if these suited the merchants, they paid the price and took the goods. As these traders went, and came, and sojourned, the inhabitants of other kingdoms learned that this country was very beautiful; these also came, and eventually established a great kingdom.”*

Fa-Hian who went to Anurádhapura about A.D. 410 direct from To-mo-li-ti in the Ganges (the Támalitti of the Mahá-váyasa and almost on the site of Calcutta) says that he sailed thence by a trade wind to Ceylon in fourteen days and nights, (a surprisingly short time which accounts for the frequent intercourse between Ceylon and the Ganges). He took passage in one of some large vessels going on a merchant voyage to this Island. He proceeds to say that, arrived at Ceylon, “to the right and to the left there are small islets to the number of a hundred; their distance from each other is in

some cases 10 ฤ, in others from 20 to 200 ฤ; all are dependent upon the great Island.”

These islets answer perfectly to the islands of Jaffna, Delft, Iraṇaiti, &c., on the one side of the Straits of Mannär, and on the other to Mannär and the connected islands with Kāratī, Ipantī, Dutch Bay, and the long peninsula of the Akkara-pattu of recent geological formation, and very likely a line of islands in A.D. 400, and the small islets of the Puttañam lagoon, and the present peninsulas opposite Negombo and Chilaw. Fa-Hian goes on to say of the islands, “Many precious things and pearls are procured there.”

He further says: “There is a district which produces the jewel mo-ṇi [a red gem probably, by the context, ruby] and which may be about 10 ฤ square. The King sends people thither to protect it, and when they have gathered the jewels he takes three pieces out of every ten.”

Ten ฤ would be three miles,* and this district of red gems was possibly Nuwara Eliya, and not Sabaragamuwa.

This independent testimony of a Chinese pilgrim to Anurādhapura, in A.D. 410, is surely convincing proof that “the large ships” then traded with the North-Western coast of Ceylon as the emporium, and his account identifies the islands of the Arabian voyagers, and the King who had the hyacinth, as already quoted from their narratives.

It was not until A.D. 850, when Soleyman visited it, that we hear of any traveller actually visiting and identifying the gem district, no doubt jealously guarded as a secret monopoly by the Kings of Anurādhapura.

The fact that former writers overlooked our islands North and South of the Straits of Mannär is not surprising,—they are

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* “Cinq ฤ (1643 mèt.) font un peu plus d’un mille anglais (1609 mèt.)” (Stanislas Julien).—Hon. Sec.
so very small upon a map, although as I know myself, having boated amongst all of them, after actual inspection, they leave no mean impression upon one's mind, and Fa-Hian expressly tells us they are quite small.

Fa-Hian, I may add, returned from Ceylon to China in a trading boat which held 200 men, and halted for six months in Java, and thence he proceeded in a similar trading vessel direct to China.∗

In this connection we must not lose sight of the disputed narrative professing to be Philo's translation of Sanchoniathon, †—a narrative which to me seems beyond a doubt genuine—if not genuine as Sanchoniathon's, at least as that of some ancient traveller. The stress laid on Sanchoniathon styling Ceylon "the island of Rachius" as an evident plagiarism from Pliny is to me a false argument, and the whole of his treatise on Ceylon is literally a correct account of an ancient journey from the Puttalām coast to a town near the modern Kurunegala, one of the most ancient districts of former civilization. Philo's island of Rachius may clearly be 'the Rājā's Island,' while Pliny's Rachia is 'Arachchiya,' an approximation at once perceptible. All throughout the N.W. coast of Ceylon, and as far in the interior as Anuradhapura and Kurunegala, the whole country is one continuous scene of ancient settlements. The extensive ruins of Tammannā Nuwara near Puttalām, and the adjacent town and tank of Mahā-tabuwa are known, and a constant succession of reservoirs and hewn stones mark the site of old villages and towns.

These reservoirs are principally tanks made solely to preserve water, and not like the historical ones of the Buddhist annals as sources for irrigation.

∗ Note (2).
We can scarcely expect, however, the trading ports of the coast to afford ruins, such as are seen on the site of the Buddhist cities of the interior, for the trading cities on the coast are said to have been singularly tolerant of all religions, and hence it is probable none were very dominant, while the King being only a Viceroy his palace would be a modest one. Now, except temples and palaces, it is well known no other buildings were built in a permanent way in ancient times, and so we must not be surprised that the trade which swept our coasts has left no very elaborate traces of its progress.

Again, perhaps I may notice as singularly illustrative of the hereditary nature of many qualities, that the villagers in the Tamil Wanni and Demâla-pattu preserve to this day their characteristic hatred of any intrusion and their love of retirement. Just as in the days of the merchant sailors of Kalah the Yakkhos are described as hiding from sight, and leaving their merchandise on the shore for exchange: so we still find them withdrawing their houses from the busy high roads that now connect Puttalam with Kurunégal and Anurâdhapura, and altogether abstaining from mixing in the commerce around them or the colonies of settlers that have come among them.

I must also notice that at Kalaputti, or Kalpițiya, during various excavations, large quantities of coins, gold and copper, have been brought to light, and of the latter the commonest bear the name of Sáhasa Mallawa, who reigned over Ceylon in A.D. 1202, though the Maháwaṇsa tells us that he was deposed after two years,—two facts apparently at variance with each other and requiring explanation; others are of Liláwatí and Dharmásoka Déwa.

From the vast amount of treasure buried through some miles of the country shortly after A.D. 1202, it is clear there must have been at that time some great and unexpected calamity and
invasion, so that it is probable that when the rule of the Mahárájás of Zabedj finally collapsed and their wide domains fell under different sway, the protection withdrawn from Kalah was the cause of successful forays and inroads from the opposite coast of India or the Siñhalese capital, and that the wealthy community was then broken up and its trade abandoned.

From the absence of buried hoards of any extent before or after this date, there is no doubt no such previous invasion took place, and never since, for probably never again did it recover from the blow received.

Within four square miles in the memory of the older people, there has been found near Kalpiṭiya probably as much as a thousand pounds' worth of hidden treasure, gold coins and copper being the principal, but even a gold statue having been dug up by the father of the present Tamil Mudaliyár of the district.

To conclude, I have endeavoured to show that the emporium of Taprobane or Serendib, from B.C. 500 until a comparatively recent time, was not Galle, but the coast from Manñár to the Dđdur-u-oya (the Northern limit of the Mâyá-raṭa) : that it was separated from the capital of the Siñhalese by jealousies that account for the silence of the Siñhalese chronicles : and that it forms the Kalah so often referred to.

As to which point on its coast we are to regard as the emporium, I cannot on the data yet known decide. I incline to think however, that the coast around, and opposite to, Kalpiṭiya formed the centre of trade, and that the emporium was not one defined spot, but a cluster of petty ports all bartering the luxuries of the Far East for silver, and the wares of Europe, Persia, and Ethiopia ; while the site of Tammanñá Nuwara with the adjacent ruins of Mahá-tabuwa was the Capital of the ruler who governed under the Sultans of Zabedj.
There remains only one further matter in relation to my subject to which I need still refer in recapitulation, and that is the bearing on it of the ancient accounts of the inhabitants of Ceylon before the Aryan immigration under and subsequent to Wijaya.

They are described as of two classes, Yakkhos and Nágas. I think it is now universally accepted that Nágas were an aboriginal tribe of snake worshippers, and formed, with an infusion of Aryan blood, the bulk of our present Sinhalese. What then were the Yakkhos? Have I not succeeded in showing there was from the Islands of Adam’s Bridge on the North, down to the Đedoru-oya near Chilaw on the South, an ancient trading district forming an emporium for the East and West, and under a separate ruler of its own, opposed to the Chief King of the Nágas at Lánkápura and the Kings who succeeded Wijaya? What more natural than that the people of this colony of the empire of Zabedj should be the Yakkhos, or demon worshippers (? Saivites), as opposed to the Nágas, or snake worshippers, who were the aborigines of the rest of the Island; and what more probable than that as the Sinhalese of to-day represent the race of Nágas, so the Tamils of the Jaffna Wanni, Eastern Province, and the Puttalam District represent the Yakkhos who held the country in which was the port, and who were opposed to the Nágas who held the rest of the Island.

NOTES.

(1)

I think the references here made to the Ceylon Nágas, as snake worshippers, perhaps justify the following note:—

In the Ceylon Museum will be found the pottery image of a coiled cobra and also what looks like a lamp. These are of a peculiar and heavy pottery different to any I have yet seen from Ceylon. They were the only relics found under a crumbling heap of brickwork excavated on a little quoin rock in Bintenna, and are, as far as I know,
the only such recorded relics of the Ophid, or Nāga, cult in Ceylon.

I was for a long while struck with surprise that the Ophid, or Nāga, image should have been enclosed in a mound of brick like a Buddhist relic, but on reading the notes in Fa-Hian's account of the combination of the Buddhist with the ancient Ophid cult at Samkassa (chapter xvii of Laidlay's translation) in this connection, I unexpectedly found Cunningham describing the ruins of the Ophid shrine as follows: "It is a small mound of ruined bricks dedicated to the worship of the Nāga. Nothing whatever is erected there; but whenever rain is desired the people proceed to the spot and pray for it. The period of annual worship however is the month of Bysākh, [?] Siyhalse, Wesak, စီးဗော်] just before the commencement of the seasonal rains, when the village women go there in procession and make offerings of milk, which they pour out on the spot. This is no doubt the identical dragon (Nāga) which Fa-Hian mentions as appearing 'once every year,' from whose favour the people of Seng-kia-shi [this is Samkassa] obtained propitious rains and abundant harvests."

I shall be excused for here further quoting the text of Fa-Hian (A.D. 400) to show the conclusive grounds for believing the Ophid cult actually witnessed by Captain Cunningham was practically identical with that witnessed by Fa-Hian. "Their stay being ended, the dragon assumes the form of a little serpent with two ears bordered with white. When the ecclesiastics perceive him, they present him with cream in a copper vessel......He comes out once every year." And again ante: "It is he who confers fertility and abundance on the country by causing gentle showers to fall upon the fields, and securing them against all calamities."

I italicise two points in these accounts as worthy of attention: the one is the ascendency of "women" in the Ophid ceremony, and the other is the expression "two ears bordered with white." With reference to the former I draw attention to the ascendency of woman as quite antagonistic to the usual Indo-Aryan customs, and suggest an additional deduction from it, that the Ophid cult was not of origin among an Indo-Aryan race; as to the snake, local knowledge enables me to
point out that there is a peculiar word always for the hood, or *penē,* of the cobra, which would have no Chinese equivalent, and which it would be difficult for Fa-Hian to translate or express without a very long explanation. No doubt Fa-Hian when he says "white ears" means 'white sides to the hood'; and it is well known that in India and Ceylon this albino, or partially albino, cobra is not very uncommon, and regarded with special veneration.

It is generally known that if enquiry be made from any intelligent old Sinhalese villager as to the habits of the cobra, he states that it has a special passion for new milk, and can always be enticed from its lurking place by a bowl of this delicacy. Are we to regard this belief as arising from fact, and originating milk as the offering made to the Nāga? or has a tradition that milk is the offering made given rise to the popular belief?

This is a most interesting question, and it is much to be wished one of our Members would experiment and report on the attraction milk or cream may, or may not, possess for the cobra.

In this connection I have asked my friend Mr. Haly, Director of the Ceylon Museum, if possible, to exhibit the Nāga and lamp presented by me to the Museum at the reading of this Paper, and also to exhibit for me two especially fine and ancient masks of the mythical King and Queen of the Nāgas procured by me in the interior of the Southern Province, and still in my collection. I think it is possible what appears to be a lamp (found just in front of the snake) is in reality the dish for the offering of milk.

(2)

This Paper is so largely mixed up with matter extracted from Fa-Hian's travels, that the following notes on his account of Ceylon may be here appended:—

(i.) Firstly, observe the hitherto (as far as I know) neglected passage in which he, a devout Buddhist Priest, says the tradition in A. D. 400 was that the sacred Bō tree was grown at Anurādhāpura.
from "seeds" specially fetched from the Gangetic District. Fa-Hian's careful account of it throws much doubt on the otherwise miraculous, and to a horticulturist improbable, story, that the tree was a cutting from the original. No doubt, I think, the Siyahalese chronicles have been tampered with, and the origin of the tree embellished since Fa-Hian wrote.

(ii.) "The Mountain without Fear" is correctly identified in the notes to Laidlay's edition (p. 342) as the Abhayagiri Vihārā.

(iii.) With regard to the chapel "Po-thi," should we not read this "Bodhi"? The Samanean's name we may safely read as "Dharmajoti," for Tha-mo-kiu-ti as it is written in Chinese—a language unfitted to express Sanscrit more precisely. The "stone house" in which Dharmajoti lived with his rats and snakes is no doubt the literal rendering of 'cave,' still called by the Siyahalese gal-gē, ' stone house.'

(iv.) Who were "the merchants Sa-pho"? I think this is worth enquiring, but, as far as I can see, the word must be a Chinese substitute for the original.

(v.) As to the statue at the Abhayagiri Vihārā made of "blue jasper" and over 18 feet high, of what was the lustrous image really made? It is not conceivable so large a block of lapis lazuli could have found its way to Ceylon from North Asia, nor have turquoise or sapphire ever been heard of of such size.

The only approximate artificial product then known was the rare and beautiful blue glass used for the celebrated Portland vase, and the Theban pottery coated with a brilliant blue enamel like turquoise, of which small gods and amulets form the exquisite speciality of Egyptian antiquity. Is it possible this statue was made in Egypt for sale in Ceylon? Or that an ancient Egyptian god was brought to Ceylon for sale after its worship had died out in Egypt.

Any fragment with blue enamel on it found among the débris near the Abhayagiri Vihārā should be carefully preserved, as its origin could at once be decided if Egyptian, and by encouraging a further search of the débris might lead to the partial recovery of an unique antiquity.
(vi.) It is also desirable to note the tradition that the “great tower 40 chang* high” (? the Brazen Palace) was built over a footstep of Buddha.

(vii.) The visit of the King to the Treasury of the Priesthood where the coveted “Mo-mi” (? ruby) was kept, will be found described in the Siϕhalese chronicles, which, if my memory can be trusted, say the treasure chamber was under a Dāgoba to which they had access by a secret passage.

(viii.) Fa-Hian describes the Daladā temple at Anurādhapura in A. D. 410, as-decorated “with the seven precious things.” It may not be out of place to draw attention to the Chinese interpretation of these. (See Fa-Hian, Laidlay’s edition, chapter xiii, and note (4) by Klaproth.)

Two series are here given from the Chinese Buddhist writings, but I think they are scarcely in each case rightly translated, and propose the following corrections:

First series.

1.—Sou-fa-lo—(svavarna)=gold.
2.—A-lou-pa—(rūpiya)=silver.
3.—Licou-li—in the Kouan-king-sou called Fei-licou-li-ye which signifies “not far.” This is explained as identical with Vaiḍūrya (Sanskrit)—the mountain Vidūra on which Vaiḍūrya was found being “not far” (i. e., “Vidūra”) from Benares. Burnouf translated Vaiḍūrya as “lapis lazuli.” This I think is wrong. The hardness, the colour (green or blue), and the locality, all point to Oriental turquoise as the mineral here denoted, and there can be little doubt Licou-li must be read “turquoise” and not “lapis lazuli.” I doubt the identification with Vaiḍūrya, which I have always elsewhere construed as corundum or sapphire.

4.—Pho-li, or Se-pho-ti-kia (sphatika)=rock crystal.
5.—Meou-pho-lo-kie-la-pho. This is star sapphire or asteria, not fossil, ammonite as somewhat wildly conjectured; the rays of the

* “A chang is a measure of 10 Chinese feet, and the Chinese foot is 8 lines shorter than ours.”
star form the spokes of the wheel. May we not recognise in the wheel formed by the star on a round gem of asteria, the sacred symbol of the wheel, which accounts for the present belief among some Oriental races that there is a god in the asteria, although they have forgotten the reason for their superstition, and substitute the god for the symbol?

7. — Po-mo-lo-kia (padmarāga) = ruby.

We must here notice this ancient origin of the still existing Ceylon superstition, that the finest rubies lie in the head of cobras. This extraordinary myth seems to have been an accepted matter when the Chinese authors wrote.

May we not now translate this myth as simply the exaggerated form that arose when the Indo-Aryan races began to confuse the Nāgas (ophid cult) and Yakkhos (perhaps an early form of Saivites) with actual snakes and demons, in which secondary sense the original name of the races evidently came after a time to be used by the Aryan invaders?* It might then simply mean, the Nāgas with whom rubies are found in a secret and jealously guarded place, instead of the rubies hidden in the head of the cobras and jealously guarded, as we have recently been too literally interpreting it.

Second Series.

1. — Po-lo-so = (prabāla) coral. Here I ask your attention to the Chinese account, that it was found on an Island to the S.W. [of the Gangetic countries or ? of China] and dredged by iron nets from submerged rocks [evidently at a great depth, or divers would have

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* "Naglokh (snake land) was at an early period a Hindū name for hell. But the Nāgas were not real snakes—in that case they might have fared better—but an aboriginal tribe in Ceylon, believed by the Hindūs to be of serpent origin, Nāga being an epithet for 'native.' The term is now used very vaguely. Mr. Talboys Wheeler, speaking of the 'Scythic Nāgas' (History of India, Vol. I. p. 147), says : 'In process of time these Nāgas became identified with serpents, and the result has been a strange confusion between serpents and human beings.' In the 'Padma Purāna' we read of 'serpent-like men.' The dreaded powers were from another tribe designated Yakkhos 'demons.'"—Conway, "Demonology and Devil-lore," Vol. I., p. 151.—Hon. Sec.
been employed. This account agrees with fact. On the S.W. coast of Ceylon at Balapiṭiya, a considerable quantity of small pieces of valuable red coral, much water-worn, are annually washed up during the S.W. monsoon. The site on which it grows is no longer known, possibly it may come from a great distance S.W. of our coast, though I am inclined to think not from such a distance as the Māldives.

I have asked Mr. Haly to exhibit some coral picked up by me as above described.

2.—A-chy-ma-kie-pho (? asmagarbla). This is I think wrongly identified as amber. This transparent red substance should be translated carbuncle or garnet. It was in carbuncle that ancient Indian intagios were cut, the translucency of the stone when cut thin giving great effect to the workmanship.

3.—Ma-ni or mo-ni=pearl.

4.—Chin-shou-kia—a gem like the flower of the himsuka tree (Butea frondosa) [see First Book, Indian Botany, Olliver], that is of an orange red colour. This unidentified substance should be translated Oriental topaz (yellow, pink or orange corundum), one variety of which satisfactorily answers to the description.

5.—Shy-kia-pi-ling-kia—not translated. This may be read diamond. The word “pi-ling-kia” is evidently of common origin from Sanskrit, with the modern Sīhalese paḷingu (ʊəɡə), which is used for crystal.

6.—Mo-lo-kia-pho—translated marakata, or emerald. I would suggest another interpretation of chrysoberyl, or cat’s-eye.

The Indian cat’s-eye (quartz) is of remarkable softness, and is cut even by a pen-knife. The two forms of cat’s-eye may have been confused. Has the Chinese form “Mo-lo-kia” any origin in the Indo-Aryan word “soft” (S. molok, మొలోకు) ? I am not myself scholar enough to say whether this word was then used in the Gangetic District in the sense of softness—easy to cut. The same word occurs above possibly in Mo-lo-kia-li (agate), from which we learn vases were cut. I recall a passage in some old Oriental book—I forget which, but think it is in the Ummagga Jātaka—in which this word moloka is used in reference to the softness of a thigh as a pillow. Perhaps one of our Members may be able to rectify my
ignorance by stating whether such a word for 'soft' was in Indo-Aryan usage in above sense of 'easy to cut.'

7.—Pa-che-lo.—This is translated vajra, or diamond, and is clearly erroneous. The colour, we are told, is like that of an amethyst and the stone is used for engraving others. It must be translated sapphire or corundum.

We have in these (what the learned annotators of course could not see with the imperfect light then thrown on the minerals) a parallel series in colour, thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Light} & \quad \{ \text{gold} = \text{Oriental topaz} = ? \text{sun} = ? \text{life}. \\
& \quad \{ \text{silver} = \text{pearl} = ? \text{moon} = ? \text{death}. \\
& \quad \{ \text{Crystal} = \text{diamond} = ? \text{ether}. \\
& \quad \{ \text{Asteria} = (\text{emerald or}) \text{ cat's-eye} = ? \text{air}. \\
\text{Five elements} & \quad \{ \text{Turquoise} = \text{sapphire} = ? \text{water}. \\
& \quad \{ \text{Ruby} = \text{carbuncle} = ? \text{fire}. \\
& \quad \{ \text{Agate} = \text{coral} = ? \text{earth}. \\
\end{align*}
\]

Both gold and silver have in the ancient books one four-fold attribute, of which "changeless," "indestructible," "incorruptible," and "omnipotent" would be the euphonious transcription.

"The seven precious things" might thus symbolise the five elements: — ether which is supported by (? generating) air, air supported by (? generating) fire resting on water, and water supported by (generating) earth, all adorned by the attributes of gold and silver: that is changeless, indestructible, incorruptible, and omnipotent, in one sense, and combined with light—i.e., sun and moon—in another.

This is a well-known ancient symbol of the elements.

A, ether—B, air—C, fire—D, water—and E, earth—which, by adoption among Buddhists give rise to the present Dágbobas, originally no doubt erected over his remains, and symbolically used to show the return of Gautama Buddha to the five primitive and indestructible elements. We should thus have the shape of the Dágboba borrowed from the symbol of creation of an older cult by the Buddhists, and further illustration of it by the seven precious ornaments.

In addition, then, to the question of the colours probably symbolising the five elements with neither beginning nor end, I would suggest
the study amongst our Members of the question, whether in our ancient records there is any account showing that the five colours were applied separately to the different parts of the Stúpa or Dá-goba, which I suggest they may symbolise. Thus, whether the rectangular case was painted red, the dome was painted blue, &c.

It is quite possible the colouring of a Stúpa may have been so arranged and a record preserved thereof.

To recapitulate. I suggest these “seven precious things” are the symbol of a cult which taught that the five elements combined with light (sun and moon) are the origin of all things and source of creation. In detail we may read the symbol that by action of (light causing) fire (heat) on water resting on earth proceeds air penetrated by the apex of the triangle of fire (heat), above which rests ether from which the triangle fire radiates but into which it does not enter; thus giving us in ether, or the firmament above our atmosphere, combined with sun and moon, or light, the creative power which shaped the earth into its four other distinct elements. Bearing this in mind, a special interest will follow the work of local students, who will take the trouble to record the exact shape of the various Stúpas or Dágobas still existent, or adequately described in ancient records, as they gradually diverged from the primitive type.

My view of the original Buddhist symbolised theory of creation, here suggested, accounts for the early Buddhist writers classing the theory of creation of the contemporary sect they call “strong-mouth” as an heresy. This sect, existing in and established before the lifetime of Gautama Buddha, taught that ether begat air, air begat fire—fire, heat—heat, water—water, ice—and the ice solidified begat earth—and earth begat five kinds of grain, which produce life, which when ended returns to ether.

It will be seen then “the heresy” would consist in the interpolation of a glacial period in the earth’s stage of development into dry land, and the mediation of vegetation derived from land; thus the meaning veiled in the seven precious things of early Buddhism is closely akin—but brings in the action of sun and moon, and omits glacial and vegetable influence on creation.
ON THE SIṆHALESE OBSERVANCE OF THE KALA'WA.

By L. NELL, ESQ.

Some time ago my attention was drawn to the belief of the common people amongst the SiṆhalese in the kalāwa (කලාව). This, according to the impression left on my mind, was some moveable principle or predisposition, moving in a certain course in the human body in accordance with the lunar calendar. The believers in the kalāwa assert, that when it is in position on the crown of the head, the scratch of a pin on that part would be sufficient to cause death; so, on the day of this kalāwa, women in some parts of the interior of the Island will decline to carry loads of firewood on the head. In like manner, on the new moon day labourers will not go into the jungle to clear it, on account of the risk of injuries to the toe of the foot. On the 6th day of the first half, and the 10th day of the second half, of the lunar month, it is considered dangerous to take a purgative medicine, the seat of the kalāwa being then supposed to be in the belly. On the 7th day leeches should not be applied to the region of the chest.

In the case of a man, the kalāwa rises, with the moon, from the big toe of the right foot, from part to part, till, on the 15th day of the moon, it reaches the crown of the head. It then descends in corresponding parts on the left side, till, on the 30th day, it reaches the big toe of the left foot, ready again to ascend on the right side. In the case of a woman, the movement is reversed, since it ascends on the left side and descends on the right, the positions being otherwise the same: that is, the kalāwa ascends from the left great toe upwards to the crown of the head, then descends by the same degrees to the right toe. This corresponds to a principle in native
palmistry, according to which the fortune of a male is told from the lines on his right hand, of a female from those on the left hand.

I found subsequently that Tables of the kaláva had been published in a Sheet Almanac, printed in a native vernacular press in Galle,—in a Siyalese Ephemeris for the year, printed in a pamphlet of 54 pages,—and in a Sheet Almanac published by the press of the Lakrivikirana newspaper. Though this led to the idea that the subject was well known, I was surprised to find discrepancies when the Tables were translated. This led me to make personal enquiries during a short visit to the Bento District, where I questioned the learned priest, Kohomala Indusura, and a native Vedarala or medical practitioner. I was surprised to find that the latter had little or no knowledge of a subject so important, apparently, in native medical science.

In the discussion with the priest, a difficulty arose from his division of the lunar month into sixteen kalá; namely, (1) Amánaka, මෙම්හා, the day on which the moon does not appear; (2) Pélaviya, පේළාවිය, the day on which the moon first appears; (3) Diyanaka, බෝදේ, the second day; (4) Tiyanaka, මෙළේ, the third day; (5) Jalavaka, මෙළේ, fourth; (6) Wiseníya, විසේනිය, fifth; (7) Satwaka, මහාවුරා; (8) Satwaka, මහාවුරා; (9) Atwaka, අත්වාක; (10) Namawaka, පාසලා; (11) Dasawaka, දාසාක; (12) Ehaloswaka, එහලමුසා; (13) Doloswaka, වෝලසා; (14) Teleswaka, මෙලාසා; (15) Tudoswaka, තොදසා; and (16) Pasaloswaka, වාසලා.

This, of course, omitting the day on which the moon does not appear, is the lunar calendar—the full moon with the common people being known as the pahasoswaka-póya (හාසලාසා පෝය) or 'póya of the 15th lunar day.' The counting of the kalá on which the moon does not appear introduces a
difficulty, since the kaláva can ordinarily be only counted with 30 lunar days. The sixteen kalá, enumerated by the priest, therefore refer to the intervals between these "days," and correspond to the 16th part of the disc of the moon, which will be referred to in a definition to be here quoted.

In the month during which I was making these enquiries, the new moon had risen on Wednesday, the 30th of March, at 3·52 p.m.: the first quarter, on Wednesday, the 6th of April, at 9·14 p.m.: the full moon on the next Thursday, at 5·9 p.m.: and the last quarter moon on Thursday, the 28th of April, at 3·44 p.m. So that, even taking the particulars given in an English Almanac, it must be a matter of difficulty for ordinary natives to fix the exact time of the commencement and close of each kaláva, granting that it corresponds with a particular lunar day. This probably led to the neglect of this part of the native science in the empirical practice of the Vedarálas. It will also appear that even with the assistance of the native Tables (translations of which are appended), the science will be of difficult application till the limits of each kaláva are more accurately limited. The duration of a particular kaláva may, of course, be roughly recognized during some part of a lunar day, and the most ignorant native is usually aware of the principal phases of the moon from the practice of faithfully observing the póya days.

L. De Zoyza, Mahá-Mudaliyár, after kindly making enquiries at my request, wrote:—"I have received the explanation of two of the best Vedarálas here about the kaláva; but they are somewhat contradictory, and I cannot make much sense of them. The truth is that their ideas of the matter are very vague."

Under these circumstances the derivation of the term is calculated to throw some light on the subject. According to the priest, already referred to, the term kalá may be Sanskrit,
Pāli, or Eḻu, and means 'a share.' De Zoyza, Máha-Mudaliyar, pronounces it a Sanskrit, or Pāli word, to which the following meanings have been given in the Dictionaries:—(i) 'a part'; (ii) 'a fraction'; (iii) 'the 16th part of the Moon's disc'; (iv) 'a mechanical act'; (v) 'a division of time.' The kalā, කලා, or Kalāna, කලාන, in Sinhalese, of which we are now treating, he renders as 'the sixteenth part, or digit, of the moon's disc, which in some mysterious way ascends and descends in the human body.' As it is always difficult to apply a term of one language to translate a term of another accurately, each in its native use being associated with ideas foreign to the other, we must modify this definition. I think my original conception will consist with taking kalāna as a derivative from kalā, and the idea obtained will therefore be, that of some moving principle, or local predisposition, following a course in the human body in relation to the course of the moon in her increase and decrease.

In the examination of the calendar of the kalāna, many discrepancies occur in the various versions received by me. I propose to add translations of the two published versions, as they are probably more generally accepted on account of their publication. The principal discrepancies in the various accounts are in the fourth kalāna, described as "the calf" or "the knee-cap"; the eleventh described as "the lip," "the lower lip," "the cheek." This second discrepancy may spring from the general application of the term tola පොලා to the region of the fore-teeth, the lips, cheek, and chin.

But besides these discrepancies in details, I found that my original information, distinguishing the Mul-kalāna, මළුකලාන from the Amrita-kalāna, අම්රීතකලාන (erroneously called Mruta-kalāna, අම්රීතිකලාන) was altogether wrong. It appears that in Sinhalese popular medical works the Amrita-kalāna means literally 'the ambrosial' or 'good' kalāna. The
Visa-kaláwa, එකඹකුණු, I would translate as 'the baneful (literally, 'poisonous') kaláwa.' It will be seen in the Table taken from the Lakhriwikirana Sheet Almanac that the Visa-kaláwa is said to ascend on the left side in males, and on the right in females. This Table and that from the Lita or Ephemeris for the year give both the Visa-kaláwa and Amrita-kaláwa, which I have not obtained from other sources. There can be no doubt that the Mul-kaláva, commonly spoken of, is the same as the Amrita-kaláwa. The Siňhalese Lita (page 50) advises that if the Amrita-kaláwa locates itself in any part of the body, care should be taken of it, as "life" then chiefly exists in it. In the case of Visa-kaláwa it is asserted that any wound or hurt to the part where it is located will bring calamity or death. The distinction of effect is not very clear, except that a hurt in the latter case appears to be considered as more directly baneful. The only explanations remaining to be made are: first, that when the kaláwa is in the arm-pit or shoulder, the whole arm and hand are involved; and secondly, that the Amrita-kaláwa moves at a certain distance from the Visa-kaláwa.
### KALAWA TABLES.

The Kaláwa Table appearing in the Sheet Almanac of the Lakri-vikirana is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1 Toe</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>1 Toe (bottom)</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2 Instep</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>2 Toe (back)</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3 Calf</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>3 Heel</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4 Knee-cap</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>4 Calf</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 Yóniyé</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>5 Knee-cap</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6 Middle of belly</strong></td>
<td><strong>6 Hip, waist, or loins</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7 Pap</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>7 Near Yóniyá</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8 Arm-pit</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>8 Yóniyé</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9 Neck</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>9 Abdomen</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10 Chin</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>10 Palm of hand</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11 Lip</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>11 Pap</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12 Root of tooth</strong></td>
<td><strong>12 Shoulders</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>13 Upon eye</strong></td>
<td><strong>13 Neck</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>14 Forehead</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>14 Lip</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>15 Crown of head</strong></td>
<td><strong>15 Crown of head</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>16 Crown of head</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>16 Forehead</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>17 Ear</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>17 Forehead</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>18 Neck</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>18 Eye</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>19 Shoulder</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>19 Lip</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>20 Pap</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>20 Root of teeth</strong> ...</td>
<td><strong>21 Back of hand</strong> ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>21 On the chin</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
No. 24.—1881.] Sīnhalesa Kālawa. 91

22 Neck ... එක්කුල්ලි 22 Palm of hand ප්‍රාමාණයෙකුල්ලි
23 Arm-pit ... එක්කුල්ලි 23 Stomach ... අල්ලි
24 Pap ... සරාල්ල 24 Back ... අඃල්ලි
25 Middle stomach මිල්ලක්කුල්ලි 25 Knee-cap... ආල්ලියුං
26 Yōniyé ... අරම්ලියුං 26 Instep ... ආල්ලියුං
27 Knee-cap... ආල්ලියුං 27 Heel ... අල්ලියුං
28 Calf ... අල්ලියුං 28 Sole of foot අල්ලියුං
29 Instep ... අල්ලියුං 29 Below toe අල්ලියුං සාතාලිකුල්ලි
30 Toe ... අල්ලියුං 30 Back of toe අල්ලියුං සාතාලිකුල්ලි

Sīnhalesa Kālawa සිණහෙළස කාලාවය යනුවෙන් පිළිතුරුවත්තේ: සෑම්කිණී බොහෝමයකි.

"Visa-kaláwa commences from the left side in males: from the right side in females."

The following Tables, taken from the Lītu or Ephemeris published at Galle by one Philip De Silva, an Astrologer, must explain themselves:—

The manner in which the Visa-kalāwa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Moon waxing</th>
<th>Moves up</th>
<th>The Moon waning</th>
<th>Moves down</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Males.</td>
<td>In Females.</td>
<td>In Males.</td>
<td>In Females.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Left ear</td>
<td>Right ear</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>&quot; mouth</td>
<td>&quot; mouth</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>&quot; nose</td>
<td>&quot; nose</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>&quot; eye</td>
<td>&quot; eye</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>&quot; eyebrow</td>
<td>&quot; eyebrow</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>&quot; head</td>
<td>&quot; head</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Right head</td>
<td>Left head</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>&quot; eyebrow</td>
<td>&quot; eyebrow</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>&quot; eye</td>
<td>&quot; eye</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>&quot; nose</td>
<td>&quot; nose</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>&quot; mouth</td>
<td>&quot; mouth</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>&quot; ear</td>
<td>&quot; ear</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>&quot; neck</td>
<td>&quot; neck</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot; pap</td>
<td>&quot; pap</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>&quot; heart</td>
<td>&quot; heart</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Abbreviation of Amāwaka (උමාවක) i.e. no moon or visible disk.
The manner in which the *Amrita-haláva*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Moon waxing.</th>
<th>Ascends from the first appearance of the Moon.</th>
<th>Descends after the Full Moon.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>From the toe of the right foot of Males.</td>
<td>From the toe of the left foot of Females.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Right head</td>
<td>Left head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>&quot;forehead&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;forehead&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>&quot;eye&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;eye&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>&quot;nose&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;nose&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>&quot;cheek&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;cheek&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>&quot;ear&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;ear&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>&quot;neck&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;neck&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>&quot;pap&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;pap&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>&quot;heart&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;heart&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>&quot;navel&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;navel&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>&quot;linguva&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;yóni&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>&quot;calf&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;calf&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>&quot;ankle&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;ankle&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;sole&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;sole&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>&quot;foot&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;toe&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NOTE ON THE ORIGIN OF THE VĘDDA'S,
WITH A FEW SPECIMENS OF THEIR
SONGS AND CHARMS.

By Louis De Zoysa, Mahá-Mudaliyáór.

(Read July 6th, 1881.)

In submitting the following Note to the Society, it is not
my intention to enter upon the vexed question of the origin of
the Vęddás, but simply to call attention to an important pas-
sage in the Maháwaṃso relating thereto, the true meaning of
which has been long hidden from the readers of that work by
an erroneous rendering in Mr. Turnour's translation.

The 6th chapter of the Maháwaṃso gives an account of the
arrival of Vijayo, the first monarch of the Sihalese dynasty,
B. C. 543. The 7th chapter relates his encounter with an
aboriginal Princess named Kuvéni, how he married her, and how
he conquered the Island by her means.

When she had borne him two children, a son named Jiva-
hatto and a daughter named Disála, the King wished to divorce
her and marry a Princess from Southern Madura. For this
purpose he sent ambassadors to King Paṇḍavo of Madura,
soliciting his daughter in marriage, and duly obtained his con-
sent. On the arrival of the Princess from India, Vijayo "thus
explained himself to Kuwéni: 'A daughter of royalty is a
timid being; on that account, leaving the children with me,
depart from my house.' She replied: 'On my account, having
murdered Yakkhos, I dread these Yakkhos; now I am discarded

It is due to Mr. De Zoysa to record that he had no opportunity of
perusing the Papers on the Vęddás—only very recently received from
xxvi., 1863), and B. F. Hartshorne (Fortnightly Review, Art. v., March,
1876), prior to writing the "Note" now printed. Mr. De Zoysa's Paper has
been delayed, whilst in the press, to enable the Honorary Secretary to add
(necessarily as Notes) some extracts bearing thereto.
by both parties, whither can I betake myself? 'Within my dominions,' said he, 'to any place thou pleasest, which is unconnected with Yakkhos; and I will maintain thee with a thousand bali offerings.' She who had been thus interdicted (from re-uniting herself with the Yakkhos) with clamorous lamentation, taking her children with her, in the character of an inhuman being, wandered to that very city (Laṅkāpura) of inhuman inhabitants. She left her children outside the Yakkha city. A Yakkho who detested her, recognising her in her search for a dwelling, went up to her. Thereupon another fierce Yakkho, among the enraged Yakkhos, asked: 'Is it for the purpose of again and again spying out the peace we enjoy that she is come?' In his fury he killed the Yakkhini with a blow of his open hand. Her uncle (a Yakkho named Kumáro) happening to proceed out of the Yakkha city, seeing these children outside the town—'Whose children are ye?' said he. Being informed 'Kuwéni's,' he said: 'Your mother is murdered: if ye should be seen here, they would murder you also—fly quickly.' Instantly departing thence, they repaired to the (neighbourhood of the) Sumanta mountain. The elder having grown up, married his sister, and settled there. Becoming numerous by their sons and daughters, under the protection of the King they resided in that Malayá district. This person (Jiwahatto) retained the attributes of the Yakkhos.'*

Now, I submit that the rendering of the words "सोपुलिन्दिनां शिं वम्बर" [Esopulindinānaḥ hi sambhavo] by "this person (Jiwahatto) retained the attributes of the Yakkhos," is erroneous, and that the words should be rendered "This is the origin of the Pulindu"—i.e., the Vēddas.1

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In the first place, the word "पुलिन्दा" [Pulindā] which Mr. Turnour renders by "Yakkhos" (who are supposed to be supernatural beings), is never applied to Yakkhos, but means Vėddās. The following is the meaning given by Professor H. H. Wilson in his Dictionary of the Sanskrit language, p. 545: "S. V. Pulinda, a barbarian; a mléchch'ha; a savage or mountaineer; one who uses an uncultivated and unintelligible dialect, &c." The Sinhalese vocabulary, the Nāmāvaliya, gives "Pulindu" as one of the synonyms for Vėddās,

[Vēdi, mal, pulindu, vanasara (nam vėddanṭa).]

Strangely, this word does not occur in the Pāli language. It is not found in the Abhidhānappadīpikā, the only authorized vocabulary of the Pāli language, nor in Childers’ Pāli Dictionary, nor in any other Pāli work I have seen. But this need not excite much surprise, as Sanskrit words, not found in the Pāli vocabulary, are sometimes found in Pāli writings; e. g., in this very chapter of the Mahāvamsa the word "सुरुंगा" [surungā], which is pure Sanskrit and not found in the Pāli vocabulary, is used for a "subterranean abode."

In the second place, "सम्बहवो" [sambhavo], which Mr. Turnour translates "attributes," means, according to Childers’ Pāli Dictionary (p. 431), “production, birth, origin, cause, union, &c., &c."

The demonstrative adjective "हि" [hi] (nom. sing. m.) Mr. Turnour refers to Jivakatto understood, but the more

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Vėddanṭa ... Sabara, vėdi, pulindu, vanasara, maladaru
Milindu, lęvi (mė nam sata vėdilihaṭa nami
Note by Hon. Sec.
natural construction, I think, is to connect it with the noun
sambhavo (nom. sing. m.) "origin."
I discovered this erroneous rendering many years ago, but
for obvious reasons I have refrained from calling public atten-
tion to it. The truth is, I was extremely reluctant to do so
from fear that I might unwittingly lead others to think that
Turnour's translation of the Maháwaso is generally incorrect.
Such is not my opinion. The few mistakes found in this great
work are mere "spots on the sun," and I do not think there is
a better translation of a historical work in the East. It is not
too much to say that this "gifted Englishman" has, by his
writings and researches, undoubtedly done more for the develop-
ment of the historical literature of India and Ceylon than all
his predecessors and successors, both European and native.
My belief is, that Mr. Turnour's Kandyan Pandits, not know-
ing the meaning of this unusual word "_attempts" [Pulinda] which,
as I stated above, is not found in the Páli vocabulary, erro-
neously interpreted it to mean "Yakkho" instead of "Veddá."
I may here add that I have had the satisfaction of discover-
ing that my reading is confirmed by the Commentary on the
Maháwaso, which has the following gloss on the passage in
question:—

"वैसा यस्मिन् म्ह्यथो त्यस्मिन् नामाकोषाश्च नमस्ते
स्य महावासको शुद्धिकार तु नाम बहुष बहुस्मिन् न्रहो
श्रद्धालोके। तद्वा महावास्को नामस्वास्थ्यविशेषतः तुष्टेः
विधिवाचः."

"Pulindánah hi sambhavoti. Etthahikáro kúraṇatthe. Yasmá to
Pulindánah ádi purísá hutvá tattha vajíṣya. Tasmá ettha Pulindánah
eso sambhavo āyuppattítí viññeyyo ahosí ti atthó."

"'_Pulindánah hi sambhavoti.'_—Here the letter 'hi' signifies
'cause' or 'reason.' On what account did they, becoming the pro-
genitors (ádi purísá) of the Pulindá, reside here (Malaya Division),
on that account it should be known that this is the origin, first
existence, of the Pulindá."
It will be seen from the above exegesis that they (Kuvéni’s children, Jiwhatatto and Disála) are spoken of by the commentator as “the progenitors” [A’di purisá], of the Pulindás (Vëddás).

I am, moreover, in a position to add that the tradition that the Vëddás are the descendants of Kuvéni’s children by Vijayo, is still current in some parts of the Kandyan country. In 1879, when I visited the Ratnapura and U’va Districts to inspect Temple Libraries, I made it a point to collect information about the Vëddás, whenever an opportunity occurred. When at Pelmadulla Viháré, I enquired from the incumbent, Induruwé Piyadassi Unnánsé, whether he knew anything about the origin of the Vëddás, and, to my surprise, he said at once that the tradition is that they are descendants of Kuvéni’s children by Vijayo. On my enquiry, whether he had read the passage in the Maháwañso which forms the subject of this note, he replied he had never seen it, but that his information was derived from a Sinhalese work on the Vëddás, which he had seen long ago in the possession of a native. He added that, according to that work, the Vëddás first settled in Sabaragamuwa, and hence the name for the district from Sabara ‘a Vëddá,’ and gamuva ‘a Village,’ in strict conformity with the tradition, recorded in the Maháwañso, that Kuvéni’s children settled themselves in the country near Samantákûta mountain (Adam’s Peak), and became “numerous by their sons and daughters.” I made every possible endeavour, both at Ratnapura and Badulla, to trace the work referred to, but unfortunately without success.

When at Badulla, a low-country Sinhalese man, who had travelled much in Bintënna, and from whom I collected information about the Vëddás, their songs, charms, &c., also stated the tradition current in Bintënna is ‘that the Vëddás are descendants of Kuvéni’s children.’ He further informed me that the Vëddás themselves claim to be descendants of royalty,
and considered the Sinhalese, whom they call 'Hingalu,' to be an inferior race.

**VEDDA' SONGS.**

---

**No. 1.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sinhala</th>
<th>Pali</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ula kādānē mal pipī</td>
<td>Pallē kādānēta veṭīn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rākārē kādānēta veṭīn</td>
<td>Pallē kādānē mal pipī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rākārē kādānēta veṭīn</td>
<td>Uda kādānēta veṭīgō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rākārē nā vinnē nā mal pipī</td>
<td>Uda nā vinnē nā mal pipī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rākārē lākārē vinnēta veṭīgō</td>
<td>Pallē nā vinnē nā mal pipī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rākārē lākārē vinnēta veṭīgō</td>
<td>Uda nā vinnēta veṭīgō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Flowers blossom in the upper thicket,  
They fall into the lower thicket:  
Flowers blossom in the lower thicket,  
They fall into the upper thicket.  
Nā† flowers blossom in the upper nā forest,  
They fall into the lower nā forest:  
Nā flowers blossom in the lower nā forest,  
They fall into the upper nā forest.

---

**No. 2.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sinhala</th>
<th>Pali</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>māmiṇi māmiṇi mā deyyā</td>
<td>Māmiṇi māmiṇi mā deyyā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>māni māni mā deyyā</td>
<td>Kāben pābala yak gama vē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kāben pābala yak gama vē</td>
<td>Yamu dennā</td>
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<tr>
<td>yamu dennā</td>
<td>Yamu dennā.</td>
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<tr>
<td>bimen yannaṭa bolpini berinam</td>
<td>Vaḍana mīma lanu bēndagan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vaḍana mimā lanu bēndagan</td>
<td>Mimā piṭen yamu dennā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gumindu kele yamu dennā</td>
<td>Goyā puchchā kamu dennā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goyā puchchā kamu dennā</td>
<td>Gō tombu puchchā kamu dennā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gō kura puchchā kamu dennā</td>
<td>Gō baḍavel tika tāta deṇnā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gō akumā tika maṇ kaṇnā</td>
<td>Gō akumā tika maṇ kaṇnā.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Each line of the songs should be repeated twice, and the vowels lengthened or shortened in pronunciation according to the exigencies of the metre.  
† nā [nā].—Ironwood tree (Musa ferrea, L.)
Velkobbá vela dunna namágana
Enné Olagala Má Lokuvó
Enné Olagala Má Lokuvó
Angara neṭum naṭana nangṣita
Rúbara berapada gáchápó
Rúbara neṭum naṭápó
Val atten naṭápó
Chonda chonda neṭun naṭápó
Apatat vettilla bedápó
Gollat bōséma inddinan
Vallat karaká nátápan
Mettaṭá ává bōla deyyó
Taṇ tadináné tadináné
Taṇ tadináné tadináné
Taṇ tadináné tadináné
Taṇ tadináné tadináné

O great man! O great god! *
O great man! O great god!
*  *  *  *
*  *  *  *  *  *

Let us two go.
Let us two go.

If we cannot walk over the ground on account of the mist
Tie Vāḍaná, the buffalo, with a string; 
(lit. dew),
Let us two ride on the back of the buffalo.
Let us two go into the iguana-abounding jungle.
Let us two roast and eat the iguana;
Let us two roast and eat the iguana’s tail:
Let us two roast and eat the iguana’s legs (lit. hoofs):
I will give thee the iguana’s entrails:
I will eat the iguana’s liver.
It is Má Lokuvó of Olagala who is coming,
Bending a velkobbá creeper into a bow!
Play fine tunes on the tom-tom,
For the sister who dances graceful dances.
Dance choice dances:
Dance with the bundle of leaves:
Dance fine, fine dances.
Give us also betel leaves.
Lo! many people around!
Dance twirling the bunch of leaves!
Fellow! The gods have come hither!

Taṇ tadináné tadináné
Taṇ tadináné tadináné

* Ṛṣiṣaṁ [māṁsā] Bailey translates “my gem.”
† I can offer no reasonable translation of these lines.
‡ Vāḍaná [vāḍanā māṁsā].—Perhaps “the coming buffalo.”
§ Vettilla [vettila].—This is the only Tami word I have found in these songs, &c.
No. 3.

Māmini māmini má deyyā
Māmini māmini má deyyā
Tāravelpiṭa kōbeyiyō
Tāravelpiṭa kōbeyiyō
Kuṭuruṣ kuṭuruṣ kiyannan
Kuṭuruṣ kuṭuruṣ kiyannan
Humbe humbe humbe humbe.
Tānini tānini tānānē
Tānini tānini tānānē

O great man! O great god!
O great man! O great god!
The wood pigeons of Tāravelpiṭa,
The wood pigeons of Tāravelpiṭa,
Sing kuṭuruṣ, kuṭuruṣ!
Sing kuṭuruṣ, kuṭuruṣ!
Humbe,—humbe,—humbe,—humbe.
Tānini tānini tānānē,
Tānini tānini tānānē.

No. 4. *

Māmini māmini má deyyā
Māmini māmini má deyyā
Mam chonda baḍuvak dēka
[gartem
Mokadē mokadē kirinenē
E’mma kiyana baḍuvak nevey
Pallē talavē tibba
Maṭat kiyāpan ran kuru nēnē
Naṅgi dum bona dum kuḍikkiya
[bola nēnē

O great man! O great god!
O great man! O great god!
“I have found a fine prize!”
“What is it, what is it, (my) milk (dear) cousin?”
“It is not a thing so easy to tell,
“It was found on the lower plain!”
“Tell me too, my golden little cousin.”
“O dear cousin, it is the smoking pipe of my sister!”

* Originally published by Mr. De Zoysa in the “Ceylon Observer” (October 16th, 1875), to refute the supposition that the Vēddās never smoke.—Hon. Sec.
No. 5.

Mámini mámini má deyyá
Demaṭan vallé bendi viyanay
Ná kola vallé bendi viyanay
Bó kola vallé bendi viyanay
Nangita bendapu mal viyanay
Nangita bendapu mal viyanay
Nangita bendapu mal viyané
Malut kaḍa vethenná
Tarávelpita yakgrammal
Apaṭat kiyálay naṭananné
Mámiya kóte peti kanavé
Kótá kántay aji ávé
Tendidáne tendidáné
Tendidáne tendidáné.

O great man! O great god! O great man! O great god!
A canopy hung with bundles of demañá* flowers:
A canopy hung with bunches of ná leaves:
A canopy hung with bunches of Bó* leaves:
A canopy stretched for the sister:
A canopy stretched for the sister.
See! from the flower-canopy raised to the sister flowers break
and fall.
The devil-dancers of Tarávelpita!
Tell us too before dancing;
To take kanavé† (bee) hives in the mámiya stump we have come.

Tendidáne tendidáné,
Tendidáne tendidáné.

No. 6.

Veḷkobba véla dunna namága na
Moriyan kechchak kara vaturágana
Veḷ ichakeyiyá piṭaṭa damága na
Dóii kellak ichchara karaga na
Endalu mage puta kiri bē ná

Bending a veḷkobba creeper into a bow,
Hanging an arrow on the shoulder,
Letting the creeper-like hair fall on the back,
Leading in front a little girl of a daughter,
You are told to come, my son, my milk (dear) nephew.

* demañá. A plant with yellow flowers (Gmelina Asiatica, L).
* Bó. Ficus religiosa.
† kanavé. A species of Ceylon bee.
SONGS OF THE VĘDDA'S OF SORABORAVĘVA.

No. 7.

Sorabora vęvę sonda sonda oļu neļumę
Mįwą nelanna sonda sonda liyō e
Kaļu karalá hudu karalá uyá de
Oļu sále bat kannatą málu nę

Fine, fine water-lilies and lotuses grow in Sorabora tank!
These to gather come fine, fine women.
They make them into black and white curries;
To eat the water-lily-seed rice there are no curries.

No. 8.

Obat obat oba Sorabora vęvę
Ančá diya duvana Máveligangā
Diya nosindeyi oba Máveligangā
Nil mal bisav diya kelina vęvę

Yonder, yonder spreads the Sorabora tank!
O! Máveliganga whose waters cry as they run!
O! Máveliganga thy waters never fail!
O! tank in whose waters sports the queen of blue flowers!

VĘDDA' CHARMS.

No. 1.

For an Elephant.⁷

Ichchața vallay
Pachchața vallay
Dėla devallay
Sițu appā sițu

A hanging member in front—(trunk)
A hanging member behind—(tail)
On two sides two hanging members—(the two ears).
Stay, beast, stay!
No. 2.

For a wild Buffalo.

Okrná of the Sun-god!
Okrná of the Moon-god!
Okrná of the Pasé Budu!
Stay, Okrná, stay!

Máminí máminí má deyyá
Máminí máminí má deyyá
Góyá puchchá ké ténadí
Chulangak vanné
Chulangak vanné
Máminuá puchchá ké ténadí
Chulangak vanné
Góná puchchá ké ténadí
Chulangak vanné

Adj allá nádi allá pāna rallá

O great man! O great god! O great man! O great god!
Where the iguana was roasted and eaten, a wind blew! a
wind’blew!
Where the moose-deer* was roasted and eaten, a wind blew!
Where the elk was roasted and eaten, a wind blew!

Adj allá nádi allá pāna rallá.

No. 4.

E’ka kodé chúniyam
E’ka kodé chúniyam
E’ka kodé chúniyam
E’ka kodé chúniyam
E’ka kodé chúniyam

Ira maḍalé chúniyam
Chanda maḍalé chúniyam
Liggŏdi mula chúniyam

Etana bēlimi chúniyam
Etana bēlimi chúniyam
Etana bēlimi chúniyam
Etana bēlimi chúniyam
Etana bēlimi chúniyam
Etana bēlimi chúniyam

Etanat nēta chúniyam
Etanat nēta chúniyam
Etanat nēta chúniyam
Etanat nēta chúniyam
Etanat nēta chúniyam
Etanat nēta chúniyam

* Moschus meminna.
Where is the húniyam?*
Is it in the orb of the Sun?
I have looked for it there;
It is not there.

Where is the húniyam?
Is it in the orb of the Moon?
I have looked for it there;
It is not there.

Where is the húniyam?
Is it at the fire-place?
I have looked for it there;
It is not there.

No. 5.

Náma tátántyñé kúrañé frúñé tûñë tûñë kótañé ákkatáné
báładané kúrañé kúrañé ñánnúñé fúñé tûñë tûñë mëkó
kúrañé kíno kúrañé.

Náma tátántyñé kúrañé tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé ákkatáné
báładané kúrañé kúrañé ñánnúñé fúñé tûñë tûñë mëkó,
atá mëkó tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé kúrañé tûñëfrúñé
báładané kúrañé kúrañé ñánnúñé fúñé tûñë tûñë mëkó
báładané tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé kúrañé tûñëfrúñé
báładané kúrañé kúrañé ñánnúñé fúñé tûñë tûñë mëkó
báładané tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé tûñëfrúñé kúrañé tûñëfrúñé
báładané kúrañé kúrañé ñánnúñé fúñé tûñë tûñë mëkó

Ô'ñ namó chat múde édéché inut épiña déché ranvan pokuné
váchattáné karaña ranvan ándágé baña varaleyí adat to mé gejja
tútama bandímmé.

Ô'ñ namó ekara édéché Mallavadéché mánilmal vilé váchattáné
karaññávú nava keña nava kótiyak Kadávara Védi chënáva Kálu
Vëddá Golu Vëddá Kápu Vëddá Randunu Vëddá Ketréigtat
Vëddá Lággalé Vëddá Loggalé Vëddá Íriyagalé Vëddá Ìrágalé
Vëddá Måraŋgalé Vëddá Dáheyiyagalé Vëddá Kumbuhugalé
Vëddá Bópattáláwé Vëddá Ununugalé Vëddá Pantérrugalé Vëddá

* [húniyam] (S. [suniyam]) — spell or incantation.

O’m! namó! Thou art to-day, this gejjakūṭṭama,* in the fins of the golden eel who lives in the golden pond in the country beyond the seven seas, and in the country even beyond it!

O’m! namó! A host of Kaḍavara Veddás in number nine millions, and nine millions who reside in the water-lily pond, in the country of Mallava, in the country beyond the sea! Also black Veddá, dumb Veddá, Kapulu Veddá, Veddá of the golden bow, Veddá armed with an axe, Veddá of Laggala, Veddá of Loggala, Veddá of Iriyagala, Veddá of Uṟagala, Veddá of Maragala, Veddá of Dāheiyagala, Veddá of Kumbhugala, Veddá of Bōpattalāva, Veddá of Ununugala, Veddá of Panteurgala. Veddá of Bavuddagalé, Atukola Veddá, Piṭakola Veddá, Veddá of Rūṇa and Mágama!

If this host of Veddás, named and unnamed, had cast a distant or near look on the body of the patient, from a distant or near point of view, at a stream, at a waterfall, at a place of flesh, at the shambles, whilst sporting in love, whilst sporting in water, at a place of noisy tumult,—it is the wish of the sixty-four legions of Kaḍavara (Veddás) that you should accept this excellent fowl (lit. golden gem fowl), which I dedicate to you as an offering and victim, and restore the patient to health and joy. Gunachil banda banda ēchchā.9

Veddá’ Lullabies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. 1.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>අේම් බලකෝල්ලේ පනො</td>
<td>Uyan kolé punā lā</td>
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<td>මෙම් බලකෝල්ලේ පනො</td>
<td>Pana atten vachā lā</td>
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<td>තෝල් පොෂාකෝල්ලේ පනො</td>
<td>Vanduru kulal kavālā</td>
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<tr>
<td>මුළු මුළුකෝල්ලේ පනො</td>
<td>Nidī varen putā lā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having lulled (thee) to rest on the uyan leaf,
Having covered (thee) with a branch of pana (leaves),
Having fed (thee) on monkey’s flesh (lit. neck),
Come and sleep (my) son!

* ගීජකුට්ටම [gejjakūṭṭama]. A pair of small tinkling ornaments worn by dancers.
No. 2.

What time the male monkey eats the tender leaves on the tree,
What time the female monkey sheds tears at the foot of the tree,
While her young ones dance on the leaves,
And dip their udakki-shaped ears in the water.

NOTES.

No. 1.

"The following is a literal translation of the same passage, in the copy of the Maháwáyóso, in the Ásgiri Vihára in Kandy:—
'They repaired to the rock Samanta kúta; and, being permitted by King Vijayo to dwell there, they became man and wife, and had children and grandchildren. Thus, a wansaya (race) sprung up, called Pulinda.'"—J. B.

No. 2.

"Vide note at page 185 of Wilson's Vishnu Puráña. 'Pulinda is applied to any wild or barbarous tribe; and they are met with in the deserts along the Indus, the mountains and forests across Central India.'"—J. B.

No. 3.

"I have made careful inquiries, both in these [Rayigam and Pasdun] Kóralés and the district of Saffragam, and though traces of their former existence there are evident and numerous, there is every reason to believe that many centuries have passed since they were there. Fields, villages, and families yet retain the name of Véddás, as Védi-pangú, Véddé-kumbura, Véddé-watta, Véddé-ela, Véddé-gala, Véddé-gé, &c., in the district of Saffragam, which is the country at the foot of Adam's Peak, and in the Rayigam Kóralé."
Indeed, Saffragam or *Habaragamuwa* means ‘the district of Veddás’ or ‘barbarous people’; and in this form of the word the former existence of Veddás can again be traced as *Habara-goḍa, Habara-kaduwa, &c.* It is traditional throughout Saffragam that once Veddás predominated over Siṃhalese in that district, and that, as the latter gained ground, the former withdrew towards Bintenna and Wellassa. But Mr. Macready, of the Civil Service, has given me very important proof of the existence of Veddás near the Samanta mountains. He has given me the translation of some stanzas from a Siṃhalese poem, written about 400 years ago, called the *Paravi-sandēṣaya*, or ‘the Dove’s message.’* The poem treats of a message sent, by means of a dove, from Kōṭṭe (near Colombo) to Vishnu at Dondra, at the extreme south of the Island. The dove takes its course exactly over the districts lying below Adam’s Peak. The poet addresses the dove, and tells her she will see [at Potupitiya] ‘the daughters of the Veddás’ clothed in *riṭi*† bark, their hair adorned with peacock’s plumes. So wild are they that the poet describes the herds of deer as being startled at the sight of them.”—J. R.

[The following are the stanzas referred to, with a translation:—

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sinhala</th>
<th>English</th>
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<tbody>
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“See the lovely daughters of the Veddás (*Malakīdu*) passing to and fro through the forest tracts, constantly clothed with *riṭi* bark beaten out and prepared (*lit.* disentangled), gay (*lit.* shining) with yellow *tilaka* (mark) on their foreheads, entwining their hair with peacock plumes and clusters of flowers.

* *Paravi-sandēṣaya* [පරවීසන්දොළය]. Stanzas 55, 56, Colombo, 1873.
† *Riṭi* [35]. *Antiurus innoxia* or *A. saccadora*. 
"The herd of deer, startled at the sight of the crowd of Vēddās (Sabara sen) in that forest, seem to eat the blood-like tender buds in anger as resembling their (Vēddās') lips; the female swan enters the forest tank o'ercome by their (speed of) movement; the pea-hen seems to cry (as if complaining that) their locks are blue."*—H. C. P. B., Hon. Sec.]

No. 4.

"The bare assertion by a naked savage in the rudest state of barbarism, that he is the descendant of Kings, seems, at first, a sheer a' surdity, though it naturally suggests the inquiry how the claim to so ambitious an origin could have arisen, and, having arisen, how it should be so pertinaciously adhered to by tribes unknown to each other.

"The custom which sanctions such revolting marriages [between brothers and younger sisters] seems, at first sight, simply a proof of the extreme depth of barbarism to which the race has sunk. But when we consider the tradition in connection with the fact that the Siṅhalese invariably admit the Vēddās to be of the highest caste, while they in turn affect to look down upon the Siṅhalese; and when we regard the custom in connection with the story of the marriage of the son and daughter of Vijayo, himself the offspring of a similar connection; when we read the legend of their flight from both father's and mother's kindred to the forests, where, resuming the wild life of their maternal ancestors, they founded a wild race; when we find even yet the district which tradition gives as their refuge, still called by a name indicative of their former existence in it, and still abounding with traces of them—though not a Vēddā can be remembered there; and when we can trace among the Vēddās of the present day the remains of Brāhmanism—Vijayo's creed—intermingled with the Nāt worship, practised by Kuvēni's nation; and when there are still in use among them names of Sanskrit affinity, common in India, though, rare among themselves, unknown in Ceylon;  

* I. e., that she has been robbed of the blueness of her own plumage by the peacock's feathers tied up with their hair.
it is impossible to resist the conclusion that the wild tribes of the Veddás are not the mere remnants of the untamed aborigines, but the descendants of the ill-fated Kuvéni and the faithless Vijayo; that they are indeed, as they profess themselves, 'the descendants of Kings.'"—J. B.

"The Kandyans universally agree that they [Veddás] all belong to the royal caste, and it is said that they used to address the king by the now obsolete title 'Húrá,' or 'cousin,' the term which they applied to myself in conversation."*—B. F. H.

No. 5.

"The Veddás eat the flesh of elk, deer, monkeys, pigs, iguano, and pangolin—all flesh indeed but that of oxen, elephants, bears, leopards, and jackals; and all birds, except the wild or domestic fowl. They will not touch lizards, bats or snakes. The most choice food in their estimation is, of land animals, the flesh of the pangolin, or of the iguano."—J. B.

No. 6.

"They principally use [for their bows] the wood of dunumaḍala (Sterospermum chelonoides), the kekala (Cyathocalyx Zeylanicus), and a creeper called kobbá vēl, or the pandéro tree. The strings, which are exceedingly strong, are twisted chiefly of the fibre of the niyada (Sansevieria Zeylanica), and the bark of a creeper called araḷu-vēl."—J. B.

No. 7.

"They have a great dread of meeting elephants at night, and have charms to protect them from them—not only to turn them from their path, but to render innoxious the bear, the leopard, and the wild boar."—J. B.

No. 8.

"In their charms the sun and moon are frequently invoked, although in their daily life neither luminary is respected."—J. B.

* Hurá massiná [හුරා මස්සිනා] is still a common familiar expression among the Sihalose.—Hon. Sec.
There is a similar charm used even by the low-country Siṃhalese in cases of tooth-ache. It is as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ пу } & \text{ гema } \\
\text{ пu } & \text{ гema } \\
\text{ сад } & \text{ gema } \\
\text{ кu } & \text{ gema }
\end{align*}
\]

Iri deiyanné  \\
Sanda deiyanné  \\
Pasé Budunné  \\
Daté nositū dat

Worm of the sun-god!  \\
Worm of the moon-god!  \\
Worm of the Pasé Budu!  \\
Stay not in the tooth, O tooth-worm! — *L. De Z.*

[This charm (No. 2) and the almost identical one known to the Siṃhalese are given by Mr. Bailey:—

"It not only invokes the sun and moon, but Pasé Budu—the only single allusion to Buddhism among them; but the very meaning of this and other charms is unknown to the Veddás. They are repeated by rote; they do not pause to understand them, and could not if they would. It is enough for them, as for most Oriental people, that a particular formula is to serve a particular purpose. These [charms] are identical; yet the Veddás and the Siṃhalese certainly do not associate so closely as to borrow one another's charms. Have they descended in each race since the time they were one? The term okmā I can get no satisfactory explanation of. It is not Siṃhalese certainly. I assume it means 'wild boar,' as this is the charm to arrest a boar in the path; but it is not the term used by the Veddás for a boar in ordinary conversation. The allusion to the Pasé, or Paché, Buddha, is curious as occurring in both; the one people being anything but Buddhists, while Buddhism is the religion of the others. As Gautama Buddha visited Ceylon long anterior to the final establishment of Buddhism in Ceylon, and descended in Bintenna, may not this solitary allusion to the religion have been handed down in this form among the Veddás from a period even before the invasion by Vijayo? In the form of a charm which is repeated by rote, such an allusion would be most naturally retained.
So far as having any Buddhist tendencies, they do not even show the slightest outward respect in the presence of a Buddhist priest. The other Veddā charms are, I believe, quite unlike those of the Sinhalese."—Hon. Sec.

No. 9.

I have found this mantra or charm in a collection of Veddā songs and charms I procured at Badulla. The use in it, however, of a Hindú-religious term, and the corrupted form of a Buddhist metaphysical term, may raise a doubt whether this charm be a genuine Veddā production or not.

The Hindú term alluded to is O'm namó!—'Salutation to the triune deity!' The following is the explanation given of this term by Wilson in his Sanskrit Dictionary:

'O'm'.—The mystic name of the deity, prefaceing all the prayers and most of the writings of the Hindus: A., a name of Vishnū, U., of Śiva, and M. of Bráhma. It therefore implies the Indian triad, and expresses the three in one.' The Buddhist term is च्हण्डकक्ष [chhandakhkande], which is a corruption of the Sinhalese word चण्डकक्ष [pandaskande], which again is corrupted from the Sanskrit or Sinhalese word पञ्चकक्ष [pañchashandha], 'the five constituent parts of the human body.' These terms may have been interpolated by the village Veddás, or more probably by their neighbours, the Kandyan Sinhalese, but the contents of the charm are peculiarly Vedic—if I may use the term—and the interesting information it gives of the seats or localities of the various Veddá demons or chieftains throughout the Island is unique, and is not now procurable from any other source.

The mantra also seems to afford information which may possibly enable us to settle a long-disputed point in the early history of Ceylon, namely, as to whence the aborigines (Yakkhos or demons of the Maháwaśo, who are doubtless the ancestors of the Veddás) came to Ceylon.

It will be seen that the Veddá demons are called here चण्डकक्ष [Kadavara Vedi chénava]. I cannot find the meaning of the word Kadavara, but the expression shows that they are identical
with the Veddás (Veddó). It is well known that there is a tribe of
demons called Kaḍavara Yakku, "Kaḍavara demons," to whom
offerings are made in some parts of the Kandyan country. If the
songs and prayers (yádini or hannalav), used by the Kaḍavara devil-
dancers, are examined (which I have no means of doing at present),
I have no doubt they will throw light on the early history of the
Yakkhos, or Veddás, and probably lead to very important ethnological
results. Again, "nine millions, nine millions" (a vast number) of
these Kaḍavara or Vedi demons are said to reside in a "far distant
land beyond the seas," in a country called Mallava dēsa, possibly a
corruption of Malaya dēsa, the 'hilly country.'

Does not this show that the Veddás of Ceylon have a faint tradi-
tion that their fatherland is the "hill country" of India?

I may here mention a curious legend related in the Rájávali and
Kuvéní Asna (a little work on the history of Kuvéní, in Siṃhalese
blank verse), which seems to have some connection with the history
of the Veddás. Paṇḍuvása (B. C. 504), nephew of Vijayo, and
third in succession to him, became ill with a combination of diseases,
"cough, asthma, fever, burning, rheumatism, &c.," the result
of perjury committed by his uncle, Vijayo, who swore that he
would not renounce Kuvéní, the aboriginal Princess whom he first
married, but afterwards violated his oath, by repudiating her and
marrying a princess from Southern India. When the King was
afflicted with this disease, Sakra, King of the gods, (Indra of the
Hindú mythology) ordered the Ráhu, the Asura (the ascending node)
to assume the form of a wild boar, in size like a huge mountain, and
devastate the pleasure garden of the King of Malaya (the hill-country
in India), who was versed in all the arts of necromancy. When
King Malaya saw the destruction of his pleasure garden, he pursued
the boar with bow and arrow, accompanied by his three brothers and
a retinue of archers or Veddás, through the continent of India. The
boar crossed over the sea near Tuticorin and made the circuit of the
Island, followed by the King, and when it reached the vicinity of
Anurádhapura, the boar was turned into a mountain! The King of
gods then appeared to Malaya Rájá, and conducting him to King
Paṇḍuvas, got him to perform certain demon ceremonies, and restored the king to his wonted health.—*L. De Z.*

[Since writing the above I have seen some of the songs used by the Kaḷavara devil dancers, which not only confirm the identity of the Kaḷavara demons and the Veddás, but also in a remarkable manner strengthen the opinion I have ventured to express, that the legend of the Malaya Raja is connected with the history of the Veddás. It is stated in these songs that Malaya Rājā on his visit to Ceylon was accompanied by 2,000 Veddás, and when he performed the devil ceremonies for the King, 36 Veddás stood around him assisting at the ceremonies.—*L. De Z.*]

"The result of the most patient enquiry is, that the Veddás have a vague belief in a host of undefined spirits, whose influence is rather for good than for evil. Still, vague as this belief is, not even the wildest Veddás are without 'an instinct of worship.' They believe that the air is peopled by spirits, that every rock and every tree, every forest and every hill—in short, every feature of nature—has its genius loci, but these seem little else than mere nameless phantoms, whom they regard rather with mysterious awe than actual dread. But besides this vague spirit-worship, they have a more definite superstition, in which there is more of system. This is the belief in the guardianship of the spirits of the dead. Every near relative becomes a spirit after death, who watches over the welfare of those who are left behind. These, which include their ancestors and their children, they term their nēhiya yakun, 'kindred spirits.' They describe them as 'ever watchful, coming to them in sickness, visiting them in dreams, giving them flesh when hunting.' In short, in every calamity, in every want, they call on them for aid, and it is curious that the shades of their departed children, bilindu yakun, or 'infant spirits,' as they call them, are those which they appear most frequently to invoke.

"It is a pretty belief, and contrasts favourably with the superstitions of the Kandyans, who have spirits enough in their system, but almost all thoroughly malignant, and needing constant propitiation. But the Veddá spirit-world is singularly free from evil. I can find only one absolutely malignant spirit in it, whom they really fear, though,
like all savages, they have an undefined awe of the nameless spirits whom they believe to haunt the darkness. The shades of their ancestors and of their children seem to be purely benevolent. The ceremonies with which they invoke them are few as they are simple. The most common is the following. An arrow is fixed upright in the ground, and the Veddá dances slowly round it, chanting this invocation, which is almost musical in its rhythm:

“Má miya má miya má déyá
Topang koyiḥetí miṭigan yanda.”

“My departed one, my departed one, my God!
Where art thou wandering?”

“The spirit of the dead is here simply called upon, without even the object for which it is invoked being mentioned. And this invocation appears to be used on all occasions when the intervention of the guardian spirits is required,—in sickness, preparatory to hunting, &c.

“Sometimes, in the latter case, a portion of the flesh of the game is promised as a votive offering in the event of the chase being successful, and they believe that the spirits will appear to them in dreams, and tell them where to hunt.

“Sometimes they cook food and place it in the dry bed of a river, or some other secluded spot, and then call on their deceased ancestors by name: ‘Come, and partake of this! Give us maintenance as you did when living! Come, wheresoever you may be; on a tree, on a rock, in the forest, come!’ And they dance round the food, half chanting, half shouting, the invocation........

“They have no system of medicine, though they will accept medicine when given. In cases of sickness, they sprinkle water on the patient, invoking their deceased ancestors to heal him. Sometimes they simply utter the names of spirits as they dance round the sick man. Sometimes a garland of flowers is offered to the spirit who has afflicted him.

“They invoke the Gal-yaká, ‘spirit of the rock’; Vedi-yaká, ‘spirit of the chase’; Unapána-yaká, of whom I have no knowledge;
and the shade of their grandmother. They also propitiate Mahá-yakinni, who appears rather an evil personage. It is to her that they offer a garland of flowers. They describe her as a 'foreigner' and say that they know nothing about her, but acquired their awe of her from the Siỳhalese.

"The Vědi-yaka is known to the Siỳhalese; hunters offer flowers, blood, and burnt meat to this spirit, before hunting, to secure their success. U’napána-yaka is known to the Siỳhalese of the Vědiraṭa, but I do not think he is generally known to the Siỳhalese.

"They believe in the efficacy of what are called devil-dancers, but are ignorant of the art of a Kaṭṭádiya, or devil-dancer."—J. B.
A HÚNIYAM IMAGE.

BY L. NELL, ESQ.

(Read July 6th, 1881.)

Long residence amongst the native Sinhalese and careful observation of their superstitious practices and expressions of superstitious ideas lead to the conclusion that, amongst the lower castes, who have also hitherto been the most ignorant, Buddhism has not existed as a religion. The tom-tom beaters, the toddy-drawers, the jaggery-makers, have only lately attempted to build Buddhist temples of their own. The Amarapura sect of Buddhists is a modern importation to satisfy the social ambition of the Mahabaddé people, candidates of whose community for priestly ordination would have been refused by the previously existing Siamese sect. The latter, though heterodox in this exclusiveness, had confined the right of ordination to pupils drawn from the Goyigama caste.

The liberal and orthodox principle of the Amarapura sect extended in time from the Mahabaddé and Karávé to lower castes. As an instance, the jaggery people (Vahumpura) near Galle have built a temple, and their pupil-priests in yellow robes and with begging-bowls in their hands are now seen obtaining the food of mendicants from the hands of their own friends. The profound meditative air of the young mendicants, and the evident pride with which their friends give alms and honor the new priesthood are very striking. This is quite a reform, and Buddhism, perhaps for the first time, is subverting what other missions have not hitherto observed as a likely field of conversion. Before this reform the priests of the very low castes have been the Yakadurás, commonly called Katūdāiyás, belonging to the tom-tom beater and Oliya castes. Kapurálas belong to all castes, and Pattinis also belong to all castes.
These remarks apply to the practice of Kapurálas. The priests undergo a training—which, if they have a good memory, is of not long duration—namely, the committing to memory of certain charms, invocations, and songs to be accompanied on the tom-tom, drum, and by violent dances. One must live in the neighbourhood of these devil-worshippers to appreciate the form of nuisance known as a ‘devil-ceremony.’ The tom-tom is beaten violently to accompany the discordant song, and the noises are very violent during the intervals of dancing. The family having the ceremony keep it up from sunset till past dawn the next morning. If any remonstrance is used with respect to such practices, they will excuse themselves on the ground that it is their “religion” or “faith.” But the Yakadurás are in no way respected for being priests, and their remuneration is very little.

Besides the performance of these devil-dances the Yakadurás practise Húniyam charms,* by which harm—such as disease—is inflicted on one’s fellow-creatures. To counteract Húniyam charms counter-charms† are muttered over a cup of oil or a thread, and three limes are cut with an arecanut-cutter whilst charms are muttered.‡ The failure of such counter-charms strengthens the belief in the potency of the Húniyam. In most of these Húniyam charms a small image, made of wax or wood or drawn on a leaf, is necessary. Nails made of five metals§ (usually gold, silver, copper, tin, and lead) are driven

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* "Kođivina [कोदिविन] or Húniyam [हुणियम] is the name given to evils of whatever kind inflicted by the agency of charms......There are said to be 84,000 [Húniyam charms] of every degree of malignity, most of which more or less contribute to bring to an untimely death the person affected by this influence, though that event may be deferred for many years. (C. A. S. Jour. 1865–6, p. 68.)—Hon. Sec.

† Húniyam kepíma [हुणियम केपिमा].

‡ C. A. S. Jour. 1865–6, pp. 70–1.

§ Pas ló [पास लो].
into the image at important parts of the body, such as the head or heart. These images, after the process of charming, are buried under a stile so that the intended victim may pass over it* and be thus affected. This “passing over” of the buried image is generally indispensable. After the charms have taken effect, the image is otherwise secreted.*

The image I now send was found in the trunk of a Rukattana tree.† An oblong hole corresponding in shape to the tin box holding the image had been neatly cut into the trunk of the tree in a direction S.S.W., and about two feet high from the ground. The box containing the image had been inserted inside this hole and a tin plate, covering the hole, neatly nailed over with copper nails.‡ It is of course absurd to suppose that this contrivance could have had any effect, but should the intended victim have met with an accident or stroke of disease, there would have been another instance of the potency of the Húniyam.

In the Society’s Journal for 1865–66 will be found an exhaustive treatise on “Sinhalese Demonology” by Dândris De Silva, Mudaliyár. This short introductory sketch is only intended to introduce the Húniyam image now sent, which is interesting as a specimen of one which had been actually uttered with malicious intent. When discovered it had evidently been long imbedded in the tree, and unless the particular Yakadurá who performed the devil-ceremony in this instance will volunteer a confession, no further light will be thrown upon the subject.

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† Alstonia scholaris, R. Br.
‡ The annexed plate gives an exact size photograph of the image by the side of its tin “coffin.” Nails pierce the head, heart, right side, chest, and feet, and threads are wound round the body from the neck downward.—Hon. Sec.
A HU'NIYAM IMAGE.
It may be noted that the natives of the Mâldives, though they have been converted to the Muhammadan faith, still continue to practise the same class of incantations as the lower classes of the Sihâlese. This Hûniyam image may therefore possibly have been made by a native of the Mâldives, many of whom live near the neighbourhood where the image was discovered, though this is unlikely. This is one of the many points of resemblance between the low-country Sihâlese and Mâldivians.*

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NOTE.

[The Mâldive Islanders—particularly those living on the Southernmost Atols, Huvadû (Suvádiva) and Aññû, which have been least affected by foreign influence—retain to this day the character of being “great necromancers,”† as old Duarte Barbosa (A. D. 1501–17) described them three and a half centuries ago, and as the captive Frenchman Pyrard found them a century later (A. D. 1602–7).‡

The difficulty all the world over of eradicating long-established customs and deeply-rooted beliefs—more especially when these enter into the exigencies of every-day life—is an accepted fact, confirmed by the experience of ages.

* At Mr. Nell’s request a brief note is added with the intention of partially illustrating the similarity between the superstitious practices of the Sihâlese and Mâldivians. The subject may be more fully dealt with hereafter.—H. C. P. B., Hon. Sec.

† “As gentes dellas nao tem armas, e sao homens fracos, mas muito engenhosos, e sobre tudo grandes encantadores.”—Noticias das Nações Ultramarinas, Tomo. II., p. 352, Lisboa, 1812.

‡ “Les Mathematiques y sont enseignées, et ils en font aussi grand estat, notamment de l’Astrologie, à laquelle plusieurs persones estudient, d’autant qu’à tout propos on consulte les Astrologes : il n’y en a pas vn qui voulust rien entreprendre sans leur en avoir demandé avis.”—Voyage de F. Pyrard, p. 135, Paris, 1679."
It need not, therefore, be a matter of surprise to find the rigorous monotheistic faith of Islám existing to this day side by side on the Maldive group with "the relics of idolatrous superstition,"—nay, more, to see the sacred Kurán itself prostituted to the unholy objects of devil worship.

The pilgrimage to Mekka and "the silly and ridiculous" ceremonies which have ever formed a necessary part of it, were but original threads of Arab idolatry, which expediency prompted the Prophet to interweave with his fabric of a purer religion.*

Nearly all orthodox Muhammadans have an implicit belief in what is termed "Divine magic" (Ar-Rahmání), "the sublime science" employed only for good purposes, but sternly denounce the practice of enchantment (As-Sahr) and of "Satanic" (Shaitání) and "Natural magic" (As-Šimiýá) in general. All forms alike are supposed to derive greater efficacy from interlarding the usual mysterious words, numbers, diagrams, &c., of charms, with names of the Deity and passages from the Kurán.†

The two following philtres or love charms‡ come under the Sanskrit category of Stambhana or of Vibhishana—those intended to procure illicit sexual intercourse and effect discord.§ The appropriate demons invoked by the Sighalese are Madana Yaksaniyó, 'the She-Demons of Lust.' "These demons, when worked upon by certain charms, and propitiated with certain offerings and ceremonials, are supposed to use their power of seducing the affections of a man or a woman in such a manner that the person so influenced is said to find the power perfectly irresistible. There are hundreds of ways in which it is pretended this can be done."||

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‡ The transcript in Roman characters of the Maldive (Aḍḍú Atol) charms and the rough glossary, given below, will further enable Sighalese scholars to trace the philological connection between the two languages. Aḍḍú orthography differs considerably from the Málé (Sultan's Island) standard.
§ Dandris De Silva Guñaratna, Mudaliyár, in Jour. C. A. S., 1865-6, pp. 53-4.
|| Idem, p. 31.
MÁLĐIVE MANTRAS.

No. 1.

Gada istiri vari tura’ kurańkan haivakaru abaku de mìhunye rúfa kurahai hadduru harruľi nuvá giḥi badili elagođi abu gahani.

Translation.

“To completely estrange a desirable woman (from her husband)—make a teak nail (and) an image of both persons, (mutter) ‘hadduru harruľi nuvá giḥi badili elagođi,’ † and drive in the nail."

Glossary.

Istiri, ‘woman,’ ‘wife’: S. ṣān [strī.]
Kurahai, lit. ‘having made,’ = kurafā (Málé), p. part. of kuraj: S. ṣūṭ [karalā].
Kurākan—See tura’kurańkan.
Gada, lit. ‘health’: not improbably = S. ṣaŋ [agāda] (ṣ, negative, ṣaŋ disease.)
Gahani, ‘strike’: S. ṣān [gahanavā].
Tura’ (kurākan) ‘to disunite’: S. ṣōlā ṣān [turaj karaṇā].
De, ‘two,’ ‘both’: S. ṣaŋ [de].
Mīhanje, gen. pl. of mīhā; S. ṣaŋ [minisunge], gen. pl. of ṣaŋ [minihā] ‘man.’
Rúfa, ‘image’: S. ṣān [rúpa].
Vari, ? adv. ‘greatly’: S. ṣān [vēra]; but vari kuraj ‘to divorce’ (Málé).

No. 2.

Gada istiriye liame karhi male’ fari nuanis kaďāgen au valie’ hanulaigen mi malu effuru Al Kadr Sūra lie ane’ furhumati Vajahatu lie mi malu rūfa kurahai vāhaka varā ojun lie Al Rahmān Sūra huswāden lie’ vá’ rónu’ fas tan bede rakas bođe’ katilāeige lein

* “Sorcery” is with the Máldivians fađita—S. ṣān [pandita],—‘the learned (science.)’
† The mantra or incantation proper; unintelligible. All else is “a sort of rubric,” as with Siḩalese charms(vide C.A.S. Journ., 1865–6, p. 57), in which the object is stated, and directions given for the jiważama, or “winding up.”
kaliko' dumarhi bavvai hikkai tin duvas vimai nagaigen gos mudu alani kakú fenu eili nama balai fonuvari sûlu fenu eili nama audei.

Translation.

"Write (the name of) a desirable woman; pluck an unopened bud of the screw-pine flower; sharpen a new knife; on one side of this flower write Al Kadër Sûra:* on the other side write Vajahatu;† make an image out of this flower; write particulars of the horoscope; write Al Rahmân Sûra‡ from beginning to end; tie (the image) in five places with left-hand-(twisted) coir;§ cut the throat of a bloodsucker (lizard);|| smear its blood (on the image); place it on a loft; dry (it) for three days; (then) take it and enter the sea—if (you) go in knee-deep (she) will send a message; if (you) go in to the waist (she) will come."

* "Verily we sent down the Korân in the night of Al Kadër. And what shall make thee understand how excellent the night of Al Kadër is? The night of Al Kadër is better than a thousand months. Therein do the Angels descend, and the spirit Gabriel also, by the permission of their Lord, with his decrees concerning every matter. It is peace until the rising of the morn."—Sale's Korân, Chap. xcvii, p. 451.

† The Vajahatu is always recited by Muslims before commencing prayers. It forms part of Al Bakr ("Cattle") Sûra:—"I direct my face unto him who hath created the heavens and the earth; I am orthodox, and not one of the idolaters ..... Say, Verily my prayers, and my worship, and my life, and my death, are dedicated unto God, the Lord of all creatures; He hath no companion. This have I been commanded: I am the first Moslem."—Sale’s Korân, Chap. vi, pp. 96, 104.

‡ The Sûra entitled "The Merciful," containing 78 verses. It somewhat resembles Psalm cvii, but is vitiated by including adoration for blessings of a sensuous paradise assured to 'the faithful.'—"Which, therefore, of your Lord's benefits will ye ungratefully deny?" See Sale’s Korân, Chap. Iv, pp. 394-6.

§ Vâ, vâ or vâtu rônu, is coir twisted by the left hand upon the right: as opposed to right-hand-twisted coir called hanâi or hanâtu rônu.

|| A blood-sucker or a chameleon plays a part in the Sîhalese hûniyam charm called Lé hâma bandhanaya [ꦱꦼ ꦐꦺꦼRedis].
Glossary.

Au, 'new': S. ଆଉ [aũ].
Audei, '(will) come.' At Mâlê ãdē is imp., 'come.' Cf. S. ଏଉ [eũ].
Ane, 'other': S. ଏଉ [ænẽ].
Alani, 'enter': perhaps contracted from atolani, = S. ଏଉରାଉତେରେର [etalenavai].
Effurhu, '(on) one side' = eke' + furhu: S. ଏକେପିଠେ [eka piṭe]; furhumati. Cf. S. ଫରବୁତୋ [matupiṭa].
Eli, pret. of alay (?)' to enter.'
Oluu. The phrase vāhaka varā olun (translated, 'particulars of the horoscope,') apparently means the day and hour of birth, and the auspicious or inauspicious position of the moon and planets, as affecting the victim, deducible from (her) horoscope. Compare the Siyalese use (C. A. S. Journ. 1865–6, pp. 71–2).

Kakû, 'knee': S. କଙ୍ଙ୍ଙ୍ଙ୍ଙ୍ଙ୍ଙ [kakula] 'leg'; kakû fenu, 'knee-deep water.'
Kadâgan, pres. part. of kaday, 'to pluck, 'break': S. କାଦାଗାନ [kaḍâgana].
Katilaige (♀ katilaigen), pres. part. 'cutting the throat.'
Karhi, = karhikeya, Pandanus odoratissimus, L., 'screw-pine': S. ପାଞ୍ଜୁଡ୍ୟ [pajjاعيد].

Kâlico, 'hav. smeared,' Cf. S. କାସୁ [gâlā].
Gos, 'hav. gone,' p. part. of dâû 'to go': S. ସାସୁ [gos].
Tan, pl. of tana, 'place,' S. ତାନ [tena].
Tin, 'three': S. ତିନ୍ୟ [tun].

Dumarhi, '(on) a loft': S. ଦୁମ [duma].
Duvas, 'days': S. ଦୁଵା [davas].
Nama, 'if': S. ନାମ [nam].

Nagaigen, pres. part. of naga 'to take.' Cf. S. ନାଗାନ [aragaña].
Nuvaniâs, 'unopened.' Cf. S. ନାବାମ [navum], ନାବ [nāvum] 'new.'
Fari, 'bud': S. ଫାର [paḷu].
Fas, 'five': S. ଫସ [pas].

Furhumati. See above effurhu.

Fûlu, 'navel,' 'waist'; fûlu fenu, 'waist-deep water.' Cf. S. ଫାଳ [vala], 'waist.'

Fenu, 'water: S. ଫୁଳ [pen].
Fonuvani, '(will) send.' Cf. S. ଫନ୍ବାଦ [evanaud].

Balai, 'message,' 'messenger.' Cf. Pâli, balatthe; but also S. ବେଣ୍ୟ [bela]
[bela], 'hiring.'

Bâvâna, p. part. 'hav. placed': S. ବାସ୍ତ୍ର [bâvâla].
Bede, p. part. 'hav. tied': S. ବେଠ [binda].

Bojde (rakas bojde), 'blood-sucker' (lizard, calotes): S. ମହାନ୍ତୁଡ୍ୟ [bojde] 'chameleon.'
Mi, 'this': S. ṃ [mé].
Male, malu, 'flower': S. ṛ [mala].
Mūda, 'sea': S. ṛ [mūda].
Rakas, forms compound with bōde (q.v.): probably = S. ṛ [rakas], 'demon.'
Rōnu, 'coir': S. ṛ [rōna], 'string,' 'cord.'
Liame, lie, 'hav. written,' p. part. of liyā.-correct form liyā, liyā (Mālé)—S. ṛ [liyā]; me (in liyame) perhaps = S. ṃ [ma], intensive affix.
Letin, 'with blood': S. ṛ[lethin].
Vārā, ? See above, oḷun.
Vajie, 'knife.' Cf. Malay pisau vali.
Vāhaka, 'words'—vāhaka-dakha (Mālé) 'to talk.' Cf. S. ṛ [vākya].
See above, oḷun.
Vā, 'left-hand': S. ṛ [vama]. At Maliku (Minakai) written vāi or vātu.
Vimāi, lit. 'there having been (3 days).' Cf. use of S. ṛ [veld].
Hanulaigen, pres. part. 'sharpening'; S. ṛ [hāna], 'whet-stone,' ṛ [lāagna], 'placing; ṛ [gāagna], 'rubbing,' used instead.
Hikka, hav. dried, p. part. of hikya 'to dry.' Cf. Pāli succa.
Huswāden, adv. 'from beginning to end.' Cf. S. ṛ [hisva], 'empty.'*

* Many words occurring in these mantras differ entirely from their equivalents given by Christopher in his "Vocabulary of the Māldivian Language" (J. R. A. S., Vol. VI. o. s., pp. 42-76), probably compiled at Mālé. The dialect of Huvadū and Aḍḍū Atols approaches Sīphalese more closely than that of the rest of the group lying to the North.
NOTE ON THE "MI'RA' KÂNTIRII" FESTIVAL OF
THE MUHAMMADANS.

BY A. T. ŞAMS-UD-DI'N.

(Read October 6th, 1881.)

This feast is annually held in Colombo at the Maradána
Mosque during Jamád-ul-ákhir, the sixth month of the Muham-
madan year, in memory of the saint Mírá Sálib, whose miracles
are well known to the Muhammadans, and whom they esteem
as a great Wali.* His sepulchre is at Nágúr, near Nágapatam.

The festival† commences on the evening the new moon
becomes visible in the month of Jamád-ul-ákhir, and lasts till
the tenth of the lunar month. Five or six days previous to
the new moon they erect a flag-staff, and in the evening of the
new moon day the sacred banners are conveyed in solemn
procession, attended by a ceremonious display of music, artificial
trees, &c. After having perambulated the town in great pomp
and state, the procession returns to the place where the flag-
staff is erected. There the Fáthikah or opening chapter of the
Kurán is recited in the name of the saint, and the sacred flag
is hoisted.

In other parts of the Muhammadan world also, as at Nágúr,
those Musalmáns who venerate this saint set up a flagstaff and
annually repeat the Fáthikah in his name. On the night of the
10th a great feast is held on account of its being the day that*
the saint departed this life. The Mosque is illuminated and
all kinds of sports take place, which attract crowds of people

* "The favourite of heaven."
† Regarding these annual festivals (Mólids) held in commemoration
of the birth of Muslim Saints, see Lane's Arabian Nights, Vol. I., Chap. iii.,
Note 63, p. 216.—Hon. Sec.
to the spot. In short, the whole town is awake that night, and presents a scene of bustle and confusion. The slow murmur of human voices rising at times like the waves of the ocean, and mingling with the clear voices of the ubiquitous sherbert vendor and roasted gram seller—the invariable concomitants of a Ceylon crowd—renders the scene perfectly picturesque. Moreover a kūdu is constructed in honour of this saint. This is a frame-work of bamboo, in the shape of a pagoda, made with a sort of network of paper nicely clipped and pasted on it. It is further ornamented with different kinds of coloured paper, formed into various devices, tinsel fringes, &c. When the whole is lighted up within and without, it has a beautiful appearance.

The Musalmán ship captains and sailors are in the habit of making vows and oblations in the name of this saint; *e.g.*, when they meet with any misfortune at sea, they vow that should the vessel reach the desired haven in peace, safely with their property and cargo, they will spend a certain sum of money in offering Fāthihah to him.*

There is a tradition in general reception among the Moors, that in former times the inhabitants of the Máldives were tormented by a demon, to whom they were compelled to sacrifice a female every year; but this saint, a descendant of the prophet, having arrived in the Island, attacked and overcame the demon, and that in return for this service the whole of the inhabitants

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* "Before a voyage is undertaken, an offering is made to some saint for success, and in danger or distress the mariners trust chiefly in the efficacy of vows or offerings to the tombs of some personage (dead or living) eminent for piety. We are informed of large sums given as votive offerings made during boisterous weather to an old priest resident at Calcutta. All moneys paid at Málé in fulfilment of such vows go to the priest." (Christopher and Young, Memoir on the Máldive Islanders, Trans. Bombay Geo. Soc. 1836-8, p. 75.)—Hon. Sec.
became converted to Islam, the propagation of which Mirá Sáhib had in view in visiting them.

The Maldivians pretend that this saint is buried in their own soil, but the Moors will have it that he was buried at Náguír on the Coromandel coast, where there is a stupendous mosque erected in honor of him, and which is the resort of vast multitudes of Muhammadans from various parts of the world. The miracles performed by this saint were innumerable.

NOTE.

[According to a Tamil version of an Arabic biography of this saint, * Mirá Sáhib was born at “Máŋikkapuri” on the 9th Jumád-ul-ákhír, A. H. 910 (A. D. 1504), and died on the 10th of the same month, A. H. 978 (A. D. 1570). He is known to his votaries under several names, e.g., Hazrat Mirá Sáhib, Shaikh 'Abd-ul-Kádir, Sául Hamíd, &c.

Among the miraculous adventures attributed to the Shaikh is included a visit to the Maldives, where, after thwarting the treachery of the King and his subjects, he was enabled to win them over to Islam by ridding the Islands of a dreaded Jinní.†

It should be noted, however, that the account of this conversion, though sufficiently quaint to warrant its insertion here in extenso, is manifestly nothing more than the plain unvarnished legend related by the Arab traveller Ibn Batúta, as then (circa A. D. 1344) current among the Islâmíers‡ popularised and assimilated to the familiar Arabian Nights’ Tale of the Fisherman, the ‘Ifrí, and the bottle of brass.

* Kalaṟatu Miráŋ Sáhipu Aŋtavaravarharal káraya-sarittiram, Kárakkal, A. H. 1293 (A. D. 1876).
† Evidence is adducible that the Maldivians were converted to Muhammadanism not later than A. D. 1244. See “The Maldivian Islands” (Ceylon Sessional Papers, 1881) and Gray, J. R. A. S., Vol. X. n. s. 1878, p. 177.
The Tamil-Arabic story runs as follows:

Translation.

The Visit to Maldive Island.*

Hazrat Sāul Hamīd, bidding farewell to Sayyid Zain-ud-dīn Makhazam and the rest who dwelt at Ponnāni,† left that place, and

* Lit.—'The account of entering Maldive Island'; مکالیمی [Muhallatī], = Mahal-dīva, i. e., Mālē (Sultan's Island).
† බොහෝම්මඩුගන්ගේ පොන්නාණියිය, 'at Ponnāni,' on the Malabar coast.
"It is inhabited almost exclusively by Muhammadans (Moplās)... and is the centre of Musalmān education on the coast."—Hunter's "Imp. Gaz. of India," Vol. VII., p. 377.
feeding on the various fruits of the leafy grove, surrounded by his devotees, reached the sea-shore. Perceiving that the sea was boisterous and having a mind to visit Maldive Island, (the Shaikh,) after meditating upon God and performing the prayers of two raka’ât,* looked at Hazrat Yusuf Sâhib and the others, and said: "Shut ye your eyes, and placing your feet in the salt sea follow me." The Sâhib—exclaiming 'In the name of God!†'—first set his lotus-like feet in the water and walked, the others following him. Before the twinkling of an eye the Shaikh with his holy‡ mouth commanded the devotees to open their eyes. When they looked and saw that they were on the shore of Maldive Island they rejoiced exceedingly. But the Ruler of that country and the other infidels,§ seeing Hazrat Sâhib come with a company, spoke one with another: "They are come to make war on our land"; and, intending to kill them by stratagem, introduced deadly poisons into fruits and other eatables. Taking these, the King and the rest of the inhabitants approached Hazrat Sâhib with great respect, as though they had come to welcome them, and set before them the poisoned viands they had brought. But the Sâhib—although cognizant (of their treachery)—feigning ignorance, saying 'In the name of God'! and laying his holy hands on the food, ate it, and handing to the others they too ate and rejoiced. Seeing this, that King and his subjects were perplexed and departed,

* "The Muslim has to perform [five times a day] certain prayers held to be ordained by God, and others ordained by the Prophet; each kind consisting of two, three, or four 'rek'âhs,' which term signifies the repetition of a set form of words [Farz, Sunnat, Naft, or Witr], chiefly from the Kurán, and ejaculations of 'God is most great!' &c., accompanied by particular postures."—Lane's "Arabian Nights," Vol. I, p. 16. Introduction, Note 1. See too Hughes' "Notes on Muhammadanism," pp. 104–118, London, 1877.

† pîmîl: Arabic Bismillâh—the usual Muslim ejaculatory prayer preceding any important action.

‡ [mubârakah]: Arabic mubarak, "holy," "blessed."

§ [kâfir]: Arabic kâfir, "infidel,"
saying “These men are saints,* who, though aware of our deceit, did not reveal it.”†

* பொரியோர்கள் [pēriyōrkal], lit. “great men.”
† Compare the adventure of Es-Sindibád and his companions (4th Voyage) on the Island of the Cannibals (Sekar = ? Sumatra).—Lane’s “Arabian Nights,” Vol. III., p. 37.
கற்பங்கள் குறித்து கூறுவர், காவுகள் புறநிலைகளை செய்துவர்கிறது. அவ்விருட்கு அதிக சூழ்நிலைகளைச் செய்ய கோவைச்சாலைச்சாலைகள் எளியான பெரும் பருவங்களின் விளையாட்டுகளில் உள்ளது. அவ்வீட்டில் செய்யப்பட்டுவரும் குற்றவங்களை கூறுவது, ஆமையால் செய்யப்பட்டுவரும் குற்றவங்களை கூறுவது. இவ்விருக்கு ஒரு குற்றவங்கல் செய்யப்பட்டுவரும் குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவது. குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவதன் மூலம் குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவது. குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவதில் புதுப்பிப்புகள் கூறுவது. குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவதில் புதுவைப் பெறுவது. குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவதில் புதுக்கைகள் கூறுவது. குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவதில் புதுச் செய்யும் பெருமைகள் கூறுவது.

"பொன்னாடி விளையாட்டுகள், உணவு பணிகள் பணிகள் குறிப்பிட்டும் விளையாட்டுகள்", என்று கூறுவர்.

"மயை செய்து குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவது" என்று கூறுவர். "அரிய நீருக்குச் செய்து குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவது" என்று கூறுவர்.

"அரிய நீருக்குச் செய்து குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவது" என்று கூறுவர்.

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"அரிய நீருக்குச் செய்து குற்றவங்கல் கூறுவது" என்று கூறுவர்.
The Destruction of the Jinni.*

In order to convert the infidels dwelling in Maldive Island, and also to remove the danger in that country (Hazrat Mirán Sahib performed the following miracle):

Passing one day down the street, attended by a few Fakirs, (the Shaikh) observed in a house the soldiers of the King of that country and the inhabitants together going to bind a maiden with ropes, and the mother of the girl sad of heart crying piteously in her distress. Seeing this, Hazrat called to those persons, “What meaneth this?” They replied, “In this country there is a monstrous Jinni† who once

* For the legendary account of the conversion of the Maldive Islanders to Muhammadanism by Abú’l Barakát, the Barbar, see references under ‡ ante p. 127.

† The Muslims in general believe in three different species of created intelligent beings, viz:—Angels (Madîkhah) who are created of light; Genii (Jinn), who are created of fire; and men (Ins), created of earth. Some hold that the Devils (Shaitáns) are distinct from Angels and Jinns. The species of Jinns (said to have been created some thousand years before Adam) consists, according to tradition, of five orders:—1. Jam; 2. Jinn; 3. Shaitán; 4. ‘Ifrit; 5. Márid—the most powerful. There are good and evil Genii. If good, they are exceedingly handsome: if evil, horribly hideous. At pleasure they become invisible, or disappear in earth or air; and appear to mankind commonly in the shapes of serpents, dogs, cats, or giants. Their chief abode is said to be in the mountains of Káf, which encircle the earth. (See the full Note 21, Lane’s Arabian Nights, Vol. I., pp. 26-38.
a year comes to the temple which is outside the city.* On that account a virgin is adorned and offered to him as a sacrifice; otherwise that Jinní will enter our country and harass us. This custom has obtained from the time of our ancestors. We therefore give our maidens by turns. As it is now this girl’s turn, we have come here and are preparing to take her away.” Hazrat, looking on the infidels, forbade them, saying, “Do not this wicked act, but marry ye the maid to a young man,” and went away.

But those infidels disregarded the righteous words of the Sáhib, being quite ignorant of his previous miraculous acts. According to their wont they adorned the girl, bound her tightly, and having placed her in a palanquin paraded her through the country with music and lighted torches; finally, leaving her in the temple which is outside the town, they departed to their respective houses.

Hazrat Mírán Sáhib, aware of these circumstances by divine intuition, meditating on the wonderful God, in the dread night took a goglet joyfully in his hand, and walked alone to the place where the girl was kept. At that juncture the Jinní approached with fearful noise, coming to gaze on the maid. Mírán Hamíd seeing him said, “O Shaitán, be patient; approach not the girl.” Hearing those words the Jinní, alarmed, confused in mind, trembling, with face distorted, made obesiance at the lotus feet of the Sáhib. Hazrat looking on the Jinní said “Take this goglet, O Accursed, and fetch water from the tank which is opposite.” The Jinní, at once assuming human shape, took

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† ".......................... carried as a bride,
With music and with litters gaily dight.”

‡ Abú-ʻl-Barakát, it will be remembered, took the place of the old woman’s daughter, and worsted the demon by reciting “the glorious Kurán.”

§ "................ for spirits feel all force divine,
And know the sacred presence of the pure.”

‖ لَمْ يَنْعُدَ بَنُو [malvún]: Arabic malvún, “curse.”
the goglet in his hand and went to the tank. But when he dipped
the goglet to draw water, all the water of the tank flowed into it.
Perceiving this the Jinní was filled with wonder, because the
goglet did not come with his hand nor yield in the least though he
lifted it with all his might. While the Jinní was standing with
diminished strength without releasing his hold on the goglet, the
Islanders, taking their waterpots as usual and going to the tank to
draw water at the third watch, seeing the tank dry and the Jinní
in human form standing tugging at the goglet, stood terrified.
Because the goglet did not yield, although he tried his utmost to lift it,
the Jinní returned to the holy presence of Hazrat and informed him
of what had happened. "Go, Shaiṭān," said the Shaikh, "and say
our (Muslim) 'Bismillāh' ('In the name of God!'), and the water
in the goglet will run out; again say 'Bismillāh,' draw water
and come." The Jinní went, did as directed, and bringing water
placed it before Hazrat, who took it and made his ablutions.*
The Jinní, in his foolishness thinking 'I will enter the goglet and
see the wonder inside,' as soon as the Sāhib had finished, said
"Master, be pleased to allow me to enter this goglet." As Hazrat
said "Well, enter," the Jinní contracted his body and crept into
the goglet.† Whilst the Shaikh, having clapped on the stopper,
was performing his prayers ‡ those Islanders, as usual, brought
the requisites for taking away the corpse. But when they saw the
girl alive, as left the night before, they were astonished, approached
her and asked what had occurred. Having heard her relate

* ملُئ [wuzu]: Arabic wuzu, "the ablution of face, hands, feet, &c.,
necessary before every time of prayer." (See Hughes' Notes on Muham-
madanism, p. 105.)
† قَسْدُ [kūsād], an earthen water-bottle; whereas the one which
contained the 'Ifrīt in the "Story of the Fisherman" (Arabian Nights)
was of brass (kūmhum).
‡ صُلْح [sūkHz], the Muslim morning prayer. "Glorify God when
it is evening (masā) and at morning (subh)—and to him be praise in the
heavens and in the earth—and at afternoon ('asāhī) and at noontide (zuhr)."
Sūrat-ur-Rum (xxx), 17.
the events of the night, the Islanders asked, "Where is the Jinní?"
She replied, "He is shut up in the goglet which is in the presence
of the deliverer," pointing to Hazrat. The Islanders, rejoicing
exceedingly, with gladdened minds untied the bonds of the girl,
and taking her with them worshipped the golden feet of the bounti-
ful benefactor who abounded in the favour of the wonderful God;
then very hastily went and narrated the circumstances to the King
of the Island. He, rejoicing when he heard, surrounded by his
ministers, other chief men, astrologers, and merchants, came quickly
on foot, and seeing the Shaikh, worshipped him, saying "O lord
who hast removed the danger that threatened us, be pleased to save
us: we are come under thy protection: we will without fail perform
whatever thou commandest." Hazrat Mirán Sáhib, having fed that
King and all his subjects with the divine ambrosia called Kalimah,
caused them to come into the right way,* and, having broken down
all the temples in the Island, built mosques. Looking at that King
he said, "Do thou reign alone and be a help to thy subjects"; (then)
blessed them, and abode (there) a few days.† The King and the
other inhabitants, however, came to the Sáhib and said "O lord,
the fear of the harm he will work in the future distresses our
minds, should we keep our enemy the Jinní here thus; we will
do whatever thou biddest us." Hazrat replied, "Load the goglet in
which the Jinní is enclosed in a gundara,‡ and having taken and
sunk it (in the sea) beyond Galle,§ return." But those people said

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* "When any one is converted to Islám he is required to repeat
the Kalimah, or Creed:—Lá-íláhá-il-lal-laho Muhammad-ur-Rasúl-Ullah.
'There is no deity but God, and Muhammad is the Apostle of God.'"—
Hughes' Muhammadanism, p. 102.

† Ibn Batíta who styles the Máldivé Sovereign, converted by the
Maghrabin, Ahmed Chenourázah [Shanurázah = ? Senarat], saw the record
of the conversion in the chief Mosque at Málé (A. D. 1344).

‡ חנוף [hunord], the term applied to Máldivé boats. The Sin-
halese call these Islanders commonly Gundara-kárayo 'the gundara (boat)
men.'

§ מַלְתָּה [Kúlt], the modern Point-de-Galle.
“O master, we are always traversing the sea; should this Jinni remain in the sea, how much hurt he will do us!” “He will do no hurt to you or your gundaras hereafter,” replied the Shaikh. The inhabitants, thinking that the words uttered by the holy mouth of Hazrat will not fail, rejoiced, and shipping that goglet on a gundara, sank it in the sea, as directed by the Sáhib; then returned praising and applauding him.—H. C. P. B., Hon. Sec.]
SERICULTURE IN CEYLON.

By J. L. Vanderstraaten, M.D.

(Read October 6th, 1881.)

Sericulture, or, the raising of silk-worms, is derived from Seres, 'Chinese,' and cultura, 'culture,' because "silk" came from the Chinese word Se, which signifies 'silk.' The name, therefore, of the great Empire of China derives its name from the great silk industry. The discovery of the uses to which the cocoon of the silk-worm might be applied appears to have been first made in China by an Empress, who was the first to unravel the filmy thread, and to work it into a web of cloth, about 2,700 years before the Christian era.

In the middle of the 6th century, the Western world received the great boon of a supply of silk-worms' eggs. These were secretly conveyed from Semida, between Tartary and China, to Constantinople, by two Persian monks, who concealed the eggs in a hollow cane. At the proper season they were hatched, and the caterpillars were fed with the leaves of the wild mulberry tree. From this small commencement the myriads of silk worms have sprung, which, throughout Europe and Western Asia, have met the continual demand for silk. The introduction of silk into Europe occurred about the year A.D. 552, in the reign of Justinian, and we find from Tennent's History of Ceylon, (Vol. I., p. 569) that the earliest record made of the introduction of silk into the Island of Ceylon, was in the reign of Justinian, by Cosmas, an Egyptian merchant, who published the narrative of Sopater, a Greek trader, whom he had met at Adule in Ethiopia, when on his return from Ceylon. Sopater told Cosmas that, from China and other emporia, silk and other articles named by him were imported into Ceylon.
I have searched for information on the subject of Sericulture, or silk, in all the works relating to Ceylon that I could find in the Library of this Society, and in the Colombo and Colonial Medical Libraries. I have looked into Baldaeus, Knox, Valentyn, Percival, Cordiner, Davy, Lee's translation of Ribeyro, Marshall, Forbes, Knighton, Pridham, Hoffmeister and Tennent, but I have only been able to glean the following scanty information on these subjects.

In Valentyn's History, published in 1663, there is the following reference to Sericulture:—"In Jaffnapatam experiments are made to nourish the silk-worm, and obtain by it a source of livelihood. Mulberry trees have been planted here and in many other places, and they appear to thrive well. In January and February the worms are transported from Jaffna, and other small insects can be collected here. These are occupations which are interesting, and can be undertaken with little pains and at small cost."

I find from the Appendix to Lee's translation of Ribeyro's History of Ceylon, that in March, 1740, the Governor Baron Van Imhoff left the following memorandum on silk for the information of his successor:—

"Silk has not been so successful as we anticipated when we began to grow it here."

In 1849, Pridham mentions (Vol. I., p. 374) that "on account of the dryness of the Northern Province, the culture of the mulberry plant might be almost indefinitely extended by the introduction of the silk-worm, and silk be rendered one of its leading staples, instead of being, as is now the case, completely neglected. The mode of culture practised in Hindostan, as being the most simple, will be at first the best-adapted for the native agriculturist, who has to acquire skill and practice ere he can be expected to improve upon Oriental methods. Much depends upon the abundance of cooly labour, which may be further cheapened by employing children to
prepare and lay down the sets as soon as the nurseries of the mulberry plant are sufficiently stocked to admit of the operations of the planter."

From Sir J. E. Tennent's "Natural History of Ceylon" I have obtained the following description of the Silk Moths found here:

"Among the strictly nocturnal Lepidoptera are some gigantic species. Of these, the cinnamon-eating Atlas often attains the dimensions of nearly a foot in the stretch of its superior wings. It is very common in the gardens about Colombo, and its size, and the transparent talc-like spots in its wings, cannot fail to strike even the most careless saunterer. But little inferior to it in size is the famed Tusseh silk-moth [Antheraea mylitta, Drury,] which feeds on the country almond (Terminalia catappa) and the palma christi or castor-oil plant; it is easily distinguishable from the Atlas, which has a triangular wing, whilst its is falcated, and the transparent spots are covered with a curious thread-like division drawn across them.

"Towards the Northern portions of the Island this valuable species entirely displaces the other, owing to the fact that the almond and palma christi abound there. The latter plant springs up spontaneously on every manure-heap or neglected spot of ground; and might be cultivated, as in India, with great advantage—the leaf to be used as food for the caterpillar, the stalk as fodder for cattle, and the seed for expression of castor oil. The Dutch took advantage of this facility, and gave every encouragement to the cultivation of silk at Jaffna.

"The Portuguese had made the attempt previous to the arrival of the Dutch, and a strip of land on the banks of the Kelani river, near Colombo, still bears the name of Orta Seda, the silk garden. The attempt of the Dutch to introduce the true silk worm, the Bombyx mori, took place under the Governorship of
Ryckloff Van Goens, who, on handing over the administration to his successor, in 1663, thus apprises him of the imitation of the experiment:—'At Jaffna Palace a trial has been undertaken to feed silk-worms, and to ascertain whether silk may be reared at that station. I have planted a quantity of mulberry trees, which grow well there, and they ought to be planted in other directions.'—Valentyn, chap. xiii. The growth of the mulberry tree is noticed the year after in a report to the Governor-General of India, but the subject afterwards ceased to be attended to; but it never attained such a development as to become an article of commercial importance.

Ceylon now cultivates no silk-worms whatever, notwithstanding this abundance of the favourite food of one species; and the rich silken robes sometimes worn by the Buddhist priesthood, are imported from China and the Continent of India.

In addition to the Atlas moth and the Mylitta, there are many other Bombycidae in Ceylon; and though the silk of some of them, were it susceptible of being unwound from the cocoon, would not bear a comparison with that of the Bombyx mori, or even of the Tusseh moth, it might still prove to be valuable when carded and spun. If the European residents in the Colony would rear the larvae of these lepidoptera, and make drawings of their various changes, they would render a possible service to commerce and a certain one to entomological knowledge.

In connection with the subject of Sericulture in Ceylon, I have obtained the permission of the Revd. Father Palla, of Galle, to illustrate my paper by the exhibition of a card of silk-worm eggs as originally received from Japan, through Government, in December last.

In November, 1879, the Rev. Father Palla applied to His Excellency the Governor, Sir J. R. Longden, to use his influence
in obtaining a supply of eggs from China or Japan. In a few
days he received the gratifying information that His Excellency
would have much pleasure in applying to the Consul-General
of Japan for a supply of eggs.

In January, 1880, a communication was received by Govern-
ment from Her Majesty's Consul-General at Yeddo, in Japan,
that it was too late in the season to forward any eggs then as
they had almost all been exported, but that a supply would be
sent in the next season.

In December, 1880, the first supply was received by Govern-
ment from Yeddo, and at once handed to Father Palla, who
distributed a few cards to some friends who had previously
begun the cultivation of the mulberry plant in anticipation of
the arrival of the eggs.

The eggs, which are as small as grains of mustard, as
laid by the insect on white cards, (each 14 by 9 inches long,)
cover the whole card, so that there are thousands of eggs on
each card. The one I now exhibit has been practically
hatched and bears the empty shells as well as those which
have not hatched as yet. The cards have certain Japanese
impressions on them to prove that they are genuine Japanese
silkworm eggs.

There were several cards, each being covered with tissue
paper, and then wrapped in thick covers of China and brown
paper. There was also a little box with 100 divisions, num-
bered; in each division there were six cocoons. The numbers
on the divisions corresponded with the numbers on the cards,
and the quality of the cocoons and silk, which each card was
capable of producing, could be ascertained by reference to these
numbers.

The eggs which were received in December began to hatch
in a few days after they were exposed to the air in a ventilated
room. It required a magnifying glass to enable one to see the
minute caterpillars or larvae which were hatched, and these
had to be carefully removed and kept in little paper boxes containing tender mulberry leaves. They began to grow rapidly and increase in size, as can be judged from the specimens now exhibited, containing caterpillars of different stages of growth.*

**INDIAN SPECIES**

Described by Captain Thomas Hutton, F.G.S., C.M.Z.S., Corresponding Member of the Agri-Horticultural Society of India.†

Wild species of India differ widely in form, habits, food, and silk from the Bombyces proper; they are all wild and indigenous to India and widely diffused wherever there are hills. The type of this group is the well-known Tussar or Tusseh moth (*Antheraea paphia*) which is found along the coast line from Bombay through Pondicherry and eastward to Bengal, and thence through Cachar, Assam, Darjiling, and even to the Punjab.

When left to nature, in a wild state, they are annual or single-brooded; but when domesticated, two to five broods a year may be obtained.

In the whole family of the Lepidoptera there is no insect so variable in the imago state in point of colouring as the Tussar species, so that a novice would scarcely believe the varieties to be of one species.

The *Actias selene*, others of that genus, and the *Antheraea*, have a strong, sharp-pointed, horny spine at the shoulder of the wing, which is alternately brought into play in making a cross-cut, or in separating the threads without cutting, until the

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* The card and other specimens exhibited at the Meeting can be seen at the De Soyza Museum, Ceylon Medical College, Colombo.

† From the Journal of the Agricultural and Horticultural Society of India Vol. I. Part 4; New Series.
moth makes its exit from the cocoon. In Actias the cocoons are not so full of silk as those of Antheraea, but it is "strong, tenacious, elastic, and brilliant."

One species of wild silk-worm found in the N. W. Himalayas has been named after the writer alluded to, Bombyx Huttoni. It will not submit to domestication.

The other species are Antheraea assama, found in Assam; Antheraea Roylei, found in Mussoree and Simla feeding on the oak; and Bombyx Mari a Pát Porloo, found in Bengal.

Of the Eria, Erie, Arrea or Arindee group Phalcea cynthia, found in Bengal, feeds on the castor oil plant instead of on the mulberry and yields a coarser silk.

Another of the Eria group is the Attacus atlas. It thrives well when found and taken from the jungle, but the moths could not be induced to breed. The Attacus cynthia is the same as the Attacus kanningi, and is abundant in Mussorie and Cachar.

The above are also described as belonging to the genus "Saturnia"—Saturnia atlas, 'the giant atlas moth' whose wings measure 7 or 8 inches across; Saturnia cercropia and Saturnia luna have their wings produced into a tail, Saturnia cynthia is the arindi silk-worm of India. Lattreille states that these are the wild species of silk worm of China. Saturnia promethea is a North American species. It forms its cocoon within the leaf of a sassafras tree, having previously fastened the stalk of the leaf to the stem by a strong silken web, whereby it is prevented from falling with the other leaves.

Wild silk-worms feed upon different trees, such as the jujube, Ficus-religiosa or Peepul tree, the castor oil plant, the almond, some of the laurel tribe, and others. (Royle's Productive Resources of India.)

As Mr. Geddes of Moratuwa had a supply of silk-worm eggs from Father Palla I wrote to him for such information as he could give me. The following is his reply,
which will be found full of interesting information on this subject:—

Parate, Moratuwa,
September 29th, 1881.

Dear Sir,—With reference to your request for specimens of the Mylitta silk moth, I regret that I have no moths at present, but only some larvae of Mylitta and Atlas, which I am rearing for Mr. Alfred Wailly, of London. There must be specimens at the Museum.

There seem to be several varieties of the Mylitta. According to Major Coussmaker, the Himalayan variety is univoltine (single-brooded) and the larvae casts the skin five times, and attains a length of seven inches when full grown. There are smaller varieties in other parts of India, and in the kind found here the larvae molts four times and is about five inches long. In India the Mylitta feeds on the *Terminalea tomentosa*, *Zizypus jujuba*, *Lagerstæma indica*, *Ficus benjamina*, *Carissa*, *Guidia*, and other trees. I do not know if any of these grow here. In this country the Mylitta is to be found on the *kaju*, *kahata*, *milila*, *veralu*, and some other trees; and the Ceylonese variety of the insect is polyvoltine, producing four or five generations in a year. Sir Emerson Tennent says, in his *Natural History*, that the Mylitta feeds on the leaves of the castor oil tree, but he has confounded it with the *Attacus ricini* or Arinda silk worm, which is quite a different species and does not, so far as I know, exist in Ceylon.

The word *tussur*—variously written “tasar,” “tusseh,” “tussah,” and several other ways—is derived from *tussurie*, Hindústání for a shuttle.* In England they call all sorts of wild silk-worms by the general name of “tussurs,” but the name properly belongs to the species known scientifically—or rather empirically, for such names have been multiplied until they have become worse than useless—by the various names of *Saturnia paphia*, *Antheræa paphia*, *Antheræa Mylitta* and *Attacus Mylitta*.

The Mylitta silk-worm cannot be fed on plucked leaves like the mulberry and castor oil species, but must be kept either on growing

* S. මෙද [lasara], “shuttle.”
the leaves fresh. It has not hitherto been cultivated except by entomologists, all the tussur silk being made from wild cocoons gathered in the jungles. I have tried keeping the larvae on exposed trees, but it did not answer, as they were all destroyed by birds, red ants, or lizards. Major Coussmaker keeps them on bushes covered with bamboo cages, and that plan might answer here; but I believe it would be too expensive a way of obtaining cocoons in sufficient quantity for manufacturing purposes. I keep mine on cut branches, and I have an arrangement by which they are transferred from exhausted branches to fresh ones with very little trouble. But this plan requires a plant that, after being cut and put in water, will not wither before the silk-worms have time to consume the leaves; and I have not yet found any plant that is perfectly satisfactory in that respect for feeding the Mylitta, though, in the case of the Atlas, the Milnea Roxburghiana answers perfectly. For the Mylitta I have used kahaṭa, veraṭu, and kaṭu, and I am now using kaṭakaṭu (Sinhalese for a common weed of which I do not know the botanical name). This plant seems to answer better than any I have tried before, but I have had very little experience of it yet. For keeping the branches for the silk-worms I have long tin cylinders placed horizontally and filled with water, and along the upper side of the cylinder there is a bar of wood pierced with holes for inserting the branches; but the plan is not easy to describe, though very simple when seen.

The culture of the tussur silkworm is only an experiment yet, and except as a matter of scientific investigation, it would be premature to give it any encouragement. Though a silk-worm be polyphagous in a state of nature, yet it does not follow that it has no proper food plant, and the proper food plant of the tussur—if it has one—is not yet known. Then there is no general market for tussur silk, because it is not a recognized commercial product as real silk is. Tussur silk may in future to a considerable extent supersede cotton, and it may also be largely used in combination with cotton and woollen yarn for improving fabrics both in appearance and durability, but it never can be a substitute for true silk. Those who are now giving attention to the artificial propagation of the tussur silk-worm may confer a service on future commerce and manufacturing industry, but they
cannot expect to obtain from their experiments any pecuniary benefit for themselves. In the meantime the thing to be ascertained is the proper food plant of the tussur, for, as I said before, a silkworm’s being polyphagous does not prove that it has not a proper tree on which it is more at home than any other. The Arinda silk-worm is polyphagous in a wild state, and yet it has for its proper food plant the castor oil tree. The Atlas is also more polyphagous than the tussur, and yet I know of no tree except the Milnea Roxburghiana on which it can be artificially reared for more than one generation; and while more than a hundred cocoons of the Atlas will be found on a single tree of this species, not more than two or three can be found on any other. I think the proper tree of the tussur must be an Indian species not indigenous to this country, because there does not seem to be any tree here on which the cocoons are to be found in such numbers as to be worth collecting for manufacturing purposes, as is done in India.

In the meantime the only silk industry likely to be commercially successful is the cultivation of the mulberry. Many persons when they first give their attention to silk production think that wild silk-worms must be more profitable than the mulberry species, but they always become converts to the mulberry in the end.

Yours truly,
ALEX. T. GEDDES.

P.S.—The eggs of the tussur moth hatch in 8 days here. In a temperature of 70° to 75° Fah. they hatch in about fifteen, but they lose their vitality and become putrid if the hatching be delayed for more than twenty days. The breed can therefore be transported long distances only in the pupa state. I omitted to mention that the caterpillar, like that of the Atlas, has the habit of devouring its own cast off skin.

I enclose a specimen of tussur silk and one of mulberry silk. The mulberry silk is the one tied with red thread.*

* These can be seen at the “De Soyza Museum,” Colombo.
SIṆHALESE OMENS.*

By S. Jayatilaka, Mudaliyār.

(Read October 6th, 1881.)

Omens enter largely into the every-day life of the native of Ceylon. They exercise considerable influence in almost every remarkable occurrence or incident in his life—the birth of a child, the marriage of a son or daughter, the undertaking of a journey or speculation, an illness or death in the family, and last but not least, the result of his favourite pastime, a lawsuit.

One of the peculiar characteristics in Ceylon of faith in omens is that this feeling, or fear, or belief—by whatever name it may be called—is shared alike by all classes of natives.

Omens are of two kinds, lucky and unlucky. If one about to start on a journey, or undertake a particular work, meets with an omen described as a bad one, he postpones the journey and gives up the work for a while, and in many instances he abandons both altogether; and when compelled by necessity to do the one or the other, he does it with the foregone conclusion of a failure.

Instances are known of medical men, summoned to attend on persons dangerously ill, whom, perhaps, timely aid might have saved, returning home and refusing to see the patient, or prescribe for him, as being perfectly useless and unavailing, because just after starting they had met with a bad omen.

The following verse from an Elu poetical work called Seḷali-hini Sandiśaya, [කෙලිලිහිණි සංදිෂයය] written by Śrī Rāhula Toṭagamuve, the great poet who flourished about the year

1410, A.D., enumerates some of the good omens which it is lucky to meet with before commencing a journey or undertaking:

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Literally translated it runs thus:

Observe the following omens, and if met with they are far better than even consulting a good planet:

1 A soft and balmy breeze,
2 A pitcher filled with water,
3 Peacocks, or sweet mangoes,
4 Full-blown white flowers,
5 A sweet-spoken woman,
6 A gold vessel,
7 Waving white chámara,
8 White umbrellas,
9 Elephants inflamed with ichor.†

The following Sanskrit stanza, from a miscellaneous work on morals Pratya-ślokaya [පොත්තකාලිය] also enumerates good omens:

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† See Maeready's translation. (Colombo, 1865), Stanza XV., p. viii.

"Look at thine outset for auspicious signs
E’en better than the nepata, white fans
Waving, umbrellas white, King elephants,
White flowers in fullest bloom, and sweet-voiced maids,
Gold pictures, gentle breezes perfumed;
O’erflowing cars, peacocks, and mango fruits."—Hon. Sec.
It is lucky for a man or a woman on starting on a journey to meet the following objects, viz.:—

| 1. Virgins,       | 12. Bullocks,     |
| 2. A milk cow,    | 13. A pitcher filled with water, |
| 3. A tom-tom,     | 14. Flags,        |
| 4. A conch shell, | 15. Sesat placed on elevated ground, |
| 5. Curdled milk,  | 16. Two strings of fresh fish, |
| 6. Fruit,         | 17. White boiled rice, |
| 7. Flowers,       | 18. Cow ghee,     |
| 8. A flame of fire,| 19. A harlot,     |
| 9. A person after his ablutions, | 20. Fresh meat, |
| 11. Elephants,    |                   |

The following Sanskrit stanzas are found in a similar work, and describe certain good and bad omens in connection with reptiles, birds, and beasts:—

\[
\text{Translation.}
\]

If, on starting on a journey, a house lizard should cry on your left, or if a bird, a reptile, jackals, crows, or pigeons cross from the left to the right, it is unlucky; if from the right to the left, it is lucky.

\[
\text{Translation.}
\]

It is unlucky to meet with the following objects, viz.:—

| 1. One besmeared with clay or oil, |
| 2. A cobra,                       |
| 3. One with dishevelled hair,     |
| 4. Naked persons,                 |
5 The aged,
6 Noseless and blind persons,
7 People with clotted hair,
8 People covered with mud,
9 A gossip, or one given to nonsensical talk,
10 Empty pitchers,
11 Dried wood (faggots),
12 Noisy and quarrelsome people,
13 Red flowers,
14 Red garments.

Amongst the Sinhalese or Malabars, any person sneezing suddenly before commencing any work, taking any food or drink, or starting on a journey, allows a short interval to elapse before he begins his undertaking. But according to the following stanzas, extracted from a Medical Miscellany, it appears that in every case a sneeze from every person cannot be considered as prognosticating an omen of ill:—

Translation.

Observe the sneezing of a healthy person. The sneezing of delicate or lean persons and that of cattle forebodes death. Regard not the sneezing of the aged, sufferers from disease of the nose, and children.

Translation.

Sneezing from the
East forebodes want of success;
South-east, death;
South, destruction or ruin;
South-west, calamities;
West, profit;
North-west, success in whatever one is about to undertake;
North, victory;
North-east, profit.

The following formula is not unfrequently used in ascertaining the indications of the cry of a lizard, or of the result of a journey or other undertaking. This performance is invariably accomplished by the aid of a second person, the operator.

The operator arranges on the floor, in any order he chooses, eight pebbles, without letting the enquirer know which pebble he put down first. The operator then calls upon the enquirer to hold or touch any pebble he selects, and commences to recite a portion of the following stanza, from a discourse of Buddha called Ashtaloka Dharmmaya, [מידע], word by word, till he comes to the pebble held or touched by the enquirer, and the result is then ascertained and communicated:—

_translation_

Profit, — Loss:
Misery or poverty, — Prosperity or happiness:
Disgrace, — Praise or encomium:
Health, — Sorrow.

The cry of the house lizard, or the cawing of a crow close to a person or a dwelling, is regarded as ominous of either good or evil, and deductions from such occurrences are detailed in two little works (lately corrected and published by one Hisvelli Pandit) used as handbooks of reference by Nechettas, or astrologers, called Suhunu-sastraya [סָהֲעָנָו-סָאָסְרָאְיָה] and Kapitu-sastraya [קַעֲפִּיטו-סָאָסְרָאְיָה]—the “Science of Lizards” and the “Science of Crows.” Much reliance and faith are placed in these omens, and this feeling is in many instances shared by the more intelligent and educated natives.
The age of the above works, unfortunately, cannot be ascertained. I give below extracts with literal translation which I trust will be as amusing as they are interesting:

SCIENCE OF LIZARDS.

The page contains text in both English and Sinhala. The English text discusses the science of lizards, while the Sinhala text appears to be a translation or commentary on the English text. The content includes scientific information and possibly cultural or historical references related to lizards. The page layout is typical of a journal or academic publication, with sections and paragraphs indicating a structured format.
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Translation.

On Sunday the lizard appears of a golden hue. If the lizard cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes State news or some intelligence connected with high authorities;
South-east, disagreeable news;
South, pleasant news;
South-west, intelligence of death;
West, the return in a week of those that have gone on a journey;
North-west, an alarm from fire;
North, the obtaining of a wife;
North-east, sorrow or sickness.

On Monday the lizard is of the Royal caste, and will be found looking towards the South. If a lizard cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes the arrival of a good relative;
South-east, sickness;
South, death;
South-west, the advent of a relative;
West, alarm from fire;
North-west, the meeting with a woman if one go in search of one;
North, the arrival of a friend;
North-east, profit, or State news.

On Tuesday.—This day the lizard is of the Vellála caste, and will be found looking towards the North. If the lizard cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes the loss of riches;
South-east, the arrival of a relative;
South, sickness;
South-west, obtaining riches;
West, the arrival of one who is good;
North-west, the arrival of a female;
North, State news, and intelligence of an absent brother;
North-east, an alarm from robbers.
Wednesday.—This day the lizard is of a reddish hue. If it cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes pleasant intelligence;
South-east, very joyous intelligence within a week;
South, sickness;
South-west, a quarrel;
West, a severe ailment within a week;
North-west, obtaining a wife;
North, profit or rain;
North-east, sickness, or intelligence of death.

Thursday.—This day the lizard is of a reddish-grey colour. If it cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes death;
South-east, a present of food;
South, State news;
South-west, something to gladden, or rain;
West, the arrival of a friend;
North-west, State news;
North, loss of riches;
North-east, an alarm from legal procedure, or intelligence of death.

Friday.—This day the lizard is of a dark bluish colour. If it cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes an occurrence to give pleasure, or a present of some food of two colours;
South-east, advantage;
South, something gladdening;
South-west, news from a distance;
West, praise;
North-west, an arrival with an intimation of death;
North, mortal fear;
North-east, an arrival with an intimation of death.
Saturday.—This day the lizard is of a greenish hue. If it cry this day from the—

East, it forebodes the arrival of a relative;
South-east, something cheerful;
South, arrival of a good person;
South-west, news from a distance;
West, the return within a week of those who have gone;
North-west, an arrival bringing a message;
North, a quarrel;
North-east, mortal fear.

As it is difficult to ascertain the actual direction from which the cry of a lizard proceeds, and in many instances impossible, the Nivittás or soothsayers adopt the following short method to find the good or evil consequences of the cry of a lizard or a woodpecker, or the cawing of a crow close to a dwelling:

Translation.

As soon as you hear the cawing of a crow, or the cry of a lizard, or that of a woodpecker (near your habitation), measure your shadow in the sun and ascertain the actual number of paces. To this add 13 and divide by 7. The result must show either gain or profit, sorrow or misery, joy or happiness, food, friends, and lastly, an intelligence of a death. If the remainder be 1, it indicates the obtaining of something of a whitish colour, or sweet in flavour; if 2, it is bad; if 3, something to gladden; if 4, a quarrel; if 5, happiness and gain; if 6, the mean between good and bad; if no remainders, death.
Besides the deductions of omens from reptiles, &c., already described, the falling or dropping, from a height, of a lizard, a cobra, a hikanalā, a blood-sucker or a chameleon, or a rat, on the body of any person is thus described:

Translation.

If on Sunday, it is a prognostication of victorious results in his projects and intentions;
If on Monday, Wednesday, Thursday, or Saturday, it is fatal to him;
If on Tuesday, it is fatal to his wife;
If on a Friday, it prognosticates his being obliged to quit his native country.

Should these animals fall on the right hand side of any person he will gain or inherit riches which will last as long as he lives: if on the left hand side, it forebodes inexpressibly great evil.

The cry of the lizard, woodpecker, and the cawing of a crow is only ominous when one starts from home on a journey, projects a work, or is about to express an opinion, or when about to ask for something, or give an order—in fact when about to do or think of anything of utility.
SCIENCE OF CROWS.

Translation.

Should a crow caw opposite to you in the morning, it forebodes great sorrow and sickness, death or trouble: if in the noon, profit, gain, and pleasure: if in the evening, gain, and arrival of friends and relatives.

Should it caw in the morning looking towards the sun, great sorrows, sickness, troubles and death, await you: if in the noon, it forebodes the arrival of a friend: if in the evening, obtaining something profitable.
Should a crow caw (near your dwelling) perched on the uppermost branches of a tree, you will see and converse with a great personage, obtain a present of food, witness the arrival of friends, or experience destruction, sorrow or death; if from the east, rain or wind: if from the west, the meeting of a particular friend.

If it caw from the north-west, or north-east, looking towards the sun, and perched on a dead tree or a tree without branches, it forebodes the obtaining of meat just killed, or food of whitish colour, and the arrival of a friend within three days.

Should a crow caw from the south-east, perched on the withered stump of a tree looking towards one's face whilst taking meals, it forebodes death, sickness, a sudden journey, or certain death to his wife within three months.*

To proceed—

Translation.

Should a crow drop its dung on the head of a person it is a sign of great happiness and comfort ere long: if on the small of the back, or on either of the shoulders, the sign of great happiness and comfort likewise: but if on either of the knees, or on the instep, it is a prognostication of the speedy approach of his death.

The sudden entrance to any dwelling of certain beasts, birds, and reptiles likewise is considered as a sign of evil, shown from the following stanza, which I quote from a work called Gotalipata Namadiya [කෝටලිපාට ආමාදිය] [කෝටලිපාට ආමාදිය]

* So Sidrophel to Hudibras:—

"Is it not om'nous in all countries,
When crows and ravens croak upon trees."—Hon. Sec.
Translation.

Toucans; Owl; Jackals; Cobras; Swallow; Indian cuckoo; Crows; Outcasts. The entrance of any of these into any human dwelling forebodes its ruin.

The howling of dogs, jackals, the hooting of an owl from the roof of a house, and the screech of the Ulamá or devil-bird near a dwelling-house are considered omens of sickness, sorrow, calamity, or death.

If a dog happen by some means to climb on to the roof of a house, it is considered as the harbinger of much evil, sorrow, and even death to the family; and the inmates of such houses invariably abandon them at once to avert the evil consequences.

I have known two instances in which very fine houses, built in the Kandyan style—one belonging to a very intelligent and well-informed Ratémahatmayá, the other to a Basnáyaka-Nilamé, the latter living within six miles of Kurunégala—were abandoned and eventually allowed to fall into ruins in consequence of a dog having been discovered on the roof.

As one is about to start on a journey or commence any undertaking, a dog flapping its ears is also proverbially known as ominous of bad luck.

It is said that a dog belonging to a member of the household of the last Kandyan King, located near the store rooms of the Daładá Máligáwa, on one occasion got into the Pattirip-puwa (the octagon), and that the Royal astrologers regarded this as an evil omen that would bring ruin upon His Majesty and his possessions ere long. Strange as the coincidence may be, before the expiration of three months the King, hearing of
the approach to Kandy of the British troops, had to abandon his throne and kingdom and betake himself to the jungles, where he was captured with his wives, and subsequently transported.

This belief in omens being identified with domestic life and shared alike by the high and low, is deeply rooted in the native mind, and although the benefits of education and civilization are (aided by the strenuous efforts of the Missionaries) enlightening the masses, it will be long before these superstitions cease to exercise powerful influence over the every-day life of the Sinhalese."

* "They are very superstitious in making observations of any little accidents as Omens portending good to them or evil. Sneeze they reckon to import evil. So that if any chance to sneeze when he is going about his business, he will stop, accounting he shall have ill success if he proceeds. And none may sneeze, cough, nor spit in the King's presence, either because of the ill-boding of those actions, or the rudeness of them, or both. There is a little creature much like a lizard which they look upon altogether as a prophet, whatsoever work or business they are going about; if he cries, they will cease for a space, reckoning that he tells them there is a bad planet rules at that instant. They take great notice in a morning at their first going out, who first appears in their sight: and if they see a white man, or a big-bellied woman, they hold it fortunate: and to see any decrepit or deformed people as unfortunate." (Knox, "An Historical Relation of Ceylon, &c.," p. 64, London, 1681. See too, Selkirk's "Recollections of Ceylon," pp. 402-3, 1844, and Archæological Notes (Folk-lore, omens, &c.) by M. J. Walhouse in Ind. Ant., Vol. V., p. 21, 1876.)—Horn. Soc.
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ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

CEYLON BRANCH.

NIRVĀṆA.

BY PROF. M. M. Künte.

The sources of information.—A position stated.—Summary of the differences between the Buddhists and the Védists.—The platforms of the polities of exclusion and absorption or the Védic and the Buddhistic politics.—The cardinal principle of Yóga and the cardinal doctrine of Gautama Buddha.—The Naimisyaka forest and its ascetics.—The Jainas or conservative rationalists.—The philosophical philus.—The radical rationalists or Buddhists.—The Buddhistic method.—Its results.—The determining causes of the Buddhistic stand-point stated.—The ground-basis of Buddhism or A'riya Sácha and the Indian system of Yógo.—Buddhistic attitude towards the Védic, Védántic and Jaina systems.—Upádi-sésa-Nibbāna.—Anupádi-sésa-Nibbāna.—Perfect Nirvāṇa stated.—Conclusion.

I. The sources of information cannot be too carefully and critically investigated, sifted, analyzed, and tabulated. The feeling of Nirvāṇa is hinted at in the Upanishad literature.* It is frequently mentioned in the Brāhmanic Purāṇas.† In the

* See for instance the Upanishad (Muniḍaka III. 2, 6.) where the commentator explains Nirvāṇa.
† See the Bhágavat Purāṇa, Vīśnū Purāṇa.
Tantra literature it occurs as a concrete fossilised ceremony* In the Bhāgavat Gītā, the scriptures of all the sects of the Hindūs, Nirvāṇa is the predominant aspiration†; it is cherished by the present generation of the pious Hindūs; it is a prominent idea in their sacred music.‡

There are two schools of Jainas—the Digambara and Śvetāmbara; both propound a view of Nirvāṇa. The ground-basis of their theology and metaphysics is the same as that of the Buddhists.§ But they do not carry their doctrines to all their consequences. Rationalistic in their feeling and aspiration, they are to a certain extent conservative in their practices and customs. Their literature‖ is extensive, intricate, and varied—a literature which throws a great deal of light upon the subject of Nirvāṇa.

Nirvāṇa is a central doctrine of Buddhistic theology and metaphysics. The Buddhistic literature of Nēpāla, the Tibetan Buddhistic literature, the Burmah Buddhistic literature, the Chinese Buddhistic literature, the Ceylon Buddhistic literature—all these have been opened up to scholars by Brian Hodgson, by Cosmo Körös, by Bigandet, by Beal and by Hardy.

Indian Buddhism, though extinct as a living system, is still important on account of the writings of the different Āchāryas of the different schools. The dicta uttered by the Yōgā-chāryas, the Sontrantikas the Vaibhāsikas, and the

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* In the Agni Purāṇa this ceremony is described because it is an attempt at an Encyclopaedia of the Brāhmaṇic science, history and philosophy.
† See (V. 25. and VI. 15.) of the Bhāgavat Gītā.
‡ See an Abhanga of Tukāram—Nirvāṇichā eka Pāṇḍuranga. See the Prabodha Chandrodaya which describes the doings of Chatainya of Bengal.
§ The Jainas recognize karma or eternal activity as the Baudhāyas do.
They discard the notion of god and sacrifice as the Baudhāyas do. They believe in the eternity of religious truth which they state is revealed from time to time as the Baudhāyas do. They uphold the doctrine of metempsychosis as the Baudhāyas do. Both maintain pain to be positive.
‖ There are large Jaina libraries in Ahmadābād, and in some towns of the Karnatic.
Madhyamikas are found scattered in the polemical literature of the Brähmaṇas, such as the writings of Kumārila Bhaṭṭa.*

Though the researches of eminent scholars have accomplished much in elucidating the subject of Buddhistic Nirvāṇa, yet the water sheds of Brähmaṇic, Jaina, and Buddhistic literature are not reached and investigated. What is known is, however, sufficient to show the series of transformations the doctrine of Nirvāṇa has passed through between 1,000 B. C. (the time of the Upanishad literature), and 1,200 A. D. (the time of Brähmaṇic and Jaina revival.)

II. A position stated.—A doctrine like that of Nirvāṇa, accepted and acted upon by the masses of people in different countries of the world, is not a mere accident; it is a growth determined by the environment of those who maintain the doctrine—an environment involving historical conditions and circumstances, and originating in a many-sided revolution. Buddhism is a popular revolt against the exclusive A’ryan conquerors. It is a rebellion of the proleteriat against the upper classes. It is the polity of absorption determined to upset the polity of exclusion. It is the masses (Saṅgha) in opposition to the upper classes (Udgha). It is a socialistic movement against the hereditary aristocracy of ancient India and its prior rights. The sequel will elucidate and support this view of Nirvāṇa.

III. Summary of the differences between the Buddhists and Védists.—There were conservative and liberal A’ryas†; the former attempted to exclude half-castes from their schools; the latter encouraged them to learn and gave them instruction‡. The Saṅgha or a class—consisting of the A’ryanized non-A’ryas, half-castes and degenerated A’ryas—was distinguished from the higher classes or genuine A’ryas§. The leaders of the Saṅgha gradually grew in intelligence and pressed forward, claiming

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* See Mādhava Sāvana’s Sarva Dārśana Saṅgṛaha, which offers a summary of their doctrines.
† The Pūrva Mīmāṃsā (VI. 1, 26, 27.)
‡ Chāṇḍogya Upanishad (IV. 4, 1.)
§ Pāṇini’s Sūtras (III. 3, 56.)
admission into the Aryan polity. The Nishâds* declared that they could perform sacrifices as the Aryanas did. Sacrifice was the soul of all Aryan thought, feeling and activity; and none but the genuine Aryanas could perform it.† The learned Aryanas either favoured or opposed the Nishâds; there were thus philo-Nishâds and anti-Nishâds. The conservative Aryanas restricted or sought to restrict the rights of women,‡ declaring that they could not possess property of their own, that they could not learn in schools, that they could not live independently of the joint-family. The Aryan laws bore hard on the non-Aryanas, and on the half-castes§; even a distinctive costume was prescribed.||

Impressed with the conviction that the Aryan gods were powerful and prompt in granting prayers, and that Aryan institutions conferred superiority and contributed to comforts of this life, the Saṅgha naturally desired to adopt the forms and modes of Aryan worship, to live as the Aryanas lived, and to enjoy themselves as the Aryanas did.¶ They were systematically suppressed; and the Saṅgha was agitated. Vexed and alienated by the superciliousness of Brâhmaṇa priests, the Kshatriyas dissented, and condemned the Vedic polity of exclusion.**

Some of the Vaisyas necessarily sympathised with the Kshatriya princes.†† The Saṅgha persisted in asserting their rights, but failed in securing them. The conflict between the genuine Aryanas and the Saṅgha terminated in a revolution. Buddhism came.

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* The Pûrva Māṁṣā (VI. 1. 51.) and the Kāliya Shronita Sūtra (I. 1, 12.)
† The Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (I. 2, 1, 26.)
‡ The Pûrva Māṁṣā (VI. 1. 6 and 8.)
§ The Upakriṣṭa and the Rathakāra.
|| The costumes of the Brâhmaṇas and Kshatriyas are definitely described. They could not assume this.
¶ See the Prasiddhi-ṛṣṭi or the ceremony of an Aryan girl being out: “Indra grants us wealth and breaks the spells of Dasius” is the burden of Vedic hymns.
** The lives of such Kshatriyas as Janaka. The interminable war between the Brāhmaṇas and the Kshatriyas.
†† The Jainas in India are mostly Vaisyas.
IV. The platforms of the polities of exclusion and absorption or the Védic and Buddhistic polities.—The doctrine of worldliness was systematized. It was distinctly stated that the duties of man—or rather A’ryan man—were to live in happiness here and hereafter;* but perfect liberty to do as one pleased was not sanctioned. The Véda was recognised as a code† of ethical, social, and political conduct—the eternal Védas.‡ Truthfulness as among the A’ryas themselves was recognized as a binding and paramount duty.§ Worldly happiness was identified with heaven; and worldly happiness in its variety could be secured, they believed, by performing duly their sacrifices in conformity with the Véda.|| Gods like Indra or Mitra favoured their exclusive privileges, and it was a special privilege of the A’ryas to lord it over the whole world and specially over the non-A’ryas.¶ The reformers made a new departure: they condemned worldliness, and opposed to it spirituality: ** they condemned exclusion and opposed to it universal benevolence: they condemned sacrifice and its arrogant superiority and opposed to it spiritual contrition of the heart: they condemned caste and opposed to it universal brotherhood: the schools were opened to all who sought instruction. A distinction was made between individuality, local in its grasp and earthly in its aspirations, and universality, disclosing transcending views, and inspiring by its deep spirituality. This is the first view of Nirvána—a condition of positive spiritual bliss as distinguished from worldly happiness or temporal power or secular privileges. The Védic sacrifice pre-supposed worldly prosperity and encouraged secularity.†† The Védic A’rya sought happiness by acting on external nature and his surroundings. The reformer or the A’rya of the

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* The Púrva Mímáṃsá (VI. 1, 1, 3.)
† Id. (1. 1, 2.)
‡ Id. See the discussion in (I.)
§ This is inculcated or was interpreted from Tai. S. (II. 5, 5, 6.)
|| The Púrva Mímáṃsá system.
¶ See the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (IV. 3. and VII. 29.)
** The Upanishads teem with utterances in support of these statements.
†† The Púrva Mímáṃsá (VI. 1, 10.)
Upanishads sought spiritual bliss by controlling his passions, and checking his aspirations.* The one felt that bliss, repose, or tranquility was out in the objects he sought—it was objective: the A'cháryá of the Upanishad period felt that tranquility was in himself—it was subjective. The first is systematized in the Púrva Mímáṃsá philosophy: the last in the Yóga doctrine.

V. The cardinal principle of Yóga and the cardinal doctrine of Gautama Buddha.—"Oh! man, control thyself" was the principle which Buddha emphatically propounded and inculcated on his followers.† The Yóga starts and ends with this same statement. ‡ Nibbuti is thus opposed to Pabatti: attachment to life and its pleasures was opposed to asceticism. This is the first view of Nirvána—the view of moderate reforming A'cháryas who, still revering the Védic polity, aspired beyond it. Their utterances seek to reconcile sacrifices with spirituality, exclusion with absorption. Influenced by the narrowminded, but glorious, past, they rose superior to themselves, and, ascetically disposed and spiritually moved, looked into a future of universal benevolence.§

VI. The Naimisya forest and its ascetics.—Either prevented from living in towns or determined to enjoy his ecstatic trance in the solitude of the wilds, the Kshatriya philosopher or the Sudra, fired with spiritual aspirations, retired into the Naimisya forest, and passed his life there, meditating on the essence of all he saw in external nature or of all he felt within himself. He characterized this conduct as Departure or Pravrajyá. He earnestly sought the noumenon which underlies and constitutes all phenomena or tatva. Various were the conjectures of such philosophers and ascetics. Some fixed upon air || as

* The Brihat Áraṇyaka Upanishad.
† ‡ Compare Vifñāṇassā Nirodhena etth' etam uparajjhadi—a dictum of Buddha Gautama and Yogastu Chitta-Vrītti-Nirodham—the Yóga Sátra (I. 2.)
§ This is the spirit of the Upanishad literature. The distinction between Prána and Apará Vidyá deserves attention (Máṇḍ. I. I. 5.) See again the Mándaka Upanishad (I. 2. 2.)
|| Samvarga Vidyá Chhándogya Upanishad (IV. 3, 1.)
the essence of all existence: others resolved matter and mind into light. Some analyzed life, its conditions and circumstances into a spirit in which they lived and moved: others referred their life and its phenomena to spiritual or meditational warmth. Whatever any of these thinkers' fixed upon as the ultimate analytical unit or essence, they all agreed in condemning the Védic polity which sanctioned animal sacrifices, and inculcated that worldliness itself was the last goal of all human aspirations. Ahiṣṣa (recognition of all animal life being sacred) was the cardinal point of their belief; but they did not in a wholesale manner condemn the past. The Védic polity with its devotion to caste, to sacrifice, and to the prior rights which they secured was adjudged to be inferior to the new philosophy,* the result of the new departure taken by these reforms. If sacrifice deserved attention and recognition, it deserved attention, because it led to contemplation of the essence of all intellectual, moral and physical phenomena.† A systematic attempt was made to interpret anew the utterances of the Rishis known as Mantra, and many Mantras were spiritualized away: worldliness was interpreted into spirituality. Women were freely taught: Gargi and Maitreyi discoursed on metaphysical subjects with their distinguished husband Yajnañalkya. Young men of doubtful birth were initiated into the mysteries of the new philosophy. Thus the land-marks of the Védic polity were washed off. Aspiration after a new philosophy, earnest spirituality, a spirit of adjustment, new interpretation, a liberality of spirit with which caste and all prior rights were incompatible, distinguished these reformers. Nirváṇa at this time signified identity and absorption into the unlocalized, universal, subtle essence which pervades all phenomena. A teacher points this out to a pupil:— "That thou art, Somija ‡, that spirit which moves the air, from whose fear the sun regularly shines, and to which death itself is obedient." § Attached to the Védic polity,

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* Distinction between Pāra and Aparā Vidvā (Múnd. 1, 1, 5.)
† Aúhá Daivam &c. See Chándogya (IV. 3, 2.)
‡ Tattvamasi. See id. (VI. 8. 7.)
§ Bhūṣo-deteti Súrayah ** Mrityus Dhávati Panchamah. See the Bráhma Vidá Upanishad (VIII.)
and venerating it, these reformers did not violently denounce it. A modesty* which earnest enquiry generates, and a love of truth† which results from spiritual emancipation, characterized the period. The Brahmavādins or Védic teachers often explained a four-fold salvation,—(i) dwelling in the same place with a god like Indra,—(ii) dwelling near him,—(iii) obtaining his dignity and form,—(iv) identity with him. ‡ The last was only materially understood by the Védic teachers. These reformers or ascetics gave a spiritual interpretation to it and insisted upon final absorption into the spiritual essence as emancipation or salvation. This is the back-ground of Buddhistic Nirvāṇa.

VII. The Jainas or conservative rationalists.—The Jainas divided into two classes—the Svētambara and the Digambara, or those wearing white clothes and those who go about naked—are to be found in all parts of India. There are about 2,000 of them in the city of Ahmadābād alone in Gujarāt. In this place I cannot discuss the chronology of the Jaina movement, and state the grounds of my belief that the Jainas preceded the Buddhists. The position of the Upanishad reformer was formulated and pressed on the attention of the Védic A’ryas. The conservative sacrificing A’ryas attempted coercion. Anathemas were pronounced: prayers, offered. The reformers, aspiring after deep spirituality and communion with the all-pervading spirit, were stigmatized as lethargic and their doctrine was declared to be “the path of inactivity.” The sacrificing A’rya publicly prayed:—“Oh! let my lethargy, or rather my tendency to (moral) sleep, depart to the natives of Vidheea or to contemplative inactive men.§ In the Mahābhārata the condition of society is feelingly depicted. Bhīshma despondingly observes:—“None knows what the truth is. To advance their own interests, selfish men preach to the people what they please.”|| The Vaiśyas, little accustomed to think for themselves and disposed

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* See the story of Nachiketas. See Katha Vallī Upanishad.
† Śatya Vakṣi Jūhālah. See Chhândogya Upanishad (IV. 4.)
§ See the Aṅyādāhāna Prayōga.
|| See the Śānti Parva—the story of a vulture and a jackal.
to respect both the Bráhmana and the Kshatriya, were puzzled by their controversies, and could not understand the conflicting statements made by the orthodox Ārya, or by the secularist* or by the Upanishad reformer. They, therefore, fell victims to scepticism. Their leaders stigmatized their views and stated their grounds. The logic of scepticism † was thus developed and it would be elucidated by a contrast between the views of the Upanishad reformer and those of the Jaina. The one merely adjusted the importance of a sacrifice and connived at the slaughter of animals: the other was fired by enthusiasm of life—he strongly condemned the slaughter of any animal for any purpose. To the one Védic lore, though a dispensation old and inferior, yet was important as the means of his superior wisdom: the other discarded all notion of revelation. The one believed that an abstract essence—a generality, was real, eternal, and could be cognized: the other declared that a generality was only a kind of knowledge, and its notion was derived from the knowledge of particular facts. The one aspired after absorption into the eternal, all-pervading essence: the other aspired after maintaining his individuality ‡ through eternity. The one believed that all phenomena are only transient and are ultimately to be resolved into Brahma: the other believed that they are real and eternally abide. The one thought that the universe is either created by or emanated from the Supreme Person: the other discarded all notion of a personal creator. The one was definite in his statements and had resort to the utterances of the Rishis and attempted to interpret them anew to support his views: the other more or less hesitated, but declared that virtue eternally abideth, and that it is revealable by eminent teachers.

* Loukáyatika or Chárváka as popularly known.
† This is called Syád váda. It states:—Perhaps a thing is—perhaps it is not. Perhaps in sequence of time it is and it is not. Perhaps at once it is and it is not, this cannot be stated. Perhaps it is and cannot be stated—perhaps it is not, and cannot be stated. Perhaps in sequence of time it is, and it is not, and cannot be at once stated.
‡ This view that every individual object has a spirit is met with in the Zendavesta in its chapter on Parohars.
Equally repelled by the Védic polity, the reformer and the Jaina rose superior to mere materialism of the Brahmavádins, and sympathised with higher spiritual aspirations and virtue as distinguished from mere ritualism. Philosophically sceptic, the Jaina was practically conservative; rationalistic in his method and aspirations, he adhered to his caste and believed in the philosophy of metempsychosis which the Védic thinkers had developed. The reformer and the Jaina condemned this life as a perpetual source of pain and misery and aspired after emancipation or Nivritti, consisting in the eternal enjoyment of positive happiness and in escaping the transmigration of soul from life to life—the inevitable consequence of all activity.

VIII. The philosophical plexus.—The activity of the Jainas paved the way of the radical rationalists or Buddhists. The ground-basis of the doctrine of emancipation as propounded by the Upanishad reformer or Védántist, by the Jaina or the conservative rationalist, and by the Buddhist or radical rationalist is the same, because the same cause originated these movements—the opposition to the conquering supercilious Védic A'ryas, their sacrificial exclusiveness, their prior rights, and their all-engrossing worldliness, and materialism. The Védántist, the Jaina and the Buddhist are all world-weary, and seek the cessation of all activity, and its fruit—the transmigration of soul. Activity or Karma is a potent cause. It is eternal: it is accumulated: it adheres to the human spirit: it produces all phenomena: it abides in the peri-spirit or the semi-material body which it gathers about itself. It is either increased or decreased in one life. As soon as the body decays, and is destroyed it leaves it and takes another body. This activity or Karma is a subtle entity. It is the cause of all human suffering: so long as a particle of this activity remains, there will be to that extent human misery. Separation from it is salvation. Thus human activity, human misery, inseparable from it, and its consequence—metempsychosis, explain all phenomena of human life and of its environment. The practice of virtue, the power of contemplation to nullify the habit of belief in material and corporeal existence, and self-abnegation—these are the remedies
for escaping from the trammels of all activity. Thus the Yóga philosophy is developed—the philosophy of contemplation or Dhyāna. I cannot explain in this place its different stages, the progress made from one stage to another, the amount of self-abnegation and power over the self secured, and the knowledge or the intellectual light it generates. The material body is gradually left behind, and the Yógi lives a spirit above all worldliness, above the power of the flesh, free from all power of activity, working miracles and enjoying spiritual beatitude. Activity or rather a tendency to it is the disturbing cause—Upádhi. Until a Yógi is completely emancipated, he is in danger of getting into its meshes. Annihilation of all Upádhi is complete emancipation. Upon this ground-basis, all Védántism, Jainism, or Buddhism are built. But the Védántist seeks emancipation from all activity, and practises contemplation and self-abnegation, that the spirit encased in a material body and subject to the power of activity may re-unite with itself in its universality, and being once more unlocalized and universalized, enjoy perfect happiness. The Jaina seeks the emancipation of his individual spirit by the same means and for the same purpose; but he believes that the human spirit maintains its individuality and enjoys happiness for eternity. The Buddhist believes in the power of activity, dreads metempsychosis, practises contemplation and self-abnegation and aspires after emancipation, and yet differs from both the Védántist and Jaina materially. His notion of Nirváṇa will be elucidated by that of the Védántist or Jaina.

IX. The radical rationalist or Buddhist.—The Buddhist differed both from the Védántist and Jaina, and made a new departure. The Védántist developed into an isoteric school and moved forward on the lines of the Védic polity, aspiring after being absorbed into a noumenal essence. The Jaina believed in the individuality of the spirit, and had recourse to acts of charity and faith—a situation into which his logic of scepticism landed him. The Buddhist succeeded in organizing a national movement. His activity accomplished a moral-force revolution which subverted the Védic polity itself.
X. The Buddhistic method.—The Védic A’cháryas like A’svaláyaná, Pánini and others, had developed and stated the definition method. Jaimini and Patanjali had developed exegetical logic, stated and applied it. The Jaina had sceptically argued. The definition-method, the exegetical logic and the logic of scepticism paved the way of analytic logic which the Buddhist preferred. He was, therefore, called the analytic reasoner.* A persistent attempt at analysing, classifying, and defining knowledge was made.

XI. Its result.—The Buddhist perceived that the human will was the ultimate analytic unit beyond which he could not proceed. The will was the noumenon from which all he said, thought, and felt was developed. This was the Chitta manas, or Chétas.† The disparity of human destiny and conditions of human life were explained by the action of accumulated activity or Karma. His realistic analytical reasoning recognized the ideality of knowledge as determined by realistic activity. This will, modified and acted on by Karma or activity or merit, was the basis of which all else was a phase—a quality. But the will‡ acted on by activity invariably resulted in pain real and cognizable as such. Activity called into existence the will, and modified it. Its modifications are manifold, varied and subtle. The forms of human life and of phenomenal existence were considered to be so many phases of the human will acted on by activity and were not real. Emancipation from misery, the inseparable result of all activity acting on and modifying the will by externalizing it, was the summum bonum. The Buddhist discarded the reality and individuality of the human will and of the external noumenal essence.

* Vihajya Vádli.

† The opening lines of Dhammapada, when interpreted from this standpoint, are adequately and consistently adjusted. “Manópabba gamerma Dhamma” is a phrase which is not adequately comprehended by those who have attempted to explain it, because they have not carefully examined the antecedents of Buddhism.

‡ The Abhidhamma—the metaphysical portion of the Tipiṣaka recognizes and states Chitta, Chétasika, Rúpa, and Nibbána.
XII. *The determining causes; the Buddhist stand-point stated.*—The Védántist aspired after the eternal noumenal essence, and submitted to the Védic polity with its caste, and prior rights, though he sought to interpret the Védic code as liberally* as he could. The Jaina recognised the reality and individuality of the human spirit, the basis of his logic of scepticism. His inactivity and his conservatism, the Buddhist necessarily out grew. Absorbed in profound thought, impelled by introspection, he feelingly believed, and assiduously taught. His view of the human will and of phenomenal existence was thoroughly analytic and the stand-points of the Védántist and Jaina determined his view. The gross feeling or Káma was distinct from form, and form was distinct from the ideal existence of form but not free from action or Kriyá. Beyond this was the life of contemplation, of introspection, of deep absorption, of all freedom from externalization gross or subtle. This is the Kámávachara, the Rúpávachara, Arúpávachara, and Lókuttara, forms of life. In the last there is no action whatever, no Kriyá chittáni, but the Vişáka chittáni are playful, the Chitta or the will as acted on by itself. † To sum up, all gross and pure action and bustle ‡ in the Kámávachara life; pure for mal action, but no bustle in the Rúpávachara life,—abstract ideal action in the Arúpávachara life; but peace and inaction are the exclusive privileges of Lókuttara life.

XIII. *The ground basis of Buddhism or the A'riya-sachchas, and the Indian system of Yóga.*—(1) Dukkha sachcham, or suffering in its variety; (2) Samudaya sachcham, or all life as a development of different analytic conditions; (3) Dukkha nirodha, or suppression of all thought and feeling of suffering; and (4) final emancipation.§ Uṭṭhána (Vyutthána) or Pavatti (Pravṛitti) or gross life of mere externalization is common to

* See the Story of Jábóla in the Chhándogya Upanishad, 4.
† See the 1st Parichheda of the Abhidhammattha Sààgaha.
‡ The term Uṭṭhána (Vyutthánam in Sanskrit) characteristically expressed this. Yóga was the latter term. Pavatti (Pravṛitti in Sanskrit) is another term.
§ See the 9th Parichheda of the Abhidhammattha Sààgaha.
both Buddhism and Yóga. Both recognize that suffering (Klésha) is the inevitable destiny of humanity, a destiny intensified by the elaborate system of metempsychosis, both state that the Chitta or the heart, the intellect and will—combined and forming one unit—is constantly acted on and modified by activity, and a tendency to externalization, and this is the cause of all suffering. Both proclaim aloud that the suppression of this tendency is the means of happiness.* The means of accomplishing this suppression are identical in both, intense contemplation† which ends in producing a vision or higher knowledge. † The great point of difference is, the human will is the last unit recognized by the Buddhist, and beyond it he does not go. His notion of the human will corresponds to that of Yóga; but Yóga sees behind the human will a spirit which is essentially identical with the all pervading spirit, but which is enthralled and encased in the human body. This is the Védántist view. The Jaina rejected it and declared the independent individuality of the human spirit, ever independent and ever existing by itself. The Buddhist rejected both as noncognizable by his intense and profound introspection. He knew he saw (Rúpa); he knew he perceived (Védaná); he knew he reflected (Saññá); he knew his mind was acted on by itself, and its activities, and that which its merits and demerits attached to it (Sankhára); he knew he rose superior to all this, and absorbed in contemplation, realised a tranquility and a profoundity of feeling (Viññána). Beyond this, § in the realm of infinity of knowledge or intellecction, he lives, preparing for entering the stream of the great paths. When in this condition, he is above all

* Notice and compare the following—Yogachitta Vritti Niradhah—the second Sutra of the Yóga Philosophy. (explained in my “Studies in Indian Philosophy.”) and the utterance of Buddha Gotama, “etassa nirodhanā idha' etam nirujñhati.”

† Samádhi or Jhána. The Buddhist has elaborated this by his analytic reasoning. The Yóga simply states it.

‡ Compare Samápatti in both, and the Ńaga Dassana Sámañña phala, Vipassaná Dibbacakkhu of the Buddhist with Ritambhara Prajñá of the Yógi.

§ A’kásanáññácháyatana; Viññánaññácháyatana; A’kíñccháñasñácháyatana; Nevasáñaññasñácháyatana.
form: he is conversant with nothing but abstract knowledge; his will is, however, affected and works. His five-fold combination falls to pieces and ceases to exist when he enters the four paths. His intense contemplation and introspection failed him when he attempted to soar higher than this. Nor did he see the necessity of going beyond this. The tendency to externalization inseparable from the will so liable to be affected by external and internal influences, being destroyed, that on which Kamma can act, is destroyed. If nothing beyond the Chitta or the human will or heart in its five Skandhas existed or could be realised, then nothing in the form of noumenal essence would be thought of. The Buddhist began with introspection and ended with it.

XIV. Buddhistic attitude towards the Védic, Védántist, and Jaina systems.—He hates the Védic polity, its pantheon, its heirarchy, its exclusiveness, and its prior rights. To him the Védántist goes only half the way, and the Jaina is wrong, and is not able to contemplate and introspect. The Védic polity recognizes the independent eternal individuality of the human spirit. It is the basis of the Púrva Mímánsá philosophy. Onḍulomi had stated it long before Jaimini. The Jaina follows the Védic polity in this, but the Buddhist rejects it as likely to land him in all the absurdities of ritualism and caste as he conceives it. The Védántist recognised eternal noumenal essence consisting in eternal existence joined to intelligence and happiness.† When introspection unlocalized and universalized his inner self or the Chitta, he found himself plunged in a nothingness immeasurably expanding on all sides, transcending all thought, and growing into an infinitude of space and eternity.

XV. Upádhiśeda Nibbána.—The peri-spirit comes into existence, energises and externalises so long as a tendency to Karma exists. The tendency is annihilated when all desire is vanquished, when a Buddhist has risen superior to the flesh.

* Mark the Vipákachitta and Kriyáchitta as explained in the Abhidhamma.
† Sachchidánanda. This is the watch-word of all schools of Védántists; it is based on utterances in the Upanishads.
When in this condition a Buddhist is Jīvan Mukta, one who is emancipated while living, he is Bhāvit Ātman, one who is unlocalized and universalized. He has yet, however, to live for some time and his accumulated activity is to be consumed by dint of mere living. When the accumulated activity is thus exhausted, he is completely emancipated when he dies, i.e., when his peri-spirit (the Pāñchaskandhas) fall to pieces, and when it can no longer act. The first condition is characterised as Upādīsēsa Nibbāṇam. A Buddhist is an Arhat. He is in the fourth Rath. He is a perfect Yōgi. He can perform miracles. He lives in a condition of beatitude. He lives on the earth merely to live out his last portion of earthly existence. The last condition—the condition of an Arhat after his death—is characterised as Anupādīsēsa Nibbāṇam. The Yōga system of Indian philosophy throws a flood of light on this view of Nibbāna. A perfect Yōgi ecstatically declares he has only to pass a few days of his last earthly existence in sportiveness. “Emancipation is my wedded spouse.”

XVI. Anupādīsēsa Nibbāna.—Perfect Nibbāna is characterised in the following way by the Buddhists:—“A condition (Padam) permanent (Achchutam), infinite (Achchautam), unconditioned (Asankhatam), highest (Anuttaram)—Nibbāna this say the great sages (Mahesayo) who are delivered from all desire (Vānamuktā).”† I attach some importance to the term Viharati ‡ “lives in sportiveness” used in the Mahānibbāna Sutta. “Again a Yōgi free from desire, from the sight of existence, sees the Sankhāra as nihil; (sees) the Skandhāyatana, and Dhātavat as nihil (both) spiritually and materially; sees (all) realities distinctly as infinite (Anālaya) and known by the properties of ether (A’kāśa) and of the law of Dharma.”§ “Emancipation is the result of the extinction of all desire, the consequence of thought and feeling.” || I have

* See the Abhangas of Tukārama.
† See the 6th Parichcheda of the Abhidhammāṭṭhā Sangaha.
‡ See page 30 of Childers’ edition.
§ See the Lalita Vistāra Chap. XIII.
|| This statement is made by Madhav Sāyana, a scholiast and an authority in Indian Philosophy. See his Sarva Dārsana Sangraha—Bauddha Dārsana.
thus brought together the views of Indian and Ceylonese Buddhists, and attempted to throw a side-light upon it from Sanskrit literature.

XVII. *Perfect Nirvāṇa stated.*—It is a negation of all that man, thinks, feels, and wills. So far it is nihilism. It is a negation of all suffering which results from thought, feeling and volition. So far it is nihilism. But suffering according to a Buddhist, a Jaina, or a Védántist is a positive entity. Happiness he does not recognize as positive. Suffering (Dukkha) is positive and results from localized existence. Both localized existence and suffering are destroyed together. When this is accomplished, unlocalized universalization is emancipation, co-extensive with happiness itself. Suffering is the inevitable result of all localization: happiness—of all universalization. Hence Nirvāṇa is both negative and positive. It is not nihilism. Nirvāṇa is beyond all localization. This is what all the Buddhists state. Reasoning on the basis of introspection alone, and observing the facts as they develope in the inner man, they stated that there are different degrees of localization. Infinity itself, as conceived by man, is localized. Eternity as conceived by man is localized. Hence persistent efforts were made by Buddhists so to soar in contemplation as to rise higher than all conception itself, as to leave behind all thought, feeling, and volition. In the Kāmāvachara all is gross, material, involved in a multiplicity of all that is "frail and feverish;" above it is the Rūpāvachara, the region of Gods and Divinities. Form is localized, and what is grosser and more material than form is dropped. Beyond the Rūpāvachara is the Arūpāvachara in which form itself is dropped, i.e., left behind. Infinity, eternity, is contemplated. But being the subject of contemplation, it is localized. In the four paths all this is left behind, and all tendency to localization is checked, i.e., destroyed. Existence—substance—that which is the nameless, the formless, the eternal, the infinite, the permanent, the unconditioned has a tendency to be localized. This tendency to be localized is what is called activity or Karma. It is strengthened as it is indulged. The tendency localizes the universal and Panchaskandhas result.
Then there is immediately thought, feeling and volition which are inseparable from suffering. Buddhism does not attempt to state the properties or attributes of the unlocalized—the eternal—because no matter how carefully a statement is made, the fact of statement will localize it. It is, therefore, beyond all statement. It is enough to say—it is Nirvāṇa.

XVIII. Conclusion.—Buddhism is an interesting study, scientifically, philosophically, religiously, socially, and politically. Scientifically, because science seeks the unification of force and the elements which embody all force; philosophically, because Buddhism discovers to what the psychological method of introspection leads; religiously, because when there are so many Buddhists in the world, not believing in a personal God and not yearning to worship Him the fact of religious instincts of man calls for re-examination and re-statement; socially, because it ignores all ritualism, ceremonies, and social life in its amplitude and minutude, in its materialism and its subtility of love, and ambition; and politically, because the convent of the Buddhists subverted the Védic polity of caste; sacrifice and prior rights, and justified the aspirations of a proleteriat and placed them on a legitimate basis for the first time in the history of man.
TWO SIṆHALESE INSCRIPTIONS.

By B. GUṆASEKARA.

No. 1.

AT THE RUWANWELEI DAGABA.

The translator has not had an opportunity of seeing this Inscription. The translation is made from a photograph* taken by Capt. Hogg, R.E., for the Ceylon Government.

With regard to the language it may be remarked that, with a few exceptions, it differs little from the modern, but the change is greater in the letters themselves. The translator would propose some new readings of the text and correct a few orthographical errors, noticing words which are rare, or nearly obsolete, in modern SiṆhalese.

The Queen Līlāvatī referred to in the Inscription, was the wife of Kīrti Nissāpka of the Kālinga dynasty. According to the Mahāvaṁsa, she ascended the throne in the year 1753 of the Buddhist era, which corresponds with 1210 A.D., and reigned six years. She patronised Buddhism and caused two Vihāra to be built, one at Parnasālaka, the site of the Lāṅkātīlaka Vihāra, and the other at Wēligama.

INSRIPTION.

* No. 104. Pavement slab, 14·0 × 8·7, in front of S. Altar of the Ruwanweleigha Dagaba.

a अभिविरोधस्तु b विषयबलस्तु c अभिविरोधस्तु

d विषयबलस्तु e तत्र f विषयबलस्तु.
transcript.

Abhayasalamewan Kalvañawati suwamínwahansetha¹ dewamu Eṣala pura ekoloswak .. da .. ya² nakatin Siri Saṅga Bō Purakkrama Bálu³ | chakkravarti suwamínwánse⁴ ētułuwu rajadaruwangé bhaṇḍāra paripalanayakoṭa ratnatrayehi adhikapprásāda⁵ eti

¹ dewamu
² nakatin
³ Purakkrama Bálu
⁴ chakkravarti
⁵ adhikapprásāda
शर्द्धा 6 बुद्धि गुणे | न समवित 7 राज्यप्रसादा 8 रासिन 9 विराजमानावु भाण्डारपोटे पिरिवटुबिम विजयानावान हा मेकुगेअमदु 10 सुमे | धादेविन हा मेकुंगेबेन लाङ्का अधिकारा कोटदानावु 11 देवाल्नावान 12 हा ठें 13 देनलादा अगमाधारानोक 14 | पाशिता 15 वरायांगन रुवाम्मेली 16 सुवामिन्ता 17 दु-तुगेमुणु राज्युरुवान अधिवृ नोक | राजदारुवान विसिन करानलादा पुजाण विशेषासा प्रासा दरावसावेबु आनु हा आधाराना 18 पुजाज्ञविशेषयाक कालंमचेवैयमा निलाविडाह्वातः तातदा तातिया आलका माणमाणी चायिया प्रतिभमयबु ये विशेषकोटे सराहामा पश्यालके | 19 माणातलुकी सोलरमाति | 20 ला अंदावा गंडला पुष्पा सुगंधाधीपयें विचित्रकोटे 21 पांने आ | ते (?) धाहा पाताका कादली तोराना-दिन विवभिका सराहामा आका वरगाये काना देयिन हा क्षेत्रपयासा | येन हा महोघयक से पाल्मुवुना मालुवे निरन्तरायणसतियक पुजाय कोटे कपुरु पदेसाक मा | कलंदिन 22 पाटा तुन पाना 23 पिया वार्डें मैयै रियाने रियाने कबलवलेकपुरु पन पुडा 25 ए | गे संतुवु नोकसे | 26 प्रादिपा पुजाय का कारवामा नोक करमकांता काला मेहे काला | वुन्ता अता गलेखमु मुनु हा रान पील हा आम्बुवान्तादा हांडाना पील थै उनु 27 सात्तू कारवामा | विहारकश्वैके 28 थी लियांनावुन सामारुवान 29 वांवाकुवारुन बमुणान प्रसाकुन 30 सितारू | नातानन गियायनन बेरा गासानन सकुन दुरायन पाण्याधयन 31 पदेन से 32 पाने 33 नाहाना 34 गव | नुन 35 दा माले बेलु मंगुल मियंदियान 36 मालाकारण ओसायागुवान्ताना...ना (?) प्रासादयन रानिसा | तुतु कारवामा रुवामा मे | मालुवेदिमे थु-पवान्ता असा धर्ममकाठिकान्ता सूदसु पुजाकोटा | थुपारामा 38 सुवामिनत श्री माहा बोधिपिवानहांतेत कपुरु पहान पताका पुजाय अधिवृ नोक | पुजाय कारवाय सत के णेहि तेरावरुवानहाने प्राद्धानकोटे वस्नेता 39 माहादामा हि सिवु | रु पील थै ने नोन्ने सीयालु प्रत्यान्ता 40 पिन पेट 41 डेवा मे पुजाय एसु माहा जानायाता दा तमाता 42 दा | बाहुला प्रिति उपाधवामा काला पुजा..... 43

**TRANSLATION.**

**Bhanḍārapotē Piriwatubim Wijayānāwan**, who carefully guarded the treasures of the Imperial Lord Siri Sanga Bō Purakkrama Bālu and other princes—who was highly pleased with the three gems—was endowed with faith and a clear
intellect, and was illumined with the rays of royal favour—
(this personage) together with his mother Śūmedhādēyi and
his nephew who held the offices of Adikārama of Lānkā and
Principal of the Koṭadana temple, having learned from many
paṇḍits who were conversant with Buddhist literature and had
offices conferred on them, what kind of offerings had been
made to the venerable Ruwanmēli (Dāgaba) by Duṭugemunu
and many other princes, were transported with joy, and having
resolved to make a grand offering superior to the offerings of
others, encased (the dāgaba) beautifully with about 8,880 cloths of
various sorts: highly decorated it so as to look like the reflected
image of a crown-jewel monument: caused mortar (prepared)
from five yālas of good rice to be applied thereto: made it lovely
with odoriferous flowers, scents, and lamps: adorned the streets
with....., flags, banners, plantain-trees, triumphal arches, &c.: made
on the first terrace offerings of various eatables and lumps
of milk-rice constantly (pouring in) like a great flood during
a week: honored it by lighting with 2,000 kandalas of camphor
many thousands of lamps, inclusive of festoons of lamps and
lamps of earthen vessels placed at intervals of one cubit on the
third floral altar in the lower part of the dāgaba: made
presents of rings for the fingers set with stones, and of golden
apparel for the different kinds of workmen and labourers: gave
garments to their wives and rejoiced their hearts: and pleased
with (gifts of) gold the writers, the overseers, the appraisers of
property, Brahmins, cooks, painters, dancers, singers, tom-tom
beaters, conch-blowers, players on the five kinds of musical
instruments,? persons who applied combs and unguents to the cavities (in the dāgaba), the female servants with
auspicious marks on them who took care of the terrace, florists, perfumers,...... Moreover having heard the Thūpawansa
(the history of the dāgabas) while yet on the terrace of the
Ruwanmēli Dāgaba, they made suitable offerings to the clever
preachers of Dharma, and honored the Thūpārāma and the
illustrious and venerable Bō tree with many lamps lit with
camphor, flags, &c. To the residents of the seven monastic
establishments, amongst whom the priests were the foremost,
Reading "Bandārapotu (1), piriwatu (2), Bimvijayanāwan (3) ha mekugē ambu Sumedhādevin ha mekungē ben, &c.," the translation would run thus:

"Bimvijayanāwan the younger brother of Bandārapotu (who &c. . . . . . . . . . . . . ) and his wife Sumedhādevi and their son-in-law, who . . . . . &c."

1.—Bandārapotu is perhaps the minister Bhandārapustakī, mentioned in Mahāwagso, Part 2, Chap. 72, St. 215.

2.—Piriwatu = paruvetri (Sanskrit) "a younger brother married before his elder."—Wilson.

8.—Bimvijayanāwan = Jagat (bhūmi, bim) vijayanaka. Vide Mahāwagso, Part 2, Chap. 77, St. 4.
they gave much alms, and cloths for making yellow robes, (and) imparted the merit (thus acquired) to their kinsmen, strangers, and all the different kinds of Prétas, experiencing great joy themselves, while they caused the same to the mass of the people who heard of these offerings which were made under the asterism Visà on the 11th day of the bright half of Ėsaḷa in the second year of Her Majesty Abhayasalaméwan Kalyañawatí.

Notes.

1. Read svámínuvahaneśa for svúmínuvahaneśa.
2. For ad. saṉa read lāna visa.
3. Read Purákrama Bāhu for Purákkrama Bāhu. The King here meant is Parákkrama Bāhu the Great of Polonnaruwa.
4. Read Sváminuvahaneśa for Sváminuvaneśa.
5. Adhikapprasáda,—omit the first p.
6. Read graddha for garthá.
7. Samavít = samavitsa, the more common form in modern prose.
8. Omit the first p in vásyaprasáda.
9. Reading vāsins or vāsmin for vāsins.
10. Amadu = the modern amandī; the du in amadu is a suffix used to express endearment or familiarity and is another form of the modern dē which occurs in such words as ménigandē ‘mother,’ piyánandē ‘father,’ &c.

11. Kōḍañnaru—supposed to be in Bintenna.
12. Devañnaru = Dwēländayakayu, the Principal of a Hindú Temple.
13. Ṭyũ—from śhāna ‘place’ (Páli) is now obsolete. The modern form is ṭyũ, but this, in the sense of ‘post’ or ‘office,’ is more commonly written śhānta or tanaturu.
15. Read payḍita for payḍita.
16. Rūruññeli, more commonly called Rūruññeli,—name of a celebrated Dágaba at Anurúdhapura commenced by King Duṭugomunu and completed by his brother Śvētītissa. It is now known by the name of Rankot (‘gold-pinnacle’d) Dágaba.
17. Read svámínat for svámínat.
18. Asūn hā asaddhāraṇa,—lit: ‘not common with others,’ ‘unlike others,’ i. e., ‘surpassing others.’
19. Pāla = 1,280 kuruni; 1 kuruniya being equal to 4 nēli.
20. Reading selesmaṇī for sōlausmaṇī, where seles may be derived from the Pāli sīlīsī ‘union,’ and maṇī (modern meśī) from mātthāk ‘clay,’ hence ‘adhesive clay.’
21. The s sound in kōṭe is now replaced by n.
22. Kāḷanda = 60 grains (Apothecaries’ weight.)
23. Reading τυνωάνα for τυνπάνα.
24. The Sihalese paraphrase of the Attanagaluwansa has piyavanadwa for the Pāli pippadhana which means 'a flower-receptacle' or 'floral seat.'
25. Literally: 'offerings of lamps of camphor in earthenware.'
26. Reading daahas, 'thousands' for .... s.
27. Read vn for nun.
28. Read vihddrakshāvé for vihddrakshāvé.
29. Samadarvān = adiśvarvān, 'lords,' 'masters,' or ' overseers.'
30. Pasakun—'cooks' as being derived from pachaka 'one who cooks' (P. and S.)
31. This is doubtful.
32. Puđeniyē—'the cavities between the circular rings of a dāgaba
33. Pané = modern panā 'combs': perhaps a kind of brush is meant here.
34. Nahana—(from the Pāli nāhāvān) means that which is applied, while bathing, to clean the person = the modern nānu 'unguents.'
35. Gavan = modern gānaun 'those who smear.'
36. Mungul mīgūyan, —this might also be rendered 'female servants employed on festive occasions.'
37. Rurungvēl —from Rutnamali, another form of Rurungvēl.
38. Thūpārāna—the most ancient dāgaba, built by Devānanāpiyatissa.
40. Prēṭayavāṇa—'departed spirits doomed to suffer extreme misery.'
41. Pet—from the Pāli patti 'acquisition,' 'communication to others of the merit one has acquired,' when it is more commonly written pattiiddāna.
42. Read tawanta for tamāta.
43. Reading pujārayī for pū....

No. 2.

Inscription at Pēpiliyāna.

The copy of the Inscription from which the following translation has been made, is a transcript of another copy in the possession of L. De Soyza Mahā Mudaliyār, who courteously lent it to the translator. It is to be regretted that the Mahā Mudaliyār's health prevents him from completing the translation which he undertook some years back.

With a view to test the accuracy of the copy, the translator visited the temple-premises at Pēpiliyāna, but, to his great disappointment, he found the stone in detached fragments built up into a wall, and the fragments themselves so much defaced that they could not be utilized for testing the style or spelling.
of the transcript. The translator has, therefore, taken the liberty to note and italicise what he considers clerical errors and place the proposed readings at the bottom of each page. He will feel thankful to any persons who may favor him with their remarks on the doubtful words of the text which he has noted, or suggest any better readings than those proposed by him.*

**INSCRIPTION.**

*Mr. L. de Soysa read a Paper on the Pepiljivana inscription before the Society some years ago, but it was not printed in the Journal at the time, and is now lost. The following extract from the Paper appeared in the *Ceylon Times* of June 11th, 1878:—*

"This inscription, is to be found on a rock on the site of an ancient Buddhist Temple near Köṭṭé, where from A. D. 1410 to A. D. 1542 Sihalese Kings held Court.

"No part of the ancient buildings of the Temple now remain, having been, it is said, levelled to the ground, by the Portuguese who destroyed this and other buildings in and near Köṭṭé.

"My copy of the inscription was taken from one in the possession of a Buddhist Priest who now occupies the modern Pansala built on the supposed site of the ancient Temple; and I was informed by him that his teacher's teacher obtained it some 70 or 80 years ago, from a transcript preserved in the*
Archives of the late King of Kandy. There can be no question however, as to its genuineness. I have compared it with such parts of the stone as still remain, and have found that it exactly corresponds with the stone. The style and matter too of the inscription furnish indisputable evidence of it genuineness and authenticity.

"The inscription records the erection and endowment of a Buddhist Temple in memory of his deceased mother Sunētra Mahā Dēvi, by King Śrī Parākrama Bāhu VI., who reigned at Kōṭṭe (according to Turnour) from A. D. 1410 to 1462. It also contains a variety of provisions for the due maintenance of the temple: for the expenditure of its income: and regulations for the observance of the clerical and lay members of the establishment.

"The style of the inscription is similar to that of other writings of the 14th or 15th centuries; and Mr. Alwis has published in his Introduction to the Śidat Sangarā, the introductory paragraph of the inscription as a specimen of the prose of that age. The construction of the sentences, however, is very peculiar. The whole of the inscription, which is a very long one, is conglomerated, as it were, into one sentence by means of conjunctive particles and participles, having apparently only one finite verb expressed. The words in general are those in modern use, with a very few exceptions which I have noticed in the notes.
The date assigned to the King's accession is stated to have taken place in the year of Buddha 1958 (A.D. 1415), whereas Turnour in his adjustment of Siamese Chronology, computed from native records, has fixed the date at 1953 (A.D. 1410) five years earlier. The authority of the stone however, cannot be disputed, and it is in a remarkable manner confirmed by the well known contemporary poem Kādayāsākhara, the author of which was the most learned monk of the age, and, according to tradition, the King's adopted son.

The regulations enacted for the management of the Temple establishment and for the distribution of its income are also very curious, and throw considerable light on the manners, customs, and social condition of the Island at the period in question. It shows that the form of Siamese letters now in use have not undergone any material change, during, at least, the last five or six hundred years, with the exception of a few.

It is believed by many that the worship of Hindū Gods, and the practice of Hindū rites and ceremonies, were introduced into Ceylon by the last Malabar King who obtained the throne of Kandy, after the extinction of the Siamese Royal Family about the year A.D. 1730; but it would appear from the inscription that the innovation is of much earlier date. The King it is well-known was an eminent patron of Buddhism, having built four Dēvālas in connection with the Vihārā."—Hon. Sec.
No. 25—1882.] TWO SINHALESE INSCRIPTIONS.

[Text in Sinhalese script]
mm
nn
oo
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qq
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ss
uu
Two Sinhalese Inscriptions.
Sri Lankanathapiti Parakramabahu's sūryyānvayālaṇkṛiti
Ryāchehambhayato vachasṛṣṭuṣa ṯc bhūṃiśvarā bhāwinaḥ
Dharmmayaṭ sadṛṣaḥ samasta jagatāḥ satyaḥ bhavabhīḍh sadā
Saurakṣiyo 1 saumayi jāta harshakripayā punyan 2 tathā bhujyatāḥ
Sri Lankanathapiti Parakramabhujo rāja vībhārottamaḥ
Swaprasavābhya 3 makārayajagadi 4 yantrāṇāya tasyādhumā.

Sri Buddha varshayen ek dahas nava siya aṭa panas
avuruddak pirunu sanda siri Laka raja pėmini Mahāsammata
paramparānuyāṭa sūryavāngśābhijātā 5 mahā rājādhiraṇā Śrī
Saṅgha Bodhi Śrī Parākrama Bāhu Chakrawartti Swāmīnrahan-
seṭā 6 ekumsālis wann mēndindina pura pasaloswakā Jayawardha-
napura pravarayehi sumāṅgala 7 prasādabhimukha chitra maṇḍapa-
yehi 8 sīṃhasanayehi siri nives saha oṭunu siv seṭa 9 baranin
sėdi rajāyuvaraja ematigana pīrīvarā devendraṭiḷāwen wēdāhinda
ḥema tenhi 10 kalāmanā kaṭayukta 11 vyavasthā vadarāṇa tēna
swargasthawu mawubisawun wahanshaṭa pīn pinisa abhinava
wihārayak karawanalesata rāṇivāsala kāriyehi niyukta 12 Sikurā
madalpotunṭa wadāla mehewarin paswisidahasasaka dana wiyadam
koṭa Pānabunubada Pepiliyānehi 13 prākāṭa goṇura pratimā
graḥā 14 maṇḍapa bodhi chaitya saṅghāwāsa dēwālasataraya
pustakālaya pushpārāma phalāramidāin yuktakoṭa samuṛaṭda 15
karawu wihāraya chirasthāyīva wurdhanawana 16 pīnisa piduyen
memā Pepiliyāna hā mehi bända Mēdimāla hā amantuwa Dim-
būpiṭiyen piduyen wēllēn uḍa deniyen dasāmunak Kaluṭoṭa
badda Araggoḍa wila hā mehi bada walpiṭa watupēḷat ēṭuluwū
ten hā Pas yodun bada kuḍā Weḷigama hā mema gamaṭa ēṭulat
tulageyi (?) Rangoḍa hā Matgonbadden maḍin Kēhel sēnāwen
yāḷaka wapa hā mehi bada walpiṭa hā Matgon badden Bōbuwala
wilin mul bijuwaṭa dēyāḷak hā goḍiṇ pasalosamunak hā Aḷut-
kūruwa bada Bollatāwilin yāḷaka wapa hā mehi bada goḍa hā

1 rakṣho, 2 punyan, 3 prasvākhya, 4 jagati, 5 vaṇṣābhijātā, 6 vahansēta,
7 sumangala, 8 maṇḍapayehi, 9 seṭa, 10 tenhi, 11 yuttata, 12 niyukta, 13 Pepili-
yānehi, 14 grīha, 15 samṛiddha, 16 wana.
Sitēraṭa bada Giridora hà Beligal nuwara bada Mangedara hà Dolos dahas raṭa bada Meḍa goḍin Meḍalanē goḍin pasamunak hà kumburu bijuwaṭa sataramunak hà Rayigam nuwara bānda le (?) Wēragal lena wihārayaṭa pidū Labugama hà Šaltōṭin gewat ekak hà kumburu bijuwaṭa tun pēlak wapa hà Wēligam dasagawwa bada Kanaṇkayē wihārayaṭa pidū Iṭtawala Pābatalāwala Dāmliyāda Tēmblīhilhīra ēṭuluwū kumburu bijuwaṭa pasamunak hà Ēpāṁula ḍōvīṭa ekamuṇu pēlak hà Uwāḷugoda Nātugoda Udīgoḍa Wellalāṅcī walpiṭa ēṭuluwū tēna hà Beligal nuwara bada Bulatgam seḷesmen Piṭṭāgama hà pariwāra jumāyangen desiyapanasak hà sarak deyālak hà ēṭīrē 17 dekak hà lūnu pāru ekak hà nōyek vihāra garubhānda ēṭuluwū siyalla Buḻihāyatta Dharmāyatta Sānghikawa pawatimā puridden salaswā palaṃuwe mahabisō sāmīṅgō sīrī nāmāyen Sunēṭrā Maha Dévi piriwena aswā mē wihārayaṭa nāyakawa pēmīni Galaturumula Meḍihaṅkara Maha Tera-sāmīṅwahansēgī sīshya nīrāyena mukta Māṅgala sāmīṅṭa Sunēṭrā Maha Dévi piriwantera aswā idirīyē dawasā mōbawahansēgī gurūsīya 18 paramparayēn asana piriwānā tēn kiyā sāsānaya wardāhāna kirīmāta yōgīta tēnakaṭa piriwena pawatimā nīyāyen 19 sāniṭulankoṭa meki lābhayan satarapāt gāmṛṇā nēliyēn bodhiyāta hà Nāṭha Maitrī detenāta dawas ekakaṭa ekin eka dēwālayakaṭa muḷutenaṭa pēsi sāl pascalok màḷu ran tun massak pol tunak sakuru màḷu ekak līnu 20 nēli mukkālak līnu 21 duru kāsa ēṭulu-wū deyāṭa masu ekak pān telaṭa polpasak suwānda mal dahasak bulat wīsīnayak pukwak pasalosak hà mas ekakaṭa mīris nēliyak dekak ṅūntel nēli dekak pirībāḍa sandun palaṇ 22 atak suwānda dumaṭa agīl palaṃ tunak gugul palaṃ tunak ēṭuluwū deyāḥa awurudu pūjāwaṭa kēkūlu pēsi ek siya panasak pol siyayak pān pūjāwaṭa pol dāsak hà bīsō sāmīn swargasthawū wesangapura wīsēnīya pāṭan pura pasaloswaka dakkā karāṇa viśēsā pūjāwaṭa kēkūlu pēsi tun siyayak pol desiyayak pān pūjāwaṭa pol dedāsak hà tripiṭakayen masakaṭa granṭha ekdās sat siyayak liyana nam ekakaṭa dawas ekakaṭa sāl tunak màḷu ran demasak pol dekak bulat dasayak pukwak pasak mas ekakaṭa līnu dasayak miris ekak līnu duru kāsa ādiyāṭa panam ekak awurudu ekakaṭa piliyāṭa 23 panam siyayak hà piriwan sāmīṅṭa dawas ekakaṭa

17 ēṭīrē, 18 sīshya, 19 nīyāyen, 20 līnu, 21 līnu, 22 palaṃ, 23 piliyāṭa.
wasnaṭa ｐेṣī sāl pasak geneli 24 wēḍahindīna nam pasakaṭa namakata satara bēgin ｐेṣī sāl wisisyak 25 ｍālū ran āṭak pol nawayak kasaḍen satak sakuru tummunū ｂēyak ｐān telata pol sayak hā pirivenata dawas ekakaṭa bulat āṭak puwak pasalosak wīdāntenaṭa bulat pasalosak puwak satak sesu tēnaṭa bulat satalis āṭak puwak wisisatarak hā mas ekakaṭa Ṽuṇu panaṣak miris sayak Ṽuṇu duru kasadiyaṭa ｐａṇaṃ nawayak dun telata hā āṭelta wisi deneli manāwak hā awrudy ekakaṭa pirivenaṭi siwru dekakaṭa ｐａṇaṃ siyaya wāṭinā pilirū dekak andanayatā pasvisak wāṭinā pilirū ekak satak wāṭinā dankaḍa ekak dasaya wāṭinā ｗuṇa 26 bānamā dekak perahankaḍa ē ａṭapiiriṇa ekak magul piritehi ek wisi puṭuwen ekak ｕḍu wiyan ēṇḍa ｃｉṭiṇi tīra jawaṇikā 27 ａḍiṇa hā sesu tēnaṭa siwru dasayatā tīsa tīsa wāṭinā pilirū dasayak hā gilantenaṭa āvāṣa sāntandena 28 tek gilan pasaya etalūwuw wiyadama āḍuwan nokoṭa pawatimuwa hā wēḍa un ｔｅｎｉṇ ｄｅｗａｗａｄａｌａ 29 Pāṇabumu bandā Nikapaya 30 gama pirivena wāṭinā sapasulāṇayaṭa 31 pawatimuwa hā wihāra santaka noyek gamwaliṇi wihānayatā pasammunak hā itiri pasayen satara digin wēḍi maha sanghayā wahanṣheγeṇ namakata sāl satara ｍālū ran ekak pol ekak sakuru bē ekak kasaḍen ekak Ṽuṇu miris kasaḥ aba duntel pānteṭi etalūwuw deya bulat dasayak puwak pasak hā tera namakata sāl pasak ｍālū ran tumak pol satara krusuru mulak Ṽuṇu ekak kasaḍen dekak Ṽuṇu miris Ṽuṇu kasaḥ aba duntel ｉṭel etalūwuw deya hā bulat āṭak puwak pasalosak pānteṭa tel meṇḍe 32 ekak hā tum dā ｓetaṇa leṣaṭa kalāl ｐeṭe Ṽuṇu etiṇi ｐeṇ walaṇ etalūwuw dan wēḍa no pirihelā tum masin masa wihārayatā peṃini maha sanghayā wahanṣheṇa tum dawasak dan denu wat gilan tēnaṭa pilivelin 33 gilan pasaya pawatwa yanawiṭa ｃｏ ｄｉｎｉ ｐａｌｔａｌａ Kēlaniya 34 Aturugiriya Wīdāgama Κaḷuṭoṭa meki wihārawala ｇａｌａｗालनुwat pilimageya dāgep ｓａṃin sanghāwasa etalūwuw wihārayeḥi kalamana 35 meheyaṭat mehi bada wihārawala meheyaṭat ｃｏ ｅ wihārawalamye 36 eti watin demuṭat kiya ｅｒａｗｉya noḥeki anisamak peṃiniwiṭa wihārayen dī ｇeḷawenuwat wihāra pilimanda gam

24 gcčhe, 25 wissak, 26 wapa, 27 jawaṇikā, 28 sapṭiničena, 29 dewāwadala, 30 Nikapaya, 31 siwupasadānaṣaka, 32 mepa, 33 pilivelin, 34 Kēlaniya, 35 kalaṇanā, 36 wihārawala or wihārawalhi.
kumburu minisā satā garubhānda nowikunuwat 37 kisi kenekun wisin no ganuwat wihāraye parivāra janayangen pirivenaṭa abhiyukta nam satarak salādaru (?) nam pasak dan pisana nam tunak etuluwūwan niti mehe karanuwat sessawumut genehi wasana tenaṭa atpāmekhekirin āgantuga 38 tenaṭa kalamanā upasthāna wihāra karmmānta ādivū siyalla mehi bēndikaraṇa wenat seleśwūnūt pirivenelī niyōgawū niyāwaṭa nūgulūwā pawatīnuwat piṭakatraya tarka wyākaraṇādiya dannā kenekun pēminiwīṭa wēṭup tabādī uganuwat pārajikāwan ten mehi nowasānuwat sesu sikshā 39 pada wyatikramaya kalatēnaṅ Budun wadāla winaya 40 karmayakota wasanuwat mehi wasana ten sūtraḥ-dharma winaya tarka wyākaraṇādiyēche satatayen abhiyōgakaraṇuwat wihāra karmmākāradīnī taram wēṭup diwel dēna pawatīnuwat nirantarayen sak sinnam ādivū paṇchadhumraya ha kuḍa sēsat paṭa ākāsa wiyan prānaya 41 payi sēṭṭa etuluwū deya pawatīnuwat mehi etuluwū ten wēḍi tenin tamahāta wēṭena pasaya men tesu tenunuwān puda wēṭup wihāra tutrumpādayen 42 no koṭa pawatīnuwat rājasammata paridden liyā tubū mē sīlālekhanaya wū niyāwaṭa mē wihāraya pawatinā tekkal ubhaya wāsaye mahā saṃghaya wahamsē wisinut raja yuwaraja mahaṃāpyādin 45 wisinut aḍuwaṅg nokoṭa pawatīwā delō no waradāvā swargāpawargā sampattiyāṭa pēminiṇa paridden situwa yahapati.

Susāliswānu unduwaṁ masa pūra wisēniya lat rividina sēliyadarayarun ten wadālā mehewarin mahā bīsō sāmiṇṭa pin pinisa Kaḷubówila Wattala Mahārā Maḍampē Deḍigomuwa Navayodana Denawaka Aramanā sala piliṅgeya manḍapaya legumgeya mēāḍivū wihāra karmmānta samrīddha karawā Ḳehelpatdolawelin kumburu bijuwaṭa pasalosanumak hā mema ten gēwatuhā Kaṅsawelin anmutuva asveddu Toṭakumbaru da Miṅgalakanda walpīṭa Kēṇḍaganumuwa hā Māgaṁin Elabāḍakumbaru bijuwaṭa dēmunak hā Deltōta kumburu etuluwū mema gamwalaṭa etulatwū walwil hā geru 44 pirimi wisak hā garubhānda Moratōta pāṭṭiya hā salita tūnu ruwan santakakoṭa Pēpiḷiyāṅe Sunēṭrā Mahā Devi piriparīvarin 45 tera sāmiṇ daksinodaka 46 koṭa

37 no wikaṇunuwat, 38 āgantuka, 39 sikshā, 40 winaya, 41 prāpawā, 42 tutrumpādayen, 43 mahāmāpyādin, 44 geru, 45 pirīvar, 46 daksinodaka,
salaswá dunhayi e wá pariddan mé wihárayaţa náyakawú samat tén wisinut mema kramayen chirátkálayak pawatná lesa salaswá tunuruwan udesá denalada yathoktaprákára 47 siyallata matn kisi yam kenekungen awhak uddharaṇayak kiyannak hô pari wárajanayţa raja níyógayakin tévayaka salaswanak hô kala kenek êtman sajjúa kálasútrádiwú aṭa maha narakaya êtuluiwa ek siya satisak narakayehi wëtí apamanawú duk windimata pêmineumáhu nam wet pitrigñátúliwú pançeñántariya karmma-yâta hétuwúwálu nam weti.

Swadattâ ng paradattâ wá ye haranti wasumdharáng
Shashtíwarsha sahasrâni 48 wishtayérâ 49 jâyate krimih

Tînaŋ wá yadi wá kâṭthâŋ pupphâŋ wá yadi wá phalaŋ
Yo hare Buddhabhogassa maha peto bhawissati

Śri Lânkâdhipatiṱ Parâkramabhujâs sûryyanwayalâyâlagkritir
Yâcehaye bhawatowachâshgrñutra me bhûmiśwârd bhâwinaŋ
Dharmoyâñ sadrişaŋ samasta jagatâŋ satyaŋ bhavubbhîŋ sadâ
râksbyo saumayi jâta harshakripaya punyaŋ tathâ bhujyatâŋ

Yanâdîn swakîyawû árádhânâwen wâdâraṇalâda awanata wachanâyada

Ekaiwa bhaginî lókî sarweshámapi bhûbhujaŋ
Na bhogyâ nakaragrâhyâ dánodatî wasumdhâri

Kiyânalâda purwokta wachanaya da anâgatayehi pëminí raja maha amâtyâdîn wisin hêma wëlehimâ silhîkôta mé kiyana pûnyakriyawa tama tamâ siya atîn kalàkmen sama sitin pin anumôdanwa wiháravaśînta uniyam waratira 50 adiwú an kisi tévayak no salaswanasâda kawarataram kenekun wiháravâsin no wikuñnasanâda raja ájîñà múlikawa balaya lâwa më siyalu kâṭṭalayama aklândàwa pawatinâ nítayen utsâha êtiwa.

Dâna pálanayormadhye dánât sreyanupâlanâŋ
Dânât swargamawâpnoti pálanâdachchutanâ 51 padâŋ

47 prakára, 48 sahasrâni, 49 wishtihayâñ, 50 waritira, 51 achyutaŋ.
Kiyanalada heyin ebanu niwan suwa kemati satpurushayā wisin mekiyana wihāra wardāhāna kirūmehi sābhilasa etsiva ema kusalānubhāwayen Maitrī sarwajña rājottamayānanwahānse deka baṇa asā kejawara Budu Pase Budu maha rahatun wahansē wisin pasakkalāwū sāntawū ajaraśū kshemawū amrata 52 mahā nirvāṇa 53 pura prāptiyatā utsāha kaṭayutu.

TRANSLATION.

I, Parākrama Bāhu, Supreme Lord of the illustrious Laṅkā, the ornament of the solar race, make a request to you, O princes who will hereafter come (to the throne of Laṅkā); hear ye my words. This religious act is certainly one in which the inhabitants of all the worlds are equally concerned. 1 It is to be maintained by you at all times with feelings of joy and kindness towards me. 2 So, let (the fruit of) my religious act be enjoyed (by you). With a view to the maintenance of that magnificent Vihāra bearing the name of his mother, 3 which he caused to be built in the world, King Parākrama Bāhu, Supreme Lord of the illustrious Laṅkā, now grants to the priesthood good villages of various kinds, together with their inhabitants, gardens, tanks and other receptacles of water, and proclaims the (following) edict, (inscribed) on a rock, in order to its continuance for a long time.

On the 15th day of the bright half of the month Mēdindina (March-April) in the 39th year of (the reign of) the supreme monarch and universal Lord Śrī Saṅgha Bodhi Śrī Parākrama Bāhu, born of the solar race, (and) lineally descended from Mahā Sammata, and who attained to the sovereignty of the illustrious Laṅkā in the 1958th year of the illustrious Buddhist era, (the said monarch) being arrayed in his 64 ornaments, inclusive of the crown, the abode of Śrī (the goddess of prosperity), seated himself in the manner of the god-king, surrounded by kings, sub-kings, and a retinue of ministers, on the throne (erected) in the beautiful hall opposite the Sumangala palace in the eminent city of Jayawarddhana, and, whilst giving orders relative

52 amrata, 53 nirvāṇa,
to the administration of the affairs in every part (of his kingdom), offered (the following lands) with a view to the long existence and benefit of the temple which Sikurá Mudalpotu, employed in the royal service, had built, in pursuance of the (royal) order directing him to build a new temple with a view to procure merit for the royal mother who had gone to heaven, (built) at an expense of 25,000 coins, at Pępiliyánda in the district of Pánabunu (Pánaduré), and had furnished with ramparts, towers, image-houses, halls, Bó trees, sacred monuments, monasteries, four temples dedicated to gods, a library, flower-gardens, orchards, &c.

This Pępiliyánda, and Mędimála (Nędimála ?) which adjoins it, and, in addition (thereeto), ten amuñas from the low ground on the upper side of the dam in Dimbulpițiya (Divulpitiya); Araggođawila and the adjoining places inclusive of the jungle, meadows, gardens and huts in the district of Kaļutara; Kuḍá Weļigama and its ........ Rangoḍa in Pasyodun Kóralé; one yála 4 of sowing extent from the field Kehelsénáwa with its appurtenances in Magguna District; two yálas of sowing extent from Bóbuwalawila and fifteen amuñas of sowing extent of high land in Magguna District; one yála of sowing extent from Bollatáwila and the adjoining high land in Alutkúruwa; Giridora in Siné Raṭa (Siyané Kóralé); Mangedara in Beligal Nuwara (Kóralé); five amuñas of high ground from Mędagoḍa and Mędalengoḍa, and four amuñas of sowing extent from fields in Dolosdahasraṭa 6; Labugama which had been dedicated to Véragullena Vihárā .. in the District of Rayigam Nuwara; one house and one garden with three pélas of sowing extent from fields in Saltoṭa; five amuñas of sowing extent from fields besides Ittawala, Pábatalawala, Dámliyeddà, and Těmbilihira which had been dedicated to Kananké Vihára in the District of Weļigama of ten gaws in extent; one amuña and one péla of the ówiṭa in Épámula as also Úwálugoḍa, NATugoḍa, Udígoḍa, Weļlkána with their jungles and meadow grounds; Piṭṭágama, in the Bulátgama Division of Beligal Nuwara; 250 attendants, two yálas 6 of oxen, two elephaunts (?) one pánda boat of salt, and various utensils necessary for a Vihára—all these (the king) dedicated
to be the property of Buddha, Dharma, and the Priesthood, and (then), in the first place, he called the Vihāra "Sunētrā Maha Déví Pirivena" after the illustrious name of the great Queen; gave the name of "Sunētrā Maha Déví Piriven Tera" to the Priest Mangala who had completed his course of study under the great priest Galaturumula Medhankara who was the high priest of this Vihāra; and directed that a priest in pupillary succession from him (Mangala), who is qualified to promote the cause of the (Buddhist) religion by answering questions and reciting bana, be appointed to reside in the Vihāra.

The produce of the above-mentioned lands is to be appropriated as follows:—For the Bódhi, Nātha Maitri (Déwāle) and each of the (other) Déwālas, each day, fifteen nēlis of four patas each of cleaned rice for the sake of food, curry worth three massas of gold, three cocoanuts, one packet of jaggery, three-quarters of a nēli of salt; one massa worth of onions, cumin seed, and turmeric; five cocoanuts for lamp-oil; one thousand sweet-smelling flowers; twenty-six betel leaves; fifteen arecanuts; one or two nēlis of chilies for one month, two nēlis of butter, eight palams of sandal for ointment; three palams of agallochum, three palams of sandal, and three palams of baddock for incense; for the annual offering, one hundred and fifty nēlis of rice husked without boiling and cleaned, and a hundred cocoanuts; for the offering of lamp-light, a thousand cocoanuts; for the special offering made from the 5th day of the bright half of Wesak (May–June) on which Her Majesty the Queen went to heaven to the 15th of the bright half, three hundred nēlis of rice husked without boiling and cleaned, and two hundred cocoanuts; for the offering of lamp-light, two thousand cocoanuts; to one priest who writes one thousand seven hundred granthas of the Tripitaka in one month, three nēlis of rice, two gold massas' worth of curry, two cocoanuts, ten betel leaves, five arecanuts for each day; ten (nēlis) of salt, one of chilly, one fanam worth of onions, cumin seed, turmeric, &c., for one month; one hundred fanams for clothing for one year; to the Principal of the Vihārē, five nēlis of cleaned rice for his daily meals; to five resident priests of the establishment, twenty-six (?)
nels of cleaned rice at the rate of four for each of them, curry worth eight gold (massas), nine cocoanuts, seven young cocoanuts, three and half packets of jaggery; for lamp-oil, six cocoanuts; for the daily use of the Vihára, thirty betel leaves, fifteen arecanuts; to the Vidáné, fifteen betel leaves and seven arecanuts; to the rest, forty-eight betel leaves, twenty-four arecanuts, and for one month fifty (nels) of salt, six chillies, nine fanams worth of onions, cumiin seed, turmeric, &c.; for butter and ointment for the head, twenty-two and half nels; for the annual use of the Vihára, two cloths worth a hundred fanams for two yellow robes; one cloth for an under garment worth twenty-five fanams; one alms (covering) cloth worth seven (fanams); two pieces of cloth for sore-bandages worth ten; eight priestly requisites, (such as) the water strainer, &c.; one (set of) twenty-one chairs used in reciting the Magul Pírita; two canopies, bed-sheets, curtains, screens, &c.; for the rest of the priests, ten pieces of cloth, valued at thirty (fanams?) each, for ten robes. Moreover, the royal pleasure is that, in the case of sick priests, until their recovery from sickness, the expenses for sick diet, &c., should be borne without diminution; that the village of Nikapaya in the District of Pánabunu granted from the place (throne) on which (the king) was seated, should be (appropriated) for the supply of the four priestly requisites with a view to the maintenance of the Vihára; that five annuñas be allowed to the (Vidáné) manager from the several villages belonging to the Vihára; that from the remaining income, to each of the priests coming from the four quarters, four nels of rice, curry worth one gold (massa), one cocoanut, half a packet of jaggery, one young cocoanut, salt, chillies, turmeric, mustard, butter, lamp oil, &c., ten betel leaves, five arecanuts (shall be given); and to one elderly priest, five (nels) rice, curry worth three gold massas, four cocoanuts, one packet of jaggery, one (nél) of salt, two young cocoanuts, chillies, onions, turmeric, mustard, butter, and oil for the head; thirty betel leaves, fifteen arecanuts, one cup of oil for lamps, mats, sheets, water-pots, &c., sufficient to accommodate him for three days (should be given); that alms be given for three days regularly to the priests who
come to the Vihārē every three months; that, after having supplied medicines, &c., to the sick priests in due order, they be escorted, when they go back, to the Vihāras in the different quarters, such as, Wattala, Kelaniya, Aturugiriya, Vidāgama, and Kalutotā; that, for (the performance of) the work in this Vihāra consisting of its image-house, the dagāba, and the residence of the priests, and of the work in the Vihāras attached to this Vihāra, the expenses should be defrayed from the income of the respective Vihāras; that, in case of any unavoidable emergency, deliverance be effected by giving from (the income of) the Vihāra; that the villages, fields, people, beasts or common property belonging to the temples be not sold; that they be not purchased by any one; that the attendants of the Vihāra, including the four servants of the Vihāra, five messengers? and three persons to cook food and that other attendants should constantly perform service, in conformity with the rules of the Vihāra, strictly attend to all servile work due to the priests of the establishment; to the hospitable treatment of priests who are guests (at the Vihāra), and to all work of the Vihāra together with other business usually assigned to them; that when any one versed in the Three Piṭakas, in Logic, Grammar, &c., come (to this Vihāra), the priests should give him maintenance and learn from him; that those who have been guilty of the Pārājikā offences should not remain here; that those who have transgressed the other precepts should reside here (after having expiated their crimes) by observing the rules of discipline prescribed by Buddha; that the priests who reside here should constantly study the Sutra, Abhidharma, Vinaya, Logic, Grammar, &c.; that the workmen, &c., of the Vihāra, should be duly provided with means of subsistence; that the five-fold service of the conchs, clarions, &c., and such articles as umbrellas, white parasols, silk canopies, small drums, head dresses, jackets, &c., should be constantly used; that the other expenses and offerings to the three gems should be kept up (as) regularly (?) as the necessaries allowed for priests who reside here and for priests who come here. It will be well if, in conformity with this Rock-Inscription caused to be inscribed by royal command,
the two classes of Priests, Kings, Sub-kings, Prime Ministers, &c., take care to maintain this Vihāra perfectly and to attain the bliss of heaven and Nirwāna, 20 not having failed (to act properly as regards) both worlds.

On Sunday the 5th day of the bright half of the month Unduwap (November-December), in the 44th year (of his reign, the abovenameid King Siri Parākrama Bāhu) with a view to procure merit for the great Queen, gave orders to Sēliya-darayarun and caused to be completed the work of the image houses, halls, cells, &c., in the Vihāras of Kalubovila, Wattala, Mahara, Mādampé, Deği-gomuwa, Navayodana, Denawaka and Aramanasala, and granted (the following lands, &c.,) to the venerable priest Sunétrā Mahadēvi Pirīwantera of Pepilijyāna pouring out the water of donation 21 and dedicating them to the Three Gems, to wit:—

Fifteen amuṇas of paddy sowing extent from Kehelpat-dolavela, and houses and gardens thereabout; Toṭakumbura recently aswēddumised in Kasawela; Mirisgala Kanda with the jungle and open ground thereon; Kendangomuwa; Elassa-kumbura of two amuṇas paddy sowing extent and Deltota-kumbura (both) in Čāgama; tracts of forest and low lands contained in these villages, twenty males and females; Moratoṭa and Paṭṭiya for the purpose of supplying furniture for the Vihāra. The learned and high priests of this Vihara should cause this to continue for a long time by acting exactly in the manner above described.

If any one should hereafter disturb, encroach upon, or complain of any one of the abovementioned things given for the benefit of the Three Gems, or if any one should impose a new task by royal command, he will be born in hundred and thirty-six hells including eight principal hells, such as, Saṅjīva, Kālasūtra, &c., and suffer indescribable misery and be liable to the punishment assigned to such as have been guilty of the Panchānantarinya crimes, such as parricide, &c. If any persons take back land given by himself or by another, or appropriate the produce thereof, he will be born a worm in faces (and continue in that state) for a period 60,000 years.
If any one takes away grass, or wood, or flower, or fruit which belongs to Buddha, he will become a great Prétā.22

May future kings, great ministers, &c., constantly bear in mind the humble request:—

"I, Parākrama Bāhu, Supreme Lord of the illustrious Lanka, the ornament of the solar race, make a request to you, O princes, who will hereafter come (to the throne of Lanka); hear ye my words. This religious act is certainly one in which the inhabitants of all the worlds are equally concerned. It is to be maintained by you at all times with feelings of joy and kindness towards me. So, let (the fruit of) my religious act be enjoyed (by you)."

And the old saying:—

"Land (become) sacred 24 by donation is the only sister of all the princes in the world; it is not to be possessed nor ought any tax be imposed 25 on it."

May they constantly think on the above cited words, and, with an even mind, realize 26 the merit which accrues from this religious act as if it was done by themselves. Let no unusual services, (such as, payment of) taxes or tribute 27 be imposed on the residents of the Vihāra. Let no residents of the Vihāra be sold away by persons of any rank. Let all these orders be strictly carried out with energy under the royal patronage.

"As between a gift and protection, protection is superior to a gift; by means of a gift one attains heaven; by means of protection one attains the imperishable state."28

A good man, therefore, who desires to enjoy such happiness of Nirvāṇa, should take a deep interest in the maintenance of the abovementioned Vihāra and endeavour, by the efficacy of the same meritorious act, to see the Supreme, Omniscient Maitrī Buddha, to hear his sermons, and, at last, to enter the city of the great Nirvāṇa which is tranquil, undecaying, undying, safe and immortal which was attained by the (Supreme) Buddhas, inferior Buddhas, and the great Rahats.
NOTES.

1. The religious act referred to, is the building of the Vihāra and endowing it with a view to its maintenance. This act is said to be ēdhrāśh "common to all," i.e., an act in which all are interested.

2. Literally: "with joy and kindness produced towards me."

Śundhāra. The last two lines of the śloka p. 194 (omitted by an oversight) are inserted here:—

Sadāmānas vividhān pradāya sajanānārāma vāpyārauyān
Sayakāhinatayā chhirāya taurē tāhātān sīhāsānayā

3. One yōla is 1280 kuruṣis = 32 amunus.

5. Dolosadhasraṇa is Kandakaḍa Pattu, Wēlalaḍa Pattu and the Taupalla District of Giruwā Pattu.

6. One yōla of oxen is 20 head.

7. Nātha Maitrī is the God Nātha who is to become Maitrī Buddha.

8. One uṇhiya is equal to 1-32nd of a bushel.

9. One pata is 1/4th of a nēliya.

10. One massa of gold is equal to about 32-100th of a rupee.

11. One palama is 1/16th of a pound in weight.

12. One grantha is a stanza of the Anushṭhānap metre consisting of 32 syllables.

13. The eight priestly requisites are the water-strainer, the alms-bowl, the three robes, the girīllo, a razor, and a needle.

14. Māgyil pīrītu, a protectionary formula recited on festive occasions.

15. The four priestly requisites are clothing, food, bedding and medicines.

16. The word in the original is atpāmehekirima, which literally means 'doing service with hands and feet.'

17. Pārijikā is a term applied to the most heinous offences committed by a Buddhist priest, of which there are four, viz., sexual intercourse, theft, taking away life, and pretending to be an Arhat or possess supernatural powers.

18. The original reads prāṇapa which I think is a mistake of the copyist for pramanu which means 'a small tabor' or 'drum.'

19. The word payi which is generally applied to a 'purse' is here rendered ispajī 'head-dress' as the context seems to require it.

20. This might also be rendered 'the bliss of release in heaven.'

21. The word dakhiniṇḍuḷukā compounded of dakhiniṇā, 'gift'; and uḍakā, 'water,' is a term applied to the ratification of a gift by pouring water on the right hand of the donee.
22. *Panchānuntariya*, a term applied by the Buddhists to five deadly sins which are visited with immediate retribution, viz., matricide, parricide, the murder of an Arhat, the shedding of Buddha's blood, and schism in religion.

23. *Prētu*, a hobgoblin, a disembodied spirit subject to suffering.

24. The original is *udāttā* which means 'great' or 'illustrious,' 'dear,' or 'beloved.'—*Wilson*.

25. The word *karnyādhyā* which is here rendered 'tax be imposed' admits of being rendered 'is not to be married or taken with the hand.'

26. *Anumādanaka* is literally to be pleased with, but generally used in the sense of taking pleasure in or a part of the merit acquired by another.

27. Reading *carikara* or *caritira* for *carañcara*. *Vari* being Tamil for 'tax,' and *kara* Sanskrit or *tiru* Tamil, for 'duty,' 'tribute' or 'impost.'

28. *Acçyutana padan*, a state from which there is no fall—one of the terms for *Nirwāpa*.
FOLK-LORE IN CEYLON.*

BY W. GUNATILAKA, ESQ.

(Read, September 14th, 1882.

Very great interest and importance attach to the folk-lore of any nation, as is evidenced by the labors bestowed on the subject by eminent writers, and the manner in which those labors have been appreciated. The tales of a people once collected and recorded afford material alike for the ethnologist, the philologist and the historian to build upon, and enable them to arrive at truths previously unknown, and to throw fresh light upon theories which are but partially established. It is not the amusement which the tales and stories afford that makes them valuable but it is the great truths which they point to in the field of literature and science that commend them to our notice and study. Readers who wish to have some idea of the importance of folk-lore to ethnology and its cognate sciences, will find the subject fully treated in the "Chips from a German workshop" of Max Müller, and in the introduction to the "Popular Tales from the Norse" of Mr. Dasent.

While different writers have labored in the work of collecting tales in other countries, while each successive number of the "Indian Antiquary" presents to us the folk-lore of the Panjāb and other parts of India, it is a matter both of regret and surprise that no writer in Ceylon has, so far as I am aware, yet begun to work in a systematic manner in collecting the folk-lore of this Island.

* I was requested by the Honorary Secretary of this Society, about a month ago, to prepare a Paper to be read at this Meeting, and he suggested the Folklore of Ceylon as a subject that would be of interest. Although the time at my disposal was insufficient either to collect materials, or, when collected, to digest them, I readily accepted the undertaking, convinced that any shortcomings on my part would be excused in view of the shortness of the time given me and the difficulty of the subject to be dealt with.
Mr. Steele the author of a metrical translation of the *Kusa Jātaka* has,—no doubt with the view of attracting the attention of literary men to this interesting subject,—given a few Sinhalese stories as an appendix to his work, and has concluded them with the following appropriate observations:—

"Old-world household stories are very plentiful in Ceylon. The foregoing may be of interest as shewing how rich a field, one little harvested yet, lies open to the gleaner. When it is remembered that, besides the aboriginal wild race, the Veddás, the Island is the home of Sinhalese, an Aryan race from the upper valley of the Ganges, of Tamilś, of Moors, the descendants of the ancient Arab navigators, who, as Sinbad avouches, voyaged often to Serendib, of Malays, not to mention Parsís, Chinese, Kaffirs from Eastern Africa, Máldivians, Bengális and many others,—men of widely diverse descent and creeds, the abundance of, so to speak, unwrought folk-lore will be readily recognised.

"It is the writer's hope, should the present venture meet with favor and acceptance, to offer a large and more varied selection to the reader hereafter."

The hope here entertained has not, I think, been realized, nor has the subject been taken up by any other writer that I am aware of.

A complete collection of the tales and stories existing in Ceylon,—and I think they exist as abundantly here as in any other country in the world,—can only be the work of time. It is therefore desirable that, rather than wait to make such a collection, writers who may wish to labor in this field of literary investigation should publish what stories they may collect in the columns of this Society's Journal as the only literary periodical in the Island.

The present Paper is merely a beginning in this direction, and it is to be hoped that other writers who are more able than myself to undertake the task, and have more leisure at their disposal than I can command, will from time to time contribute their collections to this Journal, and thus supply a store of materials for future scientific and linguistic investigations.
In the work of collection it is necessary that a great deal of
care and discrimination should be exercised, for what is really
wanted and what can lead us to real truths are the genuine
stories of the Sīphalese—those which are quite free from foreign
influences and have existed among the people from time immem-
orial. These can only be gathered from the inhabitants of
villages and of the remoter parts of the Island into which western
civilization has not yet penetrated. In the principal towns
and suburbs there are now current among the Sīphalese several
stories taken from English books and other sources, and hence
too much care and caution cannot be exercised in deciding
whether a story is really free from such influences or not.

In this paper I am able to give only one Sīphalese story
out of the collection I have made. Its aim is to shew the cun-
ning and avarice of women and the fertility of their resource
when tricks have to be resorted to for the accomplishment of an
object, the averting of a calamity or the getting out of a
difficulty.

In order to understand the story it is necessary that the
reader should know what is meant by the expressions “to take
sil” and “to give sil.” Sil is a religious observance. “To
take sil” is to vow or to promise and solemnly undertake to
follow strictly the precepts of Buddha, not to kill, not to steal,
not to drink &c. One desirous of taking sil attends the Pañsala
and after bowing down in reverence to the priest recites
“the three saraṇas” as follows, the devotee repeating them after
him:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{Buddhaṇ saraṇaṇ gachčhámi,} \\
&\text{Dhammaṇ saraṇaṇ gachčhámi,} \\
&\text{Sanghaṇ saraṇaṇ gachčhámi.}
\end{align*}
\]

This is done three times after which the commands or precepts
are recited by the priest and repeated by the devotee. In this
ceremony the priest is said “to give sil” and the devotee “to
take or receive sil.”

I must also premise before beginning the story that when a
priest is invited by a layman to his house for the purpose of
performing a religious ceremony or of partaking of meals usually
called *dan* or *dāna*, "a gift or any thing given," it is not permitted to the priest to decline the invitation, except under unavoidable circumstances such as sickness or a prior engagement.

The story then runs thus.

Once on a time there was a simple and dull-witted man who had a cunning and artful wife. The woman was, however, much devoted to religion, and was a regular attendant on *pōya* days at the Vihāra and Pāṅsala in order to worship Buddha and to receive *sil*. The man, who had previously paid no attention to religion, was one day seized all of a sudden with a desire to follow the example of his wife, and calling her immediately to his side said, "I wish to take *sil*: tell me how I should set about it."

The wife delighted to see her husband form so good a resolution said, "Get up very early in the morning, go to the Pāṅsala with a pingo of boiled rice and curries, offer them to the priest, and repeat the words which he will pronounce."

The earnestness with which the man formed his resolution and his anxiety to act on it were so great that sleep fled from his eyes, and he impatiently watched for the dawn to hasten to the priest’s residence. Long before the break of day he set out for the Pāṅsala which lay about a mile from his house. On arriving there he found the door closed, but he knocked with such violence as to rouse the priest who was fast asleep in an inner chamber.

"I wonder" said the priest to himself "who this can be that disturbs my repose at this ungodly hour." So saying he rose and began to rub his eyes. The knocks on the door continued with redoubled vigour. The priest then jumped out of bed, and approaching the door with some degree of anxiety said "*Kavuda?*", "Who’s there?"

The man, following literally the instructions of his wife as to repetition, replied "*Kavuda?*"

The priest could not understand how any one could be in the mood for fun at such a time or place, and drawing still nearer the door said, "*Mokada?*", "What’s the matter?"
“Mokada?”, repeated the man.

The priest was bewildered. He could not for the life of him understand the meaning of so strange a proceeding, and he called out in a loud and stern tone, “Allapiya”, “Lay hold (of him).”

“Allapiya” was as quickly echoed forth.

The priest then went into one of the rooms to wake up his servant, and in the meantime the simpleton, hearing nothing more, concluded that the ceremony was over and returned home, leaving the pingo at the door. The priest and his servant opened the door to see what it all meant, and right glad were they to find the pingo, but they could see no one.

On reaching home the man called his wife to his side and said, “I have received sil: I feel such a change; I am determined to be more assiduous than you have been in the observance and practice of the rite.” The man then went to work in the field, returned home in the evening, and took his dinner, but was scarce in bed before he repeated “Kavuda? Mokada? Allapiya.”

“What’s the sense of these words?”, enquired the wife in surprise.

“I am reciting what the priest taught me when he gave me sil,” said the man.

“I wonder if you’re right in your head!”, said the wife.

“Nay,” said he, “in right good earnest I tell you, I repeat what the priest taught me. I am practising sil.”

“Don’t talk to me,” retorted the woman. “If you’re not mad already, you’re very near it!”

The man, however, paid no attention to his wife’s words believing her to be in jest, but kept repeating the words all night long at frequent intervals, to the serious disturbance of his wife’s rest and that of the other inmates of the house. This went on for several nights, and nothing that the wife could think of had the effect of convincing the man of his mistake.

About this time three thieves broke into the King’s Treasury at night, and stole from it a part of his treasure, consisting of gold, silver, precious stones, pearls and jewels of great value.
Carrying off their booty they came to the pilikanna [back part] of the man's house, and, as it was a safe and convenient spot for the division of their spoil, they began to divide it. They had hardly commenced their task when they were startled by the words "Kavuda? Mokada? Allapiya" in a loud voice from within the house.

"We are undone," said one of the thieves: "Discovered most certainly," said another: "Hush! hush!"; said the third, "the words may have been addressed to somebody else."

So they made up their minds to go on with the division, but had scarcely recommenced before the same words "Kavuda? Mokada? Allapiya" fell on their ears. Then they forthwith took to their heels leaving the booty behind.

The man hearing all the clatter outside, went to the pilikanna with a light, and saw to his amazement the three heaps of treasure. He immediately awoke his wife and took her to the spot. Her eyes beamed as she beheld the unexpected wealth. Husband and wife together conveyed the heaps into the house, and all was secure in trunks before the dayawned.

"Now," said the man, "was it not my observance of sil that brought us this luck?"

"Yes," said the wife, "I am glad you have been so earnest in its practice."

The man's thoughts were now directed to the consideration, as to how best he might shew his gratitude to the priest who had given him sil.

"It is our duty," said he to his wife, "to make a gift of one-third of the wealth to the priest who gave me sil, and who has thus been the means of our acquiring this unlooked for fortune. Prepare breakfast for him, therefore, to-morrow morning, and I will invite him to partake of it, and to receive the offering of a third of the treasure."

"Nay, nay," said the woman, "that will never do. What the priest taught you was not sil."

"Nonsense," said her husband, "hold your tongue and attend to what I say. I must shew my gratitude to the priest; I must give him a third of the wealth."
"Well, if you must—you must" said the woman.

Words and tears were of no avail. The man was firm as a rock, and his wife gave up all hopes of dissuading him from his purpose.

Next morning she prepared meals for the priest. The man called at the Panșala and said to the priest: "My lord, you were kind enough to give me sil some time ago, and I have been a constant and diligent observer of the rite ever since. The result is that I have been blessed with very valuable treasure, quite sufficient to keep me and mine comfortable for many generations to come. Condescend therefore to repair to my humble abode, partake of the meal I have prepared for you, and receive one-third of the fortune I have come by, as a token of my gratitude."

"I never saw you before," said the priest, "nor do I remember having ever given you sil."

"Then it must be some other priest in this Panșala," said the man; "it matters little which, only come and receive the gift.

The man led the way and the priest and his servant followed, not, however, without some suspicion and fear. When they had come within sight of the house the man saw his wife standing in the compound.

"Come on leisurely," said the man to the priest, "while I run ahead to see that everything is ready for your reception."

So saying the man ran up to his wife and whispered in her ear, "Has our neighbour brought the curds we ordered last evening?"

"Not yet."

"I will go and fetch it then," said he; "in the meantime give the priest a seat and attend to him till I return."

Now when the priest saw the man whispering in the woman's ear, his suspicions of some foul play, which had already been roused, were almost confirmed.

So when he got to the house he said to the woman, "Pray what did your husband whisper in your ear?"

"Bad luck to you!" said the woman, "my husband is gone to fetch a rice pounder to make an end of you!"
When the priest heard this he ran as fast he could and the servant after him.

They had not run far before the man returned with the curds.

"Why are they running away?" said he.

"That's more than I can say," answered his wife; "but the priest told me to ask you to follow him with a rice-pounder."

The man hastened into the kitchen, took up a rice-pounder, and away he went at full speed.

"Stop a bit! stop a bit! your Reverence," he bellowed.

But the priest, seeing the man actually following with a rice-pounder, redoubled his steps and was soon out of sight, and the man could not find him though he searched every nook and corner of the Pañsala.

So the man returned home and never more thought of offering the wealth to the priest, and right glad was the woman to find that her plan had succeeded so well.
Buddha's Sermon on Omens.

By Louis De Zoysa, Mahá Mudaliyár.

(Read, September 14th, 1882.)

That the Founder of Buddhism has repudiated caste and superstition both in theory and practice, is well known. A high authority* has characterized Buddha as "the great opponent of Hindu caste and superstition." But in countries like Ceylon, in which Hinduism had prevailed before the introduction of Buddhism, caste and superstition still exist though in a modified form; and writers whose information is derived from secondary sources are apt to forget the real teachings of Buddha on these subjects. A notable instance of this I may mention here. A recent writer,† "On the Religions of India" has, according to a review of his work in the Athenaeum, attributed the introduction of caste into Ceylon to the influence of Buddhism!

I hope to lay before the Society from time to time, translations of extracts from Buddhist writings bearing on these two subjects. In the present note I shall confine my remarks to the subject of "superstition," reserving those on "caste" for a future occasion.

A fair idea of Buddha's views on superstition may be formed on reference to two papers published in this Society's Journal. I allude to the able translation of "Brahmajála Suttom"‡ by the late Revd. D. J. Gogerly, in which various superstitions are enumerated and condemned as "unworthy and animal sciences," and to my own translation of two Játakas, (Nakkhattra and Námasiddhi),§ one of which exposes the folly of

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* The late learned Dr. Mill, Principal of Bishop's College, Calcutta.
† Mr. A. Barth. (Trübner's Oriental Series.)
believing in astrology, and the other of the practice of conferring on individuals what are supposed to be lucky or auspicious names.

My special object however in the present note is to bring to light the true object of Mangala Sutta, one of the most remarkable discourses of Buddha against "superstition," which is found in two of the canonical Scriptures of Buddhism, namely in the Sutta Nipata and Khuddaka Patha sections of the Khuddaka Patha of the Sutta Pitaka.

There are three English translations extant of this discourse—one by the late Rev. D. J. Gogerly, in the Ceylon Friend for June 1839, another by the late Professor R. C. Childers in his translation of the Khuddaka Patha, and a third in the late Sir M. Coomara Swamy's translation of Sutta Nipata; but by an unhappy rendering of one expression by the learned translators, the true object of the discourse, namely, that of exposing the folly of believing in omens, has been completely kept out of view, and the discourse is simply regarded as a series of excellent moral maxims. Mr. Gogerly rendered the words "etan mangalas uttama," "there are chief excellencies"; Mr. Childers, "this is the greatest blessing"; this is also the rendering adopted by Sir M. Coomara Swamy.

When Mr. Childers' able and lucid translation of Khuddaka Patha appeared in 1874, I ventured to address a letter to that gentleman referring him to the Atthakathá or Commentary on the discourse, which explains its origin and objects, and submitting to him whether the words "etan mangalas uttama," which he has rendered "this is the greatest blessing," should not be more correctly rendered "this is the best omen," or "these are the best omens." In reply he approved of my proposed rendering, but unfortunately having mislaid his letter, I am deprived of the gratification of producing it, but it will be seen that my late lamented friend has made the following note in the Addenda to his Páli Dictionary Vol. II. P. 617 s.v. "mangala," "mangalas," means also "an omen." I learn from Louis de Soysa that "etan mangalas uttama" should be rendered "this is the best omen."
The reasons which have induced me thus to render the words "*etan mangalay uttaman*" will be seen from the following condensed translation of the introduction of this discourse in the Commentary.

"What is the origin of *mangalay sutan*? It was the practice for people in Jambudīpa to assemble at the gates of cities, in meeting houses and other places, and to hear the recital of various stories such as those of Sītā, Bharata, &c. The people discussed various subjects at these meetings. Each discussion some time lasted for four months. On one occasion, the subject of discussion happened to be that of *mangalay* (happy or auspicious things i.e. good omens). What is a *dīthha mangalay* (a good omen of sight)? What is a *suta mangalay* (a good omen of smell or taste or touch)? Do you know what a *mangalay* is? said some of the audience present). One of them, a believer in omens of sight (*dīthha mangaliṅko*), said, 'I know what a *mangalay* is. For example, a man rising up early in the morning sees a speaking bird,* tender fruits of the bilva tree (*Ægle marmelos*), a pregnant woman, a child, an ornamented brimming jar, a fresh cyprinus fish, a thorough bred horse, or the likeness of one, a bull, a cow, a tawny coloured cow, or any other object of an auspicious nature,—it is a *mangalay*.' Some of the audience accepted his theory, but those who did not entered into a dispute with him.

"A believer in omens of hearing (*suta mangaliṅko*) remarked that the eye sees what is pure and what is impure, what is good and what is bad, what is pleasant and what is unpleasant. If what is seen by the eye be a *mangalay* (good omen), then every object of sight must be one. What is seen therefore is not a *mangalay*: that which is deemed a true *mangalay* is that of hearing. If a man rising up early in the morning hears a sound such as 'it has prospered,' 'it is prospering,' 'it is full,' 'it is fresh,' 'it is delightful,' 'prosperity,' 'increase of prosperity' 'the lunar constellation,' 'to-day is auspicious,' 'a lucky moment,' a 'lucky day,' or any other pleasant sound deemed auspicious, this is said to be a *mangalay*.

* Such as a parrot, mina, &c.
"Whereupon a believer in omens of smell, taste and touch, (muta mangaliko) addressed the meeting saying:—'A man hears what is good and what is bad, what is pleasant and what is unpleasant; if what is heard by the ear be a mangalañ, (good omen) then everything heard must be a good omen also. I say therefore that suta mangalañ is not a true mangalañ, and that the true mangalañ is what is called muta mangalañ. For example, if a man rising up early in the morning smells the fragrance of the lotus and other sweet smelling flowers, uses fresh dentrifice, touches the earth, or ripe corn, or fresh cow-dung, or a turtle, or a heap of sesamum seed, or flowers, or fruits, daubs (the floor) with fresh earth, puts on a new cloth, wears a new turban, or smells any other sweet smells, tastes or touches an object deemed auspicious—it is a mangalañ.'

"Thus men all over Jambudīpa formed themselves into groups, and began to discuss what the real mangalāni are. From men, their guardian deities, from them, their friends the terrestrial deities, from them, their friends the celestial deities, from them, their friends the deities of the Chāttummahārājika heavens, and from them, all the deities as far as Akaniṭṭha, the highest of the heavens, took up the subject of mangalañ, and forming themselves into groups, began to discuss what mangalāni are. Thus the discussion lasted for twelve years amongst men and gods. (except among the disciples of Buddha) throughout the ten thousand worlds of the universe, but they were unable to solve the problem. At last the gods of the Tāvatīṃsa heavens approached Sakko, and begged of him to declare what the mangalāni are. The King of the gods enquired of them where the Supreme Buddha was then residing. Being told that he was then residing at Jētavana Monastery in the city of Sāvatthi, he directed one of the gods to repair to him, and beg him to declare what mangalāni are, and the god did so."

The sequel is told in the Suttañ itself, and now I have the pleasure to reproduce Mr. Childer's masterly version of Mangala Suttañ, only substituting the expression 'this is the best omen,' for 'this is the greatest blessing.'
'Thus I have heard. On a certain day dwelt Buddha at Śrāvasti, at the Jétavana Monastery, in the garden of Anātha-piṇḍaka. And when the night was far advanced a certain radiant celestial being, illuminating the whole of Jétavana, approached the blessed one, and saluted him and stood aside. And standing aside addressed him with this verse:—

'Many gods and men, yearning after good, have held divers things to be blessings (good omens); say thou, what is the greatest blessing (the best omen or the best omens)?

Buddha:—'To serve wise men and not serve fools, to give honour to whom honour is due, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'To dwell in a pleasant land, to have done good deeds in a former existence, to have a soul filled with right desires, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'Much knowledge and much science, the discipline of a well trained mind, and a word well spoken, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'To succour father and mother, to cherish wife and child, to follow a peaceful calling, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'To give alms, to live religiously, to give help to relatives, to do blameless deeds, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'To cease and abstain from sin, to eschew strong drink, to be diligent in good deeds, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'Reverence and lowliness, contentment and gratitude, to receive religious teaching at due seasons, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'To be long-suffering and meek, to associate with the priests of Buddha, to hold religious discourse at due seasons, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

'Temperance and chastity, discernment of the four great truths, the prospect of Nirvāṇa, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).
The soul of one unshaken by the changes of this life, a soul inaccessible to sorrow, passionless, secure, this is the greatest blessing (this is the best omen or these are the best omens).

They that do these things are invincible on every side, on every side they walk in safety, yea, theirs is the greatest blessing, (theirs are the best omens)."

It may be remarked, how could such distinguished scholars as Gogerly and Childers have committed such a mistake as the one referred to? The matter is easily explained. They have evidently translated the word mangala in its ordinary sense,* without referring to the commentary which explains the special sense in which the word is used in this discourse. This is not to be wondered at, seeing that even some of the learned Buddhist Priests of the present day commit the same mistake and interpret the discourse simply as a series of moral maxims. Strangely enough, this discourse is used by Buddhists even for purposes of superstition, such as, exorcism, etc. It is so used by the Kandyen Buddhists according to Mr. C. J. R. LeMesurier, c.c.s., who, by the way, calls it "the Sutra of Festivals" which might lead one to suppose that it has some connection with the various Kandyen Hindu Festivals, which he describes in his account of "The Principal Religious Ceremonies observed by the Kandyans of Ceylon."†

It is only when this discourse is viewed by the light thrown on it by the commentary, that it appears in its true character, as one of the most powerful exposures of Hindu superstition on record.

* Mangalo (adj.) 'Auspicious,' 'lucky,' 'joyous,' 'festive,' 'belonging to state occasions,' Ab. 88. Mangalay, 'rejoicing,' 'festival,' 'festivity,' 'holiday,' 'festive ceremony' (Dh. 247) 'blessing,' 'boon' (Kh. 5).—Childers's Pâli Dictionary, Vol. I., p. 237.


NOTES ON THE MICROSCOPICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF FEATHERS, AND THEIR PRESENT ANALOGY WITH A PROBABLE ABORIGINAL FORM.

By F. Lewis, Esq.

(Read, November 2nd, 1882.)

No naturalist, or more probably, no ornithologist has ever looked upon a feather without admiring its beautiful structure, and admirable adaptation of ends to means. Here will be found a maximum of strength in a minimum of weight; adapted alike, as an organ of flight, or as a means of warmth to the creature that supports this exquisite structure. Colored in some instances only as a means of attraction, or, in others, as one of protection, and yet withal, light as proverbially, 'as a feather.'

In variety of external form, we have many, even in Ceylon birds, though of course, if the examples of variation of pattern, from all parts of the world were tabulated, a long and interesting list could be made, were such necessary. My object in the present Paper is of a further character, and one which requires a deeper investigation than that of a mere comparison of external shapes and forms.

A feather may not inaptly be likened to a cocoanut leaf or branch, as it is sometimes called. There is the shaft or quill, and from it diverge other shafts which form the webs. If a breast feather be pulled from some well-known bird, say a Woodpecker, we observe in the lower, or basal region, that the quill supports a shaft, or, as I shall call it, a web-shaft Fig. 1 (bb); which, in turn, towards the lower half of the feather bears a fine thread like process, say one-tenth of an inch long, which I shall call the sub-web-shaft Fig. 1 (cc). In the upper or exposed part of the feather, this sub-web-shaft is absent, leaving the conclusion that these fine filaments are for the purpose of warmth—a con-
No. 1

Shewing (a) the quill; (b) the web shafts; and (c.c.c) the sub web shafts. Much enlarged so as to shew clearly the portions in question.

No. 2
Sub web shaft of simple order
×500.

No. 3
Sub web shaft of the telescopic order
×500.

No. 4
×500.

LITHOGRAPHED AT THE S.G. OFFICE, COLOMBO.
No. 5
Of the partially spinous order
x 500.

No. 6.
Of the highly spinous order
x 500.

No. 7.
The probable aboriginal form

No. 8.
clusion by no means unreasonable, as otherwise they are useless, and further a single glance would show that this portion of the feather is closer, and hence warmer, than if these sub-web-shafts were absent. Supposing a web shaft is removed from the same feather—Woodpecker's—and placed under a microscope of some power, the sub-web-shafts exhibit a series of joint-like markings of a more or less modified character. See Figs. 2, 3, 4, 5, & 6.

This modification is of very considerable interest, as the conclusion that I have arrived at, after carefully examining a large series of Ceylon birds, is, that they are modifications of an aboriginal form, which I have ventured to illustrate.

I have drawn my conclusions from the fact, that at remote periods of time, it is but reasonable to conclude, that birds required a closer plumage than at present, in order to endure a colder temperature than now upon the earth, and to bring about that end a further addition to the sub-web-shaft would render most material assistance. I am confirmed in this view by the fact that some of our high flying eagles, such as Spizetus, possess a spine upon the sub-web-shaft, that can be considered as a modified filamentous process, just as the sub-web-shaft is itself.

The conclusion then to be drawn is that those representing the series Fig. 2, are of a much older formation than the series Fig. 4 through process of modification, through disuse. In like manner the forms up to Fig. 6 can be traced up to what was probably the aboriginal form, Fig. 7. I am inclined to believe that any of the forms may be traced through variation and modification to the form Fig. 7, which through long ages of disuse forms the present modified structure. If then, this view be correct—and I am unable to see cause for any serious objection to it—the course of modification may be traced as represented in Fig. 8, from the aboriginal form to the present, as shewed by the dark lines, and the dotted lines, which bear a strong comparison with Fig. 7, or with Fig. 6, which last is an existing form.

I consider that by this peculiarity of structure we shall be able to trace the relative ages of existing forms of birds, which
in itself may be considered as a means of classification, if such there be. Unfortunately, I have not had the good fortune to be able to examine the plumage of birds from other countries, more especially those from the colder climates of the extreme north which would give evidence either in support, or to the contrary of my theory. For the present, I venture the subject more as a question, than as an established fact, though the evidence from local examples tends greatly to prove the force of my theory.

Climatic effects may probably bear with more or less weight upon the point, but I find the conclusion is still irresistible that each existing form can be traced to a higher, which we may call the aboriginal parent, and its necessity is just the same, in a larger measure, as that which supplies the present sub-web-shaft. Where warmth is unnecessary, then sub-web-shafts do not exist, as for instance in the tail feathers, or feathers beyond the body, and by analogy, where greater warmth is required, then the additional process would exist, which through non-necessity is now reduced to a simple, or at most a spinous joint.
SIŅHALESE FOLK-LORE STORIES.

BY W. KNIGHT JAMES, F.R.G.S., F.R. HIST., S.

(Read, November 2nd, 1882.)

The Siṅhalese are essentially a social people. Some of the most important traits of their character are, deep attachment to friends, filial obedience, and love of their homes and villages. There are a few greater hardships which a Siṅhalese can be called upon to undergo than separation from the home and friends of his childhood, and there are few dearer reminiscences to him, wherever he may be in after life, than those which recall the early days spent in his native village. Home stories and sayings exercise no little influence on him, and at any rate in the leisure portion of the life of the villager oral stories take an important place, whether they be the Jātaka stories of the various births of Buddha,

"The preternatural tale,
"Romance of giants, chronicle of fiends,"
or the more modest stories that relate the doings of the people. In the Siṅhalese home it is true that the "fireside" with which we connect the story-telling of harsher climes is absent, but it finds its representative in the little verandah or in the roadside, and often when the family have retired to rest for the night in the single room and verandah which generally form the "house" of the Siṅhalese cultivator, one member, frequently the grandfather relates stories to the others until he finds that the "dull god" has drawn away his audience. In the night as two or three villagers sit guarding the ripening grain of their paddy fields from the inroads of elephant, buffalo or boar, stories serve to wile away what would be otherwise a weary vigil, and on numerous other common-place occasions story-telling plays an important part. Some of these stories throw considerable light
on the modes of thought, manners, and customs of the people, and also may perhaps be of some value in comparative folk-
lore, I therefore give translations of a few of these village stories.

I.—The Trial at Avichára-pura.*

In the neighbourhood of Badulla there is among the Siñhalese a saying, when justice appears to have miscarried:

"Avichára-puré nañ̄uwə vágeyi,"—"Like the trial at Avichárapura."

The story on which the saying is founded is without doubt of considerable age and contains rich satire:—

One night some thieves broke into the house of a rich man and carried away all his valuables. The man complained to the Justice of the Peace, who had the robbers captured, and when brought before him enquired of them whether they had anything to say in their defence. "Sir," said they, "we are not to blame in this matter: the robbery was entirely due to the mason who built the house; for the walls were so badly made, and gave way so easily, that we were quite unable to resist the temptation of breaking in." Orders were then given to bring the mason to the Court-house. On his arrival he was informed of the charge brought against him. "Ah," said he, "the fault is not mine, but that of my cooly, who made mortar badly." When the cooly was brought he laid the blame on the potter whom he said had sold him a cracked chatty, in which he could not carry sufficient water to mix the mortar properly. Then the potter was brought before the judge, and he explained that the blame should not be laid upon him, but upon a very pretty woman who in a beautiful dress was passing his house at the time he was making the chatty, and had so riveted his attention that he forgot all about the work. When the woman appeared, she protested that the fault was not hers, for she would not have been in that neighbourhood at all had the goldsmith sent home her earrings at the proper time; the charge she urged should properly be brought against him.

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* A, 'without'; vichára, 'enquiry'; pura, 'city.'
The goldsmith was brought and as he was unable to offer any reasonable excuse, he was condemned to be hanged. Those in the Court however begged the Judge to spare the goldsmith's life; "for," said they, "he is very sick and ill-favoured and would not make at all a pretty spectacle"; "but," said the judge, "somebody must be hanged." Then they drew the attention of the Court to the fact that there was a fat Moorman in a shop opposite who was a much fitter subject for an execution, and asked that he might be hanged in the goldsmith's stead. The learned Judge, considering that this arrangement would be very satisfactory, gave judgment accordingly.

II.—THE GOLDSMITH WHO CHEATED HIS MOTHER.

Of all workmen the Sinhalese regard the native goldsmith with the greatest suspicion. This is due no doubt to the fact that, whenever opportunity occurs, he appropriates a portion of the precious metal entrusted to him, often substituting for it that of a baser kind. There are many sayings in the language to the effect that 'whenever else is to be trusted, a goldsmith is not'; and there is a popular belief that 'a goldsmith would cheat his own mother', in illustration of which the following story is told:—

A certain woman possessed a large piece of gold made up in the form of a frog,* which had been a heir-loom in her family for many years. She, though wishing to keep the metal, was anxious to have it made up in the form of ornaments, which she could wear and display before her friends. She was afraid to take it to a goldsmith, for she knew that they all had the reputation of being rogues, and that she would most likely be cheated. It, therefore, occurred to her that the safest way would be to have her son apprenticed to the trade: this she accordingly did. When he had learned it sufficiently well, she took the golden frog to him and requested him to make it into the ornaments she required. The cunning fellow first obtained a live frog and placed it among the ashes of his fireplace, and then, whilst his mother stood by, took the golden

* S. Gemaḍiyā.
one, put it among the ashes also, and commenced to blow the fire to melt it down. The live-frog feeling uncomfortable in the heat immediately jumped out and hopped away. "See, dear mother", said he, "your frog is gone. How can you expect me to make ornaments from a living thing?" "Oh, my dear son", said the mother, "what is worse than bad fortune? My lump of gold has turned into a lump of flesh."

III.—A STORY OF TWO ROGUES.

There are several stories which relate to the sharp-wittedness of people from different villages, towns, or districts, and which, seem to imply much the same as is expressed in our English proverb "set a thief to catch a thief." The following is well-known, and, although the story varies somewhat in different localities, is in substance the same. The names given to the two rogues vary with the place where it is told, but they are, as far as I have heard, always the names of different villages, or districts, with the affix yá or vá thus Gampolayá and Rayigamayá, 'a Gampola man' and 'Rayigama man'; Migamúwa and Mátarayá, 'a Negombo man' and 'Mátara man':—

Two men who lived in different districts, and who depended principally on their wits for a livelihood, started off one day about the same time each to pay a visit to the other. On their way they met, and agreed to go together in search of adventure. As they went on they heard the sound of weeping at a certain house and, finding the friends of a dead man mourning for him, they went and joined in the lamentations. When the question of the division of the deceased's property arose, they put in their claim. "Who are you?", the people asked, "and what right have you to any of the property?" "Was not this our own poor old grandfather whom we have not seen for these many years?", said the men weeping. The friends at the house were so affected by the grief of the strangers, that they agreed to go that evening to the grave of the dead man, and see if he would express any wish in the matter. One of the rogues slipped out unobserved and laid himself beside the grave. "Is it your will that these two
strange persons should have any share in your property?”, asked one. “You are all my children; divide it amongst you fairly”, came in sepulchral tones from the grave. Having received a box containing some valuable articles, they started off, and after journeying for some time lay down to rest near the seashore, placing the box between them. One, finding the other asleep shortly afterwards, took the box, and, going into the sea as high as the armpits, buried it in the sand; then going back again to his place fell asleep. Soon afterwards the second man awoke, and, finding his neighbour asleep and the box gone, guessed what had been done with it. He therefore commenced to lick along the whole length of his body, and, finding the taste of salt did not go above his armpits, knew the depth where it was buried. Having discovered the box, he carried it away, and hid himself in one of a number of ricks of straw that were standing a short distance off. On the other man awakening, he knew that his friend had discovered the treasure and made off with it, but, as had not had time to escape far, he thought that he was most likely hiding in one of the heaps of straw hard by. Tying a sokada (wooden bullock bell) round his neck he went on his hands and knees knocking his head against each of the ricks. The man who was hiding hearing the noise and thinking it was a buffalo, shouted out “Jah! jah! koṭiyā kā!” and so was discovered. After this, it is said, they divided the spoil equally.

IV.—HOW THE TUMPANÉ FOLK WENT A-BEES’-NESTING.

Among the folk stories of the Sinhalese there are a large number which relate to simpletons,—a class of stories which we find in most countries. The following bears some resemblance to the story of the Wise Men of Gotham, who, seeing the reflection of the full moon in the river Trent as they passed over, and thinking it to be a cheese lying at the bottom, lowered one of their number with a rope to reach it.

One day a man in Tumpané (a district renowned for its foolish people) wanted some honey for his daughter who was

* An imprecation, lit. “May a tiger eat you!”
very sick: so he got his friends to assist him, and they started off to the forest in order to find a bees' nest. As they were passing by a deep pond, they beheld the reflection of one which was suspended on an overhanging tree. Having tried vainly to grasp the nest in the water, they thought that it must be deeper down than they supposed, and one of their number was, therefore, sent in. Believing, as he was unable to touch it, that he could not get down far enough, they tied a large stone round his neck. The other fools stood by the whole day waiting for the man to come up with the honey.

V.—How a Tumpané Man Cured his Mother.

Once upon a time a half-witted villager bought a bullock to use in his hackery, and, as he took it away, the dealer (a philosopher in his way) repeated to him this proverb:

"Harak diya-badū wāgé," lit. "cattle are like watery things," (that is, they are perishable, and consequently require a great deal of care and attention). The man, however, took the saying literally, and, noticing water coming from the bullock as it went along, thought that it had already commenced to dissolve. He was now very anxious to dispose of his bullock before the process went farther, and a man happening to be passing with a kēṭṭa (bill-hook) in his hand, the owner of the bullock asked 'what the kēṭṭa would do:' "fell jungle", said the man. It was then agreed that an exchange should be made of the bullock for the kēṭṭa. The half-witted fellow took the axe, and going to some jungle land which belonged to him, placed it upon a stone and went away. Some time afterwards he returned to see how much jungle it had felled, but was surprised to find that it had not cut even a single tree. When he picked it up he found the iron was quite warm, and concluded that it had not been able to work that day as it was suffering from fever. He, therefore, went to the doctor, who, knowing how foolish the man was, appeased him by telling him to bury it in a cool spot until the morning and he would then find the fever gone. The man did as he was told, and found his kēṭṭa quite cool. Next day, however, his mother had a severe attack of fever, and, remembering
the medicine that had cured his keita, he took the poor old woman to the same spot, and making a bigger hole carefully covered her up.

VI.—HUNTING A PALM-CAT.

A long time ago there lived in Tumpané a newly married couple. One evening as the wife was commencing to prepare her husband’s dinner she heard the cry of a kalaveddá (palm-cat) in a tree near the house, and, thinking if she could manage to catch it she might surprise her husband with a good meat curry, went out with the dog, saying “usi, usi,” (urging on the dog). The dog ran to the foot of the tree barking and placed his forefeet on the trunk. She, thinking that he was trying to climb it, began to make him a valalla (a ring put round the ankles when climbing a tree). Just at that time the husband returned, and seeing what she was doing chid her for her foolishness, saying that ‘he would shew her the way to get the dog up the tree.’ Procuring a long stake he sharpened one end of it and sticking it into the dog hoisted him up to where the palm-cat was. The poor animal in agony whined bé! bé! “Say not ‘bé! bé! (I cannot, I cannot)’” said the man “but lay hold of the palm-cat!”
RUINS AT VEHERAGALA.*

The ruins in question are known as "Veheragala" and are situated about two miles South of the 10th mile-post on the Anurâdhapura road.

They consist for the most part of groups of stone pillars more or less roughly squared, and are probably the remains of palaces and Vihârâs. The jungle is, however, so thick, and the ruins are so overgrown, that it is difficult to conjecture, from their formation, to what period they belong.

The only really interesting ruin which has so far been discovered, is that of an oval building, found upon a rocky mound, and the base of which is constructed of huge slabs of stone, (the shape of which is very peculiar) laid upon oblong blocks. They are cut into segments of a circle, each segment being 8 ft. to 12 ft. by 7 ft. = 7 in. or 8 in. thick. These slabs are also concave on the upper side and convex on the lower, but whether this was intentional, or the result of being wedged out of laminated rock—with which the neighbourhood abounds,—is not apparent. Another curious feature of the building is, that the oblong blocks upon which these slabs are laid, (and which seem to have formed the foundations) built upon the solid rock were morticed together, the sockets and notches being very distinct. The building faces North, on which side there is a flight of stone steps leading to the entrance, and its dimensions are, from North to South 56 feet, and from East to West 78 feet.

If this structure was intended for a Tope or Dâgâba—which, considering that it was not circular, is, I think, unlikely—it was never completed, and appears to have been temporarily used for some other purpose; for at the South end there are five spur stones, arranged in a curve, and upon which pillars must have

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* Extract from letter dated September 25th, 1882, from P. A. Templer, Esq., C.G.S., Assistant Government Agent, Puttalam, to the Government Agent, North-Western Province.—Hon. Sec.
RUINS AT VEHERAGALA.

LITHOGRAPHED AT THE G.G.OFFICE COLOMBO.
I წანის
II გრძელუებად
III ჩანს
IV ბინა
V წითხი
VI ვიტალ
VII ვურა
VIII 87
IX გრძნობ
X წითხი
XI 38299822

INSCRIPTION AT VEHERAGALA

LITHOGRAPHED AT THE S.O.O.FICE, COLOMBO.
rested. As there are no remains of these pillars to be seen they were probably made of wood; and the debris of earth, bricks and tiles, which fill up the space inside the stone work, shows that a building of not very permanent character did exist at sometime.

On the slab rock near the flight of steps is an inscription, much of which was buried in earth. It is of the roughest kind and very difficult to copy in consequence. I have, however, had a copy made of it by Mr. F. Navaratna which I annex. The characters are not Déwanágarí, though some of them bear some resemblance thereto.

* * * * *

I annex tracing of a ground plan, sketched by Mr. C. T. D. Vigors, c.c.s., which gives the exact dimensions of the slabs forming the ring, and a very good idea of the elevation on the east side. A sketch is also annexed which I made from the top of a rock overlooking the building on the west side. This shows the peculiar shape of the slabs and the notches and sockets in the foundation blocks.*

* The ground plan and inscription are here reproduced,—Hon. Sec.
THE CONNECTION OF THE SIṆHALESE WITH THE MODERN ĀRYAN VERNACULARS OF INDIA.

By W. P. RAṆASIṆHA, ESQ.

Is Siṅhalese to be placed under the Turanian family of languages with Tamil, Telugu, &c., or under the Indo-Germanic family, along with Hindi, Bengālī, Panjābī, Sindhi, Marāṭhī, Gujarāṭhī, Nepālī, Oriya, Assamese, and Kāshmīrī?

The Turanian family of languages has not got beyond the collocational or syntactical and agglutinated stages, whilst the Siṅhalese has not only reached the inflectional stage, like Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, but has also advanced to the analytical, like the English, French, &c.: examples are 侵害, karayi, “he does”; 侵害, yaiy, “he goes”; 侵害, deyi, “he gives,” &c. Here we find the stems 侵害, kara, 侵害, ya, and 侵害, de, which are derived from the Sanskrit roots 侵害, kri, 侵害, ya, and 侵害, dā, with an inflection 侵害, yi. This 侵害, yi, is again divisible into two parts 侵害, y, and 侵害, i. The 侵害, y, is merely an augment adopted for the purpose of avoiding the hiatus which would otherwise occur if after the stem the 侵害, i, were pronounced alone. The 侵害, i, here is the remnant of 侵害, ti, in the Sanskrit verbs 侵害, karotii, “he does”; 侵害, bharatii, “he bears,” &c. Mr. Beames points out that 侵害, ti, is equal to the English s in “he bears, &c.” In Greek 侵害, he says, we have i equal to the English pronoun “he.” In Latin fert the i is lost and t alone remains. In Gothic 侵害, we have th; here too the i is lost. In English “beareth” the i is lost, and the th alone remains. The English th and the Siṅhalese i are parts of the same termination 侵害, ti. This th in English, he points out, is still further modified in the modern language into s as in “bears,” “fears,” &c. So the English s and the Siṅhalese 侵害, i, in the third person singular number present tense of the indicative mood, can be traced to the Āryan 侵害, ti,—the English taking the first part of the termination and further modifying
it into $s$, the Sinhalese rejecting the first part, and taking the vowel alone, and inserting a $\omega, y$, to avoid the hiatus.

The $q, y$, in $\omega k\ddot{a}$, karayi, &c., is an augment and not a substitute for $a, t$. We have in $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, keré, $\ddot{a}y$, $\ddot{a}x$; and $\omega, i$, other forms of the above verbs, meaning “he does,” “he goes” and “he gives.” Here we find the $\ddot{e}, i$, without the $\omega, y$. By the rule of sandhi $\ddot{a}d\ddot{a}g$, corowri, the vowel $\ddot{e}, i$, following the $\ddot{a}, a$, in $\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}$, kara, $\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}+\ddot{a}+\ddot{a}$, kar+a+i, becomes $\ddot{a}, e$, that is to say, both the $\ddot{a}, a$, and $\ddot{e}, i$, are lost, and $\ddot{e}, e$, is substituted in their place; hence the word $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, kare, and by the force of the vowel $\ddot{e}, e$, in $\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}, re$, the word becomes $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, keré, “he does”; similarly $\ddot{a}+\ddot{a}+\ddot{a}$, y+a+i, becomes $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, $\ddot{a}y$, “he goes”; and $\ddot{a}+\ddot{a}+\ddot{a}$, d+a+i, becomes $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, $\ddot{e}y$, “he gives.”

Now, although we never write $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, karai, $\ddot{a}y$, yai, and $\ddot{e}i$, but $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, karayi, $\ddot{a}y$, yai, and $\ddot{e}i$, dey$i$, yet they are pronounced $\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}$, kara, $\ddot{a}y$, yai, and $\ddot{e}i$, deyi, as if they had been written so. This also is proof that the $\ddot{a}, y$, is merely an augment.

In the book language we have the following terminations:—

Present. Future

1. $\omega k\ddot{a}$, karami, “I do.” $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, karannemi, “I will do.”
2. $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, kerahi, “You do.” $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, karanneshi, “You will do.”
3. $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, keré, “He does.” $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, karanné, “He will do.”

Past

1. $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}$, kalem, “I did.”
2. $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}k\ddot{e}$, kelahi, “You did.”
3. $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}$, kelé, “He did.”

But in the spoken language these perhaps were found to be a great encumbrance, and a form $\omega k\ddot{a}k\ddot{a}$, karañawá, has come to be used in the present and future tenses without any distinction as to number or person: and it is now necessary to say $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$, mama karañawá, “I do;” $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$, ñi karañawá, “he does;” $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$, mama ha karañawá, “I will do to-morrow.” Sometimes $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$, karávi, and $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$, karañawá $\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}$, are used. The past tense in the
colloquial is /owl/, kalá. This too having no inflections to shew the number or person, the pronouns have to be prefixed:—تجار, mama kalá, "I did"; چیز, چیز, api kalá, "we did"; چیز, چیز, چیز, akalá, "he did," &c. We have here both the inflectional and analytical stages. Thus by classification Sinhalese must be grouped under the Indo-Germanic family. "But," it is said "classification is not in itself sufficient for purposes of analysis" Let us therefore, look for other peculiarities. In the Turanian group, it is said that nouns are not distinct from verbs. In Sinhalese they are: چیز, kara, چیز, ya, چیز, de, چیز, siti, &c.,—are always verbs and never nouns; nor could a noun be converted into a verb except by the addition of a verb, as چیز, pelakaram, "I grow"; چیز, diyaveyi, "it becomes liquid"; چیز, diyakaram, "I liquify."

Another characteristic of the Āryan language, says Mr. Beames, is "that the noun possesses three numbers, singular, dual and plural; and numerous cases each distinguished by a peculiar and inseparable termination."

We have in Sinhalese only the singular and the plural numbers, the dual is lost, as in English. The case endings are inseparable, that is to say, if separated from the stem, as چیز, ta, in چیز, mata, "to me," they have no meaning in themselves, and here the چیز, ta, when separated has no meaning in itself.

We have the following terminations in nouns:—

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The verb has three forms for the three persons and no forms for the three genders. Thus:—

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<td>hasaha</td>
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<td>“Ye smile”</td>
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<td>anti, as गः</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hasanti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“They smile”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The terminations of the future tense are the same, with ḍudda, issa, prefixed to them.

"Another striking characteristic of this family," says Mr. Beames, "is its power of expressing complicated ideas or strings of ideas by compounds. Several words are joined together, and the case and tense-endings are added to the last word only, the first member of the compound being either a preposition or a noun, or even a verb. This power is not possessed by other families." This power the Sinhalese language possesses in a preeminent degree, ḍudda uka ḍudda jā ḍudda, Bamba sura naró namadit, given in the Sidat Sangarā is a familiar example.

I have here attempted to shew that most of the characteristics of the Aryan languages do also apply to the modern Sinhalese.

The following languages, as was said before, belong to the Indic class of the Indo-Germanic family, Hindī, Bengāli, Panjābī, Sindhi, Marāṭhī, Gujarāthī, Oriya, and Kashmirī. Following Mr. Beames' excellent work on the Philology of these languages I shall endeavour to shew the connection of Sinhalese with this family.

The numerals, says Mr. Beames, are those parts of speech which retain their forms with the greatest tenacity, and offer the most obvious similarities. Let us compare the Sinhalese with the Indian vernacular numerals.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>Pali</th>
<th>Prakrit</th>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>Panjabi</th>
<th>Sinhalese</th>
<th>Gujarati</th>
<th>Marathi</th>
<th>Oriya</th>
<th>Bengali</th>
<th>Sino-Manchu</th>
<th>Sino-Japanese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. एक</td>
<td>एक</td>
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<td>2. दो</td>
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<td>3. तीन</td>
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<td>4. चार</td>
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<td>5.पाँच</td>
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<td>6. छह</td>
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<td>7. सप्त</td>
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<td>8. आठ</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. नव</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. सौ</td>
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<td>सौ</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
It will be perceived at a glance that the Sinhalese has followed the Prakrit very closely with the exception of the changes peculiar to the language.

In the Maldivian language the numerals are almost the same as in the Sinhalese. The difference, as far as I am aware, is that the progression in that language is by duodecimals instead of decimals. They are eken, deñ, tineñ, hatareñ, paheñ, hayen, hateñ, areñ, nuveñ, diheñ, ekolahen, dolahen. Here they stop and for thirteen they have dolos eken, which means “twelve + one.” This is continued up to “twenty-three” which is dolos ekolos, and twenty-four is passihi: now passihi is evidently the same as the Sinhalese पसविस, paswisi, which means “twenty-five.” They proceed on with passihi eken, passihi deñ, &c., and their “thirty-six” is tindolos, (i.e., three twelves.) Their “forty-eight” is panas, which is the Sinhalese for “fifty;” their “sixty” is pasdolos, (i.e., five twelves); “eighty-four” is hayidolos, (i.e., seven twelves; “ninety-six” is hinya, which is the same as the Sinhalese ¹९, siya, “hundred.” The real “hundred,” however, they call sata, which is the Pali form of the Sanskrit शता, šata, from which the Sinhalese ¹९, siya, is derived through the Prakrit saya, as we have seen.*

In the Dravidian group the Telugu and the Tamil, I believe, stand foremost. The numerals in these two languages are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Telugu</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ondu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>rendu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>nudu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>nalugu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>aidu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>aru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>tilu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>enimidu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>tomidi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>padi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>iruvaI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>muppi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>nalpata</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Note.—“Maldive Numerals”. —Hon. Sec.
These, it is obvious, have no relationship to the Sinhalese numerals.

Following the Prākrit the modern Āryan vernaculars of India have avoided the “nexus” or the combination of two or more consonants without an intervening vowel, which is seen in the Sinhalese too.

The Prākrit Ԁ, ch, is changed in Sinhalese mostly to ś, s, and sometimes to ś, t, and also to ง, d.

The corruption has gone so far as to change the ś, s, to ś, h, and sometimes the h is dropped.

From the Sanskrit ॐ ॐ, sayyā, “bed,” Prākrit ऋ ॠ sejjā, we get Sinhalese )v, ճā. By reducing the ś, s, into ś, h, and dropping it altogether, the जआ, jja, is reduced to ง, da, and to compensate for the loss of the conjunct consonant, the vowel )v, Ճ, is substituted. This is more apparent when we compare the Sinhalese )v, ճā, with the old Hindi sojyā—the modern Hindi, Panjābī, and Sindhi being sej.

In Prākrit, which, as Professor Max Müller says, is the basis of all the Āryan vernaculars of India, consonants are dropped in the middle of words; as visnī for vinsati, twenty. In Sinhalese the hiatus is always avoided by the coalition of the letters or by the insertion of the semivowels ś, ya, or ง, va, and sometimes ง, ra; ॐ ॐ, ratana, “cubit,” Sinhalese ऋ ॠ, riyana; ॐ ॐ, kathayati, “he says,” Sinhalese ง ง, kiyayi. We could never have such a combination of letters as the Prākrit janaavā, for the Sanskrit ऋ ॠ, janapada, “community;” the Sinhalese word is ง ง, danava.

These are the main features of the language. Now compare the Sinhalese names for the members of the body with those of the Āryan vernaculars of India,
Skr. कर्ण, कर्णa, "ear"; Pr. kanno, Pāli �Қ��, कर्णa, Hindi कान, Panjābi kanna, Gujarāthī, Marāṭhī, Bengālī and Oriya, कानa, Sindhi kana, Sinhalese මැදි, kana.

Skr. दांत, danta, "tooth"; Pāli මැදි, danta; H. dānta; so in the rest, except P. dānta, S. dandu; Sinhalese පතැ, data.

Skr. පළි, kara, "hand"; Pāli id.; Sind. karu; H. and the rest kara; old Sinhalese නැ, kara.

Skr. වැදු, jihwa, "tongue"; H. jība; P. G. M. id.; S. jibha; Sinhalese පැ, dīva.

Skr. උහු, bāhu, "arm"; Pāli id.; H. bānha; P. S. id.; G. bāṇhi; M. id.; B. and O. bāha; old Sinhalese උහු, bā, and උහු, bāhu.

Skr. ब्रह्म, bhrti, "eyebrow"; Pāli වෝර්කු, bhārū; H. bhauṇ; P. bhauṇha; S. bhūrī; O. bhurī; G. bhavuṇ; M. bahvai and bhonvai; Sin. දීබු, dēla.

Skr. चर्म, charmama, "skin"; Pāli මැතැ, chamma; H. chāma, charmā; so in all; Sin. මු, sama, and thence මු, hama.

Skr. एक, kēsa, "hair"; Pāli මැක, kesa; M. kesālu; Sin. මැක, kes, and මැක, ke.

Skr. दार्थ, dādhi, "beard"; H. dārthu; Sin. අද්ධ, deḷī.

Skr. पक्ष, akshi, "eye"; Pāli පක්ෂ, acchi; H. ākha, in poetry amshi; P. akkha; G. ākha; S. akhi; Sin. පැක්ෂ, āk, old Sin. පැක්ෂ, ak.

Skr. තැන්, janghā, "leg"; Pāli තැන්, janghā, H. jāṃgha; G. M. id., P. jangha; S. janghā; old Sin. මැත, danna; modern Sin. මැත, danda.

Skr. සර්, garbha, "womb"; Pāli මැත, gabbha; H. garabhā; P. id., and gabbha; M. G. gābha; S. gabhu, and garabhu; Sin. මැත, gēba.

Skr. ශ්‍රා, hasta, "hand"; Pr. hattha; M. hátī; B. O. id.; Sin. මැත, ata.

The following rules may be deduced from the above and other peculiarities of the language.

1. That pure Sinhalese retains all the Sanskrit vowels except झ, झ, झ, झ, झ, झ, झ, झ, झ, झ: झ becomes either झ, a, झ, i, or झ, u, or झ, iri, sometimes झ, ru; as taṇa, "grass," for
trīna, iḥ, idu, "straight," for ṛjra, ṛjra, utu, "season," for ṛtu riti, ṛsi, rusi, for ṛṣha, rishi.

2. aś, ai, becomes ṣ, e, as ṣa, hela, "mount," for ṣa, sāila.

3. ān, au, becomes ā, o, as /owl/, sonduru, for ṣa, saundaryya, "comely."

4. A long vowel is generally shortened as ṣr, ek, "one," for ṣā, ēkā; ṣaṇḍaḥa, solos, "sixteen," for sódaśa ; ṣa, maga, "road" for ṣā, márga ; ṣr, isuru, "lord" for ṣa, iswara.

5. The dental sibilent ṣ, s, represents the palatal and the lingual ; as ṣā, visi, "twenty," for ṣā, viṇsatī ; ṣā, seta, "sixty," for ṣa, shashṭi ; ṣ, sa, "six" for ṣ, shash.

6. Aspirated consonants are reduced to their unaspirated sounds, sometimes with ṣ, ḷ, to compensate for the loss of the aspirate ; as ṣā, bhima, "land," for ṣā, bhūmi ; ṣā, vidi, "manner," for ṣā, vidi ; ṣa, dehena, "religious meditation," for ṣa, dhyāna.

7. ā, cha, is changed either to ṣ, sa, or ṣ, du, sometimes to ṣ, ta ; as ṣa, satara, "four" for ṣā, chatur ; ṣa, pas, "five" for ṣā, pāncha; ṣa, gōḍhu, "an object of sense", for ṣa, gōḍhara ; ṣa, tudus, "fourteen," for ṣa, chaturddasa. The change of ā, cha, to ṣ, sa, is not peculiar to the Siphalese alone : it is a feature of the Bengālī and Marāṭhī too. Mr. Beames says, "In Eastern Bengal, where the pronunciation reaches the utmost limits of corruption, chha is regularly sounded as s, and in that dialect of Bengal spoken in Assam, not only has the s sound driven out the chha but also has in many cases still further passed into ḷ." So it is in Siphalese ; ṣ, sanda, "moon," from Sanskrit ṣ, chandra, is reduced to ṣ, ṭanda, "five" is ṭa, pasa, and reduced further into ṭa, paha ; ṭa, dāsa, "ten" becomes ṭa, dāha. This ṭ ha is sometimes still further reduced in Siphalese, by dropping it altogether and retaining only its inherent
vowel, e. g., Sanskrit, श्व, sauvyā, "bed"; Prákrít, sejja; Sinhalese, අශ්භ, enda, the first form of which seems to have been අශ්භ, enda, then අශ්භ, අංංභ, and now අශ්භ, enda.

8. අ, ja, is often changed to අ, da; as අශ්භ, laja, "parched grain," Sinhalese, අශ්භ, lada; අශ්භ, jāla, "net," Sinhalese, අශ්භ, dela.

9. The Sanskrit conjunct consonant අශ්භ, gña, is changed in Páli to අශ්භ, ṇa, which is changed in Sinhalese to අශ්භ, n; as අශ්භ, gñāna, "wisdom," Páli, අශ්භ, ṇāna, Sinhalese, අශ්භ, ṇena, අශ්භ, pragñā, "wisdom," Páli, අශ්භ, paññā, Sinhalese, අශ්භ, penā.

10. අශ්භ, d, and අශ්භ, r, are changed to අශ්භ, l, in Prákrít; and Sinhalese adopts it, e.g., අශ්භවාදුතු, solos, "sixteen," for අශ්භවාදුතු, shoḍaśa; අශ්භවාදුතු, teles, "thirteen," for අශ්භවාදුතු, terasa; අශ්භ, අශ්භ, aṭalos, "eighteen," for අශ්භ, atṭhārāsa. Sinhalese also changes අශ්භ, l, into අශ්භ, l, as අෝකු, karkataka, Sinhalese, අෝකු, kakuḷu, "crab."

11. Prákrít (in which is included Páli) always reduces conjunct consonants of different classes to one class: this is done by eliding one and doubling the other; අශ්භ, dharma, "scriptures," is written අෝකු, dhamma; අෝකු, aswa, "horse" is written අෝකු, assa; අෝකු, mudga, "kidney beans," is අෝකු, mugga; අෝකු, punya, "merit," is punña, in Prákrít, and අෝකු, punña in Páli; අෝකු, matsya, "fish," is written අෝකු, machchha. The Sinhalese still further reduces these to single consonants by eliding one of them; as අෝකු, dam, or අෝකු, daham, "scriptures"; අෝකු, as, "horse;" අෝකු, mungu, "kidney beans;" අෝකු, pin, "merits" අෝකු, masu, "fish."

12. In Prákrít, consonants are elided in the middle or end of words, and sometimes in the beginning also; but in Sinhalese the hiatus thus occurring is avoided either by the coalition of the vowel or by the insertion of semi-vowels: thus, අෝකු, අෝකු, traidó̄ka, "the three worlds," is in Prákrít teloa, but in Sinhalese we find අෝකු, tilo. Here we have the semi-vowel අෝකු, v, inserted between the vowels o and a. For the Sanskrit nabhasala, "sky," we find in Prákrít yuhaala, where both the b and the nexus st are lost. The Sinhalese avoids the

13. The Sinhalese sound ரே, ṛ, comes into play when a long அ, a, or எ, e, is shortened, or a nexus preceded by அ, a, is elided, e.g., ஆல், āla; இதில், iti, “name of a month (June and July),” எல், eula; ஏதே, ēt; மெசே, mesi; ஹூஸ்டின், hustin, “elephant,” டேல், et; ஷாஸ்டி, shasti, “sixty” ஹெடா, heta. It is also a substitute for ஒ, o, as velli, “creeper” Sinhalese வெளி, vel. Though in Bengālī and other vernaculars of India there is no letter corresponding to the Sinhalese ரே, ṛ, yet Mr. Beames says:—“In some instances in Bengālī the vowel ஔ, o, has a short harsh sound, like that of English a in hat. Thus ek, “one,” sounds yak or ack.” This is just what the Sinhalese ரே, ṛ, is: the vowel changes entirely depend upon the preceding or succeeding vowels of a word.

The following examples will show that a large number of words with slight modifications, is common to all. I work on the materials supplied by Beames.

Skṛ. karkaṭaka “crab;” Pāli, kakkaṭa; S. kāṅkiḍo; H. kekara; Sinh. kakuḷu, “sea crab.”

Skṛ. karkaṭika; “cucumber;” Pā. kakkāri; S. kakiḍi; H. kakaḍi; O. B. kakudī; Sinh. kekiri.

Skṛ. karbura, “variegated;” S. kubiro; H. kabara, kābara; Sinh. kabara.

Skṛ. khaṇa; “moment;” S. khiṇa; H. khana, khana, chhaṇa; Sinh. keṇa, seṇa. Here keṇa comes by the elision of the lingual sh, and seṇa by eliding the k and dentalizing the lingual sh.

Skṛ. kshamā, “pardon;” S. khimā; H. chhamā, khimā; P. cchimā; Sinh. kamā, samā.

Skṛ. vanka, “crooked;” S. vingu; H. bāṅka, bāṅkā; Sinh. vak.

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* S. stands for Sindhi; B. Bengālī; H. Hindī; O. Oriya; P. Panjābī; M. Muharrāthī; G. Gajurāthī; Sinh. Sinhalese; Pr. Prākrit; Pā. Pāli; Skṛ. Sanskrit.
Skr. pushkara, "tank;" Pā. pokkhara; B. pukhura; H. pokkara; Siṅ. pokuna, pokuru.

Skr. vatsā, "calf;" Pā. vaccha; B. bāchhura; O. bāchhuri; H. bachharu, bachhadā; Siṅ. vassā, adjectively, vahu.

Skr. vaṅgana, "brinjal;" Pā. vatiṅgana; B. bāguna; H. baigana; Siṅ. vaṅ, as in vaṅbatu, which latter word is from bhaṭūṭā, solenum melongena.

Skr. udumbara, "fig tree;" B. ḍumura; Siṅ. dibul.

Skr. mushala, "pestle;" B. mushula; Siṅ. mohola, móla.

Skr. aushadha, "medicine;" B. ashud; Siṅ. osu.

Skr. aṅguli, "finger;" H. ungali; P. unguli; Siṅ. ṭengili.

Skr. chakshu, "eye;" B. choukha; chóha; Siṅ. (old) sak.

Skr. bindu, "drop;" H. būnda, bunda; M., P., G. id.; S. bundó, būnda; Siṅ. bindu.

Skr. ikshu, "sugarcane;" Pā. ikka, uchchhu; Pṛ. uchchhu, H. ūk; Siṅ. uk, (old) ik.

Skr. sayyā, "bed;" Pṛ. sejjā; H. sej; P. S. id.; G., M. sej; O., H. sajya; Siṅ. ēnda.

Skr. valli, "creeper;" Pṛ. velli; H. bél, bēli; P., S., G., O. beli; Siṅ. vēl.

Skr. badhirā, "deaf;" P., H. bahirā; G. béhérō; Siṅ. bihirā, bírā.

Skr. samaya, "time;" H. same; Siṅ. same, hama, áma.

Skr. kadali, "plantain;" H., P. kēlā; M., G., kē; Siṅ. kehel, kesel.

Skr. vidyut, "lightning;" H. bijali; B., M., G., P., O. bijulī; Siṅ. viduli, vidili.

Skr. bāluka, "sand;" O. bāli; S. vārī; B. bāli; M., P., S., H. bālu; Siṅ. vēlī.

Skr. paniya, "water;" Pṛ. pāniya; H., B., M., G., P., O., S. panī; Siṅ. pēn.

Skr. alka, "false;" Pṛ. aliaṇ; H. alıkka; Siṅ. ali, as in aliboru, literally "a false lie."

Skr. kachchhara, "tortoise;" H., P. kēhuṇā; S. kachhup; B. kāchhāma; Siṅ. (old) kēṣup, (modern) kēṣbē.

Skr. kud̄ḍāla, "hoe;" S. kōḍari; G. kōḍarō; B. kōḍāla; O. kōḍā; Siṅ. udalū. Here the k is dropped altogether.
Skr. prīṣṭa, “back”; H., B. pīṭha; O. piṭhi; P. piṭṭha; G. piṭha; Sin. piṭa.

Skr. mṛtti, “earth”; M. māṭi; B., G., O. māṭi; H. mṛṭi, mṛṭṭi, māṭi; Sin. mṛti.

Skr. pīṭṛ, “father”; Pr. piā; P. piū; S. piū; Sin. piyā.

Skr. māṭṛ, “mother”; Pr. māā; P. māū; S. māu; Sin. māvū.

Skr. bhrāṭṛ, “brother”; Pr. bhāā; P. bhāṅ; S. bhāu; Sin. (old) bē.

Skr. mṛta, “dead”; Pr. madó, maó, muó; H. muā; P. mniā; S. muō; G. muvū; M. mele; O. malā; Sin. mala.

Skr. bhaktā, “devotedness”; H., and the rest, bhagata; Sin. bēṭī.

Skr. rakta, “red”; Pr. ratta; H., and the rest, ragata, rakata; Sin. rat, ratu, reṭi.

Skr. dharmā, “religion”; H., and the rest, dharama; Sin. dam, daham, daruma.

Skr. strī, “woman”; S. tiriyā; P. tirayā; O. tirī, vulgo tīla; Sin. (old) itu, itiri, vulgo, istiri.

Skr. erāṇḍa, “castor-oil plant”; H. renḍi; Sin. eṇḍaru, erāṇḍu.

Skr. nīdrā, “sleep”; H. ninda; M. nīda, nīja; P. ninda; S. nīnda; Sin. ninda.

Skr. chāyā, “shadow”; Pr. chaṭā; H., P. īḍa, chaṭ; S. chāṇva, chaṭṇ; Sin. (old) seyā, (modern) he, as in hēmalaya, “shadow of one’s self”; sevana, hevana, “shadow.”

Skr. spāṭika, “chrysalis”; H. phoṭakari; M. phāṭakī; S. phitaki; O., P., G., B. phoṭakari; Sin. pāṭingu.

Skr. swapāṇaḥ, “sleeping”; Pr. sivinno, sivinō; Pā. su-pinō, “dreaming”; H. sōṇa; P. soamā; S. suṃhāṇu; G. suvaṇ; B. soīṭe; O. goībā; Sin. hīna, “dream.”

It is obvious that the Sinhalese comes from the Prākrit sīvina, by the elision of the semi-vowel v. The coalescence of the two similar vowels would make it, sīna: s as has been already remarked changes into h, and we get hīna.

Skr. Pā. vaṇaṇaḥ, “sowing”; H. bōṇā; B. bhāṇa; O. boibā; Sin. vapura.
Skṛ. śapatha, "oath," "curse;" Pr. savaho; H. soṣha; P. sohuṇ; S. suṣhuṇ; Siṃ. hava,—the anā or stem in havam now obsolete.

Skṛ. kaparda, "cowrie;" H. kauḍi; M., G., P., S., O. kavadī; Siṃ. kavaḍi.

Skṛ. tāpa, "heat;" H., and the rest, tāva, tāu; Siṃ. tava, the stem in the verb tavam.

Skṛ. nārikēla, "cocoanut;" Pr. nāri elō; H. nāriyal; M. nārāla; P. narēlu, nalēru; S. narele; G. nārū; Siṃ. (old) neralu.

Skṛ. nagara, "city;" Pr. nāraṁ, nayarī; H. naira; G. nayarī; Siṃ. nuvara.

Skṛ. sugandha, "fragrant;" Pr. suṇḍha; H., P. saundhā; Siṃ. suvanda.

Skṛ. sūchi, "needle;" Pr., H., P. sū; S., M., G. sóya; O., B. sócā; Siṃ. idi. Here the S ch has changed into s d, and by the influence of the vowel o i, ē u, has changed into ū i, and ā s, has become ṣ h, and dropped. See Beames Vol. 1, § 34.

Skṛ. rájā, "king;" Pr. ráā; H. ráu; in the rest, rao; Siṃ. rada, raja

Skṛ khādanaṇ, "eating;" Pr. khāṇam; H. khánā; P. kāṇa; S. khānu; M. khāṇeṇ; G. khāvṇ Dip. O. khāiba; B. khāite; Siṃ. kana.

Skṛ. pipāsa "thirsty;" H., and the rest, piyāsā; Siṃ. (old) pavas, (modern) pipāsa, vulgo tibaha. Here is an instance of p changing to t: the only other instance I have noticed is where pippalī, "long pepper," becomes tipplī; but the Siṃhalese word tipplī comes from the Tamil, as most of the names of medicinal drugs coming from the southern coast of India. The old Siṃhalese word found in books is vagapul.

Skṛ. prāpaṇa, "getting;" H. pūḷa, pūṇā; P. pūṇā; S. pāṇu; G. pāṇavuṇ; M. pāvaneṇ; B. pāītē; O. pāībā; Siṃ. pamaṇa; "arriving." Here the p has as usual changed into v, and thence to m, as in nava, "nine; Siṃ. nama."

Skṛ. kapōta; H. kapōt; Siṃ. kobeyiyā; "wild dove."
Skṛ. kumbhakāra, "potter;" H. kumbhār; Siṃ. kubal.
Skṛ. sūkara, "pig;" H. sūar; Siṃ. (old) hūrā, (modern)
ūrā.
Skṛ. karpāsa, "cotton;" S. kapāha, capaha; P. kapāh; O.
kapá; Siṃ. kapu
Skṛ. mukha, "face;" Pr., H. muṭha; P. mūhuṇ, muṭhu;
S. mūhuṇ. Siṃ. muva, mūna.
Skṛ. sīthila, "loose;" Pr. sidhilo; H., M., G., dhiṇa;
P. dhillā; S. dhiro; B., O., dhilā; Siṃ. ihil, lihil, lilā.
These may be extended to any length.
It was my intention to add to this a few remarks on the
pronouns, the case endings, verbs and their terminations and the
particles which are called the "sinews and ligaments" of lan-
guage, but this paper has extended to a greater length than was
originally intended, and I reserve my remarks on them for
another paper.
NOTE.*

Máldive Numerals.

"The inconvenient duodecimal mode of numeration was formerly exclusively used by the Máldivians—the numerals from 1 to 12 being almost identical with the Siṃhalese; but, though still in vogue here and there, it is gradually dying out, and rarely employed in business calculations. Beyond 10 a modified form of the Hindūstānī decimal numeration is that in common use. Some confusion, however, arises from the co-existence of the two systems; thus, fana or fanaś may be either 48 or 50; hiya or satēka, 96 or 100." ("The Máldive Islands," Sessional Papers, Ceylon, 1881, p. 121.)

Mr. Albert Gray in giving the Máldive numerals recorded by Pyrard with their Siṃhalese equivalents, adds in a foot note:—"After this number Pyrard has the following:—'Note that they have the numbers up to twelve (as we have them up to ten): then they go on by twelves, and their hundred is 96, or eight times 12.' It will be seen by the numbers which follow that those only which are correct according to Siṃhalese enumeration are compounds of dolos, viz., tin dolos, passedolos, and addolos. They are simply, 'three dozen', 'five dozen,' and 'seven dozen.' On the other hand, those which are not compounds of dolos are altered values of the ordinary Siṃhalese decimal numbers. Yet it is strange that Pyrard could make mistakes with numbers so low as 'twenty-four' and 'forty-eight' which by analogy ought to be dedolos and hāradolos...... It seems that the Maldivians count much by dozens; indeed, Christopher (Trans. Bom. Geog. Soc. 1836-8, p. 69) says,

* Mr. Ranasiṃhā's paragraph (p. 241) on Máldive numerals justifies this note.—B. Hon. Sec.
'they reckon by twelves, as we do by tens'; but they have not abandoned altogether the decimal system. If, however, *passee* and *panas* really stand for 'twenty-four' and 'forty-eight,' it will be interesting to know the Maldive for 'twenty' and 'fifty.'” (Journ. R. A. S., Vol. viii. n. s. 1878, pp. 193-4.)

Mr. Rānasīha has rightly shown, from a comparison with the Siṃhalese, the true meaning and value of the forms, *fassehī*, *fanas*, and *hiya*; but it is difficult to account for the anomaly of their employment in a duo-decimal system, otherwise than as relics of an original decimal numeration, which, from unknown causes, was temporarily abandoned, only to reassert itself, though under a different garb more closely resembling other Āryan vernaculars than Siṃhalese.

The following table of Māldive numerals exhibits both systems:—
# Māldive Numerals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dual-decimal</th>
<th>Decimal†</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  eke'</td>
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<td>2  de'</td>
<td></td>
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<td>3  tine'</td>
<td></td>
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<td>4  hatare'</td>
<td>id.</td>
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<td>5  fahe'</td>
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<tr>
<td>6  baye'</td>
<td>egára</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  hate'</td>
<td>bára</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  arhe'</td>
<td>téra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  nuvaye'</td>
<td>sauda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 dihaye'</td>
<td>fanara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 ekolohe'</td>
<td>sóla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 dolhe'</td>
<td>satára</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 dolos-ke'</td>
<td>arhára</td>
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<tr>
<td>&amp;c.,</td>
<td>ona-vihi</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 vihi</td>
<td></td>
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<td>15 ekú-</td>
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<td>16 lá-</td>
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<td>17 té-</td>
<td>vis</td>
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<td>18 sau-</td>
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<td>19 fansa-</td>
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<td>20 sab-bís</td>
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<td>21 hatá-</td>
<td>vis</td>
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<td>22 árhá-</td>
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<td>23 ona-tirís</td>
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<td>24 fassehi</td>
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<tr>
<td>25 fassehi-ke'</td>
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<td>26 et-</td>
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<td>27 bat-</td>
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<td>28 tet-</td>
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<td>29 sau-</td>
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<td>30 fansa-</td>
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<td>31 sa-</td>
<td></td>
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<td>32 sa-</td>
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<tr>
<td>33 sa-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>34 tiu-dolos</td>
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<tr>
<td>35 tiu-dolos-ke'</td>
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<td>36 tiu-dolos-ke'</td>
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<td>37 tiu-dolos-ke'</td>
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<td>46 tiu-dolos-ke'</td>
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<tr>
<td>47 tiu-dolos-ke'</td>
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</tbody>
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† Transcribed from a list given in a Māldive turtib, or commentary on the kurán.—B. Hon. Sec.
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<th>Decimal.</th>
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<td>49</td>
<td>ona-fansás</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>fansás</td>
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<td>51</td>
<td>eká-</td>
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<td>52</td>
<td>bá-</td>
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<td>53</td>
<td>té-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>saura-fansa-sa-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>vanna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>satu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>arhu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>ona-haṭṭi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>haṭṭi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>eká-haṭṭi</td>
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<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>&amp;c.,</td>
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<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>&amp;c.,</td>
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<td>63</td>
<td>&amp;c.,</td>
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<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>&amp;c.,</td>
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<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>ona-hattiri</td>
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</tr>
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<td>69</td>
<td>fáhi ti</td>
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<td>73</td>
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<td>75</td>
<td>ona-áhi</td>
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<td>77</td>
<td>ek-áhi</td>
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<td>78</td>
<td>ba-</td>
</tr>
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<td>79</td>
<td>té-</td>
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| 81          | yáhi |
| 82          | sat-áhi |
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| 84          | o-navai |
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OF THE
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1881-82.

VOLUME VII.

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  from the French of M. M. Defrémermy and San-
  guinetti).—By Albert Gray, Esq., M.R.A.S. ... 1–60

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PROCEEDINGS

1881.
PROCEEDINGS.—1881.

COMMITEE MEETING,
February 2, 1881.

Present:
The Hon. Colonel A. B. Fyers, R.E., President, in the Chair.
J. Capper, Esq., Revd. E. F. Miller, M.A.,
W. Ferguson, Esq., J. G. Smither, B.S.,
H. J. MacVicar, Esq., J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.,
H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.

1.—Read and confirmed Minutes of last Meeting.

2.—The Hon. Secretary stated, that on assuming duties he found that
the “Proceedings” of the Society had not been published (with the
exception of the President’s Address for 1879, printed in the Journal
for 1880, Part I.) since 1873-4. He proposed to issue shortly in
pamphlet form the “Proceedings, 1875 to 1880.”* An effort would
be made in future to publish the Society’s “Proceedings” regularly
at the close of each year.—Approved.

3.—With reference to the long delay in the issue of a new
Catalogue of the C. A. S. Library, the Hon. Secretary laid before the
Meeting a rough manuscript Catalogue, on which the Librarian of
the Museum had been long engaged, and expressed his opinion that, if
printed in its present form, it would be unsuited to fulfil the purpose
of sure and ready reference. Under the circumstances it was hoped
that additional delay for the preparation of a satisfactory Catalogue
would be held justifiable. The Hon. Secretary consented to devote
such attention to this work, as leisure might allow him.

4.—The Meeting was informed that the stock of several back Numbers of the Society’s Journal had become exhausted—not a single copy remaining even in the C. A. S. Library,—viz., 1848-9; 1849-50; 1853 (1 pt.); 1856-8 (2 pts.); 1858-9; 1861-1; 1870-1. The Honorary Secretary had addressed Government (January 13th), with a view to obtaining permission for the said Journals to be reprinted at the Government Press, from copies kindly placed at his service by D. Ferguson, Esq., and the boon had been readily granted (January 20th).

5.—In order to put an end to the present confusion arising from the
irregular numbering and paging of past Journals, it was suggested

* Issued in March, 1881.
by the Hon. Secretary that the Committee should once for all sanction an authoritative numbering and division of the series.

Approved, and the matter left entirely in the hands of the Hon. Secretary.

6.—The Hon. Secretary stated that on going over the Books, &c., belonging to the Library, he discovered that a large proportion required immediate binding or rebinding, and moved for a special vote under this head.

The Committee sanctioned an expenditure of Rs. 200, to be devoted to this object.

7.—It was notified by the Hon. Secretary that, in accordance with Resolution 2, passed at the Committee Meeting held July 16th, 1880, the Sub-Committee had met, and selected new Books for the Library to the value of £50; and that the order had been sent to Messrs. Trübner & Co.

8.—A General Meeting was decided to be held in April, prior to Col. Fyers' departure to England.

It was announced that several Members had promised Papers.

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**GENERAL MEETING.**

*April 7, 1881.*

Present:

The Hon. Colonel Fyers, r.e., President, in the Chair.

G. Wall, Esq., Vice-Presid. | E. F. Perera, Esq.,
J. Capper, Esq., | Hon. P. Ráma-Nathan,
W. Ferguson, Esq., | W. P. Raṇaṣiṇha, Esq.,
S. Green, Esq., | J. G. Smither, Esq.,
A. Murray, Esq., Honorary Treasurer | H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.

1.—The Minutes of the last Meeting (Annual) were read and confirmed.

2.—The following new Members were then duly elected:

G. A. Baumgartner, Esq., c.c.s. | A. Jayawardana, Mudaliyár,
C. Bruce, Esq., | J. D. Mason, Esq., c.c.s.
S. M. Burrows, Esq., c.c.s. | L. O. Pyemont-Pyemont, Esq., c.c.s.
P. Dias Baṇḍaranáyaka, Mahá-Mudaliyár, | J. G. Wardrop, Esq.,
W. H. G. Duncan, Esq., | H. White, Esq., c.c.s.
C. P. Hall, Esq., | W. T. Wragg, Esq., c.c.s.

* Journal since consecutively numbered, divided into Volumes, and “Summary” issued by Honorary Secretary.
The following gentlemen were re-admitted as Members:—

J. Loos, Esq., M.D., H. Nevill, Esq., C.C.S., and G. E. Worthington, Esq., C.C.S.

3.—The Hon. Secretary announced that the new Books for the C. A. S. Library, ordered in February from Messrs. Trübner & Co., were on their way out. He also laid on the table a list of Books, &c., presented to, or purchased by, the Society since the Annual Meeting in December, 1880.

4.—The following Papers were then read:—

i.—*Hindu Astronomy as compared with the European science*, by S. Mervin, Esq.

ii.—*Some sculptured ruins at Horanza*, by J. G. Smith, Esq.

iii.—*Gold in Ceylon: a sketch*, by A. C. Dixon, Esq.

iv.—*Specimens of Sinhalese proverbs*, by L. de Zoyza, Mahá-Mudaliyár.

v.—*Ceylon Bee culture*, by S. Jayatilaka, Mudaliyár.

In the absence of the authors Papers iii. and v. were read by the Hon. Secretary, and Paper iv. by W. P. Ranasinha, Esq.

Mr. G. Wall initiated a very interesting critical discussion regarding the asserted discovery of the laws of gravitation before Sir Isaac Newton’s time.

5.—The Hon. the Chairman proposed a vote of thanks to the gentlemen who had sent in Papers.—Carried nem. con.

6.—The President (Hon. Colonel A. B. Fyers, R.E.), announced his contemplated immediate departure for England, adding that during his absence, George Wall, Esq., Vice-President, would assume the Chair.

7.—The Hon. the Chairman proposed that the following gentlemen be invited to become Honorary Members:—

(a) L. De Soyza, Mahá-Mudaliyár.

(b) M. M. Kánté.

Seconded by George Wall, Esq., and unanimously carried.

8.—A vote of thanks to the Chairman, proposed by G. Wall, Esq., and seconded by J. G. Smith, Esq., concluded the Meeting.

Copies of the "Summary of C. A. S. Journals, 1845-1880," just compiled by the Hon. Secretary, (Vide Resolution 5, Committee Meeting, February 2nd, 1881), were distributed among Members.
Additions to Library.

Bālagrahasāntiya (Sīhalese)—From Author.
Classified Index to the Sanscrit MSS. in the Palace at Tanjūr Part 3rd.
Dāsayura, Ocean of Verbal roots, The, 1880. (Sīhalese).—From Author.
Drama of Princess Rolina, 1879, (Sīhalese).
Ganitasāstraya, Arithmetic (Sīhalese). From Authors.
Hindū Chronology and Antediluvian History.
Do. do. do. Part II. From R. A. S. Bengal.
No. III., 1880. Do. do. Part II.
Do. do. 1880. No. IV.,
Lepidoptera of Ceylon, (Moore) Parts I. and II., 1881.—Presented by Ceylon Government.
Malwarapatalaya and Bālagrahasāntiya (Sīhalese).—From Author.
Nīti Nighanduva,. (English and Sīhalese).—Presented by Ceylon Government.
Notes upon a Denarius of Augustus Cæsar.—Presented.
Our Colony.—From Author.
Do. do. August, 1880.
Do. do. November, 1880.
Do. do. January, 1881.
Sanscrit Manuscripts of the Mahā-Rājā of Bikaner. Presented.
Sāsanaṇaṇa Dīpo (Pāli) Simālakana Dīpani (Pāli) From Author.

We were enabled to report but briefly the meeting of the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society held at the Museum yesterday. It was a pity that more Members were not present, as the Papers read were interesting. Those Papers were, however, too numerous to allow of free discussion upon them.
The first Paper read was by Mr. S. Mervin, a Jaffna Tamil, upon "Hindú Astronomy as compared with the European science." The reader spent some time in apologising for his lack of eloquence and learning, and then read extracts from his Paper. The study of Astrology, he said, was cultivated by the immediate descendants of Adam; Josephus informed us that the sons of Seth were engaged in studying Astronomy. From the Egyptians the science passed to the Greeks. It seemed to have gone from Chaldea to India and China 2,000 years B.C. The records of the efforts of the early Indian Astronomers were, however, wrapt in obscurity. At first the Hindús thought the earth was round, and that the eclipses of the moon were caused by the earth's shadow. Some, however, maintained that the earth, though round, was at rest in the centre. A few believed that the earth was flat. Mr. Mervin then referred to the principles put forward by Ptolemy, and proceeded to show that Hindú astronomy was very different from its mythology. After a short dip into Hindú mythology he turned more directly to the real subject of the paper. Many doctrines of Hindú astronomy, he said corresponded with European science. The laws of gravitation were known to the Hindús long before Sir Isaac Newton's time. The Hindús believed ages ago that the atmosphere extended 60 miles from the earth, and he reminded them that European science had decided that the atmosphere could not extend more than 50 or 60 miles. He quoted from several old Tamil works to show that a great many years ago the Hindús held very similar opinions as to the planets as those held by the Europeans of to-day.

Mr. George Wall, (after one or two Members had expressed their interest in the Paper read) said he presumed that no one would imagine that any facts stated touching the alleged discovery of the laws of gravitation before Sir Isaac Newton's time were true. That the movements of the planets were well known was of course admitted, as they were mentioned in the old astronomical books and in the Scriptures. Facts of observation were very different from those laws which govern the movements of planets. He concluded that Mr. Mervin did not profess to state that the laws of gravitation were really known by the ancient Hindús. If such an allegation were made for a moment, the fact that the Hindús thought that the sun revolved round the earth would explode the idea. That one fact was sufficient to show that the laws of gravitation were not in the slightest degree understood in olden times by the Hindús. He was quite aware that the ancients had a pretty accurate knowledge of the movements of the planets, but they did not know the causes. About the time of the transit of Venus a very learned gentleman in Colombo said to him that he could not understand why the Government were taking so many observations and spending so much money and trouble in doing so, seeing that they knew exactly when the transit would take place. When the speaker told this gentleman that they did not yet know what distance Venus and the sun were from the earth, which it was very important to ascertain, he was quite astonished. They could easily tell the exact time shown by the town clock in the tower, but they could not so easily tell the exact diameter of the face. They knew the exact movements and causes of the eclipses, but the laws of gravitation were a profound secret till the days of Sir Isaac Newton.

Mr. Smither then read his Paper upon "Some ruins at Horana."

Mr. H. C. P. Bell (Hon Sec.) read Mr. A. C. Dixon's Paper on "Gold in Ceylon."
A few "Sinhalese proverbs," from a large number of specimens by L. De Zoya, Mahâ-Mudaliyâr, were read by Mr. Rânapisâ, in the absence of the Mahâ-Mudaliyâr.

Samuel Jayatilaka Mudaliyâr's Paper on "Bee Culture in Ceylon" was read by the Hon. Secretary.

The Hon. the Chairman proposed a vote of thanks to those gentlemen who had written or read Papers. He said that they had had such a number of Papers that it had been almost impossible to pause and discuss the merits of any of them. He quite concurred with the remarks of Mr. Wall as to the knowledge of the Hindûs as to gravitation. Upon such a point they might have had a free discussion had there been time.

Mr. Wall remarked that he was not quite clear whether Mr. Mervin wished to imply that the Hindûs really understood the laws of gravitation. He proceeded (to Mr. Mervin): "Do we understand that your belief is that the laws of gravitation, as propounded and explained by Newton, were understood by the ancient Hindûs?"

Mr. Mervin: "As in other cases the principle was understood by the Hindûs, but not as improved and made perfect since in the form of a system. The principle was understood."

The Hon. P. Râma-Nâthan: "The idea is that the Hindûs should be credited with having conceived the first ideas of the laws of gravitation."

Mr. Wall: "But none of the extracts he has read bear him out: rather the opposite. The figures as to the dimensions of the earth and the times of the eclipses were ascertained by observation without any knowledge of the laws of gravitation whatever. The fact that a year consists of 365 days and so many hours could be ascertained without any knowledge of the laws of astronomy. No doubt astronomical observations were carried to a very high degree of perfection and for a very great period of time, but there has not been anything said to show that the laws or principles of gravitation were ever propounded before Sir Isaac Newton discovered them. People may find out by observation that a clock goes, and also find out what the movements indicate, but that does not prove what works the inside of it."

Mr. Mervin, to illustrate his meaning, remarked that algebra was in existence among the Hindûs ages since, but not in such perfection as among Europeans of the present day. And so attraction or gravitation was known to the Hindûs. He did not say the laws of gravitation were known to perfection.

Mr. Wall: "But it is the law which is everything in this case."

Mr. Mervin: "It says in one of the passages I read that 'the earth is standing by its own inherent force.' What is meant by 'inherent force?'

Mr. Wall: "The idea of gravitation first of all is shown with bodies having no motion. They must derive their motion from something. The first step towards gravitation is that bodies do not move at all unless they are moved by something. The facts were known, but your facts were obtained by observation, while Sir Isaac Newton's theory was laid down, whereby those facts could be confirmed and understood. Sir Isaac laid aside for 20 years his idea of the laws of gravitation because they did not agree with observation. No one had the slightest conception of the theory till Sir Isaac found it out. Then the whole thing became clear. The facts
of observation were constantly coming into contact with the theory. The laws of gravitation required that certain motions should take place by a certain planet while the facts of observation were utterly opposed to it. It was afterwards discovered that there was another planet existing beyond the one expected to change, and upon which it acted. Thus the further planet was discovered. The law of gravitation was one theory, simply enounced; not a gradually worked out fact like geometry, about which there is no principle. The law of gravitation as discovered by Newton has never been altered. When, apparently, facts were opposed to it, as in the case of the new planet, further observations by the aid of the most complete instruments have shown that the laws of gravitation were perfectly correct, the apparently contradictory facts being explained after observation. No ancient Hindú, as far as at present known, ever had the slightest inkling of knowledge of those laws. None of their facts required a knowledge of those laws."

The subject then dropped.*

The Hon. the Chairman said that was the last Meeting at which he would be present for some time, as he was about to leave for England. It was very gratifying to be able to leave the Society in such a flourishing state.

* Mr. Mervin subsequently published the following letter in the columns of the Observer:

DEAR SIR,—A portion of the Essay on Hindú Astronomy read by me at the Asiatic Society Meeting of the 7th instant, runs—"The laws of gravitation were known to the Hindús long before Sir Isaac Newton was born." The Hindú Astronomer Bāskara-āsāriyār was born in the year 1114, A.D., and composed the treatise called "Siddhánta Sirómaṇi" in 1150. In the 6th verse of the 3rd chapter of that book, the author says:—"The property of attraction is inherent in the earth. By this property, the earth attracts any unsupported heavy thing towards it. The thing appears to be falling, but it is in a state of being drawn to the earth," &c.

Sir Isaac Newton was born in the year 1642, A. D., and made the discovery of the laws of gravitation in 1703.

Does not the above quoted verse elicit that attraction of gravitation (if not the laws thereof) was known to Bāskara-āsāriyār 492 years before Newton was born? Why should any one hesitate to acknowledge this? I do not say that the laws of gravitation in their entirety were known to the Hindús. If one believes that the above verse was written by Bāskara-āsāriyār, could he doubt that the principles of attraction were known to him?

Should it be said that Bāskara-āsāriyār knew this merely from his observation, and not scientifically, the Hindús would say that even so much was not known to the western nations before Sir Isaac Newton's time; for Sir Isaac deduced the attraction from his observation of the fall of an apple. Is it not clear that no European that lived before him did ever observe the fall of an apple, and therefrom deduce the earth's attractive power? Most sciences and arts are discovered by observation. Man derives his knowledge from observation, conversation, reading and meditation; observation being the first medium. It is therefore no wonder that Bāskara-āsāriyār
During his absence, Mr. Wall, the Vice-President, would assume the Chair, and he was sure Mr. Wall would take an interest in everything affecting the Society, and contribute by his well stored mind to its benefit. He thanked the Members for the confidence shown in him by his being elected upon so many occasions as President, and assured them that he should always have the welfare of the Society at heart. At home he hoped to be of any use possible. He should try to get such Books, &c., as the Hon. Secretary might wish to obtain. He desired before leaving to recommend one very old Member who had held various offices in the Society the Mahá-Mudálíyár, Louis De Zoyza, for nomination as an Honorary Member, coupling with his name that of Professor M. Künité, who had lectured to them, sent Papers, and promised to send more.

Mr. G. Wall seconded, although, as he remarked, the proposal did not need a seconder, coming from the Chair. He wished at the same time to propose a vote of thanks to the Society's "restorer," Col. Fyers, as the Colonel had certainly fulfilled that part. The Society was in a dormant state till Col. Fyers took that lively interest in it which had revived it to its present position. He (Mr. Wall) had been a witness of the Society's career, and was only sorry that he had done so little for it.

Mr. Smither endorsed the remarks made by Mr. Wall as to the President.

The Hon. President replied, ascribing the praise to the Honorary Secretary, who had written to many people as to Papers, and by his endeavours had resuscitated the Society.

The Meeting was then adjourned till some convenient day soon, when Papers will be read.—[See Ceylon Observer, 6th April, 1881.]

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got, at least, a faint knowledge of attraction of gravitation from his observation. But that is no reason why it should be asserted that he did not know the thing.

It may be argued that the Hindus maintain, as Ptolemy did, that the sun goes round the earth, and that this is inconsistent with the laws of gravitation. It is therefore that I say that the Hindus did not know all the laws of gravitation in their entirety.

As it appears that the Europeans here did not all this time know the teachings of "Siddhánta Sirománi," it is quite right for them to say that the laws of gravitation, or gravitation itself, was not known to the Hindus before Sir Isaac Newton's time.

I would now amend the wording of my Essay thus:—"The laws of gravitation were known" &c., should be "Attraction of gravitation was known," &c.

S. Mervin.

Colombo, 13th April, 1881.
PROCEEDINGS.—1881.

GENERAL MEETING.

May 7, 1881.

Present:

The Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, Acting Colonial Secretary,
(in the Chair),

J. Capper, Esq.         | S. Râjapaksa, Mudaliyár.
A. C. Laurie, Esq.      | J. G. Smüther, Esq.
J. Loos, Esq., m.d.     | J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., m.d.
A. Murray, Esq., Hon. Treasr. | G. Wall, Esq., Vice-Presdt.

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Honorary Secretary.

1.—The Minutes of the previous Meeting were read and confirmed.

2.—The following gentlemen were elected Members of the Society:


The following were re-admitted as Members:


The Hon. Secretary announced that His Excellency the Lieut.-Governor (the Hon. J. Douglas, c.m.g.) had consented to join the Society as its Vice-Patron.

3.—The Honorary Secretary laid on the table a list of Books presented to and purchased for the Society’s Library since the last Meeting (April 7th).

4.—The Honorary Secretary then read the following Papers:

(i.) “A Short Account of the principal Religious Ceremonies observed by the Kandyans of Ceylon,” by C. J. R. Le Mesurier, Esq., c.c.s.

(ii.) “Valentyn’s Account of Adam’s Peak, by A. Spence Moss, Esq.”
(iii.) A Letter from J. G. Smither, Esq., combating Mr. S. Mervin's statement of the length of the Yójana (Paper on "Hindú Astronomy").

* The Hon. Sec., Royal Asiatic Society, C. B.

Dear Sir,—In the interesting Paper on Hindú Astronomy read at the General Meeting on Thursday, Mr. Mervin informed us that a "yójana" is considered equal to five English miles.

Referring to the glossary given in Turnour's translation of the Maháwaśó (page 30), I find the following definition of the term which I transcribe verbatim:

"Yójana—passim: a measure of distance equal to four "gáwutan," and each gáwutan, called gow in Sinhalese, is equal to four háetakmas, and an háetakma is considered equal to one English mile, which would make a yójana to be 16 miles."

This I have endeavoured to make more clear by the following table, which I have prepared from the above:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGLISH MILES</th>
<th>HETEKMAS</th>
<th>GAWS</th>
<th>YÓJANA</th>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the discrepancy between the two statements is so striking, I have thought it desirable to invite attention to it, and as Mr. Mervin tells us that he has adopted the "yójana" as a standard measure for his calculations, I venture to suggest that he be requested to favour us at our next Meeting with precise information on this important point.

I am, Dear Sir, Yours faithfully,

J. G. Smither.

Colombo, 9th April, 1881.

The Hon. Sec., Royal Asiatic Society, C. B.

Dear Sir,—With reference to Mr. J. G. Smither's letter to you, dated the 9th April, 1881, and forwarded to me on the 20th ultimo, in which it is stated, that according to the definition given in "Maháwaśó," one yójana is equal to 16 English miles, instead of 5 miles as stated by me, I would in the first place quote the passage in my Essay referring to my estimate in English miles of a yójana:

"I must say that the measurement of one yójana is not exactly settled. According to a table given in this chapter (44th chap. Andakóšam of Skandapúrśa) it is equal to 32,000 yards; according to some other authorities it is equal to 16,000 yards; and according to others, to 8,000 yards. A Chinese monk named 'Hicoun-Thang,' who visited India in the middle of the 7th century, states that in India, according to ancient tradition, a yójana equaled 40 li (a li is about 550 yards). According to the customary use of the Indian Kingdoms it is 30 li. But the yójana mentioned in the Sacred Books contains only 16 li; which smallest yójana is equal to 5 English miles."
4.—Votes of thanks to the writers of the above Papers (proposed by the Chairman), and to the Chairman (proposed by G. Wall, Esq., Vice-President, seconded by J. G. Smither, Esq.), unanimously carried, concluded the Meeting.

It is a matter of no infrequent occurrence that a term of distance, weight, or measurement, is variously estimated at different places; for instance:

One English foot is somewhat smaller than a Dutch foot.
One English pound (weight) is less than a Dutch pound.
One dollar (money) is considered by the Tamils to be £0 1 6
By the Americans ... ... ... 0 4 2

One marakal (corn measure) is considered:
By the people of Southern India to contain ... 4 quarts.
By the people of the Wanni in Ceylon ... 10 do.
By people in Batticaloa District ... ... 8 do.

One Kátham or Gawatham (distance) is estimated:
By the Indian Tamils to be ... ... 10 miles.
By the Sihaalese of Ceylon ... ... 4 do.

Before the introduction of the Imperial Measure, great uncertainty existed with regard to weights and measures used in Great Britain; for it appears from the Preamble of the Act of 1824 that different weights and measures, some larger and some less, were in use in various places. Nor were the weights and measures in France, before the Revolution, free from confusion.

Just in the same manner, one “yójana” is estimated:
By the Indian Historians to be about ... 18 miles.
By the ancient Indian Government about ... 9½ do.
By the writers of Indian Sacred Books or Shástram ... 5 do.
By the Sihaalese of Ceylon (see Maháwagso) ... 16 do.

It will be seen from the foregoing quotation that I myself have stated in the Essay, that the measurement of a “yójana” is not exactly settled, but that it is mentioned in the Sacred Books or Shástrams as equal to 5 English miles.

Further, “yójana” being a term used by the Indians in their sciences, their estimates should be adopted in preference to that of other nations.

Authorities in favour of the Estimate of 5 Miles.

I.—Winslow’s Tamil and English Dictionary, which is acknowledged to be the best of the kind:

“Gənqən (yóchanai). A measure of distance reckoned from 4 to 10 jālikai (nālikai), usually about 13 miles. Wilson, about 9 miles. In Astronomy, the 5,059th part of a great circle, or on the equator about 4½ geographical miles (or nearly 5 English miles).”
Additions to Library.

Antarāwarāna (Sīhalese), Colombo, 1875.


II.—Webster’s English Dictionary:—

“Yojan (Sanskrit Yōjaná). A measure of distance, varying from 4 to 10 miles, but usually about 5 (East Indies).”

III.—Chinese monk’s report, as above shown, 5 miles.

IV.—Mr. D. L. Carroll (Visuvaññatapillai) one of the graduates of the Batticotta Seminary, and the best Astronomer among the Tamilś of Jaffna, commenced to write Notes and a Commentary on Hiudd Astronomy, but unfortunately died before completing his work. The following table of distances is given by him:

| 24 Aṇkulams (nearly an inch) make | 1 Cubit. |
| 4 Cubits | 1 Dhanu. |
| 2 Dhanus | 1 Daṇḍam. |
| 500 Daṇḍams | 1 Kūppidu. |
| 4 Kūppidus | 1 Yōjanā. |

Mr. Carroll’s Notes say that an aṇkalam is equal to 5-6th of an inch.

According to this table a yōjana is equal to 384,000 aṇkulams, or 320,000 inches. An English mile being 1,760 yards, or 63,360 inches.

\[
\frac{320,000}{63,360} = 5.05 \text{ English miles, a yōjana.}
\]

V.—The distances in yōjanas as given in ancient works on Science, such as “Sūryasiddhāntam,” in regard to the diameter of the Earth, to the diameter of the Moon’s disc, to the atmosphere surrounding the Earth, &c., being multiplied by 5, nearly correspond with the distances in miles as given in the European works on Astronomy. This fact is an indirect proof that a yōjana as used in Hindū sciences is apparently 5 English miles.

I think that the above authorities support my statement, that a yōjana (as used in Hindū Astronomy) is approximately 5 English miles, and that the term is used in different places as expressing longer or shorter distances.

I beg to remain, Dear Sir,

Yours faithfully,

Jaffna, 2nd December, 1881.

S. MERVIN.

The Hon. Sec., Royal Asiatic Society, C. B.

DEAR SIR,—I return Mr. Mervin’s letter of the 2nd instant, which you have been so good as to forward for my perusal with yours of yesterday.

Mr. Mervin, in replying to my communication of the 9th of April last, has furnished much valuable information on the subject of the “yōjana.” The several lengths given in his letter are however so widely different one from another (varying as they do from 18 miles to 5 miles) that it seems more than ever necessary to accept with due caution astronomical calculations based on such an uncertain measure of length as the “yōjana”
Atita Wákya Dípaniya (Siíhalese Proverbs), by A. M. Séunánáyaka.
—From Author.

appears to be. Even the authorities quoted by Mr. Mervin in support of
his statement do not quite agree on the subject.

Owing to the great length of Mr. Mervin’s essay, the reading of it at
the Meeting had to be considerably abridged. Amongst the passages left
unread was that to which he refers in his letter, and his statement that a
“yójana” is equal to 5 English miles was made verbally in reply to a
question asked by one of the Members present.

Mr. Mervin will understand that my sole object in drawing attention to
this matter was to elicit information on a doubtful point, and certainly the
best thanks of the Society are due to that gentleman for taking so much
pains to supply it.

I am, Dear Sir, Yours faithfully,
Colombo, 13th December, 1881. J. G. SMITHER.

From the following additional authorities it would appear, on the whole,
safer to put the yójana at from 7 to 8 miles.

“Bopp (‘Nalus,’ p. 213) says it is equal to 8 English miles………
By following Fa Hian’s route between places of which the identity is
beyond question, as between Muttra and Canouje, and between Patna and
Benares, we find the yójan in his time to be as nearly as possible 7 English
miles; and this agrees much better with what we find the yójan to be, if
we resolve it into its component parts:

8 barley corns = 1 finger [angula].
24 fingers = 1 dund.
1,000 dund = 1 krosa.
4 krosa = 1 yójana.

This makes the yójana equal to 6 miles, 106 yards, and 2 feet”—(Princep’s
Indian Antiquities, Vol. ii., p. 130).

“The yójana, according to Mogallána’s scale (Abhidánappadipíka), would
be equal to between 12 and 12% miles, and this is the length given by Childers,
(Páli Dict.); but I think it is certain that no such scale as Mogallána
gives was ever practically used in Ceylon. The finger joint (angula), span
(vidatthi), and cubit (ratana) may have been used for short lengths; the
usabha for longer ones; the gávuta and yójana for paths or roads; but I
doubt whether any attempt was made in practice to bring these different
measures into one scheme.”—(Rhys Davids, in Numismata Orientalia,
p. 15, 1877.)

Mr. Rhys Davids then proceeds to give a tabulated statement of 30
passages on the length of the yójana, disclosing an average of about eight
miles to the yójana, and sums up:—“We have no data as yet for deter-
mining the sense in which the word yójana is used in the Three Piñakas;
in the 5th century Páli Literature it means between 7 and 8 miles” (p. 17).
prevails as to the precise measure of a yójana, which, I believe, could not
have been more than 7 or 8 English miles.”—H. C. P. B., Hon. Sec.
Budugūṇa Tarangamálaya (Siṃhalese), 1878.
Buddha, and his Doctrine, by O. Kistner.—Presented.
Catalogue, Descriptive, of Sanskrit, Pāli, and Siṃhalese Literary
Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in the North-
Western Provinces, Allahabad, 1880.
Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in Oude,
Allahabad, 1880.
Catalogue of newly-discovered Sanskrit Manu-
scripts in the Lahore Division.
Catalogue (general) of the Library of the Bombay
Branch of the R. A. S. Bombay, 1863.
Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in the Lahore
Division.
Ceylon Sketches, by Baron Eugene de Ransomnet, Vienna, 1867.
Chulla Settī Jātakaya (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1871.
Classical Dictionary of India, and Supplement, by John Garrett,
Madras, 1871 and 1873.
Comparative Grammar of the Modern A'ryan Languages of India
3 Vols, by John Beames, 1872-79.
Correspondence on Moplah Outrages in Malabar, 1849-53.
Do. 1853-59. Presented.
Dahamgeṭamálawa (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1880.
Daivajñānopadésaya (Pāli).
Dasaratha Jātaka, by V. Fausböll.
Deṇamutumálaya (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1878.
Devidat Katháwa (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1879.
Dharmapāla Sēhalla (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1870.
Five Jātakas (Pāli), by V. Fausböll, 1872.
Folk Songs (The), of Southern India, by C. E. Glover, 1872.
Gajabā Katháwa (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1877.
Giridéwi Katháwa (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1879.
Grammatography, by F. Ballhorn, 1861.
Grammaire Pālie, by J. Minayef, 1874.
Grantha Sāraya, or Classical Reader (Siṃhalése).
Gujarāthi Alphabet and Vocabulary.
Guttila Kávyaya (Siṅhalese).
History of Sind, A.D., 710–1590.—*Presented.*
History of Patmáwátí (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1880.
History of Selestina (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1875.
India in Greece, by E. Pococke, London, 1852.
Indian Antiquary, Vols. 1—4.
Indraguruḷuva, (Siṅhalese).
Introduction à l'Histoire du Buddhisme Indien, by E. Burnouf, 1876.
Island Life, by A. Wallace.
Játaka, 2 Vols. (Páli), by V. Fausböll.
Játakaratnaya (Siṅhalese).
Kalagedimálaya (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1878.
Kápirikatháwa Siṅhalese, 1880.
Kávyasékhara (Siṅhalese), 1872.
Kovul Saka (Siṅhalese).
Kúmbi Katháwa (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1874.
Kusa Játakaya (Siṅhalese), 1876.
Labdhíwisódhanaṇaya (Siṅhalese).
Laghu Kaumudí (The), Part II. Sanskrit Grammar with an English version.—*Presented.*
Life of the Prophet Jonas (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1879.
Loves of Camaralzaman and Badoura (Siṅhalese), 1876.
Magamánajáṭakaya (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1879.
Mahákannajáṭakaya (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1877.
Maháparinibbánasutta, by Professor R. C. Childers, London, 1878.
Mahásammata (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1878.
Makhádvajáṭakaya (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1877.
Márga Sankhyáwa (Siṅhalese), Colombo, 1873.
Memoir on the Sawunt Waree State, Bombay, 1855.—*Presented.*
Miscellaneous Information connected with the Satara Territory, Bombay, 1857.—*Presented.*
Muhurtachintámañi (Siṃhañeṣe).
Muwajátakaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1871.
Old Almanacs between 1705 and 1744, pamphlet.
On Sandhi in Páli, by R. C. Childers, 1879.
Oriental Series, 21 Vols. (Trübner's).
Paladáwaliya (Siṃhañeṣe).
Páli Grammar (2 parts), by F. Mason.
Papers relating to the Aboriginal Tribes of the Central Provinces, by R. Temple, c.s.i., 1866.—Presented.
Parawisandósaya (Siṃhañeṣe).
Patimokkha, The (Páli), by J. F. Dickson, 1875.
Pepiliniwan Játakaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1867.
Pēraṃkumbásirita (Siṃhañeṣe).
Piyayururatnamálaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1879.
Pólynesian Race (The), 2 Vols., by A. Forndander.
Ranahansamálaya, Párumálaya, and Pēdurmálaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1880.
Ratiratnálankáraya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1873.
Śabdárthaprákáṣaya (Siṃhañeṣe), 1873.
Saddantahéllā (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1880.
Samahansókañamálaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1878.
Sawsaddam Wádaya (Siṃhañeṣe), 1873.
Seḷa Lihini Sandéṣaya (Siṃhañeṣe).
Sinna Muttu Katháwa (Siṃhañeṣe), 1872.
South Indian Palæography, by A. C. Burnell.
Sulabáwati Katháwa (Siṃhañeṣe), 1877.
Swapnamálaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1878.
Tarangamálaya (Siṃhañeṣe), Colombo, 1877.
Ten Játakas (Páli), by V. Fausbøll.*

* Bound in 1 vol. with Five Játakas.
Translation Exercises, English-Urdú and Urdu-English, Part II.,
Calcutta, 1875.—Presented.
Viyógaratnamálaya (Sióhalese).
Widura Játakaya (Sióhalese), Colombo, 1880.
Wirahasókamálaya (Sióhalese), Colombo, 1870.

It will be remembered that at the last Meeting of the Society time would not allow of the reading of several of the Papers which had been forwarded to the Hon. Secretary, and it was decided to hold a special Meeting to hear these Papers read. This Meeting was held at the Colombo Museum this afternoon.

The Books lately received from Messrs Trübner & Co., were on view in the room.

The first Paper was one written by Mr. C. J. R. Le Mesurier, c.c.s., of Kandy, and read by the Hon. Secretary.

The Hon. Secretary then read a letter from Mr. J. G. Smither, criticising Mr. S. Mervin's calculation of the yójana in his Paper on Hindú Astronomy; after which he read Mr. A. Spence Moss's Paper on “Valentyn's account of Adam's Peak.” In the introductory letter to the Paper Mr. Moss wrote:

"With regard to the caves said to exist on Adam's Peak, I saw during my ascent in February last, some cave-like sheltering places, under huge masses of rock, which have been, and are, used by pilgrims to pass the night under, to cook under in wet weather, &c., but all traces of rock-hewn figures, or built up façade, have disappeared.

"I have waded through a good deal of Valentyn; he seems to have believed almost anything he was told, and to have confined himself to very superficial observation."

After some interesting notices of, and extracts from, Valentyn's writings, Mr. Moss remarks:

"It would be extremely interesting to know whether these caves really exist either on Adam's Peak itself or in some of the hills of the Peak range. Perhaps, if some of the gentlemen connected with the Revenue Service, of whom several are Members of this Society, were to enquire from priests and headmen, some tradition would be discovered which would lead to their identification. The author has been informed by the old priest of Aluwiháré, that there are rock-cut shrines at the base or half-way up Adam's Peak, that the approaches are now overgrown with jungle, and that no one dare make the ascent: that they lie on the west side. Possibly the priest has framed his answer in accordance with what he saw was the anxiously-expected answer, regardless of strict truth."

Votes of thanks to the writers of Papers, and to the Chairman, concluded the Meeting. It is probable that another Meeting will be held in a month.

—[See Ceylon Observer May, 7.]
Committee Meeting.
June 14, 1881.

Present:
J. G. Smither, Esq., in the Chair.
Rev. E. F. Miller, M.A. | W. Ferguson, Esq.
H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Honorary Secretary.

1.—Confirmed Minutes of last Meeting.

2.—The Honorary Secretary announced that there was a considerable balance to the credit of the Society—about £140, he believed, on the assurance of the Honorary Treasurer—and suggested that a Sub-Committee be formed to select additional new Works for the C. A. S. Library.

The following gentlemen were—subject to their consent—to be asked to act on a Book Committee:—

C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., W. Ferguson, Esq., Rev. E. F. Miller, M.A., J. G. Smither, Esq., and the Honorary Secretary.—Carried.

3.—Decided to invite C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., and J. G. Wardrop, Esq., to serve on the Committee of the Society, in place of J. B. Cull, Esq., and H. J. Macvicar, Esq., who have left the Island.

4.—The Honorary Secretary announced that Papers had been circulated among the Reading Committee, and that at a Meeting it had been decided:—

(a) That Messrs. Kunté and Nevill be asked to favour the Society with résumés of their Papers to be read at a General Meeting, on the understanding that the Papers will be published in the C. A. S. Journal in extenso.

(b) That Mr. L. Nell’s Paper on “The Sipahalese Kaláwa” be read at the next General Meeting.

5.—The Honorary Secretary announced that His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor had consented to preside at the next General Meeting, any day between the 28th instant and the 10th July. Decided to call a General Meeting for July 6th at 3:30 P.M.

6.—The Honorary Secretary stated that a new Number of the Journal (Vol. VII., pt. ii., No. 23, 1881), was in the Press and would shortly be issued. He further stated that he had been unable at present to carry out the wishes of the Committee for a new Catalogue, owing to some misunderstanding on the part of the Museum Librarian regarding the MS. Catalogue, which he trusted would soon be set right.
GENERAL MEETING.
July 6, 1881.

Present:
His Excellency the Lieut.-Governor, Hon. J. Douglas, C.M.G.,
Vice-Patron, in the Chair.

C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G. | Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft,
S. M. Burrows, Esq.    | J. G. Smither, Esq.,
C. Dickman, Esq.       | J. L. Vanderstraaten, M.D.
A. C. Dixon, Esq.      | G. Wall, Esq., Vice-President,
W. Ferguson, Esq.      | L. de Zoysa, Mahâ-Mudaliyár.
W. P. Ranasiyha, Esq.  | H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Sec.

1.—Read and confirmed Minutes of last Meeting (May 7th).

2.—The following gentlemen were elected new Members of the
Society:
Major A. Ewing, J. G. Dean, Esq., and J. P. Lewis, Esq., c.c.s.
L. F. Lee, Esq., c.c.s., was re-admitted a Member.

3.—The Hon. Secretary laid on the table a list of purchases for,
and presentations to, the Society’s Library since last Meeting.

4.—Papers read by the Hon. Secretary:
   i.—On the Sinhalese Kâlava,* by L. Nell, Esq.

* Extract from Letter to the Hon. Secretary by Dandris de Silva
   Gunaratna, Mudaliyár.

“Mr. Nell has, embodied in his Paper all that is known, or said, about
the subject among the natives. The popular idea which they have of
kâlava (කලාව) is the principle of life perpetually traversing the body
in the manner described, and having some mysterious connection with
the Moon. It is something like the Sun which, without being stationary
at any particular point, diffuses light and heat throughout the surrounding
universe. Though every part of the animal body is endued with life,
yet the centre, or nucleus, of that life is located at some point or
other in the body, not stationary but in ceaseless motion; and that is
kâlava. It is hard to say what is the difference between Amrita-kâlava
and Visa-kâlava except in the simple meanings of the two words. I
am, however, inclined to think that there are two principles acting
together but in opposite directions, the one controlling the other, in
the manner in which the Life-principle acts; Amrita-kâlava tending to
invigorate and renew the system, while Visa-kâlava tends to keep in
check the too accelerated action of the system due to the immediate
presence of the former. Any injury to the body must be felt more
painfully, and when the pain is excessive must cause death, when the
part so injured or affected is endued with greater sensibility. Wherever
the life-principle resides, there the sensibility must be the greatest. Hence
it is, I think, that people are cautioned against hurting that point in the
body where the kâlava is found on any particular day.”
ii.—*A Húniyam Image*, by L. Nell, Esq.


A short conversation initiated by His Excellency followed the reading of each Paper.

With regard to the Vēddō (Vēddās), De Zoya, Mahā-Mudaliyār, promised to submit to the Society, at an early date, as complete a Vocabulary of their language as he had been able to procure, though much of the same ground had been probably covered by Messrs. Bailey and Hartshorne.

5.—A vote of thanks to His Excellency for presiding, proposed by George Wall, Esq., seconded by J. G. Smither, Esq., closed the proceedings.

**Additions to Library.**

All about Gold, Gems, and Pearls, in Ceylon, Colombo, 1881.
Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS., Calcutta, 1880.—*Presented*.
Cinchona Cultivation into India, Introduction of, by C. Thankar.
Journal of the North China Branch of the R. A. S.

Do. do.
Do. do.
Do. R. A. S. of Bengal 1881. [From R. A. S. North China, and Bengal.]
Do. do.

Lepidoptera of Ceylon (The), Parts 1 and 2.—*Presented by Ceylon Government*.

Malayālam and English Dictionary (A), by Rev. H. Gundert, D.D.
Phrase Book of Colloquial Siphalese, Colombo, 1877.
Proceedings of the R. A. S. of Bengal [From A. S. Bengal.]

Report on Sanskrit, MSS.—*Presented*.
Sanskrit Sēłda Máłáwa.—*Presented*.
Selections from the Records of the Government of India.—*Presented*.
Siphalese Lesson Book on Ollendorff’s System, by Rev. C. Carter.
Committee Meeting.

September 12, 1881.

Present:

J. G. Smither, Esq., in the Chair.

W. Ferguson, Esq.  J. L. Vanderstraaten, M.D.
J. G. Wardrop, Esq.  H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Sec.

1.—Confirmed Minutes of previous Meeting.

2.—The Honorary Secretary announced that the following Paper had been sent in:

_On the 'Mira Kanduri' Festival of the Muhammadans in Ceylon_, by A. T. Shams-ud-Din;

and that Dr. Vanderstraaten promised a Paper on "Sericulture in Ceylon."

Decided to call a General Meeting at an early date, and to invite His Excellency to preside.

3.—The Honorary Secretary read a letter from G. Wall, Esq., Vice-President, announcing his immediate departure from the Island. The Secretary pointed out that the Society would thus be left without its President (Col. A. B. Fyers, R.E.) or either of its Vice-Presidents, (W. R. Kynsey, Esq., R.C.M.G., and G. Wall, Esq.)

Proposed by J. G. Smither, Esq., seconded by J. G. Wardrop, Esq., that the Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, and C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., be invited to become additional Vice-Presidents of the Society.—Carried unanimously.

4.—The Honorary Secretary stated that a new Catalogue was in the Press, but that some time must elapse before it could be issued, owing to the little leisure he was able to devote to the revision of proofs.

5.—The Honorary Secretary suggested that the Society might from the commencement of next year (1882) issue—say twice a year, a Supplement to its Journal, consisting of extracts from Works now scarce, or out of print, (e.g., Ceylon Almanacs, 1833-35; Colombo Journal, 1832-3) relating to Ceylon.

Decided to obtain from the local presses estimates of the cost per page of printing such a Supplement—the question to stand over meanwhile.
The Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, Vice-President, in the Chair.

A. C. Dixon, Esq. | W. K. James, Esq.
Major A. Ewing. | J. Loos, Esq., M.D.
W. Ferguson, Esq. | J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Honorary Secretary.

G. C. Hill, Esq., and Dr. J. Stevenson were introduced as Visitors.

1.—Read and confirmed Minutes of last Meeting.

2.—The following gentlemen were elected Members of the Society:


3.—The Honorary Secretary laid on the table a list of Books presented to, and purchased for, the Society's Library since last Meeting.

4.—The following Papers were read:

i. —A Synopsis of a Paper on Sericulture in Ceylon, by J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.

The process of rearing Silkworms was illustrated in detail.

Mr. James then addressed the Meeting at some length, recounting his efforts (hitherto abortive) to introduce the Bombyx, commonly found in the Cinnamon Gardens round Colombo, to the notice of silk-weavers in Europe, and exhibited some of the cocoons of this species of moth. Some general conversation on the subject followed.

ii. —In the absence of the authors the Honorary Secretary read extracts from:

(a.)—A Paper "On the 'Mirakanduri' Festival of the Muhammadans as observed in Colombo," by A. T. Shams-ud-Din.

(b.)—From Mudaliyár S. Jayatillaka's Paper "On Sizhalese Omens."

5.—A vote of thanks to the Chairman closed the Proceedings.
After the Minutes of the last Meeting had been read and confirmed Dr. J. L. Vanderstraaten was called upon to read his Paper on "Sericulture in Ceylon." The learned Doctor said that he would not read his Paper in toto, but would just refer to the way in which the cultivation of silk had been introduced into Ceylon, and describe the specimens of eggs, worms, moths, &c., which he had brought with him. He informed the Meeting that in the time of the Portuguese and Dutch there had been a garden of mulberries and buildings for the rearing of silkworms on the bank of the Kelapi, called Orta Seda, which is the Portuguese for 'silk garden,' but when the British took possession they found the industry abandoned. His Excellency the Governor, Sir James Longden, has introduced eggs from Japan, and it is hoped the culture will prove successful and remunerative. Father Palla, of the Roman Catholic Mission, now at Galie, who has the good of the people much at heart, is devoting much time and care to the pursuit, and has succeeded so well that he hopes Ceylon will in time rival Japan in the export of eggs to England. It seems that in Japan the moths are made to lay their eggs (which they do most systematically) on sheets of card-board, stamped with the Japanese mark: the moths resulting from one card are expected to fill 100 more cards with eggs;—or, in other words, one card, weighing 1 oz. and costing Rs. 10, yields Rs. 1,000 worth of eggs. If mulberries are plentiful two such supplies can be obtained in a year. Father Palla expects to obtain like results or even better, for he has succeeded, he believed, in rearing two batches in the year against the single crop of Japan. The eggs received by him from Japan began to hatch soon after their arrival in December; they formed cocoons in a month, and the moths which came out of these cocoons laid eggs on a card (which was exhibited). These eggs are now hatching, and the larvae, cocoons, moths, &c., shown at the Meeting were from these eggs.

Mr. James said that at the request of several of his correspondents he had repeatedly endeavoured to introduce the cinnamon-garden Bombyx into Europe, but from various causes his efforts hitherto had not met with success. The moths in some instances had all come out during transit, some with only one wing, some with none at all, and all "shouting for elbow room." Then the Post Office refused to take live stock, as it introduced vermin to the destruction of letters. He had always sent chrysalides, as he had been specially requested not to send eggs: he did not know why. He had asked Mr. De Soysa to get his cinnamon-peelers to collect the caterpillars, promising so much a caterpillar, but the latter said they could not (?) find any. He himself had once found 150 all together, not on the cinnamon, but on a large tree whose name he did not know: that was the biggest haul he had ever made. He might say that this insect was already acclimatized to England, for it fed freely on the leaves of apple, pear, and other English fruit trees. The difficulty was to get the moths or eggs safely transmitted.

After Dr. Vanderstraaten had answered the many various questions put to him, and Mr. W. Ferguson had stated that the mulberry grew freely enough in Ceylon,

Mr. Bell (Hon. Sec.) read extracts from a Paper "On the Muhammadian Festival 'Mira Kanduri,'" by A. T. Shams-ud-din. The most interesting part was a reference to the manner in which the Maldivians were converted
to Islám. Mr. Bell referred to the description of the conversion given by the Arab traveller Ibn Batútá, and stated that he had just come across a Tamil book containing another account of the miracles performed at the time, which smacked of the Arabian Nights. This he had translated and would, with the permission of the Meeting, read. It was just the tale of the fisherman, the brass bottle, and the “Ifrít,” over again, only in this instance the bottle containing the imprisoned Jinn is dropped into the sea off Point-de-Galle.

Mr. Bell next read extracts from S. Jayatilaka Mudaliyar’s Paper ‘On Singhalese Omens.” By general consent those connected with crows, lizards, and dogs were selected, and the various omens created great amusement. A dog getting on to the roof of a house was given as the worst of omens, many new houses having been abandoned and allowed to go to ruin from this cause.

The election of several new Members (including four Doctors) shows that the Society is rapidly gaining new life and vigour.

Mr. W. Ferguson added to the interest of the Meeting by exhibiting a true chameleon which he had captured in the Cinnamon Gardens, and which he believed to be an escape, as none had ever been found in this part of Ceylon before. [See Ceylon Observer, October 7.]

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Additions to Library.


Bibliotheca Orientalis, or a List of Books, Papers, Serials and Essays, 5 Vols.


Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in the North-Western Provinces, Part VI., Allahabad, 1881.—Presented.

Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in Oude for 1880, prepared by Pandit Devi Prásáda, Allahabad, 1881.—Presented.

Census Panegyric (Singhalese), Colombo, 1881.—From Author.

Ceylon Friend (The), Vols. I.—XI., 1870 to 1881. (New Edition.)

De Mohammed Batuta Arabe Tingitano, by Kosegarten, 1818.

Dhammapada, The, (Singhalese), Colombo, 1879.


Historical Relation of the Island of Ceylon in the East Indies, by Robert Knox, 1681.
Indian Poetry, by E. Arnold, London, 1881.
Journal of the A. S. of Bengal, 1881.—From A. S. Bengal.
Journal of the Straits Branch of the R. A. S., Nos. 2 to 7.—From A. S. Straits.
Journal of the R. A. S., Great Britain and Ireland, old series, Vols. VI., XI., part i., XII., XIII.
Milindapraśnāya (Siṃhalese).
New Testament (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1878.
Pielat's Thesaurus Zeylanicus, 1678.
Prinsep's Indian Antiquities, edited by Thomas, 2 Vols.
Proceedings of the A. S. Bengal, Nos. 5, 6 and 7, May, June, and July, 1881.—From A. S. Bengal.
Sacred Books of the East, Vols. IX., and X. Edited by F. Max Müller, Oxford, 1881.
Sāmuddrikārātānaya (Siṃhalese), Colombo, 1878. From Smithsonian Institute.
Smithsonian Report, 1879.
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY (CEYLON BRANCH).

Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, Vols. XXI., XXII., Washington.
Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge, Vol. XXIII., Washington, 1881.

Tropical Agriculturist (The), 5 Nos.—i.e., June, July, August, September, and October, Colombo, 1881.


Voyages d'Ibn Batoutah, 4 Vols. and Index, Paris, 1879.

Voyage to the Spice Islands and New Guinea, by M. P. Sennerat, 1781.

Voyage aux Indes Orientales, 1782.

ANNUAL MEETING.

December 16, 1881.

His Excellency Sir J. R. Longden K.C.M.G., in the Chair.

T. Berwick, Esq.
W. J. S. Boake, Esq.
C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., Vice-President.
J. F. Churchill, Esq.,
J. D. M. Coghill, Esq., M.D.
A. C. Dixon, Esq.
Major A. Ewing.
W. Ferguson, Esq.
W. K. James, Esq.

A. Jayawardhana, Mudaliyar.
L. F. Lee, Esq.
F. C. Loos, Esq.
J. Loos, Esq., M.D.
E. F. Perera, Esq.
Hon. P. Rama-Nathan.
W. P. Raqasiqa, Esq.
Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, Vice-President.
E. Robinson, Esq.

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Honorary Secretary.

Adrian Hope, Esq., F.S., was introduced to the Meeting.

1.—The Minutes of the last Meeting (October 6th, 1881) were read and confirmed.

2.—Mr. C. Bruce, C.M.G., proposed, and Mr. W. Ferguson seconded, the election of the following candidates as new Members:

Hon. J. Stoddart, and Messrs. C. E. Dunlop, C.C.S., L. J. E. G. Tate, C.C.S., and Adrian Hope.

No objection being taken to the proposed candidates, they were declared duly elected Members of the Society.
3.—The Honorary Secretary laid on the table the books presented to, and purchased by, the Society since the last General Meeting.

4.—The Meeting proceeded to consider the amendments in the Rules, approved by the Committee:

(a) In Rule 3; after clause (b) to add the following:—“Persons desirous of rejoining the Society may be re-admitted Members without entrance fee, subject to the discretion of the Managing Committee.”—Agreed to.

(b) In Rule 4; to substitute for the words “all appointed from time to time by open vote at some General Meeting,” the words “all appointed by open vote at the Annual Meeting.”—Agreed to.

(c) It was proposed to follow up the previous amendment by the following clause:—”By departure from the Island any Office-bearer shall be held to have vacated his office.”

This provoked considerable discussion.

The Hon. P. Râma-Nathân suggested that, in place of the above clause, the Rule with reference to the Legislative and Municipal Councils should be adopted; viz., if any officer absents himself from the Colony, and continues to be absent for three months, he shall, ipso facto, vacate his office.

Mr. Berwick thought it would be rather hard that any officer, who should absent himself for three months, say by taking a holiday trip—for instance to the Nilgherries—should thereby vacate his office. It seemed to him that the proposed rule would work very prejudicially to the interests of the Society. Ultimately the following amendment, proposed by Mr. Berwick and seconded by Mr. L. F. Lee, was adopted:

“In the event of any Office-bearer leaving the Colony for three (3) months, it shall be competent for the Committee to fill up the office at the next General Meeting.”

(d) To substitute in Rule 7, for the words “in the first week of November,” the words “in December.”—Agreed to.

(e) Subject to the consent of Museum Committee, to adopt the Rules for the C. A. S. Library, drawn up by the Honorary Secretary, in place of the Resolutions of the Museum Committee at present appended to the Rules of the Society.

This, after considerable discussion, was withdrawn in favour of the following amendment:

“That the Committee of the C. A. S. in conjunction with the Museum Committee, do consider the new Rules for the C. A. S.
Library drawn up by the Honorary Secretary, with a view to their adoption."

5.—Mr. J. F. Churchill proposed and Dr. Loos seconded, that the following Office-bearers, nominated by the Committee, be elected for the ensuing year:—

President.—C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G.
Vice-Presidents.—The Hon. R. Cayley, Chief Justice, and the Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, C.C.S.
Hon. Treasurer.—J. G. Wardrop, Esq.
Hon. Secretary.—H. C. P. Bell, Esq., C.C.S.

—Carried.

The Secretary then read the

Annual Report.

"Your Committee wish to revive the salutary practice, which has been in abeyance for a decade, of submitting to the Society annually a brief Report, giving a résumé of the year's work, and intended to supplement the usual Address of the President.

"As in 1871, when the last Report was issued, so now your Committee is able to congratulate the Society on "the new era which has dawned upon it." It is highly satisfactory to believe that the efforts made to resuscitate the "dry bones" from the apparently hopeless sleep of at least five years (1874-1879) have met with success, and that the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society is once more in a fair way to re-assume the creditable position it formerly held among earned sister Societies.

"That a Society of this nature should have to pass through vicissitudes of fortune, is but to be expected, and the life history of the Ceylon Asiatic Society, as our past records disclose, has been marked by such alternations. The causes are easily traceable:—frequent changes of Secretaries—departure from Colombo, or the Island, of Members able and willing to help forward the Society's interests—the irregular issue of Journals—and, perhaps above all, the long intervals which have been allowed to lapse between Meetings. It is, therefore, the more encouraging to note that Phoenix-like, the Society has ever risen from its ashes and developed renewed vigour for another lease of life.

"Members.—The Society has received during the year an accession to its numbers of 30 ordinary Members, of whom nine have rejoined. Two Members have left Ceylon and relinquished their connection
with the Society. In May the Lieutenant-Governor, the Hon. J. Douglas, C.M.G., consented to join the Society and become its Vice-Patron. There are now on the list 11 Life Members, 4 Honorary Members, and 94 ordinary Members, or 109 in all. These figures cannot but be satisfactory as showing that the Society is steadily regaining the attention of intelligent members of the community interested in the objects which it sets before it. Cordial relations have been re-established with many corresponding Societies, and the awakening once more to active life of the Ceylon Asiatic Society is welcomed on all sides.

"Meetings.—During the year four General Meetings have been held, your Committee has met four times, and the Book and Reading Committee as occasion required.

"Papers.—There has been no lack of Papers sent in to the Hon. Secretary, and it is believed that these will not suffer by comparison with those of past years generally. The coming year promises to witness the publication of further valuable and interesting Papers of equal, if not higher merit.

"Journals.—In the 10 years between 1871 and 1880 inclusive, the Society issued only seven Numbers of its Journal (1870-71, 1871-72 with Proceedings, 1873 pt. i., 1874 pt. i., 1879, 1880, 2 pts.), and, in separate pamphlet form, Proceedings 1870-71 and 1873-74.

"At the outset of the present year matters stood as follow:—

(a) Proceedings of the Society had not been published for five years.

(b) Journals had been issued so irregularly that not only had many fallen out of print, but the Library of the Society itself was without a single copy of several Numbers, nor was it known how many Journals had been published since the institution of the Society.

"Steps were at once taken by your Committee to remedy these defects. Government liberally acceded to a request for permission to have the back Numbers of the Society's Journals, the stock of which had become exhausted, reprinted at the Government Press, and a private member (Mr. D. W. Ferguson) generously lent his copies—the only complete set available—for the purpose. The Numbers out of print are, 1848-49, 1849-50, 1853 No. 1, 1856-58 2 pts., 1858-59, 1860-61, 1870-71. Pressure of other business prevented the work of reprinting progressing as fast as had been anticipated, and it is a question whether it may not be desirable to entrust a portion of the Journals to be reprinted to some local press. The Journal for 1853, No. 1, (now classed as No. 6, 1853) is, however, on the eve of completion, and another Number is well advanced.
To put an end to the confusion as to past Journals, your Committee desired the Honorary Secretary to draw up an authoritative division into Volumes, numbering them consecutively. A "Summary of the Ceylon Asiatic Society's Journals, 1845-1880," giving the headings of the several Papers, was accordingly issued, by which the 22 Numbers were divided into six Volumes. It is hoped this summary of contents may be of use (provisionally at least), and your Committee is glad to announce that a Member of the Society (Major A. Ewing) has consented to undertake the preparation of an Index to Volumes I to VI.

The 'Summary' was preceded by 'Proceedings, 1875-80,' and has been followed by Journal, Vol. VII., pt. i., No. 23, 1881. A new Number is in the Press.

Library.—At the commencement of the year it was brought to the notice of the Committee that the state of the Books, &c., in the Society's Library was such as to call for immediate action. It was found that from neglect, and carelessness, not only had a large proportion of the Books, &c., remained unbound for many years, or been bound up irregularly, but very many had become so dilapidated as to necessitate their being rebound without delay, and that there were large gaps in series of the Transactions of various Societies, and in other Periodicals, one or two volumes missing from many sets—besides several valuable works, which it is well known were formerly in the Library and have unaccountably disappeared. Efforts have been made during the year to fill these gaps, as far as possible, and, thanks to the generosity of other Societies, back Numbers of their Transactions have been received to fill the places of those missing. Of course the Society has been put to considerable expense by having to repurchase important works, which it once possessed, at an enhanced price. Thus, to give but one instance—in 1867, Princep's invaluable "History of Indian Antiquities," edited by Thomas, was purchased for £1 5s. It disappeared, and the Society had this year to replace it at a cost of £8 8s.!

Some excuse for this discreditable state of things may be found in the fact of the necessary confusion occurring at the time of the transfer to the Museum building, to the want of a paid Librarian, and the absence of a Catalogue of the Library. The last Catalogue (on the alphabetical system) was issued in 1870, and has long been out of print. After the transfer of the books to the Museum the Library became virtually useless to all except a few readers, whose time fortunately allowed them to attend the Museum. By Resolutions of the Museum Committee, the rule by which the books could not be taken out of the Museum was relaxed as regards the Society's Library. The want of a new Catalogue was, however, keenly felt, and your Committee learns with satisfaction that one is now in the
Press, and will be put into the hands of Members as soon as the Honorary Secretary can single-handed revise the proofs.

"At their last Meeting, the Committee resolved to ask Government to allow the present Attendant at the Museum to be employed as paid Librarian of the Society upon an increase to his salary of £6 a year payable by the Society. This boon Government has granted. New Rules for the Library (adopted almost verbatim from those of the R. A. S. Bengal, June, 1878) have been submitted to the Museum Committee, and it is expected will obtain their sanction.

"Regarding additions to the Library made during the year, the Committee need do no more than refer to the lists which follow the Proceedings of each General Meeting in proof of the substantial gain thus acquired by the Society. Many valuable presentations have been made, and a sum of over £100 spent on the purchase of works. The improvement in the appearance of the Books on the shelves will be apparent, and that the sum expended on book-binding has been properly employed. Some 200 Volumes in all have been bound, or rebound, during the year. With the new Catalogue and explicit Rules in the hands of Members, the Library cannot fail to be more generally used than has been the case hitherto.

"Money.—The Balance sheet of the year's expenditure is appended. As was to be expected, the disbursements have been exceptionally heavy, but the Society's annual revenue, coupled with the large amount to its credit at the close of last year, has enabled the Committee to spend freely wherever the interests of the Society seemed to require. In spite of all there is remaining a balance to the credit of the Society of Rs. 614·89.

"The Committee cannot close their report without a special expression of their regret that Mr. A. Murray finds that his other duties will not allow him to continue as Honorary Treasurer. When Mr. Murray first assumed duties in 1877, the Society was in a state of chaos, and it is greatly due to his energy and zeal that a collapse was then prevented. The subscriptions had not been called in for some years, and the accounts of the Society were apparently in hopeless confusion. Mr. Murray grappled with the difficulty so effectually as to be able to continue to show a clean balance-sheet yearly."

C. Bruce Esq., c.m.g., moved, and the Honorary Secretary seconded, the adoption of the Report.—Carried nem. com.

Major Ewing then moved, and W. Ferguson, Esq., seconded, a cordial vote of thanks to the retiring Honorary Treasurer, Mr. Murray.—Carried unanimously.

C. Bruce, Esq., c.m.g., having returned thanks for the honor done him, in electing him President of this Society for the ensuing year, proceeded to read his Address:
The Rules of our Society set forth that its design is to institute and promote enquiries into the History, Religion, Literature, Arts and Social Condition of the present and former inhabitants of the Island, with its Geology and Mineralogy, its Climate and Meteorology, its Botany and Zoology. It will be convenient for me to adhere to this order in a brief survey of the work accomplished, or undertaken, during the year, either by Members of our Society or by others interested in our design.

**History.**

Since our last Meeting, Dr. E. Müller's Archæological labours in Ceylon have come to an end. Translations of eleven ancient inscriptions from the Anurádhapura and Hambantota districts, now in the Museum, have recently been published as a Sessional Paper, and the Society now looks forward with interest to his final Report on the collective results of the archæological work done by Dr. Goldschmidt and himself. When Dr. Müller left the colony, three months' leave was given to him for the preparation of this Report, which we may therefore shortly expect.

Oriental scholars interested in Ceylon will regret to hear that Mahá-Mudaliyár de Zoysa's translation of the Maháwañso has been for some time delayed by his failing health and loss of sight, and is now temporarily suspended, in order that he may complete the Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS. in the Temple Libraries, on which he has been long engaged. In the course of his official visits to the Temple Libraries, the Mahá-Mudaliyár has had many opportunities of collecting information about the Vēddás, and the results of these incidental studies he is now preparing to contribute to our Journal. On the question of the origin of the Vēddás, he has called attention to an important passage in the Maháwañso, the meaning of which he believes to be misinterpreted in Turnour's translation. The Maháwañso narrates the adventures and marriage of Vijayo—who in B.C. 548 landed near the mouth of the Mí-oya, on the site of the present Puttalam, and founded the historical dynasty of Ceylon—with an aboriginal princess named Kuvéni, by whom he had a son named Jívahatto and a daughter named Disála. Kuvéni and her children, having been banished by Vijayo on his determining to marry a daughter of the South Indian King Pañávavo of Madura, took refuge in the country near the Samantakúta mountain (Adam's Peak) where Jívahatto married his sister and had a numerous family, of whom, if the interpretation given to the passage by the Mahá-Mudaliyár is correct, the Vēddás are the descendants. In the course of his official duties, the Mahá-Mudaliyár has ascertained the existence of a tradition, apparently independent of the Maháwañso, that the Vēddás were originally settled in the Sabara-
gamuwa district. To his note contributed to our Journal on this subject he has added a few specimens of Veddá songs and charms, and he has nearly ready for publication a Vocabulary of the Veddá language. It is desirable that the primitive elements of the language of this singular people should be established without delay. It is stated that they now communicate more freely with their neighbours, and, if this is the case, their original vocabulary is likely soon to be much disguised by the introduction of foreign words and forms. Another member of our Society, Mr. C. J. R. Le Mesurier, c.c.s., has also been collecting notes on the subject of the Veddás, which he hopes to complete during a projected shooting excursion in the Veddá country.

Two Veddá skulls were sent last year to Professor Virchow, of Berlin, to be examined by that eminent anthropologist. They have recently been returned to the Museum, but we have not yet ascertained the results of Professor Virchow's examination.* Before making his report, he has asked for further information as to the number of Veddás still in existence, as to their colour, the shape of their features, and their size compared with Tamils and Singhalese. He has also asked for a series of photographs illustrative of good types of the race. A few photographs have already been taken, and copies of them are in the Museum.

Mr. H. Nevill, c.c.s., has contributed to our Journal an erudite essay in identification of Kalah, the emporium in Ceylon, where the products of Eastern Asia were gathered for the markets of the West. Sir Emerson Tennent believed that the ancient centre of the kingdom of Kalah was the modern port of Galle, but Mr. Nevill has endeavoured to show that the emporium of Taprobane or Serendib, from B.C. 500 until a comparatively recent time, was not Galle, but the coast from Maññár to the Deñuru-oya. He believes that the emporium was not limited to one spot, but consisted of a cluster of petty ports, while the site of Tammanná Nuwara was the capital of the ruler who governed under the Sultans of Zabad. The identification of a commercial centre naturally suggests an enquiry into the circumstances and nationality of the people by whom it was maintained, and has led Mr. Nevill to an extensive study of the legendary and historical narratives connected with the early colonization of the Island. The results of these studies have brought him to the conclusion that the term Nágas signifies historically an aboriginal tribe of snake-worshippers whose descendants form, with an infusion of Aryan blood, the bulk of our Singhalese population, while the term Yakkhos signifies historically the ancestors of the Tamils of the Jaffna Wanni, the Eastern Province, and the Puttalam district, who held the emporium

* Professor Virchow’s essay, Ueber die Weddas von Ceylon und ihre Beziehungen zu den Nachbarstämmen has since been received.
of trade as a colony of the empire of Zabedj, in opposition to the Nágas, who held the rest of the Island. Mr. Nevill is now engaged on some essays on the religions and races of Southern India, which he hopes to put in circulation among literary Societies early next year.

Mr. Albert Gray has offered us, as a contribution to our knowledge of a later period of Ceylon history, a translation from the French of Debrémy and Sanguinetti of so much of the Travels of Ibn Batúta (about A. D. 1344) as relates to Ceylon and the Máldive Islands. This we propose to publish in the first Number of our Journal for 1882, and in order to render it more valuable by the accurate identification of the places mentioned in the text we are sending proof-sheets of the Ceylon portion to Members of the Society, and others from whom we hope to receive assistance, with a request that their suggestions and views may be communicated to us.

Mr. Donald Ferguson is preparing for our Society a translation of an Essay, "Origem do Reino dos Leoes e do Nome de Ceylao," by J. de Vasconcellos Abreu.

Our excellent Secretary is collecting information, letters, &c., touching the English and French captives in Kandy in the 17th century.

Before passing to another branch of the investigations of the Society, I would invite attention to the materials for historical research contained in the Government Record Office. Col. Fyers pointed out last year that the Dutch Records must contain valuable information, bearing on the past history and administration not only of this Island but also of the various settlements and marts mostly established by the Dutch. It is worth the consideration of the Committee whether some portion of our funds might be annually devoted to the preparation of a summary of the Colonial Office Records as suggested by Col. Fyers. There is the more reason to think seriously of this proposal, as before long many of the older Dutch Records are likely to succumb to age, climate, or insects.

Religions.

The Asiatic and Oriental Societies of Europe and their branches in the East are not in the accepted sense of the term "Religious Societies," but a very large share of their enterprise has always been devoted to the investigation of the religion of the East. In these investigations Christian Missionaries have taken an important part, and the earlier Journals of our Society owe much of their value to the contributions of the Rev. D. J. Gogerly, the Rev. Spence Hardy, and others. In the new revival of our Society we shall be glad to receive the assistance of their successors and disciples. In estimating the extent and depth of Mission work in the East, even those who are least inclined to look with partiality on Mission
agencies must in candour admit that, while the Missionaries of various
denominations are labouring to translate the Christian scriptures into
all the languages of the world, in order to bring the doctrines of the
Christian faith within the comprehension of peoples of every tongue,
they avail themselves also of the linguistic abilities thus acquired in
doing for the adherents of other religious systems what they have
been slow to do for themselves. By means of translating, and still
more by critical editions of the original text of the ancient Books
which claim to be the inspired repositories of their several creeds,
Christian scholars have now made it possible for the adherents of the
four chief antagonistic systems prevalent in the world—Christianity,
Brâhmanism, Buddhism, and Islâm—to study each other’s dogmas;
and indeed their own, in the books held sacred by each (Modern
India, Monier William, p. 204.)

In view of the enthusiastic interest with which Buddhistic studies
have lately been prosecuted in Europe, I may be allowed to draw
attention to two valuable repositories of Buddhist works, not widely
known in Ceylon, and probably unknown altogether to European
scholars. I refer to the Vidyódaya College Library, and the Library
of the priest Subhúti Terunnáñe at Waskaðuwa. The former
Library was founded by the high priest Sumangala, Principal of the
College, and opened about two years ago. It contains Páli, Sanskrit
and English works. The Páli works are all in manuscript, and
consist of the three Piṭakas and grammatical writings. They are all
arranged and classified. Most of the Sanskrit works are in print.
The Sîhalese works include both MSS. and printed books. The
English books are confined chiefly to works on Buddhism and the
History of India. The Library is intended for public use without
payment of any subscription. At present it is almost exclusively
used by the students of the College. As a large collection is expected
shortly to be added to the Library, it would be of advantage that the
preparation of a catalogue should be commenced without delay. The
Waskaðuwa Library is the property of Subhúti Terunnáñe. It
contains a large collection of Buddhist doctrinal works in the Páli
language in Burmese characters, together with a good selection of
Sanskrit and Sîhalese works. I may here add that the learned
master of this Library has prepared a revised edition of the Páli dic-
tionary—Abhidhánappadipikā—which is now being printed at the
cost of Government. He has been good enough to send me a
Catalogue of the works in his Library, which will be of service for
the Páli Text Society, which has been started on the model of the
Early English Text Society in order to render accessible to students
the hitherto unedited stores of early Buddhist Literature. The pros-
pectus of the Society was published in the first part of our Journal
for the present year, and a further statement of the position and
intention of the Society will be appended to our next issue.
Mr. Donald Ferguson has in hand for our Society the text and a translation of "Jinacaritaṇ, a life of Buddha in Pāli verse.

A private Society of Buddhists has lately published, at the Satthālōka Press in Colombo, the "Sāsanavāyu Dīpō: a History of the Buddhist Church in Pāli verse, compiled from Buddhist scriptures, commentaries and histories, by A’cháriya Vimalasāra Thera, of the Ambagahapitiya Vihārē." The author and publishers of this work state that, having published it "with the view of promoting the interests of religion," they "have decided not to sell it, but to present free copies to those whom they may consider deserving." I have no doubt that they will consent to supply copies to learned Societies and scholars interested in the subject with which it deals.

The Society will learn with pleasure that Professor M. M. Künte, who in the year 1879 gave us an interesting lecture in this room on the Vedic and Buddhistic politics, as the two influences which formed the present Brāhmanic policy of India, has forwarded to us a Paper on Nirvāṇa, in its connection with the social and religious developments traced in his lecture. Professor Künte's paper will be printed in our Journal next year, and I will not now anticipate its publication.

A short account of the principal religious ceremonies observed by the Kandyans, by Mr. C. J. R. Le Mesurier, was read at our May meeting. In addition to public ceremonies and processional festivals, it gives an interesting account of ceremonies connected with private life and personal religion, including Pirit, a ceremony to ward off evil, performed on the occasion of some epidemic or a serious illness, which is very minutely described; Godana Mangalyaya ceremony, performed for the very aged or those who are about to die; Mataka Dana, the ceremony of conferring merit on the dead; and Awa Mangalyaya, the ceremony in which offerings are made by the friends of a deceased person to the priests "in order that they may obtain merit in the name of the deceased."

We are printing a short paper by Mr. A. T. Shams-ud-dīn on the Mira Kandūrī festival of the Muhammadans, annually held at the Maradāna mosque in honor of Mira Saib— a patron saint of Musulmān ship captains and sailors. Mr. H. C. P. Bell has given a particular interest to this contribution by a note on the legend which attributes to the miraculous intervention of this saint in the Mādīves, by destroying a Jinn, to which the sacrifice of a girl had to be annually made, the conversion of the Mādīve people to Islām.

At the International Congress of Orientalists, held in Berlin in September last, Professor Monier Williams read a paper on the place which the Rig-veda occupies in the Sandyhá, or daily morning and evening prayers, of the Hindūs. Taille to this subject here, because it would be interesting for European scholars to know how far the Rig-veda, which serves as a bond of religious communion between
millions of Indo-Aryans spread over the vast area of India, distinct from each other in separate caste and communities, and owning subjection to divers laws and customs, forms a constituent part of the religious ceremonial of Ceylon Hindús. In the hope that the enquiry may engage the attention of Members or others interested in the design of our Society, I subjoin an abstract of Prof. William’s paper:

“The Hindú worshipper, before offering his first morning prayer, is required to bring body and mind into a proper condition of purity and attention. He must bathe, apply ashes to his limbs and forehead, bind up his hair, sip pure water thrice from some sacred stream, inhale pure air into his lungs and retain it for some time in his chest by suppressing his breath. These preliminary acts must be completed before the sun rises. Then, turning towards the eastern sky, he utters his first morning prayer in Sanskrit—the celebrated Gayatri prayer from Rig-veda iii., 62, 10—which like the Lord’s Prayer among Christians, and like the Fáthiḥah or first chapter of the Kurán among Muhammadans, must always among Hindús take precedence of all other forms of supplication. It may be thus translated:—

‘Let me meditate on the excellent glory of the divine vivifying sun. May he enlighten my understanding.’ The worshipper next performs a kind of self-baptism by pouring water over his own head, at the same time reciting the hymn Rig-veda x., 9:—‘O, waters, give fine health; bestow upon me vigour and strength,’ etc. After that comes the repetition of the Agha-marshana or ‘guilt-extinguishing’ hymn (Rig-veda, x., 190), supposed to have an all-powerful effect in removing sin and containing a summary of the course of creation:—‘From glowing heat sprang all existing things; yea, all the order of this universe, etc.’ The worshipper then renders homage to the rising sun by throwing water towards that luminary three times, each time repeating the Gayatri prayer (Rig-veda, iii., 62, 10: as before), after which he repeats a prayer to the eternal mother Aditi, from Rig-veda, v., 69, 3:—‘I invoke the divine Aditi at early dawn,’ etc. The worshipper now sits down on the ground, repeating at the same time a prayer to the Earth:—‘Goddess, support me, purify my seat on the bare ground.’ This is followed by some remarkable gesticulations. To a spectator it appears as if the worshipper were crossing himself, but he is really touching various parts of his own body—such as eyes, ears, and breast and head—with his fingers, as an act of homage to those organs, supposed to be animated by the Divine presence. After this the sacred Gayatri prayer ought to be again repeated, and this time muttered 108 times by help of a rosary of 108 beads.”

“The worshipper now rises, and, standing erect with his face towards the sun, recites what is called the Mitra hymn to the sun (from Rig-veda, iii., 59):—‘Mitra calls men to activity, sustains the earth and sky, and beholds all creatures with unwinking eye,’ etc.
This is followed by a prayer to the Dawn goddesses (from Rig-veda, iv. 51, 11, :-—'Hail, brilliant Dawn: Daughters of Heaven,' etc. The service closes with adoration of the ten quarters of the sky and a recitation of the family pedigree. In the mid-day service, other hymns of the Rig-veda are substituted, such as i., 35, 2; iv., 40, 5, and that called Saura-suk a (Rig-veda, i., 50.) In the evening service the prayers to the sun on standing erect is Rig-veda, i., 25. All three services conclude with the following prayer:—'May the one supreme Lord of the Universe be pleased with this my devotion.'

In connection with this subject, I must mention that the great Petersburg Lexicon of Böhtlingk and Roth, the existence of which gives by itself a new character to all investigations of the Sanskrit language, and pre-eminently to the study of the Vedic texts, has recently been added to the Museum Library.

Inseparable from the subject of popular religion is the subject of popular superstition, which has formed the topic of three papers read during the year. Mr. Louis Nell, at one of our meetings, exhibited a Húniya charm, of which a photograph will be published in our Journal. These Húniya charms represent a Sihálese custom in accordance with the widely-extended superstitions device of inflicting disease or disaster on a person's enemies through the potency of a rude eidołon or representation of the intended victim. Mr. Nell's note in explanation of this charm derives particular interest from the statement of his belief, founded on long residence among the native Sihálese, and careful observation of their superstitious practices and expressions of superstitious ideas, that Buddhism, up to the time of a quite recent reform movement, has not existed at all as a religion among the lower castes of the Sihálese people, whose priests have been the Yakadurás or Kattádiyás, belonging to the tom-tom-beater and oília castes; and Kapurállas and Pattinis, belonging to all castes. The following passage in Mr. Nell's note seems to me to suggest considerations of general importance for a right apprehension of the real extent and influence of Buddhism, and of quite paramount importance as an element in determining the direction of mission enterprise:

"The tom-tom beaters, the toddy-drawers, and the jaggery-makers have only lately attempted to build Buddhist temples of their own. The Amarapura sect of Buddhists is a modern importation to satisfy the social ambition of the Mahabaddé people, candidates of whose community for priestly ordination would have been refused by the previously existing Siamese sect. The latter, though heterodox in this exclusiveness, had confined the rite of ordination to pupils drawn from the Goiyagama caste. The liberal and orthodox principle of the Amarapura sect extended in time from the Mahabaddé and Karávé to the lower castes, and, as an instance, the jaggery people
(Hakuru) near Galle have built a temple, and their priests in yellow robes and with begging bowls in their hands are now seen obtaining the food of mendicants from the hands of their own friends. The profound meditative air of the young mendicants and the evident pride with which their friends give alms and honor the new priesthood are very striking. This is quite a reform, and Buddhism, perhaps, for the first time is subverting what other missions have not hitherto observed as a likely field of conversion."

Mr. Nell has also favored us with a paper on the Sinhalese observance of the Kalówa, which he interprets to be "a moving principle and local predisposition following a course in the human body in relation to the course of the moon in her increase and decrease." The fact that Kalówa tables are published by the Lakhivikiràna Press and in native vernacular almanacs indicates a belief of wide-spread recognition, but Mahá-Mudaliýár De Zoysa found the explanations of two of the best Vedarálas inconsistent and contradictory. I suppose that Kalówa may be interpreted generally as the influence of the phases of the moon on the organization or temperament of the human body.

An elaborate paper on "Omens" by Mudaliýár S. Jayatilaka of Kurunégala was read before the Society in October, showing how large an influence they exercise on the daily concerns of Sinhalese life. The omens derived from the appearance and cry of lizards in particular are dealt with in an exhaustive manner, account being taken of their position relative to the person interested, with reference to every day in the week.

Mahá-Mudaliýár De Zoysa is preparing for publication a translation of a sermon of Buddha on Omens.

This is really a subject of practical importance. It has been asserted that the impossibility of understanding the motives of the people in India is partly due to the control exercised over them by superstitious influences. The remark, perhaps, applies with equal truth to the people of Ceylon.

**Literature.**

In the domain of Literature I desire, in the first place, to invite attention to the labours of Mr. William Gunatilaka who has been engaged for some time on three important works; the Bálávabodhana of Kásyapa; a new edition of Pánini’s Grammar; and a MS. of the Meghadúta of Kálidása. The Bálávabodhana is a reproduction of the grammar of Chandra by a Buddhist priest named Kásyapa who lived in Ceylon about seven centuries ago. Incidental allusions to Chandra show him to have been the founder of one of the principal schools of Sanskrit grammarians, but his grammar has been supposed hitherto to exist only in a Thibetan version. It was
based on the model and intended as an improvement on Pánini's *Ashtádhhyáyí*, from which it appears to differ by the artificial *memoria technica*, which constitutes the language of Sanskrit grammarians, being in certain instances even more ingeniously and comprehensively constructed than the *sútras* of Pánini. Provision is thus made for grammatical combinations which it taxed the utmost subtlety of Pánini's commentators to include in the interpretation of his *sútras*. The MS. of the Bálavabodhana,* first discovered by Mr. Guñatilaka, belongs to the Lankátilaka Viháré near Kandy. Two copies have since been found, one belonging to the Sudhumpinga Viháré, and the other to the Oriental Library of the Vidyódaya College, already alluded to. These copies are all in Singhalese characters, but Mr. Guñatilaka has transcribed the whole work in Devanágarí character, and the text collected from the three copies, together with a short preface and explanatory notes is now only withheld from the press by the heavy expenditure involved in its issue. Mr. Guñatilaka is no doubt justified in his opinion that the publication of this work would be of great service to Oriental schools in throwing new light upon questions relative to the historical connection of the different systems of Sanskrit Grammar and upon other problems now engaging attention.

The same difficulty interferes with the publication of a work, undertaken by Mr. Guñatilaka, of at least equal importance—an edition of Pánini which will enable students acquainted with the language of Sanskrit general literature to study Pánini's *sútras* without the aid of a teacher. The text, translation, and notes will not be separately printed, but the translation of each *sútra* will be given immediately under its Devanágarí text, and the notes immediately under the translation in smaller type. *Várttikás, Paribhadhás, Ishtis* and *Kárikás*, whenever they occur will be quoted, translated, and explained. Alphabetical lists of the *sútras* and *ggañás* will be appended, as well as an alphabetical glossary of terms with reference to the *sútras* in which they occur. The work may fairly be called exhaustive, for the specimen which Mr. Guñatilaka has been good enough to send me in MS. indicates that hardly any question can suggest itself to the student of Pánini in his necessarily laborious study which has not been anticipated and answered. In the explanation of each word, every step taken is supported by authority, in the same manner as a problem or theorem of Euclid. Mr. Guñatilaka's present intention is to issue as a specimen a part of the work consisting of two printed octavo sheets, and to circulate it among Oriental scholars in the hope that a sufficient number of

* A detailed account of the work, which is stated to bear the same relation, as regards matter and arrangement, to Chandra's Grammar as the *Loghukauumudi* does to that of Pánini, was published in the *Academy* of January 24th and 31st, 1880.
subscribers may be found to justify the publication. I trust that our Society may be able to assist Mr. Guṇatilaka, both directly and indirectly, in bringing to issue both of these learned and laborious works, and with this view I propose to bring the subject before the Committee.

The importance of these works and the labour they have involved have induced Mr. Guṇatilaka to entrust to another hand the preparation of a new edition of the Meghadūta of Kālidāsa from a MS. discovered by him in the Kandy Oriental Library. The text of the poem in this MS., written in Siṃhalese characters, appears to differ little from the Devanāgarī versions published by Gildemeister and others, but the MS. derives its value from a short appropriate introduction, a literal and correct Siṃhalese translation, and explanatory notes in Siṃhalese. In connection with what I have already said, it is especially interesting to note that the Siṃhalese commentator in this version refers to Chandra in the same way as the commentary of Mallinātha supports his views by reference to Pāṇini. The date of this MS., corresponding to the year 1717 of the Christian era, shows that Sanskrit was studied in Ceylon in the classical period of Siṃhalese literature equally with Pāli and Eḻu. It will be published, with the assistance of Mr. Guṇatilaka, by Mr. Pānabokka, late President of Dumbara Gansabhāwa.

I understand that Paṇḍit Guṇasekara is engaged upon a Siṃhalese translation of Meghadūta from another version.

A Member of our Society, Mr. W. P. Raṇasighe, is preparing a Paper on the Siṃhalese language, which we hope to include in an early Number of our Journal.

Perhaps the greatest literary need felt in Ceylon is the want of a good Siṃhalese and English Dictionary, a want of which I am very often reminded in my official capacity. A mixed Committee of Englishmen and Siṃhalese, to prepare a dictionary on the basis of Clough’s work, seems to be the agency most likely to lead to good results.

I must include under the general head of literature a paper on Hindū astronomy published in our journal by Mr. S. Mervin, a Tamil gentleman of Jaffna. The writer justly points out that Hindū astronomy is a very different thing from Hindū mythology, though many Europeans seem to think that the mythology and the astronomy of the Hindūs are identical. This confusion undoubtedly pervades a brilliant passage in Lord Macaulay’s writings, often quoted to throw ridicule on the scientific pretensions of the ancient Eastern world. The recent studies of scientific scholars have, however, conclusively shown that India early possessed many astronomical facts, many observations of astronomical phenomena, and many rules and methods of astronomical calculation. It is of
interest to our Society that native students should recognize that the fantastic legends of Hindú mythology belong to the domain of poetical imagination, and look for the science of astronomy in Sūrya Siddhānta and treatises similar, which remain as the relics of a system of astronomical science carried to a degree of perfection that excites the admiration of modern scientific students.

Alluding to the subject of astronomy, I must here record the generous offer made by Mr. E. Heelis to the Society of a 4-inch aperture astronomical telescope, on condition of an observatory being built for it adjoining the Museum. We were unfortunately obliged to decline this offer from inability to comply with the very reasonable condition attached to it.

Art.

I have very few words to say on this occasion on the subject of Art. Mr. Smither read a paper at our April meeting on some sculptures which he had examined on a visit to Horana. His suggestion that these sculptures should be brought to Colombo so as to be saved from further deterioration and depredations has been carried out, and they were deposited in the Museum a few days ago.

Social Condition of the People.

The official position which I occupy leads me naturally to assign the place of first importance under this head to the subject of Public Instruction, but for the same reason I may be allowed to content myself to-day with a reference to my Administration Report, in which I endeavour to give full and explicit information on all the work of my Department. It is however appropriate to this occasion that I should notice with pleasure the assistance I have received from several learned Buddhist priests, both in co-operation with the principal design of the Department and also in the preparation of books for the native youths of the Colony.

Appropriate to the subject of school work is the subject of Games. Mr. Le Mesurier is preparing a Paper on 'The Games of the Kandyans' which will no doubt be an interesting supplement to Mr. Leopold Ludovici's contribution to our Journal for the year 1873, 'On the Sports and Games of the Siphalese.' If the child is father of the man, it is good for those whose business it is to understand the ways of the men to learn the pursuits of the children, and, as a relaxation from the graver labours of our Society. I do not think that the papers of our Journal offer any contribution so full of genial instruction as Mr. Ludovici's article.

Mr. H. C. P. Bell, c.c.s., has a Paper ready on 'Siphalese Ceremonies connected with Pádi Cultivation in the Low-country, with specimens of songs sung during operations.' A short Paper on the
same subject, but limited to a Kandyan (Kegalla) district, by Mr. R. W. levers, c c.s., was published in our Journal for 1880.

The Proverbs of a people reveal many secrets of their social condition, domestic life, and private morality, and have always therefore been found an attractive study. Mahá-Mudaliyár De Zoysa has published in our Journal another contribution to our knowledge of Sinhalese Proverbs, and I have also to notice the publication of two other collections—the Attha Vákya Dípániya, by A. Mendis Sénánáyaka, and the Puthya Vákya or Niti-sástra, published by A. D. A. Wijayasípá. The aphorisms in the last-mentioned collection are skilfully arranged under separate heads, so as to supply in about 250 short lines a code of public and private morality.

Geology and Mineralogy.

Mr. A. C. Dixon, who is the most active member of our Society in the department of Geology and Mineralogy, has continued his visits to different districts for the study of their geological formations. The recent activity of gold-mining operations in Southern India naturally drew attention to the known existence of gold in several parts of this Island, and Mr. Dixon read a short Paper on the subject at our April meeting. He has since "prospected" several districts, and has been good enough to furnish me with a summary of his researches. A small nugget taken near Wákwellá (Galle) and weighing over 6 grains was tested and found to be genuine alluvial gold, which had been rolled some distance and deposited by an old stream. Careful search at the place revealed no traces of gold. In the Sabaragamuwa district Mr. Dixon visited Rakwána, North and Central Kukulú-koralé, and Kolonná-koralé. In this district there are several valuable deposits of gems still unworked, but no evidence of gold was found. In the stream which flows past the Assistant Government Agent’s bungalow at Ratnapura, further evidence has been found of the existence of gold in considerable quantities. Mr. Dixon has, however, not yet been able to explore this stream. At our Meeting in April Mr. Dixon alluded to his first visit to Ránbódá, and exhibited a specimen of gold from the district. On a subsequent visit several well-defined reefs were found, samples of which were sent to London and assayed, yielding 15 grs. to the ton. In Dólóss-bágé two or three good reefs were found, but the yield here was only 4 grs. to the ton, though one sample of surface quartz from the same reef gave 14 grains. In the lower end of Maskéliya valley ("Theberton") two good reefs were found. From these gold has been obtained, but not in paying quantities as yet, though the prospect of this district as regards paying gold is considered good. From Rágalla surface quartz has been tested with a yield of 1 dwt. 1 1/4 gr. per ton. From Hérváheša quartz has been examined yielding 10 grains to the ton. Traces of alluvial gold and platinum were found in the Dédurú-oýa.
Mr. Dixon has found the reported Mahara gold to be pyrites. Specimens from a quartz reef in Kandamuwara contained 3 per cent. of copper and the element telurium, which is always found in company with gold.

*Climate and Meteorology.*

The long connection of Colonel Fyers, R.E., with our Society, of which he has been for many years President, has borne lasting fruit in the establishment of the meteorological observations which may now be considered, I suppose, as a permanent part of the work of his Department. Systematic observations have been carried under Col. Fyers' direction at the principal stations of the Island since 1870. A daily weather report is now published in the Post Office Bulletin, and four morning observations at Colombo, Galle, Trincomallee, Batticaloa, and Jaffna are telegraphed daily to Calcutta for the storm signal service. Copies of the monthly return of daily observations and annual reports, as well as diagrams giving the mean monthly rainfall for the number of years in which observations have been taken, are sent to London, Paris, Brussels, New York, Canada, Calcutta, Batavia, and Algiers, and are noticed in the Administration Report of the Meteorological Department of the Government of India for 1879-80, as follows (p. 37):

'The Island of Ceylon in which a system of meteorological observations has been carried on for some years under the direction of Col. Fyers, R.E., communicates a monthly abstract of observations from which a selection is made for the tabular abstract given in the annual report, and I have lately included an abstract of the rainfall registers communicated to us from Singapore. Thus the extreme geographical range of the region for which meteorological data are collected for discussion during the past years comprises 53 degrees of longitude and 33 degrees of latitude.'

The period over which systematic observations extend has been as yet too short for reliable deductions to be made from the statistics collected.

Mr. J. Stoddart is at present investigating the subject of the very partial ranges of the rainfall in Ceylon, the prevalence of high winds over partial areas, and the influence of the monsoon-gales in the Bay of Bengal, and storms on the Bombay coast and on the coast of Ceylon. In conjunction with Captain Donnan, Master Attendant, he is also taking observations to show the direction, force and altitude of the waves in the Colombo harbour, when the wind is in the North and North-East.

*Botany.*

The paramount influence of agriculture on the prosperity of this colony has, to a great extent, removed the department of Botany
from the concerns of this Society to more open and more accessible channels of communication and discussion. The year has been especially marked by the publication of The Tropical Agriculturist, a monthly periodical established by the Editors of the Ceylon Observer, constituting in the strictest sense of the word a repertory (repertorium ubi omnia reperiri possint) of information on all subjects connected with Tropical Botany and Agriculture. To its pages, to the Report of the Director of the Botanical Gardens, and the Reports of Mr. Marshall Ward on Leaf Disease, all who are interested in this subject will naturally refer for the operations of the year. In connection with the Melbourne Exhibition, Mr. William Ferguson was good enough to furnish, at my request, a set of Notes descriptive of 96 specimens of Ceylon timber sent to the Exhibition. I have sent several copies of these Notes to the Government Agents and their Assistants, and to other persons to whom I believe them likely to prove useful. I will only add that an elementary Manual of Botany in Singhalese has been prepared, and will shortly be published by the Department of Public Instruction. It will, I hope, be the means of carrying profitable instruction and amusement into many humble homes.

Zoology.

The first two parts of the beautiful engravings of Ceylon Lepidoptera, with descriptive letterpress, now being published by Government, were received about the middle of the year, and the remaining portion of the work is expected very shortly.

A Paper by Mudaliyár Samuel Jayatilaka on the Honey Bees of Ceylon and the native method of Bee Culture was read at our April Meeting. This Paper derived unexpected interest from the visit of Mr. Frank Benton, an American Bee amateur, who had the intention of writing a Paper for our Society on the subject of our bees, but was prevented by a severe attack of malarial fever caught whilst bee hunting in the jungles of the Kurunegala District. Mr. Jayatilaka has stated that he got more practical information about bees from Mr. Benton in a week than he had from all other sources in many years. Mr. Benton learned in Java that wax is imported into Netherlands India, chiefly from Holland, to the annual value of two millions of rupees. The wax is chiefly used in dyeing the sarongs and other cloths of the people. Mr. Benton’s visit to Ceylon can hardly fail to be productive of useful results, as the Cyprian bees introduced by him are doing well with Mr. W. H. Wright and Mudaliyár Jayatilaka, who thinks that they are more industrious and faster workers and more tractable than our common Ceylon bees. It is stated that Ceylon bees do not seem to approach vanilla flowers when in bloom, whereas the Cyprians are found continually among them, and it is hoped that they may turn out good fertilizers, and thus save
much of the labour now involved in the process of artificial fertiliza-
tion. There seems to be no reason why bee culture in Ceylon should
not become an industry of considerable importance.

Dr. Vanderstraaten read at our October Meeting a synopsis of a
Paper which he has prepared on 'Sericulture,' illustrating in detail the
process of raising silkworms. As this Paper has not yet been for-
warded to our Secretary for publication, I am unable to refer to it.
The subject is one of undoubted interest, and I may mention that the
Rev. Father Palla is endeavouring at Mount Calvary, Galle, to
introduce the rearing of silkworms as an industry well adapted to
the habits and inclinations of the people of Ceylon.

Mr. Bell's Report on the Maldives.

A considerable part of Col. Fyers' Address last year was devoted to
information derived from our Secretary, Mr. H. C. P. Bell, with refer-
ence to his recent visit to the Maldivian Islands. Mr. Bell's Report, as
the result of this visit, is now being printed as a Sessional Paper by
desire of the Secretary of State. I have had the advantage of seeing
the proof sheets as printed, and it was my intention to give a sum-
mary of the information they contain, as the Papers of our Society
may probably come before a circle of readers whom Sessional Papers
are not at all likely to reach. For this reason, I regret that the Report
has been published as a Sessional Paper and not by our Society, to
whose Journal a contribution so comprehensive and complete would
have been an acceptable addition. As a Sessional Paper, however,
it will no doubt hold a distinct place of its own, and Mr. Bell will
perhaps make, or allow others to make, an epitome of its principal
results for the benefit of our Journal. I feel that it is impossible to
do justice to a labour of such value at the close of a narrative of the
Society's work, present and prospective—imperfect, I well know, but
likely, I fear, to be thought already prolix.

On the conclusion of the Address,

The Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft proposed a vote of thanks to the
President for his most able Address, to which he was sure they had
all listened with very great pleasure. Mr. W Ferguson seconded.

His Excellency the Governor felt sure that the Members round the
table had all listened with very great pleasure to that Address.—
Motion agreed to nem. con.

7.—A vote of thanks to the Governor for presiding brought the
Meeting to a close.
Additions to Library.


Boletin da Sociedade Geographia De Lisboa, 2nd Series, No. 6, Lisbon, 1881.—Presented.


Indian Antiquary, Vol. 10, i.e. January to November, 1881.—Presented.

Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland, May, 1881.—Presented.


Maleisch Nederduitsch Woordenboek, 1863.—Presented by D. W. Ferguson.


Do. dó. "" 2. ""
Do. do. "" 3. ""
Do. do. "" 4. ""
Do. xix., 1881 "" 1. ""
Do. do. "" 2. ""

Proceedings of the R. A. S. Bengal, No. 8, August, 1881.—Presented.

Report of a Visit to the Torrent Regions of the Hautes and Basses Alpes, and also to Mount Faron Toulon, by E. MacA. Moir, Calcutta, 1881.—Presented.

Suggestions regarding the Management of the leased Forests of Busahir in the Suttey Valley of the Punjab, by D. Brandis, F.R.S., C.I.E., Simla, 1881.—Presented.
Transactions of the R. A. S. of Japan, from 30th October, 1872, to 9th October, 1873, Yokohama, 1874.


Do. do. " IX., " i., Feb., 1881.


Tropical Agriculturist (The), Colombo, December, 1881.

Tydschrift Voor Indische Taal, Land, En Volken-kunde, Deel xxvi., Aflevering 2, 1880.


Do. do. do. 4, 1880.

Do. do. do. 5 & 6, 1880.

Do. xxvii., do. 1, 1881.


Verhandelingen van het Bataviaasch Genootschappen van Kunsten en Wetenschappen, Deel xli., 2e Stuk, Batavia, 1880.—Presented.
### Account of the Honorary Treasurer

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By cost of copy of Adam's "Panorama of World's History" | 60 | 0 |
Do. Ransonêt's "Sketches of Ceylon"                       | 36 | 0 |
Advertising                                              | 210 | 99 |
Book-binding                                              | 305 | 50 |
Books, &c., purchase of                                  | 1,158 | 97 |
Carriage and cart hire                                   | 33  | 12 |
Furniture                                                 | 14  | 50 |
Pay of Clerk                                              | 27  | 50 |
" Compositor                                             | 20  | 0  |
" Peon (four months)                                     | 32  | 0  |
Postage                                                   | 55  | 3  |
Stationery                                                | 13  | 12 |
Sundries                                                  | 22  | 97 |
Balance at O. B.C.                                        | 502 | 70 |
Balance in hands of Hon. Secretary                        | 7   | 19 |

**Total** | Rs. 2,499 | 59

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A. Murray, C.E., A.M.I.C.E.,
Honorary Treasurer.
OFFICE BEARERS,
1882.

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Vice-Patron.
Hon. J. Douglas, C.M.G.

President.
C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G.

Vice-Presidents.
Hon. R. Cayley, C.J. | Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, C.C.S.

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J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.
RULES AND REGULATIONS.

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.
(CEYLON BRANCH.)

The Asiatic Society of Ceylon was instituted 7th February, 1845; and by the unanimous vote of a Special General Meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society, held on the 7th February, 1846, it was declared a Branch of that Society, under the designation of "The Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society."

RULES AND REGULATIONS.

Preamble.

1. The design of the Society is to institute and promote inquiries into the History, Religions, Languages, Literature, Arts, and Social Condition of the present and former inhabitants of this Island, with its Geology and Mineralogy, its climate and Meteorology, its Botany and Zoology.

Members.

2. The Society shall consist of Resident or Ordinary, Honorary, and Corresponding Members; all elected by ballot at a General Meeting of the Society.

(a) Members residing in Ceylon are considered Resident.

(b) Persons who contribute to the objects of the Society in an eminent and distinguished manner are, on the recommendation of the Committee, eligible as Honorary Members.

(c) All Military Medical Officers in Ceylon are Honorary Members of the Society.

(d) Persons residing at a distance from Colombo may, upon special grounds, and on the recommendation of the Committee, be elected Corresponding Members.

Entrance Fee and Subscriptions.

3. Every Ordinary Member of the Society shall pay, on admission, an entrance fee of Rs. 5.25, and an annual subscription of Rs. 10.50. Annual subscriptions shall be considered due on the 1st of January of each year. Members who fail to pay their subscriptions by the end of the year (provided they have been called for) shall be considered, ipso facto, to have relinquished their connection
with the Society. Members who have been absent from Ceylon have the privilege of rejoining the Society within twelve months of their return to the Island, on payment of the subscription for the current year.

(a) The privilege of *Life Membership* may be ensured by the payment of Rs. 105, with entrance fee on admission to the Society; Rs. 84, after two years; and Rs. 73·50, after four or more years' subscriptions.

(b) *Honorary* and *Corresponding* Members shall not be subject to any entrance fee or subscription, and are to be admitted to the Meetings of the Society and to the privilege of its Library, but are not competent to vote at Meetings, to be elected to any of its offices, or take any part in its private business.

(c) Persons desirous of rejoining the Society may be re-admitted Members without entrance fee, subject to the discretion of the Managing Committee.

**Office-bearers.**

4. The Office-bearers of the Society shall be, a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, and a Secretary, all appointed by open vote at the Annual Meeting of the Society; and their functions shall be as follows:

(a) The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents, shall take the Chair at all Meetings of the Society and of the Committee, maintain order, collect the votes, and cause the laws of the Society to be observed and enforced.

(b) The Treasurer shall receive, collect, and pay out all moneys on behalf of the Society, keep an account thereof including the vouchers, and submit a statement of the pecuniary affairs of the Society to the Annual Meeting, and at all other times as may be required.

(c) The Secretary shall arrange, give notice of, and attend, all Meetings of the Society and of the Committee, and record their proceedings. He shall also edit the *Journal*, and exercise a general superintendence under the authority of Committee.

In the event of any Office-bearer leaving the Colony for three (3) months, it shall be competent for the Committee to fill up the office at the next General Meeting.

**Committee.**

5. The affairs of the Society shall be managed by a Committee of nine (9) Members (with power to add to their number) in addition
to Office-bearers, and elected in like manner: but subject always to the Rules and Regulations passed at General Meetings. Three (3) to form a quorum.

Mode of Admission.

6. Members desirous of proposing candidates for admission to the Society shall give notice to the Secretary, in writing, at least a fortnight before the assembly of any General Meeting. Admission to Membership of the Society shall be by ballot at any General Meeting. No candidate to be considered as elected, unless he has in his favour two-thirds of the votes taken.

Meetings.

7. An Annual Meeting of the Society shall be held in December, and General Meetings at such other times as may be determined by the Committee; due notice of the Meetings, and of any intended motions which do not come through the Committee, and the nomination of new Members, being always first given by the Secretary.

8. The course of business at General Meetings shall be as follows:

(a) The Minutes of the last Meeting shall be read by the Secretary, and signed by the Chairman.
(b) Candidates for Membership shall then be proposed, balloted for, admitted or otherwise.
(c) Reports of Committees shall be read, and communications made of all articles received, and donations to the Society.
(d) Any specific business submitted by the Committee, or appointed for consideration, shall be proceeded with.
(e) Papers and Communications for the Society shall then be read.

9. Every Member of the Society has the privilege of introducing, either personally or by card, one or two visitors to the General Meetings.

10. Special Committees may be formed for the prosecution of any specific object or matter of research. These must be named at a General Meeting, and will act as much as possible in co-operation with the Secretary of the Society, who will be a constituent member of all such Committees.

Papers and Communications.

11. All Papers and Communications shall be forwarded to the Secretary at least a week before the assembling of the General Meeting at which they are intended to be read. Such Papers shall be read by the Author, or the Secretary, or by some Member of the Society.
12. All Papers and other Communications to the Society read or submitted at any General Meeting shall be open to free discussion; and such Papers and discussions may be printed in the Transactions of the Society, if approved by the Committee.

13. The writer of any Paper which is published in the Society's Journal shall be entitled to receive twenty-five (25) printed copies of his Paper.

Journals.

14. One copy of each Journal shall be sent by the Secretary to every Member who has paid his subscription for the current year, and to every Honorary Member; and every such Member may procure a second copy, on application to the Secretary. Members requiring more than two (2) copies of the Journal can be supplied with them at half the price charged to the public.

Suspension and Alteration of Rules.

15. It shall be competent for any General Meeting to suspend any of the above Rules.

16. No alteration of Rules shall be made except at the Annual Meeting, and unless carried by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the Members present; due notice of any proposed alteration having been given in writing to the Secretary at least a fortnight before the Meeting.

RULES FOR THE LIBRARY.

1. The Library is open on week days (except Fridays) from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M., and on Sundays from 3 P.M. to 6 P.M.

2. The Librarian shall keep a Register of Books belonging to the Library, showing their title, name of author, date of receipt, whence obtained, edition, number of volumes, number of plates, place and date of publication.

3. All Books, Pamphlets, and Periodicals received for the Library shall, immediately on receipt, be entered in the Library Register, and stamped with the Library stamp. The Librarian shall see that each Plate and Map in books received for the Library is carefully stamped on the reverse side with the Library stamp. New books received shall be stamped on the cover with the words "Royal Asiatic Society, Ceylon Branch."

4. A book shall be kept in which shall be entered the title of very work lent out, the number of plates, if any, it contains at the time of its being lent, the name of the Member borrowing the same,
and the date on which it is lent. A Member applying in person for a work shall sign a receipt for the book and plates it may contain at the time of borrowing. A Member not applying in person shall send a written request for the books he requires, and this request shall be filed in the Library as a voucher, the Librarian duly noting on it the books actually lent out. The Librarian shall send with each packet of books a form of receipt, to be signed and returned to the borrower. Should any Member prefer to keep a private register of books borrowed from the Library, it shall be the duty of the Librarian to enter in such register the names of all books issued, and to initial receipt when returned.

5. On return of any books to the Library, the Librarian after satisfying himself that the book is in the same condition as it was when lent out, shall insert opposite to the entry, in the loan register, the date on which the book has been returned, and return to the borrower the receipt or other voucher given by him, duly cancelled. And if on the return of any book the Librarian shall perceive that it has sustained any damage, since it was taken from the Library, he shall make a note of the particulars and report the same to the Honorary Secretary.

6. No Member shall remove any book, pamphlet, periodical, or any other article the property of the Society, from the Library without giving the Librarian a receipt for the same.

7. No Book, Pamphlet, Journal, or Periodical, &c., shall be lent out before the expiration of one week after its receipt in the Library.

8. Periodicals and unbound Journals in numbers shall be returned after the expiration of one week.

9. Works of reference and certain rare and valuable books, &c., must not be taken out of the Library without special permission of the Committee.

10. Non-resident Members are entitled to take out Books, Plates, &c., from the Library on making special application to the Honorary Secretary, and signing an obligation to defray the expenses of carriage, and to make compensation for any book, plate, manuscript &c., which may be lost or damaged.

11. No Member shall be permitted to have more than three sets* of books from the Library in his possession at any one time without the special permission of the Honorary Secretary.

12. Except with the special sanction of the Committee, resident Members shall not be permitted to keep books, &c., borrowed from the Library for more than fourteen days, and non-resident Members for more than one month.

* N.B.—Each volume of the Transactions of any learned Society or similar publication shall be counted as one work.
18. All books, except in the case stated below, shall be returned to the Library before the 1st January in each year. Early in December, the Librarian, having previously ascertained that the books are actually absent from the Library, shall forward to all Members who have books belonging to the Society in their possession, a letter requesting that such books be returned before the end of the month. Non-resident Members who, on the 1st January, have had books, &c., for less than one month may send a detailed list of such books instead of returning them.

14. The Librarian shall report to the Honorary Secretary, for the information of the Committee each year in January, the names of all books not returned, and of the Members by whom they were borrowed.

15. If application be made to the Librarian for a book already taken out from the Library, he shall issue a notice to the borrower, requiring him to return it free of expense, within one week from the receipt of such notice if a resident Member, and within one month if a non-resident Member.

16. If any book borrowed from the Library be lost, damaged, defaced by writing or otherwise, the borrower shall be held responsible for such loss or damage; and if the book belong to a set, he shall be liable to make good the set to the satisfaction of the Committee, or pay its value.

17. No books, &c., shall be issued from the Library to any Member while he retains any property of the Society in contravention of the above rules.

18. A book shall be kept in the Library in which Members may write the names of any books, &c., they may recommend to be purchased for the Library.

19. No person who is not a Member of the Society shall be permitted to take away any book from the Library without special authority from the Committee, or to have access to the Library without permission of a Member of the Committee.

20. In no case shall any Member be allowed to take out of Ceylon any book, manuscript, pamphlet, periodical, &c., belonging to the Society.

21. The Librarian shall be held personally responsible for the safety of the books, &c., belonging to the Society's Library under his charge, and that these rules are properly carried out, as far as lies in his power.

22. The Committee may at any time call in all books, &c., and may cease to issue them for such periods as the interests of the Society may require.
# LIST OF MEMBERS.

*(Corrected up to December 31st, 1881.)*

## LIFE MEMBERS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Davids, T. W. Rhys.</th>
<th>Grant, J. N.</th>
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<td>Dawson, R.</td>
<td>Gunn, J.</td>
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<td>Ferguson, A. M.</td>
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<td>Slorach, J.</td>
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## HONORARY MEMBERS.

Holdsworth, E.
Künté, M. M.
De Zoysa, L., Mahá Mudaliyár.
Military Medical Officers in Ceylon.

## ORDINARY MEMBERS.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Andree, J. R.</th>
<th>Davidson, W. E., C.C.S.</th>
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<td>Arneil, J. A.</td>
<td>Dean, J. G.</td>
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<td>Baumgartner, G. A., C.C.S.</td>
<td>Dias, P., Mahá Mudaliyár</td>
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<td>Bell, H. C. P., C.C.S.</td>
<td>Dickman, C., C.C.S.</td>
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<td>Berwick, T.</td>
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<td>Boake, W. J. S., L.R.C.S., C.C.S.</td>
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<td>Britton, E. C.</td>
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<td>Browne, G. D. L., C.C.S.</td>
<td>Ewing, A., Major</td>
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<td>Bruce, C., C.M.G.</td>
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<td>Burrows, S. M., C.C.S.</td>
<td>Fernando, Rev. C. J. B., O.S.B.</td>
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<td>Capper, J.</td>
<td>Fyers, Hon. Col. A. B., R.E.</td>
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<td>Carbery, J., M.B., C.M.</td>
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<td>Cayley, Hon. R., M.A.</td>
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<td>Churchill, J. F., M.I.C.E.</td>
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<td>Coomára Swámy, P.</td>
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<td>Crawford, M. S., C.C.S.</td>
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<td>Cull, J. B., B.A.</td>
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<td>Daendliker, P.</td>
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Hope, Adrian.
Livers, R. W., M.A., C.C.S.
James, W. K., F.R.G.S., F.R. Hist. S.
Jayatileka, S., Mudaliyar
Jayawardhana, A., Mudaliyar
Lawrie, A. C.
Lee, L. F., C.C.S.
Leechman, G. B.
Le Mesurier, C. J. R., C.C.S.
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Loos, J., M.D., St. Andrew's, M.R.C.P., L.R.C.S., Edinburgh.
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Miller, E. F., Rev. M.A.
Moss, A. S., A.M.I.C.E., F.M.S.
Murray, A., C.E., A.M.I.C.E.
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Nevill, H., C.C.S.
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Perera, J. M.
Plaxton, J. W., M.R.C.S., L.S.A.
Price, F. H., C.C.S.

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Sharpe, W. E. T., C.C.S.
Skeen, W. L. H.
Smither, J. G., F.R.I.B.A.
Soysa, C. H. De, J.P.
Stoddart, Hon. J.
Tate, L. J. E. G., C.C.S.
Thomas, A. H.
Trimen, H., M.B., F.L.S.
Van Dort, W. G., M.D., C.M., Aberdeen.
Wardrop, J. G.
White, H., C.C.S.
Worthington, G. E., C.C.S.
Wragg, W. T., B.A., C.C.S.
JOURNAL
OF THE
CEYLON BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.
1882.

EXTRA NO.

EDITED BY THE HONORARY SECRETARY.

"The design of the Society is to institute and promote enquiries into the History, Religion, Literature, Arts, and Social Condition of the present and former Inhabitants of the Island, with its Geology, Mineralogy, its Climate and Meteorology, its Botany and Zoology."

JAMES DUNCAN CAMPBELL, PRINTER,
COLOMBO:
1883.
NOTE.

Italics in the text denote the spelling of the French editors; in parentheses, their supplementary explanations. Words and paragraphs within brackets are additions by the translator; as also all foot-notes, except those followed by the initial "B," for the insertion of which the Honorary Secretary is responsible.
Errata.

Page 2, 8 lines from bottom, for ‘Burckhart’ read ‘Burckhardt.’

7, note † delete ‘vatu.’
10, ″ † for ‘Hadjegiri’ read ‘Hadjegiri.’
″ ″ ″ † for ‘kaptaje’ read ‘kaptage.’
12, ″ † for ‘fattaru’ read ‘fattaru.’
16, ″ † for ‘Yusup’ read ‘Yusuf.’
″ ″ ″ † for ‘Tabrĳ’ read ‘Tabris.’
19, ″ † for ‘Mafā’ read ‘Mafā.’
″ ″ ″ † for ‘Madhū’ read ‘Mahāv.’
49, ″ † for ‘kudella’ read ‘kudella.’
55, ″ for ‘Atkalandjeh’ read ‘Atkalendjeh.’
″ ″ † for ‘Dīnēwar’ read ‘Dīnēwer.’
Introduction.

The wonderful travels of Ibn Batūta are a record alike of the commercial activity of the Arabs, and of the far-reaching power of the Bagdad caliphate, whose influence long survived its overthrow. From the swift rise of the Muhammadan power in the seventh century down to the arrival of Vasco di Gama at Calicut in 1498, the trade of Europe with the East was in the hands of the Arabs. The carrying to Europe was done by their ships, but in the Indian seas a vast coast trade was developed by all the nations of the Indian sea-bord—Persians, the races of India, Ceylon, the Eastern Islands and China. After the rounding of the Cape followed in succession the restrictive monopolies of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English, and the Eastern nations have never regained the great and free international commerce of the Arab days.

From the story of Ibn Batūta, one comes to understand how it was possible for a native of Tangiers in the fourteenth century to travel, with but little difficulty, for twenty-four years over every country between Morocco and China. The Muhammadan faith had been spread over a great part of India, and had established a footing in China: Arab merchants were everywhere: and ships were never long in demand for voyages from any one port to any other.
Ibn Batūta was born at Tangiers in 1304, and died at Fez 1377–8. The following summary of his travels of twenty-four years (1325 to 1349) is given by Dr. Birdwood of the India Office. From Tangiers he travelled across Africa to Alexandria, and in Palestine, Syria, and Arabia: down the east coast of Africa to Quilon: across the Indian Ocean to Muscat, Ormuz, Kish, Bahrein and El Catif: through Central Arabia to Mecca and Jeddah: and again in Egypt and Asia Minor, and across the Black Sea to Caffa or Theodosia, and by Azov or Tana ‘on past the hills of the Russians’ to Bolgar on the Volga—but not daring to penetrate further northwards into ‘the land of Darkness.’ Returning south to Haj-Tarkhan (Astrakhan) he proceeded in the suite of the wife of the Khan of Kipchah, the daughter of the Greek Emperor Andronicus, westward to Soldaia and Constantiniah (Constantinople), whence returning to Bolgar he travelled on eastward to Bokhara, and through Khorassan to Cabul, Multan, and Delhi where he remained eight years (1334–42). Being sent on an embassy to China he embarked at Kindeiat (Cambay), and after many adventures at Calicut (where he was honorably received by the ‘Samari’ or Zamorin) and Huna-war (Onore), and in the Máldives Islands (beginning of 1343–August, 1344) and Ceylon and Bengal, he at last took his passage toward China in a junk bound for Java, as he calls it, but in fact Sumatra. Returning from China, he sailed direct from the coast of Malabar to Muscat and Ormuz: and travelling by Shiraz, Bagdad, Jerusalem, Damascus and for the fourth time to Mecca, Egypt, Tunis, at last reached Fez again, after an absence of half his life-time. Subsequently he spent six years in Spain and Central Africa, where he was the guest of the brother of a countryman of his own from Ceutra, whose guest he had been in China. “What an enormous distance lay between these two!” he exclaims.

The first detailed account of his book was published in Europe only in 1808. Moura in 1845 commenced a translation in Portuguese of a copy obtained at Fez at the end of last century. The abridgment translated by Lee was brought from the east by Burckhart. It was not till the French conquest of Algeria that the best and completest texts were obtained. Five are in the Imperial Library at Paris, only two of which are perfect. From these M. M. Défrémery and Sanguinetti made their translation for the Société Asiatique: and it is from their version that the present account of the Máldives and Ceylon visit has been extracted. His description of the Máldives is the most interesting and complete in existence, excepting only that of Pyrard de Laval.
I resolved to go to the Dhībat Almahāl (the Māldives) of which I had heard much. Ten days after we had embarked at Calicut we arrived at the Dhībat Almahāl islands. Dhībat is pronounced as the feminine of Dhīb (Arabic for "wolf": it is really an alteration of the Sanskrit duṇīpa, "island"). These islands are among the wonders of the world: they number about 2,000.† A hundred or less of these islands lie together in a circle in the form of a ring: the group has an entrance as to a harbour, and ships get through by that alone. When a ship arrives near one of these islands it must of necessity have a pilot from among its natives, so that it may reach the other islands under his guidance. They are so close to each other that the tops of the palms which grow on one seem to belong to its neighbour.‡ If the vessel misses its way it cannot reach the islands, and is driven by the wind to Maʿbar (coast of Coromandel) or towards Ceylon.


† See Gray, J. R. A. S., 1878, Vol. X. n. s., pp. 196–7, notes 2, 3; and "The Mālvide Islands" (Ceylon Sessional Papers, 1881), pp. 3, 4, 5, Notes (1) (6)—B.

‡ So too more recent travellers:—"The Malabares say that heretofore they were joyn'd to the Continent, and were separated by the sea, which in some places hath left such narrow divisions that an active man might leap from one side to the other" (Mandelso's Travels into the Indies, 1639. Lib. II. 116. London, 1662). "But that which makes them so numerous is the multitude of canals that divide them; which are so narrow that the sprit-sails of the ships strike the leaves of the trees which are planted on both sides. And in some places a nimble man may leap into an island from the top of a bough that grows in another."—(Collection of Voyages of the Dutch East-India Company, p. 131, London, 1703)—B.
All the inhabitants of these islands are Musalmáns, pious and honest people. They are divided into regions or zones, each of which is ruled by a governor called Cordoiy. Among these zones the following are distinguished: (1) the zone of Pálipour; (2) Cannaloús; (3) Mahal, the province after which all the islands are called, and at which their sovereigns reside; (4) Téládib; (5) Caráidoú; (6) Teim; (7) Télédomméty; (8) Hélédomméty, the name differing from the preceding only by having its first letter an h: (9) Béreidoú; (10) Candacal; (11) Moloúc; (12) Souweid. The last is the most distant of all.* All the Maldivian islands are destitute of grain, except that in the province

* The French editors identify these names with those given by Pyrard as follows:—"Pálipour—Papypolo: Mahal—Malé: Caráidoú—Caridou: Télédomméty—Tilla dou matis: Hélédomméty—Milla doue madoue: Béreidoú—Poulisdous: Moloúc—Molucque: Souweid—Soudou." The Cannaloús of Ibn Batúta, they add, is perhaps the 'Collomados' of Pyrard, or, as Horsburgh writes it, 'Colomandous.'

["The majority of the above 'are easily recognisable,' but five (viz., Cannaloús, Téládib, Teim, Hélédomméty, and Candacal) present more difficulty,—some, indeed, being shaped, more Arabico, out of all but unsatisfactory conjectural recognition.

"As regards Hélédomméty, the French translators would appear to be at fault. It may perhaps with more reason be taken as equivalent to Hela-du(m)-mati (S. hela, 'white,' or even sēla, = Jav. sēla, 'rock' + dūva, 'island' + matu-pita, 'above') passing by contraction into Had-dummati. Adḫū may similarly be a contracted form of Hela-du or Hulū-du—the name of one of the islands in that Atol.

"If it be open to question the orthography of the MS. and, supposing an error of the抄ist, read Néládib for Téládib—t and n are not unlike in Arabic—it can be at once fitted to Nilandū Atol. Even accepting the received form as correct, the identification may possibly be not considered too far fetched. Cf. Tujarae =? Nausdrì; Accanee and Kalyffe islands' (Lakkadive group) = Aucutta, Kalpeni. Adm. Chart. (Col. Yule in Indian Antiquary, Vol. III., pp. 212-4 on "Names in the Tohfat-al Majábhidin.").....

"To attempt to twist the rest into probable coincidence with the modern names of the remaining Atols seems hopeless. But the identification of Caráidoú with Caridou (Kaharidú)—if accepted—suggests a likely clue to their origin. Admitting that this island—now-a-days of comparative insignificance
of Souweid there is a cereal like the only (a kind of millet) which is brought thence to Mahal.* The food of the natives consists of a fish like the lyroun, which they call koulb almâs. Its flesh is red: it has no grease, but its smell resembles that of mutton. When caught at the fishing, each fish is cut up into four pieces, and then slightly cooked: it is then placed in baskets of coco leaves and suspended in smoke. It is eaten when perfectly dry. From this country it is exported to India, China and Yaman. It is called koulb almâs† (cobolly masse, i.e., "black fish" according to Pyrard, Part 1, p. 210, 214.)

—was of sufficient importance in the 14th century to be classed as a 'province', it is not improbable that other islands would have been taken as representative of whole groups or Atols.

"Telâdib, if not Nilandu, might then be Tofçu, on the analogy of Had-dummati from Hêlêdommêty: Cannaloûs—Kinalos, 'Kenoorus,' Admiralty Chart, (Mâlosmaâdu Anol): Coundacal—Kedîkoûl, 'Kaindecolu,' Admiralty Chart, (Miladummaâdu Atol. Cannaloûs and Telm should lie North of Mâlê. Ibn Batûtâ, crossing from the Malabar coast, landed first at the former, 'an island fair to behold, where there are many mosques,' and touched later at Telm 'after four days' cruise' when bound for Mahal (Mâlê)."—(The Mâldive Islands, p. 18, Note (1), Ceylon Sessional Papers, 1881.)

Colonel Yule and Mr. Gray identify Telm with Utimu (Admiralty Chart, Oteeim) near north end of Tiladummati Atol. "Cannalous, Candecal and Otimo appear in the oldest European maps"—B.]

* Either the fine grain known to the Sighalese as (i.) tana hâl (Setaria Italica), M. urâ (Pyrard, oura), or (ii.) menéri (Panicum miliaceum), M. ki-di-bai—both of which are found on the Southern Atols. Some nacheri or kurak-kan (Cynosurus corocanus), M. bimbi (Pyrard, bimby), is grown on the Northern Atols—B.

† Koulb almâs:—Pyrard has cobolly masse (Pyrard, third edition, 1619, p. 210), and combolly masse (p. 214), and says the words mean "black fish." See also Pridham 'Ceylon', p. 605. The Sighalese call it umbalakâda. [See "Note on Fish-curing at the Mâldives" (Ind. Ant., July, 1882, Vol. XI., pp. 196–8):—"The real 'Mâldive fish' (M. kažubili mas, vulgarly komboli mas), S. umbala kaďa) of the Ceylon and Indian markets are chiefly bonito (S. balayd) —Scomber Pelamis, Linn." Kažubili=kaďu, 'black': biţi (S. balayd), 'bonito.' —B.]
THE TREES OF THE MALDIVES.

Most of the trees on these islands are coconuts: they furnish the food of the inhabitants along with the fish, of which mention has been made. The nature of the coconut is marvelous. One of these palms produces each year twelve crops, one a month. Some are small, others large: many are dry [yellow], the rest are green and remain always so. From the fruit is obtained milk, oil, and honey, as we have said in the first part of this book. With the honey is made pastry, which they eat with the dried coconut. All the food made from the coconut, and the fish eaten at the same time effect an extraordinary and unequalled vigor in manhood.*

Among the remarkable trees of these islands are the tchoumoùn (Eugenia Jambu) the lemon, the lime and the colocasia. From the root of the last named, the natives prepare a flour with which they make a kind of vermicelli, and this they cook in coco milk; it is one of the most agreeable dishes in the world. I had a great taste for it and ate it often.*

OF THE INHABITANTS OF THESE ISLANDS AND SOME OF THEIR CUSTOMS: DESCRIPTION OF THEIR DWELLINGS.

The inhabitants of the Maldivian islands are honest and pious people, sincere in good faith and of a strong will: they eat only what is lawful, and their prayers are granted. When one of them meets another, he says "God is my lord: Muhammad is my prophet: I am a poor ignorant being." In body they are weak and have no aptitude for combat or for war, and their arms

* "The island [Mâlé] produces .......... a bulb in shape and appearance much resembling an ordinary potatoe, but having a pungent flavor. This the natives grate down, and steep in water for some time to deprive it of the unpleasant taste, and dry it afterwards, when it looks very much like flour, and is very palatable" (Christopher and Young in Trans. Bombay, Geographical Society, 1836-38, p. 30). Without doubt the yam called by Maldivians hittala (Pyrand, itelpoul, "an edible root which grows in abundance, round and large as the two fists") and probably identical with the hiritala (Dioscorea oppositifolia) of the Sinhalese—B.
are prayers. One day in this country, I ordered the right hand of a robber to be cut off; upon which many of the natives in the hall of audience fainted away. The Indian pirates do not attack them, and cause them no alarm, for they have found that whoever takes anything of theirs is struck with a sudden calamity. When a hostile fleet comes to their shores, they seize what strangers they find, but do no harm to the natives. If an idolater appropriates anything, if it be but a lime, the chief of the idolaters punishes him and beats him severely, so much does he fear the results of such an action. Were it otherwise, certainly these people would be a most contemptible foe in the eyes of their enemies, because of the weakness of their bodies. In each of their islands there are fine mosques, and most of their buildings are of wood.

The islanders are good people: they abstain from what is foul, and most of them bathe twice a day, and properly too, on account of the extreme heat of the climate and the abundance of perspiration. They use a large quantity of scented oils, such as sandal-wood oil, &c., and they anoint themselves with musk from Makdachaou.* It is one of their customs, when they have said the morning prayer, for every woman to go to meet her husband or son with the collyrium box, rose-water and musk oil. He smears his eye-lashes with collyrium, and rubs himself with rose-water and musk oil, and so polishes the skin and removes from his face all trace of fatigue.

The clothing of these people consists of cloths. They wrap one round their loins in place of drawers, while on their backs they wear the stuffs called alouilyân † which resemble the ihram.

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* Makdachaou:—? Madagascar. [Rather Mugadozo on the Zanzibar coast, which Ibn Batuta had visited (Tome II., 181.) "After leaving Zaila we sailed on the sea for fifteen days, and arrived at Makdachaou an extremely large town."—See Yule's Marco Polo. Vol. II., p. 347—B.]

† Alouilyân–ouilyân (p. 120):—A probable corruption of M. fiyga, (cf: S. valu, pili, 'clothes') the term for the kambuya (S) or waist cloth worn by Maldivian women commonly and by soldiers on special occasions. The Maldivian equivalent for the ihram is known as digu libás—B.
(clothes worn by the Musalmáns during the pilgrimage). Some wear the turban, others supply its place with a little kerchief. When any one meets the Kádhi or the preacher, he takes his garment off his shoulders, and uncovers his back, and so accompanies the functionary till he arrives at his place of abode. Another of their customs is this—when one of them marries, and goes to the house of his wife, she spreads cotton cloths from the house door to that of the (nuptial) chamber: on these cloths she places handfuls of cowries on the right and left of the path he has to follow, while she herself stands awaiting him at the door of the apartment. On his arrival she throws over his feet a cloth which his attendants take up. If it is the wife who goes to the husband’s house, that house is hung with cloths, and cowries are placed thereon: and the woman on her arrival throws the cloth over his feet. And this is also the custom of the islanders when they salute the sovereign, they must without fail be provided with a piece of cloth to cast down at the moment, as we shall hereafter describe.

Their buildings are of wood and they take care to raise the floor of their houses some height above the ground, by way of precaution against damp, for the soil of their islands is damp. This is the method they adopt: they cut the stones, each of which is of two or three cubits long, and place them in piles then they lay across these beams of the coco-tree, and afterwards raise the walls with boards. In this work they show marvellous skill. In the vestibule of the house they construct an apartment which they call málem, and there the master of the house

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* It appears from this passage that the two kinds of Sighalese marriage, bina and díga, were in vogue at the Máldives. [Both forms are said to be recognised still—B.

† Even at the present day there is but one stone or brick built private house at Málé (Sultan’s Island)—B.

‡ Málem. “A partition near the middle divides the house into two rooms, one of which is private, and the other open to all visitors.” (Trans. Bombay Geographical Society, 1836–8, p. 59.) The public room is called béru-gé and the private or women's apartment eteri-gé, or in the Southern Atols mával-gé—B.
sits with his friends. This room has two doors, one opening on the vestibule by which strangers are introduced, the other on the side of the house by which the owner enters. Near the room in question is a jar full of water [? and] a bowl called ouélendj* made of the coconut shell. It has a handle of [only] two cubits, wherewith to draw the water from the wells, by reason of their little depth.

All the inhabitants of the Mâldives, be they nobles or the common folk, keep their feet bare. The streets are swept and well kept: they are shaded by trees, and the passenger walks as it were in an orchard. Albeit every person who enters a house is obliged to wash his feet with water from the jar placed near the mâlem, and rub them with a coarse fabric of lif† (stipula which envelope the base of the stalks of the date-palm leaves) placed there: after which he enters the house. Every person entering a mosque does the same. It is a custom of the natives when a vessel arrives for the canâdir (in the singular cundurah)‡ i.e., the little boats to go out to meet it, manned by the people of the island and bearing some betel and caranbah § that is to say, green coconuts. Each presents some of these to whom he will of those on board the ship, and then becomes his host carrying to his own house the goods belonging to him, as if he were one of his near relations. Any one of the new-comers who wishes to marry, is at liberty to do so. When the time comes for his departure, he repudiates his wife, for the people of the Mâldives do not leave their country. As for a man who does not marry,

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* Ouélendj.—These cocoanut bowls with long handles (M. dôni, but cf. S. valanda "chatty") are regularly used by the Islanders for drawing water.

† Lif.—Pers.—B.

‡ Canâdir, cundurah.—The old Portuguese historians speak of Mâldive "gundras," and the term is still commonly applied in Ceylon to these Islanders, (e.g., S. Gundara-kârayô) and their boats (M. dôni, oât).—See too C. A. S. Jour. No. 24, p. 135, 1881.—B.

§ Caranbah := S. kuruamba [M. kuruva.—B.]
the woman of the house in which he is lodged prepares his food, serves it, and supplies him with provisions for his journey when he goes. In return she is contented to receive from him a very small present. The revenue of the treasury, which is called bender *(custom-house) consists in the right of buying a certain portion of all cargo on board ship, at a fixed price, whether the commodity be worth just that or more: this is called the bender law. The bender has in each island a house of wood called bëdëjensår where the governor, the cordouéry, *(above it is written cordóuiy)* collects all such goods: he sells or barters them. The natives buy with chickens any pottery which may be brought: a pot fetches five or six chickens.

Ships export from the islands the fish of which I have spoken, coconuts, fabrics, the ouliyân and turbans: these last are of cotton. They export also vessels of copper, which are very common there, cowries‡ and kanbar§, such is the name of the

*Bender:*—See Pyrard, p. 231, **“bandery”:** cf. Sin. baṇḍhāra. The system of raising revenue here described was still in force in Pyrard’s day (Pyrard, chap. xvii.), and seems to be identical in principle with the ‘culture system,’ employed by the Dutch in Java, where it is supposed to have been invented by one of the Dutch governors subsequent to the English occupation. [Each Atol has its own storehouse (vārū-gō) into which the revenues of the Sultan are received, and whence they are transferred from time to time to the Treasury (boḍu baḍēri-ge, cf. S. bhāṇḍāgārīka) at Mālé.—B.]

† *Cordouéry, cordouïy:*—“The Atol-wari [*Atolu-veri or Vārū-veri; Pyrard ‘varuery’*] is a governor or chief of a division of islands called an Atol …… It is his duty to collect the revenue of the Atol, and to transmit it to the Hindegeree [*Hādēgiri*] …… The Rasru-wari [*Rasru-veri*] or headman of an island, stands in the same relation to the Atol-wari, as the latter does to the Hindegeree, in respect to the revenue.” *(Trans. Bombay Geo. Soc., 1836–8, p. 72).—B.

‡ *Cowries:*—‘Ibn Batūta calls them wada’ [Ar.], and the Two Muhammadans of the 9th century kaptaje: Pyrard, *bolly* or *bollis*: Christopher [correctly] *boli*, cf. S. bella.

§ *Kanbar:*—Ar. Pyrard has cairo (= T. kayiru, Gray.) The proper Maldivian term rōnu = S. rēna. It is hard to believe that “vessels of copper” ever formed one of the genuine exports from the Maldives. A few old copper pots are occasionally sent over to Ceylon for repair.—B.
fibre which envelopes the coconut. The natives make it undergo a preparation in pits dug near the shore: then they beat it with picks, after which the women work it into rope. They make of it cord for joining the boards of their ships, and such cordage is exported to China, India, and Yemen. Kanbar rope is worth more than hemp. With this cord the (boards of) ships are joined in India and Yemen, for the Indian sea is full of rocks, and if a ship joined with iron bolts strikes a rock, it is broken up: but when it is fastened with this cord it has elasticity, and does not break.

The money of the islanders consist of cowries. This is the name of a creature (a molluse), collected in the sea and placed in pits dug out on the beach. Its flesh decays and there remains only the white shell. A hundred of these shells is called syâh, and 700, fál; 12,000 are called cotta, and 100,000 bostoû. Bargains are struck through the medium of these cowries, at the rate of four bostoû to a dinâr of gold. Often they are of less value, such as twelve bostoû to a dinâr.* The islanders sell them to the people of Bengal for rice, for they too use them for money. They are sold in the same way to the people of Yemen, who use them for ballast in their ships in place of sand. These cowries serve also as a medium of exchange with the negroes in their native country. I have seen them sold, at Mâly and at Djoudjou, at the rate of 1,150 to a dinâr of gold.†

The Women of the Máldives.

The women of these islands do not cover the head: the sovereign herself does not so. They comb their hair and tie it

* Syâh = Sin. siya. Ibn Batûta says bostoû = 1 dinâr of gold [= about 10 shillings, Lane], and Pyrard says 12,000 = 1 larin = 8 sols. [Cowries are usually sold in the Islands by the hiya = 100, the falé = 800 to 1,000, and the koffê = 12,000 (bâra-fâ.) A koffê is not now worth more than Rs. 1 at Mâlé.—B.]

† Mâly; Djoudjou:—Two places in the Soudân, afterwards visited by the traveller.
up on one side [of the head.] Most of them wear only a cloth, covering them from the navel to the ground: the rest of the body remains uncovered. In this costume they promenade the bazárs and elsewhere. While I was invested with the dignity of Kází in these islands, I made efforts to put an end to this custom, and to compel the women to clothe themselves: but I could not succeed. No woman was admitted to my presence in the trial of a case, unless she had her whole body covered: but, saving that, I had no power over the usage.* Some women wear, besides the cloth, chemises with short and full sleeves. I had some young female slaves whose dress was the same as that of the women of Delhi. They covered the head: but that disfigured rather than embellished their appearance, as they were not used to it.

The ornaments of the Máldive women consist of bracelets: each has a certain number on both arms, indeed, so that the whole of the arm from the wrist to the elbow is covered. These trinkets are of silver: only the wives of the Sultan and his nearest relatives wear bracelets of gold. The Máldive women have also khalkhál (anklets) called by them bāīl, and collars of gold round the neck, called besdered.† One of their curious customs is to engage themselves as house servants, in consideration of a fixed sum, which does not exceed five pieces of gold. Their board is at the expense of those who hire them. They do not regard this as a disgrace, and most of the daughters of the inhabitants do it. You will find in the house of a rich man ten or twenty of them. The cost of all dishes broken by one of these maids is charged against her. When she wishes to go from one house to another, the masters of the latter give her the amount of her debt, this she remits to the people of the house she is

* Pyrard, 3rd ed., pp. 82, 124, says that all women in his time carefully kept the breasts covered. [A more modern innovation is the adoption by the women on most Atolis of a head kerchief.—B.]

† (i) Khalkhál, Ar. (ii) bāīl, cf: M. fū ‘leg,’ fiyawaš ‘foot,’ takaholi ‘anklet’; (iii) besdered = M. futtaru ‘necklace’.—B.
leaving, and her new masters become her creditors.* The principal occupation of these hired women is to rope the kanbar (vide supra.)

It is easy to get married in these islands, owing to the smallness of the dowry, as well as by reason of the agreeable society of the women. Most of the men say nothing about a nuptial gift, contenting themselves with declaring their profession of the Musalmán faith, and a nuptial gift in conformity to the law is given. When ships arrive, those on board take wives, and repudiate them on their departure: it is a kind of temporary marriage. The Máldive women never leave their country. I have never seen in the world women whose society is more agreeable. Among the islanders, the wife entrusts to no one the care of her husband’s service: she it is who brings him his food, takes away when he has eaten, washes his hands, presents the water for his ablutions, and covers his feet when he wills to go asleep. It is one of their customs that the wife never eats with her husband, and that he does not know what his wife eats. I married in that country many wives: some ate with me at my request: others did not, and I could not succeed in seeing them take their food, and no ruse to get a sight was of any avail.

THE STORY OF THE MOTIVE FOR THE CONVERSION OF THE INHABITANTS OF THESE ISLANDS TO ISLÁM: DESCRIPTION OF THE EVIL SPIRITS WHO WROUGHT HARM TO THEM EVERY MONTH.

Trustworthy men among the inhabitants, such as the

* Regarding these servants (M. famuséri), who are still employed, Mr. Gray (J. R. A. S., Vol. X., n.s., p. 204) has the following note:—"Pemousseré [Pyrard, p. 225] ‘bondsmen on loan,’ debtors who have to serve their creditor till they pay. They are generally well treated and fed; if not they are entitled to their freedom. ‘Many a poor man voluntarily enters the service of some great lord as a pemousseré to gain his protection and favour.’ Christopher says that the men of Male having to pay no taxes are very lazy and ‘become dependents of any of the chiefs, most of whom retain as many followers as they may be able to support, a large retinue being a sign of rank and power.’ Compare with this custom the growth of the feudal system in the West."—B.
juris-consult Içä Alyamany,* the juris-consult and schoolmaster 'Aly, the Kází 'Abd Allah, and others, related to me that the population of the islands used to be idolaters, and that there appeared to them every month an evil spirit from among the Jinn, who came from the direction of the sea. He resembled a ship full of lamps. The custom of the natives, as soon as they perceived him, was to take a young virgin, to adorn her, and conduct her to a bouddhkánah,† i. e., an idol temple, which was built on the sea shore and had a window by which she was seen. They left her there during the night and returned in the morning: then they found the young girl dishonored and dead. They failed not every month to draw lots, and he upon whom the lot fell gave up his daughter. At length arrived among them a Maghrabin‡ called Abou'ilbérécät, the Berber, who knew by heart the glorious Kurán. He was lodged in the house of an old woman of the island Mahal. One day he visited his hostess and found that she had assembled her relatives, and that the women were weeping as if they were at a funeral. He questioned them upon the subject of their affliction, but they could not make him understand the cause. An interpreter coming in informed him that the lot had fallen upon the old woman and that she had one only daughter, who had to be slain by the evil Jinni. Abou'ilbérécät said to the woman:

* Içä Alyamany:—i. e.,? Isä Folliyä Maniku. The Folliyä Maniku is the Sultan's Secretary and Keeper of the Privy Seal.—B.

† Bouddhkánah:—It is very probable that this was a Buddhist temple. Christopher gives buďu as the modern Máldivé for "image" (J. R. A. S., Vol. VI., o.s., p. 57). But the word bodd seems to have been a general term for an image with the Arab Oriental travellers, and may only indicate that the Buddhist parts of India were the first visited by the Arabs.—Journ. As, 1845, p. 167. Ibn Batútá elsewhere says that the Jama Masjid of Delhi was built upon the sight of a former Bouddhkánah he does not therefore mean to imply that the word was Máldivé. [ For some remarks on "Buddhism at the Máldives" see Ceylon Sess. Pap., 1881, 'The Máldivé Islands.'—B.]

‡ Maghréb,—The name given by the Arabs to the Moorish principalities of North-west Africa, nearly corresponding with what we now call Morocco,
"I will go to night in thy daughter's stead." At that time, he was entirely beardless. He was conducted the night following to the idol temple after he had done his ablutions. There he set himself to recite the Kurán, then by the window he perceived the demon, and continued his recitation. As soon as the Jinní came within hearing of the Kurán, he plunged into the sea; and when the dawn was come, the Maghrabin was still occupied in reciting the Kurán. The old woman, her relatives and the people of the island came to take away the girl, according to their custom, and to burn the corpse. They found the stranger reciting the Kurán, and conducted him to their King, by name Chénouârazah,* whom they informed of this adventure. The King was astonished: the Maghrabin proposed to him to embrace Islám, and inspired him with a desire for it. Then said Chénouârazah to him:—"Remain with us till next month, and if you do again as you have just done and escape the evil Jinní, I will be converted." The stranger remained with the idolaters and God disposed the heart of the King to receive the true faith. He became Musalmán before the end of the month, as well as his wives, children and court. At the beginning of the following month the Maghrabin was conducted to the idol-temple; but the demon came not, and the Berber recited the Kurán till the morning, when the Sultan and his subjects arrived and found him so employed. Then they broke the idols, and razed the temple to the ground. The people of the island embraced Islám, and sent messengers to the other islands, whose inhabitants were also converted. The Maghrabin remained among them, and enjoyed their high esteem. The natives made profession of his doctrine, which was that of the Imán Málíc. Even at present they respect the Maghrabins for his sake. He built a mosque, which is known by his name. I have also read the following inscription graven in wood on the enclosed pulpit of the

* Chénouârazah:—Cf. S. Senarat "King (Chief Commander) of the army" and Seneviratna "the gem-like General."—B.
grand mosque: "Sultan Ahmed Chénoûrâzah has received the true faith at the hands of Abou‘lberécât the Berber, the Maghrabin."

This Sultan assigned a third of the taxes of the islands as alms to travelling foreigners in recognition of his reception of Islám through their agency. This share of the taxes still bears a name which recalls this event.

Owing to the demon in question many of the Mâldive islands were depopulated before their conversion to Islám. When I reached the country I was not aware of this matter. One night, when I was at one of my occupations, I heard of a sudden people crying with loud voice the formulæ, "There is no God but God" and "God is very great." I saw children carrying Kurâns on their heads, and women rapping the insides of basins and vessels of copper. I was astonished at their conduct and said "What is happening"? and they replied "Do you not see the sea"? Upon which I looked and saw a kind of large ship, seemingly full of lamps and chafing-dishes. They said to me "that is the demon; he is wont to show himself once a month: but when once we have done as you have seen, he turns back and does us no harm."

**Of the Queen of these Islands.**

One of the marvels of the Mâldives is that they have for their Sovereign a woman, by name Khadidjah, daughter of the Sultan Djélâl eddîn 'Omar, son of the Sultan Salâh eddîn Sâlih Albendjâly. The kingdom had at one time been possessed by her grandfather, then by her father, and when the latter died, her brother, Chihâb eddîn, became King. He was a minor, and the Vizier 'Abd Allah, son of Mohammed Alhadhramy

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*Vestiges of this romantic legend of their conversion to Muhammadanism live in the traditions of the Islanders to this day. But with more probability, they assign to a Shaikh Yusup Shams-ud-din of Tabrij the honour, which Ibn Bahûta not unnaturally would claim for a Maghrabin, and the votaries of Hazrat Mirâ Sâhib for the Nâgûrsaint (C.A.S. Journ., No. 24, pp. 125-36 1881). Their first royal convert to Islám the Mâldivians commonly know as 'Dawma without (S. Dharma without, i. e., 'the Just') Rasgefânu.' The mosque he built still stands, and continues to bear his name.—B."
espoused his mother and assumed authority over him. He is the same personage who married the Sultana Khadidjah after the death of her first husband; the Vizier Djemal eddin, as we shall describe hereafter: When Chihab eddin attained full age he ousted his step-father 'Abd'Allah and banished him to the islands of Souweid. He was then left in sole possession, and chose as Vizier one of his freedmen by name 'Aly Calaky,* whom he deposed at the end of three years and banished to Souweid. It is related of the Sultan Chihab eddin that he consorted nightly with the wives of the public officers and with courtezeans. On that account he was deposed and deported to the province of Helodouteny (above spelt Helodommetey): afterwards some one was sent and put him to death.

There then remained of the royal family only the sisters of the deceased, Kadijah who was the eldest, Miryam and Fathimah. The natives raised Kadijah to the throne, who was married to their preacher Djemal eddin. The latter became Vizier and master of the situation† and promoted his son Mohammed to the office of Preacher in his own stead: but orders were promulgated only in the name of Kadijah. These are traced on palm leaves by means of an iron [style] bent down resembling a knife. They write on paper only the Kurans and scientific treatises. The Preacher makes mention of the Sultana on Fridays and on other days [of public prayer]; and here are the terms used, "O God, succour Thy servant, whom Thou hast in Thy wisdom preferred before other mortals, and whom Thou hast made the instrument of Thy mercy towards all Musalmáns, namely, the Sultana Kadijah daughter of Sultan Djelal eddin, son of Sultan Salah eddin."

When a stranger comes among these people and repairs to the hall of audience, which is called dar,‡ custom requires that he

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* 'Aly Calaky:—i.e., 'Ali Kalége. The title Kalége-fánû or Kalége-fánû (Pyrard, Calologue) accrues by purchase, not by birth.—B.
† Maitre de l'autorité:—Major A. Ewing suggests "head of affairs" (Ar, 'ralba' 'al ellamar).—B.
‡ Dar:—Ar. 'house.'—B.
should take with him two cloths. He makes obeisance before the Sultana and throws down one of these cloths. Then he salutes her Vizier, who is also her husband, Djémal eddîn, and throws down the other. The army of this Queen consists of about a thousand men of foreign birth; some of the soldiers are natives. They come every day to the hall of audience to salute her and then go home. Their pay is in rice, supplied to them at the bender (v. s., p. 10) every month. When the month is ended, they present themselves at the audience hall, and, saluting the Vizier, say, “Convey our respects (to the Queen) and inform her that we have come to request our pay.” Thereupon the necessary orders are given in their favour. The Kâzî and ministers, who have with the people the title of Viziers, also present themselves every day at the audience hall. They make a salutation, and go away after the eunuchs have transmitted their respects to the Queen.

Of the Ministers and Their Conduct of Government.

The people of the Mâldives call the Grand Vizier, the Sultana’s Lieutenant, Calaky*; and the Kâzî Fandayarkâlou.† All judgments are in the jurisdiction of the Kâzî: he is more highly esteemed by the people than all other men, and his orders are executed as well as those of the Sultan and even better. He sits upon a carpet in the audience hall: he possesses three islands‡, whose revenue he places to his private account, after an ancient custom

* Calaky:—? Pers. Pyrard has Quilogue “regent elect for the kingdom to act in absence of the Sultan” (Gray). [The title Kilage-fânû is not restricted to one grandee in the realm. At least three living Mâldivian nobles have a right to the designation.—B.]

† Fandayarkâlou:—i. e. Fâdiyâru Kâlôge-fânû (Pyrard, Pandiare; Chris. Fandiurhec) the Chief Priest or Kâzî. Cf: T. Pândiya.—B.

‡ Corresponding with nindagam lands in Ceylon, the tenure of which is thus explained in Sir J. D’Oyley’s M.S. “Constitution of the Kandyan Kingdom,” a copy of which is in my possession:—‘Nindagama.—A village which, for the time being, is the entire property of the grantee, or temporary chief; definitely granted by the king with sannas, it becomes paraveny, &c.,’ p. 144. A ‘gallat gama’ in the lower part of the Four Kóralés, Three Kóralés, and in parts of Sabaragamuwa is a similar tenure.
established by the Sultan Ahmed Chénoûrâzah. The Preacher is called **Hendidjéry**:* the Chief of the Treasury, **Fâmeldâry**†: the Receiver General of Revenue, **Máfâcalou**‡: the Minister of Police, **Fitnâyecc**§: and the admiral, **Mándyecc**§. All these have the title of Vizier. There is no prison in these islands: criminals are shut up in wooden houses built to contain the merchants’ goods. Each one is placed in a wooden cell, as we have (in Morocco) for the Christian prisoners.

### Of my arrival at these islands and of the vicissitudes which I experienced there.

When I came to this country I landed at Cannalou ||, an island fair to behold, where there are many mosques. I was lodged

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* **Hendidjéry** — i.e., Hadégiri, also known as Boçu Bañéri, in whom are combined now-a-days the offices of Chief of the Treasury and Receiver-General of Revenue. Pyrard writes *Endequerey*, “a lord privy councillor, always in attendance upon the King”; Chris. *Hindegeree ‘Treasurer* (Gray). Cf: the *Bhándágâriko amachcho* (Turnour’s Mahávaśas, p. 231, 3) of the old Siqhalése court.—B.

† **Fâmeldâry** — i.e., Fámudéri (Kilage-fânu). Pyrard calls one of the great lords *Pammedery calogue*, and Christopher says the 4th Vizier was styled Famedéri, but had no distinct duties assigned him. Cf: S. pámok, deñâ and Mahávaśas, p. 69, amachcha pámukha.—B.

‡ **Máfâcalou** — i.e., Mafât (Kaló-fânu). According to Pyrard the *Mámpas* (a probable misprint for *Maupas*) was “chancellor, keeper of the king’s privy seal” (Gray). Chris. calls this officer Mafae, 5th Vizier. Cf: S. Mahá and pati in senâpati, chamàpati (Maähv. passim).—B.

§ **Fitnâyecc; Mándyecc** — These titles have not survived. Cf: S. Mahá, ndiyaka. Pyrard styles the “First Lord of the Admiralty and President of Board of Trade” (Gray) *Velannas [Velâná]*, and Chris. *Wîlono Shadander, 3rd Vizier. Ibn Batûtá makes no mention of the Dorhiménd and Hakura (Chris. Durimind; Hakura) 1st and 2nd Viziers; Pyrard, *Dorímenas, Torímenas,* “commander in chief of the army”; *Acouras*). For particulars regarding the present government officers at Málé, see Ceylon Sess. Papers, 1881, “The Máldives Islands.”—B.

|| **Cannalou** — As Ibn Batútá here mentions an island of the same name above given to one of the “zones” or atolls, the French editors are likely in error in identifying it with Collomanddu atoll, there being no island in that
at the house of one of the most pious inhabitants. The lawyer 'Aly gave me a feast. He was a distinguished person and had sons addicted to study. I saw there a man named Mohammed a native of Zafar Alhomoudh, who entertained me and said to me, “If you set foot on the island of Mahal, the Vizier will forcibly detain you, for the people have no Kazi.” It was then my intention to get away from that country to Ma’bar (Coromandel coast), to Serendib (Ceylon), to Bengal, and then to China. I had then arrived at the Maldives in a ship whose captain was 'Omar Alhinaoury, who was one of the virtuous pilgrims. When we had come into harbour at Cannalois, he remained there ten days: then he hired a little barque to take him thence to Mahal, bearing a present for the Queen and her Consort. I wished to go with him, but he said, “The barque is not big enough for you and your companions: if you like to set out without them, it is your affair.” I declined this proposal, and 'Omar took his departure. But the wind was contrary (literally ‘played with him’) and at the end of four days he came back to us, not without having experienced trouble. He made his excuses to me, and implored me to go with him, my companions and all. We set sail in the morning and towards midday disembarked on an island; leaving that, we passed the night at another. After a four days cruise, we arrived at the province of Teem, the governor of which was one Hilal. He welcomed me, and gave me a feast: and afterwards came to visit me accompanied by four men, two of whom had on their shoulders a rod from which were suspended four chickens. The other two had a similar rod to which were attached about ten coconuts. I was

atoll of the name Cannalois or one resembling it. It is unlikely too that Ibn Batuta coming from the north made his landing at a point so far south as Colomboandu. The termination ‘lous’ moreover or ‘lu’ seems in the modern names of the islands to be quite distinct from ‘du.’ [V.s., p. 5, for identification of this island with Kinafos in Malosmaqulu Atol. M. fos = ? the bois mapou tree of the Chagos group: M. du = S. duva ‘islet.’—B.]

* M. daqimaru—the kathiya of the Sichalese—B.
surprised that they thought so highly of these common objects: but was informed that they do this as a token of consideration and respect.*

After leaving these people we landed on the sixth day at the island of Otmân, a distinguished man and one of the best one could meet. He received us with honour and entertained us. On the eighth day we put into an island belonging to a Vizier named Télémdy. On the tenth, we at length reached the island of Mahal, where the Sultana and her Consort reside, and cast anchor in the harbour. It is a custom of the country that no one may disembark without the permission of the inhabitants.† This was accorded to us: and I then desired to betake myself to some mosque, but the slaves on the beach prevented me, saying, "It is necessary that you should first visit the Vizier." I had requested the captain when he should be questioned about me to say, "I know nothing of him"; for fear lest they should detain me, being unaware that some ill-advised babbler had written to them an account of me, and that I had been Kází at Delhi. On our arrival at the audience hall, we took our seats on benches at the third entrance door. The Kází 'Iça Alyamany came up and welcomed me, while I saluted the Vizier. The ship captain Ibrâhim (above he is called 'Omar) brought ten pieces of worked stuffs, made a salute before the Queen, and threw down one of them: then he bent the knee in honor of the Vizier and threw down another, and so on to the last. He was questioned about me, and replied, "I know nothing of him."

We were then presented with betel and rose-water which is a mark of honor with them. The Vizier gave us lodging in a house and sent us a repast consisting of a large bowl full of rice and surrounded with plates of salted meats dried in the sun, chickens, melted butter and fish. On the morrow I set out with the captain and the Kází, 'IÇa Alyamany to visit a hermitage

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* The Siňhalese penumkađã or pingo of presents of sweetmeats, provisions, fruits, &c.
† Enforced to this day—B.
situated at the extremity of the island and founded by the virtuous Shaikh Nadjib.* We returned at night, and on the following morning the Vizier sent me some raiment, and a repast comprising rice, melted butter, salt, sun-dried meat, coconuts, and honey extracted from the same fruit, called by the natives korbany,† signifying 'sugar-water.' They brought me also 100,000 cowries for my expenses. After ten days there arrived a ship from Ceylon, having on board some Persian and Arab fakirs who knew me and told the servants of the Vizier all about me. This enhanced the pleasure given by my coming. He sent for me at the commencement of Ramazán. I found the Chiefs and Viziers already assembled: food was served at the tables, each of which accommodated a certain number of guests. The Grand Vizier made me sit by his side, in company of the Kázi 'Iça, the Fámeldáry Vizier or Chief of the Treasury, and the Vizier 'Omar, the Déherd,‡ i.e., General of the army. The dinner of these islanders consists of rice, chickens, melted butter, fish, salt, sun-dried meat, and cooked bananas. After eating, they drink the coco honey mingled with aromatics, which facilitates digestion.

On the 9th of Ramazán, the son-in-law of the Vizier died. His wife, the daughter of that minister, had already been married to the Sultan Chiháb eddin: but neither of her husbands had cohabited with her on account of her youth. Her father, the

* This old shrine (Najibu miskitu), it is said, may still be seen at Málé.—B.  
† Korbány:—Probably ought to be 'hakorbany' equivalent to the Síghalese hakuru, 'jaggery'; peni, 'honey,' the former word appearing as acourou for 'coco-honey' in the vocabulary of Pyyard.  
‡ Déherd:—Cf. Pyyard, Darade Tacourou "count or duke," and Chris. Dahara, 6th Vizier. "As each incumbent of the first five Vizierships died no successor appears to have been appointed, and the titles thus gradually became extinct. That of the 6th Vizier alone survives in the person of the son of the former Dahará.....The Dahará (Takuru-fánu) has no specific department of public business to supervise. But for a certain voice in military and municipal affairs his office would be a titular sinecure." (The Maldive Islands, Ceylon Sess. Pap. 1881). Cf.: the Síghalese Dovdrika (Maháy, p. 117, 11), but also the Persian Daroogha.—B.
Vizier, took her back home, and gave me her house, which was one of the most charming. I asked permission to entertain the fakírs returning from visiting the Foot of Adam, in the island of Ceylon (see below). This he granted, and sent me five sheep, a rare animal with the islanders, having to be brought from Ma'bar (Coromandel Coast) from Malabar and from Makhdaow. The Vizier sent me also rice, chickens, melted butter and spices. I had all these carried to the house of the Vizier Souleíman, the Mánáyec (Admiral), who took the greatest care in having them cooked, augmented them in quantity, and sent me carpets and copper vessels. We broke the fast according to custom, in the palace of the Sultana, with the Grand Vizier, and I requested him to permit some of the other Viziers to assist at my dinner. He said "I will come myself too." I thanked him and returned home: but he had already arrived with the Viziers and grandees of the State. He seated himself in a raised pavilion of wood. All who came, whether Chiefs or Viziers, saluted the Grand Vizier, and threw down a piece of unworked stuff, in such numbers that the total reached to a hundred or thereabouts, all of which the fakírs appropriated. Dinner was then served and eaten: then the readers of the Kurán gave a reading with their fine voices, after which were singing and dancing. I had a fire prepared, and the fakírs then entered and trampled it under foot; some of them even ate the live embers, as one would devour sweetmeats, until the flame was extinguished.

The Story of Some of the Vizier's Benefactions to Me.

When the night was ended, the Vizier went home and I accompanied him. We passed a garden belonging to the Treasury, and the Vizier said to me, "This garden is for you: I will have a house built upon it to serve for your residence." I praised his kind action, and made vows in his favour. Next day he sent me a young female slave, and his messenger said, "The Vizier bids me say, if this girl pleases you, she is yours; otherwise he will
send a Mahratta slave." I liked the young Mahratta girls, so I replied: "I desire only the Mahratta," The minister had one brought to me, by name Gulistán, which signifies "the flower of the garden" (or more exactly 'the parterre of flowers'). She knew the Persian tongue, and pleased me highly. The Máldivian inhabitants have a language which I did not understand.

The next day, the Vizier sent me a young female slave from Coromandel by name Anbéry (ambergris colour). On the following evening he came to my house with some of his servants, and entered attended by two little [boy] slaves. I saluted him, and he asked me how I did. I made vows for his welfare and thanked him. One of the slaves put before him a lokchah (bokchah),* that is, a kind of napkin, from which he drew some silk stuffs and a box containing pearls and trinkets. The Vizier made me a present of them, adding, "If I had sent these with the young slave, she would have said 'This is my property: I brought it from the house of my master.' Now that the things belong to you, make her a present of them." I addressed prayers to God for the minister, and rendered to him expressions of my gratitude, of which he was worthy.

Of the Vizier's change of disposition towards me; of the project which I formed to depart; and of my continued sojourn at the Máldives.

The Vizier Souléımán, the Mânayec, had proposed to me to espouse his daughter. I sent to ask the permission of the Vizier Djémâl eddîn to conclude the marriage. My messenger returned saying, "It does not please him; he wishes you to marry his daughter when the legal term of her widowhood shall have expired." I refused to consent to this union, fearing the sinister fortune attached to the daughter of the Vizier, since two husbands had already died without having consummated the marriage. In the midst of all this a fever seized me, and I was very ill.

* Lokchah or bokchah:—If the latter be the correct reading = ? burugá the cloth worn over the face at times by Máldivian ladies,—B.
Every person who goes to that island must inevitably catch the fever.* I made a strong resolve to get out of the country: I sold a portion of my trinkets for cowries, and chartered a ship to take me to Bengal. When I went to take my leave of the Vizier, the Kází coming out met me, and addressed me in these terms, "The Vizier," said he, "bids me tell you this 'If you wish to go away, give us back what we have given you and then go.'" I replied, "With a part of my trinkets I have bought cowries; do with them what you will." In a little while the Kází returned to me and said, "The Vizier says 'We have given you gold, not cowries,'" I replied, "Very well: I will sell them and will pay you gold." Accordingly I sent to request the merchants to buy the shells from me. But the Vizier gave them orders not to deal with me; for his design, in so conducting himself, was to prevent me going away from him.

Then he deputed one of his intimates, who had this conversation with me, "The Vizier bids me request you to remain with us and you shall have everything you desire." So I said to myself, "I am under their authority: if I do not stay with a good grace, I shall have to stay by constraint: a voluntary sojourn is preferable to that." I therefore made reply to the envoy, "Very well: I shall remain with him." The messenger returned to his master, who was delighted with my reply, and sent for me. When I entered his presence, he got up and embraced me, saying, "We wish you to remain with us, and you wish to go!" I made my excuses, which were accepted, and said, "If you wish me to stay, I will impose upon you certain conditions." The Vizier replied, "We accept them: please to name them." I answered, "I am unable to walk on foot." For it is a custom of the country that

* "On la connoit par toute l' Inde sous le nom de fièvre des Maldives. Ils l'appellent Malé ons [hun or huma]. C'est de cette maladie que la pluspart de mes compagnons estoient morts, comme tous estrangers ne manquent pas d'en estre bientost atteints," (Pyrard, p. 95; again p. 201). The Indian Navy Surveyors (1834–6) suffered much from this pest of the group.—B.
no one rides on horseback, except the Vizier. So it was that when I had a horse* given to me and was mounted, the crowd of men, as well as children, began to follow me with astonishment, whereof I complained to the Vizier. Accordingly a donkorah was beaten, and it was proclaimed among the people that no one should follow me. The donkorah is a kind of copper basin, which is struck with an iron rod [or hammer], and gives a noise heard afar.† After it is struck, the crier cries in public whatever he required.

The Vizier said to me, "If you wish to ride in a palaquin, well and good: otherwise we have a stallion and a mare: choose which of these animals you prefer." I chose the mare which was brought to me at once. At the same time some garments were brought to me. I said to the Vizier, "What shall I do with the cowries which I have bought?" He replied, "Send one of your companions to sell them for you in Bengal." "I will do so," said I, "on condition that you send some one to help him in the affair." "I will," he replied. So I despatched my comrade Abou Mohammed, son of Ferhân, in whose company they sent one called the pilgrim 'Aly. But it happened that a storm arose: the crew jettisoned the whole cargo, including even the mast, the water, and all the other provisions for the voyage. They remained for sixteen days without sail, rudder, &c.; and after the endurance of hunger, thirst, and toil, they arrived at the island of Ceylon. In a year's time my comrade Abou Mohammed came back to me. He had visited the Foot (of Adam) and he afterwards saw it again with me.

ACCOUNT OF THE FESTIVAL IN WHICH I TOOK PART WITH THE ISLANDERS.

The month of Ramazán ended, the Vizier sent me some [proper] raiment, and we made our way to the place consecrated

* In November, 1879, there were but two horses in the Islands, the property of the Sultan at Mâlé, "wretched wry-legged weeds, not fit to ride," and kept merely for show.—B.

† Donkorah:—Ibn Batûta's ignorance of the Mâldivian language may possibly have led him to confuse ðummârî, the term for the 'flagiolet,' with koûli 'gong.' The iron striker is called ðadïqâdu.—B.
for prayer. The path which the minister had to traverse, between his residence and the place of prayer, had been decorated: stuffs had been spread, and there had been placed to right and left heaps (literally cotta's, v. s., p. 11) of cowries. All the Emirs and grandees who had houses on the road had planted near them little coco-trees, arecas, and bananas. Ropes were hung from one tree to the next, and green nuts were suspended from the ropes. The master of the house remained near the gate, and when the Vizier passed, he threw before his feet a piece of silk or cotton. The slaves of the minister appropriated these, as well as the cowries placed by the way. The Vizier advanced on foot, covered with an ample robe of goat's hair of Egyptian manufacture, and with a large turban. As a scarf he wore a kerchief of silk; four umbrellas shaded his head, and sandals covered his feet. All his attendants without exception had their feet bare. Trumpets, clarions, and drums* preceded him: the soldiers marched before and behind him, all shouting the cry "God is very great!" until they were arrived at the place of prayer.

Prayer ended, the son of the Vizier preached: then was brought a litter which the Vizier mounted. The Emirs and the other grandees again saluted him, casting down pieces of stuffs according to custom. Before this time the Grand Vizier used not to ride in a litter, for the Kings alone did so. The bearers then lifted it; I mounted my horse, and we entered the palace. The minister seated himself at a raised dais, having near him the Viziers and the Emirs. The slaves remained standing, bearing shields, swords, and staves.† Food was then served, and afterwards arecanuts and betel, after which was brought a little dish containing sandal mokassiry.‡ As soon as one party of the guests

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* M. tālaṣfili; durmārki; beru.—B.
† M. aḍḍana; kafī; ḍufi.—B.
‡ Mokassiry := M. kasturi 'musk.'—B.
had eaten, they rubbed themselves with sandal. That day I saw
upon one of their dishes a fish of the species of sardines, salted
and raw, which had been sent as a present from Caoulem. This
fish is very abundant on the Malabar Coast. The Vizier took a
sardine, and began to eat it, at the same time saying to me, “Eat
some of that; it is not found in our country.” I answered, “How
can I eat it? It is not cooked.” “It is cooked,” said he. But I
replied, “I know this fish well, for it abounds in my native land.”

Of my marriage and of my nomination to the
dignity of Kázi.

On the 10th day of Shawwál I agreed with the Vizier
Souleimán Mánáyec, or Admiral, that I should espouse his daughter,
and I sent to request the Vizier Djémál eddín that the betrothal
should take place in his presence at the palace. He agreed and
sent betel, according to custom, and sandal. The people were
present for the ceremony. The Vizier Souleimán delayed his
coming. He was sent for: and yet he came not. He was sent
for a second time, and he excused himself on account of the ill-
ness of his daughter: but the Grand Vizier said to me in private,
“His daughter refuses to marry; and she is mistress of her own
actions. But see! the people are assembled: would you like to
espouse the step-mother of the Sultana, the widow of her father?”
(The Grand Vizier’s son was then married to this woman’s
dughter). I replied “Yes, by all means.” He then convoked
the Kázi and the notaries. The profession of the Musalmán
faith was then recited, and the Vizier paid the dowry. After
some days my wife was brought to me. She was one of the best
women who ever lived. Such was her good manners, that when
I became her husband, she anointed me with scented oils and per-
fumed my clothes; during this operation she laughed and allowed
nothing disagreeable to be seen.

When I had married this lady, the Vizier constrained me
to accept the functions of the Kázi. The cause of my nomina-
tion was that I had reproached the Kázi for taking the tenth part of inheritances, when he made partition among the heirs. I said to him, "You ought to have only a fee, which you should agree for with the heirs." This judge did nothing rightly. After I was invested with the dignity of Kázi, I used all my efforts to have the precepts of the law observed. Disputes are not settled in that country as in ours. The first bad custom which I reformed concerned the sojourn of divorced women at the houses of those who had repudiated them; for these women did not cease to remain at the houses of their former husbands, until they got married to others. I prevented this being done under any pretense. About five and twenty men were brought to me who had conducted themselves in this sort. I had them beaten with whips,* and had them marched through the bazárs. As for the women, I compelled them to leave the homes of these men. Next I exerted myself to get prayers celebrated; I ordered some men to run down the streets and bazárs immediately after the Friday's prayers. If any were discovered, who had not prayed, I had him beaten and marched through the town. I compelled the Imáms and Mouezzins in possession of fixed appointments to apply themselves assiduously in their duties. I wrote in the same sense to (the magistrates of) all the other islands. Lastly I essayed to make the women dress themselves, but in this I did not succeed.

OF THE ARRIVAL OF THE VIZIER 'ABD ALLAH, SON OF MOHAMMED ALHADHRAMY WHOM SULTAN CHIHAB EDDIN HAD BANISHED TO SOUWEID: ACCOUNT OF WHAT PASSED BETWEEN US.

I had espoused the step-daughter of this personage, and I loved this wife very dearly. When the Grand Vizier recalled him to the Island of Mahal, I sent him presents, went to meet

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* M. durrá. Pyrard has gleau "leathern thongs used for corporal punishment."—B.
him, and accompanied him to the palace. He saluted the Grand Vizier, who lodged him in a magnificent house, and there I often visited him. It happened, when I passed the month of Ramazân in prayer, that all the inhabitants visited me, except 'Abd-Allah. The Vizier Džémâl eddîn himself came to see me, and 'Abd-Allah with him, but only bearing him company. Enmity arose between us. Afterwards when I came out of my retreat, the maternal uncles of my wife, the step-daughter of 'Abd-Allah made a complaint to me. They were the sons of the Vizier Džémâl eddîn Assindjâr. Their father had appointed the Vizier 'Abd-Allah to be their guardian, and their property was still in his hands, although they had by the law emerged from wardship. They demanded his appearance in Court. It was my custom when I summoned one of the contending parties to send him a slip of paper, either with or without writing. On delivery of that the party repaired to the Court; if he did not, I punished him. In this way I sent a slip to 'Abd-Allah. This procedure raised his choler, and on account thereof he conceived a hatred for me. He concealed his enmity and sent some one to plead for him. Some unseemly language was reported to me as having been used by him.

The islanders, both gentle and simple, were accustomed to salute the Vizier 'Abd-Allah in the same way as the Vizier Džémâl eddîn. Their salutation consists in touching the ground with the forefinger, then kissing it, and placing it on the head. I issued orders to the public crier, and he proclaimed in the Queen's palace in the presence of witnesses, that whoever should render homage to 'Abd-Allah in like manner as to the Grand Vizier should incur severe chastisement. And I exacted from him a promise that he would not allow men to do so. His enmity against me was now increased. Meantime I married another wife, daughter of a highly esteemed Vizier, whose grandfather was the Sultan Dâoud, the grand-son of the Sultan
Ahmed Chénoûrâzah.* Then I married one who had been married to the Sultan Chihâb eddin, and I had three houses built in the garden which the Vizier gave to me. My fourth wife, the step-daughter of 'Abd-Allah, lived at her own house. She was the one of all my wives whom I cherished the most. Thus allied by marriage to the persons named, the Vizier and the people of the island feared me much, by reason of their own weakness. False reports were spread between me and the Grand Vizier, in great part by the care of the Vizier 'Abd-Allah, so that our estrangement became final.

OF MY DEPARTURE FROM THESE PEOPLE, AND OF THE MOTIVE THEREOF.

It happened that one day the wife of a slave of the late Sultan Djelâl eddin made a complaint of him to the Vizier, to the effect that he had a liaison with one of the Sultan’s concubines. The Vizier sent witnesses, who entered the girl’s house and found the slave asleep with her upon the same carpet. Both were taken into custody. In the morning, on being informed of this, I went to the audience hall and took my seat in my customary place. I made no reference to the affair. A courtier then approached me and said, “The Vizier requests to know if you have any business with him?” I replied, “No.” The design of the minister was that I should speak of the affair of the concubine and the slave; for it was my invariable rule to decide every case which he put before me. But as I was showing him my dissatisfaction and dislike, I omitted to do so then. I went straightway to my own house and took my seat where I delivered my judgments. Soon after came a Vizier, saying on behalf of the Grand Vizier, “Yesterday, so and so occurred in

* This relationship fixes approximately the date of Chénoûrâzah and of the Muhammedan conversion, which may have been as early as 1200 A. D., but—allowing for early marriages—perhaps more probably about 1220, or 1230 A.D.—See Paper on the Maldives, J. R. A. S., Vol. X., n. s., 1878., p. 177.
the matter of the concubine and slave: judge both of them conformably with the law.” I replied, “It is a cause in which it is not fitting to deliver judgment save at the Sultan’s palace.” I then returned thither: the people assembled, and the concubine and the slave were summoned. I ordered that both should be beaten for their liaison; and adjudged that the woman should be set at liberty and the slave kept in prison: after which I returned home.

The Vizier sent several of his principal attendants to speak to me about setting the slave at liberty. I said to them, “Intercession is made with me in favor of a negro slave, who has violated the respect which he owed to his master; while but yesterday, you have deposed the Sultan Chihâb eddîn and slain him, because he went into the house of one of his slaves.” Thereupon I ordered the prisoner to be beaten with bambu switches, which produced more effect than the whip. I had him marched through the whole island, with a rope round his neck. The messengers of the Vizier went and informed him of what passed. He discovered great agitation and was inflamed with anger. He assembled the other Viziers, the chiefs of the army, and sent for me. I obeyed the summons. It was my custom to pay him homage by bending the knee. This time I did not do so, only saying “Peace be with you!” * Then I said to those present, “Be ye witnesses that I resign my functions as Kâzî, because I am rendered powerless to exercise them.” The Vizier having then bespoke me, I went up and took a seat in front of him, and then I answered him in terms yet more severe. After this rencontre, the Mouezzin made the call to prayer at sun-down, and the Grand Vizier entered his house, saying, “It is pretended that I am a sovereign; but see! I have sent for this man in order to vent my wrath upon him, and he dares to be angry with me.” I was only respected by these islanders for the sake of the Sultan of India, for they knew the position I occupied under

* Salaam alescon!—Ar.
him. Although they are far removed from him, they fear him much in their hearts.

When the Grand Vizier had returned to his house, he sent the deposed Kázi, an eloquent speaker, who addressed me as follows:—"Our master requires to know why you have violated, in the presence of witnesses, the respect which is due to him, and why you have not rendered him homage?" I replied, "I saluted him only when my heart was satisfied with him; but now that dissatisfaction has supervened, I have renounced the usage. The salutation of Musalmáns consists only of the word `as-sèlám, (Peace be with you!) and that I have pronounced." The Vizier sent this person a second time, and he then said, "You have no other aim but that of leaving us; pay the doweries of your wives, and what you owe to the men, and go when you will." At this speech I bowed and went to my house and paid such debts as I had contracted. Up to this time the Vizier had given me carpets and a suite of furniture, consisting of copper vessels, and other things. He used to grant me everything I asked; he loved me and treated me with consideration; but his disposition changed and he became inspired with fear of me.

When he heard that I had paid my debts and that I was intending to depart, he repented of what he had said, and put off granting me permission to go. I adjured him by the strongest oaths that I was under necessity to resume my voyage. I removed my belongings to a mosque upon the beach, and repudiated one of my wives. Another was with child, to her I gave a term of nine months, within which I might return, or in default thereof she was to be mistress of her own actions. I took with me that one of my wives who had been married to the Sultan Chihâb ed-dîn in order to restore her to her father who dwelt in the island of Moloùc, and my first wife, whose daughter was half-sister to the Sultana. I agreed with the Vizier 'Omar Deherd (or General of the army, v. s. p. 22) and the Vizier
Haçan, the Admiral, that I should go to the country of Ma'bar* (Coromandel), the king of which was my brother-in-law, and that I should return with troops, to the end that the islands might be reduced under his authority, and that I should then exercise the power in his name. I chose to serve as signals between us, white flags to be hoisted on board the vessels. As soon as they should see these, they were to rise in rebellion on shore. I never had any such idea, up to the day when I showed my displeasure. The Vizier was afraid of me and said to the people, "This man is determined to get the Vizierate, me living or dead." He made many enquiries about me, and added, "I have heard that the King of India has sent him money, to use in raising trouble against me." He dreaded my departure lest I should return from the Coromandel Coast with troops. He bade me remain until he should get a ship ready for me; but I refused.

The half-sister of the Queen complained to her of the departure of her mother with me. The Queen wished to prevent her, but did not succeed. When she saw her resolved to go, she said to her, "All the trinkets you possess were provided with money from the custom-house. If you have witnesses to swear that Djéjal eddin gave them to you, good and well; otherwise restore them." These trinkets were of considerable value; nevertheless my wife gave them up to these people. The Viziers and Chiefs came to me while I was at the mosque, and prayed me to return. I replied to them, "Had I not sworn, assuredly I would return." They said, "Go then to some other island, so that your oath be kept, and then return." "Very well," said I, to satisfy them. When the day of my departure

* The name Ma'bar (‘passage’ or ‘ferry’) was given to the Coromandel coast by the Arabs during the 13th and 14th centuries. Col. Yule suggests that it referred to the communication with Ceylon, or, as is more probable, to its being at that age the coast most frequented by travellers from Arabia and the Gulf (Marco Polo II., p. 268). The tract of coast called Ma'bar extended from Cape Comorin to Nellore.
was come, I went to bid adieu to the Vizier. He embraced me and wept in such wise that his tears fell upon my feet. He passed the following night watching in the island, for fear lest my connections by marriage and my comrades should rise in rebellion against him.

At length I got away and arrived at the island of the Vizier 'Aly. My wife was in great distress, and wished to return. I repudiated her and left her there, and wrote this news to the Vizier, for she was the mother of his son's wife. I repudiated also the wife to whom I had fixed the term (for my return) and sent for a slave girl I was fond of. Meanwhile we sailed through the midst of the islands, from one group to another.

OF WOMEN WHO HAVE ONLY ONE BREAST.

In one of the islands I saw a woman who had only one breast. She was mother of two daughters, of whom one resembled her exactly, and the other had two breasts, only that one was large and full of milk, the other small and contained none. I was astonished at the conformation of these women.

We arrived in course at another of these islands which was small, and had a solitary house, occupied by a weaver,* a married man and father of a family. He possessed small coco trees, and a little barque,† which served him for fishing and visiting the other islands when he wished: on his islet were also small bananas trees. We saw there none of the birds of the continent, except two crows, which flew in front of us on our arrival and circled round our ship. I truly envied the lot of this man, and made a vow that if his island should belong to me, I would retire to it until the inevitable term should arrive for me.

* Mats, and some cloths, are woven in Huvadú (Suvádiva) Atol; the former on the islands Gaddú, Havara Tinadú, and Gemand-furhi.—B.

† M. mās qālī.—B.
I next arrived at the island of Molòuc,* where I found the ship belonging to the captain Ibráhím in which I had resolved to sail to the Coromandel Coast. That person came to visit me along with his companions, and they entertained me at a fine feast. The Vizier had written in my favor an order requiring them to give me at this island 120 bostòû (v.s.p. 11) of cowries, 20 goblets of athouán† or coco-honey, and to add to that every day a certain quantity of betel, arecanuts, and fish. I remained at Molòuc 70 days, and married two wives there. Molòuc is one of the fairest islands to see, being verdant and fertile. Among other marvellous things to be seen there, I remarked that a branch cut off one of the trees there, and planted in the ground or on a wall, will cover itself with leaves and become itself a tree. I observed also that the pomegranate tree there ceases not to bear fruit the whole year round. The inhabitants of this island were afraid that the captain Ibráhím was going to harry them at his departure. They therefore wanted to seize the arms which his ship contained, and to keep them until the day of his departure. A dispute arose on this subject, and we returned to Mahal, but did not disembark. I wrote to the Vizier informing him of what had taken place. He sent a written order to the effect that there was no ground for seizing the arms of the crew. We then returned to Molòuc, and left it again in the middle of the month of Rabí the second of the year 745 (26th August A. D. 1344). In the month of Shabán of the same year (December, 1344), died the Vizier Djémâl eddîn. The Sultan was with child by him and was delivered after his death. The Vizier ʿAbd-Allah took her to wife.

*Molòuc:*—Moluk, the chief island of Moluk Atol, is in lat. 2° 57' N. The Admiralty Chart says that it possesses good water. [More probably Fua Mulaku Island, which lies detached a little S. E. of the centre of the Equatorial Channel (lat. 0° 17', S.) between 'Huvadú and Aqqú Atols. Ibn Batútâ had already "sailed through the midst of the islands, from one group to another."—B.]

†Athouán:—Above at p. 22 coco-honey is called korbâny. In Moura’s edition of Ibn Batútâ (Lisbon, 1855), the word appears as alatuan.
As for us, we sailed on, though without an experienced pilot. The distance which separates the Māldives from the Coromandel Coast is three days' sail. We were for nine days under sail, and on the 9th we went on shore at the island of Ceylon. We perceived the mountain of Sērendīb raised in the air like a column of smoke. When we came near the island, the mariners said, "This port is not in the country of a Sultan in whose dominions the merchants can go in all safety; it is in the country of the Sultan Airy Chacaronaty* who is one of the unjust and perverse. He has ships engaged in piracy on the high seas." Wherefore we feared to land at his port, but, the wind rising, we were in danger of being swamped, and I said to the Captain, "Put me ashore and I will get for you a safe-conduct from this Sultan." He did as I requested, and put me out on the beach. The idolaters advanced to meet us and said, "Who are you?" I apprized them that I was the brother-in-law and friend of the Sultan of Coromandel, that I was on my way to pay him a visit, and that what was on board the ship was destined for a present to that prince. The natives went to their Sovereign and communicated to him my reply. He sent for me, and I presented myself before him at the town of Batthālah (Puttalām)† which was his capital. It is

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* Airy Chacaronaty:—This seems to be the (?) Pāṇḍiyar prince, "Aareya Chakkra Warti," mentioned in Pridham (Ceylon, Vol I., p. 78), who, after 1371 A.D., conquered the northern half of the island, and took King Wikrama captive, but was defeated by the Adigar Alakeswara, and possibly the same Malabar Prince captured and put to death by Prince "Sapoomal Cumara."—See Upham’s Rājawali, p. 264, 269. [A correspondent writes:—"The name identifies no individual. All the Kings of Jaffna seem to have been called Ariya or Ariyan—an old title in India. See the Khandagiri rock inscription, and one of those over the Manikpura cave at Udayagiri (Cunningham’s Corpus Insce. Indic., Vol. I.) Jaffna at this period (A.D. 1844) was, if the Vaipava Mālai can be trusted, under the rule of Kunavirasinka Ariyan."—B.]

† Batthālah:—This town has been identified with Puttalām by Lee, Tennent, the French Editor, and Col. Yule, successively; but, it seems to me, without sufficient authority. The ā of Batthālah is against it; so too the want
a neat little place, surrounded by a wall and bastions of wood. All the neighbouring shore was covered with trunks of cinnamon trees, torn up by the torrents. This wood was collected on the beach, and formed as it were hillocks. The inhabitants of Coromandel and of Malabar take it away without payment, save only that in return for this favor they make a present to the Sultan of

The account given by our traveller shows that it was not as yet cultivated, and perhaps that the "trunks" seen by him were not those of the valuable variety of later days, but of the common indigenous *cassia*. I am not aware whether the cultivation, or growth, of cinnamon positively ceases at Chilaw, as seems to be the common opinion: but, even if this be true of the Ceylon cinnamon of commerce, it may not be so of the indigenous plant, and the area of production may be more limited now than in the 4th century. Ribeiro (Lee's edn., p. 15), says "there is a forest of it 12 leagues in extent between Chilaw and the pagoda of Tenevare," without saying that Chilaw is the northern limit: the French translator (at p. 11) in his note, remarks 'that it is only found between *Grudemalë* and *Tenevare.' Now the promontory of Kutirimalai is a considerable distance north of Puttalam: and I have little doubt that the French translator had good authority for the assertion. The remaining difficulty, that of the "torrents," inclines me to believe that the site of *Batthala* was probably further north, near the mouth of the Kalâ-oya, where the free access to the sea by the passage between Kalkipitiya and Kârativu would seem to designate a more suitable situation for a Prince, whose strength lay in ships.

It now remains to fix *Ménâr Mendely*, which has been identified by preceding commentators, and not unnaturally, with the *Minneri Mundal* of
stuffs and such things. Between Coromandel and the island of Ceylon there is a distance of a day and a night. There is also found in this island plenty of brazil-wood,* as well as Indian aloes, called alcalakhy (perhaps from the Greek ἀγάλλοκον†), but which does not resemble the kamáry or the kákouly.‡ We shall speak of them hereafter.

Of the Sultan of Ceylon.

He is called Airy Chacarouaty, and he is a powerful King upon the sea. I saw in one day, while I was on the Coromandel

Arrowsmith's map, adopted by Tennent. This place is represented as upon the Calpentyn [Kalpiṭiya] peninsular, due west of Puttālam, and I could never account for the traveller taking it on his route to the Peak. I am now informed that no such place exists. There is, however, on the present road, about half way between Puttālam and Chilaw, a village called Muntal or Mundal, four miles north of the Battul-oya, which seems to me to suit the description of the traveller in every way. Ménār Mendely was the frontier town of the Batthālah Prince, as Bender Séldouät (Chilaw) must (from the term Bender) have been to the Siphalee King of the South: and the low jungles of the neighbourhood have always been a favourite haunt of wild buffaloes. By the Census of 1871, I find Mundal and Tāndivila together had a population of 128, and Paniya Muntal, a neighbouring village, of 80. In conclusion, I have to state that the correspondent who has indicated the places on the Peak route, is of opinion that Batthālah is Jaffna and Ménār Mendely, Mannār. I have been unable, after due consideration, to adopt his views, nor could I state them here at sufficient length. I trust, however, that if he has no objection he will formulate them in a separate paper for the use of the Society.

* Brazil-wood:—i.e., "sapan." "They have brazil-wood, much the best in the world." Kazwini names it, and Ribeyro (Lee's edn., p. 16) does the like."—Yule, Marco Polo, Vol. II., pp. 254, 256.

† Alcalakhy.—Mr. L. Nell considers the surmise of the French editors correct. "Ibn Batūta evidently uses the Greek term agallokon corresponding to the Latin Eroxecaria agallocha. The Socotrine variety of aloes is the usual medicinal species. Two indigenous species are known in India, the Aloe Indica and the Aloe littoralis. One of these grows freely in Puttālam, and is known by the Tamil name, takkali."—B.

‡ Kamáry; kákouly.—Dr. S. Lee (Travels of Ibn Batūta, p. 184) identifies the latter of these plants on the authority of Ibn Husain's Medical Dictionary.—B.
Coast, a hundred of his ships, both small and great, which had just arrived. There were in the port eight ships belonging to the Sultan of the country and destined to make the voyage to Yemen. The sovereign gave orders to make preparations, and assembled people to guard his vessels. When the Sinhalese despaired of finding an opportunity of seizing them, they said, "We have only come to protect the vessels belonging to us, which also must go to Yemen."

When I entered the presence of the idolater Sultan, he rose, and made me sit by his side, and spoke to me with the greatest good-will. "Let your comrades," said he, "land in all safety, and be my guests until they leave. There is an alliance between me and the Sultan of Coromandel." Then he gave orders to have me lodged, and I remained with him for three days, in great consideration, which increased every day. He understood the Persian tongue, and much did he relish all I told him of foreign Kings and countries. I entered his presence one day when he had by him a quantity of pearls, which had been brought from the fishery in his dominions. The servants of the prince were sorting the precious from those which were not so. He said to me, "Have you seen the pearl fishery in the countries whence you have come?" "Yes," I answered, "I have seen it in the island of Keis, and in that of Kech, which belong to Ibn Assouamély." "I have heard of them," replied he; and then took up some pearls and added, "Are there at that island any pearls equal to these?" I said, "I have seen none so good." My answer pleased him, and he said, "They are yours: do not blush," added he, "and ask of me anything you desire." I replied, "I have no other desire, since I have arrived in this island, but to visit the illustrious Foot of Adam." The people of the country call the first man bâbâ (father) and Eve, mâmâ (mother). "That is easy enough," answered he, "We shall send some one to conduct you." "That is what I wish,"
said I, and then added, "The vessel in which I have come will
go in safety to Ma'bar and on my return, you will send me in
your ships." "By all means" said he.

When I reported this to the Captain of the ship, he said, "I
will not go till you have returned, even though I should have to
wait a year for you." I made known this answer to the Sultan,
and he said, "The Captain shall be my guest until your return."
He gave me a palanquin, which his slaves bore upon their backs,
and sent with me four of those djoquis who are accustomed to
undertake the pilgrimage annually to the Foot; he added to the
party three Brâhmins, ten others of his friends, and fifteen men
to carry the provisions. As for water, it is found in abundance
on the route.

On the day of our departure, we encamped near a river,
which we crossed in a ferry-boat formed of bamboos. Thence we
took our way to Ménâr Mendely, a fine town, situated at the ex-
tremity of the Sultan's territory, the people of which treated us
to an excellent repast. This consisted of young buffaloes, taken
in chase in the neighbouring forest and brought in alive, rice,
melted butter, fish, chickens and milk. We did not see in this
town a single Musalmân, except a native of Khorassan, who
had remained on account of sickness, and who now accompanied
us. We left for Bender Sélahouât,* a little town, and after quitting
it we traversed some rough country, much of it under water.
There were numbers of elephants there, which do no manner of
harm to pilgrims, nor to strangers, and that is by the holy influence
of Shaikh Aboû 'Abd Allah, son of Khâfîf, the first who opened
this way to visiting the Foot. Up to that time the infidels
prevented the Musalmâns from accomplishing the pilgrimage,

*Bender Sélahouât, i.e., Chilaw.—The fact that it was called Bender, implies, I
think, that it contained a custom-house or store-house (V. s. p. 10), and was a
frontier town of the King who ruled south of 'Aareya Chakrawarti." This is
confirmed by the description of Ménâr Mendely as the frontier town of 'Aareya
Chakrawarti,"
harried them, and would not eat or deal with them. But when the adventure, which we have recounted in the first part of these Voyages (Tome II, pp. 80, 81) had happened to the Shaikh Abou 'Abd Allah, that is to say, the murder of all his companions by the elephants, his own preservation, and the manner in which the elephant carried him on its back, from that time on the idolaters have respected the Musalmáns, have permitted them to enter their houses and to eat with them.* They also place confidence in them, as regards their women and children. Even to this day they venerate in the highest degree the above-named Shaikh, and call him 'the Great Shaikh.'

Meanwhile we reached the town of Conacár,† the residence

* "In this statement Ibn Batúta is fully borne out by Robert Knox, who says, speaking of the charity of the Sigueñese, in his Chapter 'concerning their religious doctrines, opinions, and practices,' Part iii., Ch. 5, 'Nor are they charitable only to the poor of their own nation; but, as I said, to others and particularly to the Moorish beggars, who are Mahometans by religion; these have a temple in Kandy. A certain former King gave this temple this privilege—that every freeholder should contribute a ponnam (fanam. 1/3d.) to it; and these Moors go to every house in the land to receive it [except in Dolosbágé]; and, if the house be shut, they have power to break it open, and take of goods to the value of it. They come very confidently when they beg, and say they come to fulfil the peoples' charity; and the people do liberally relieve them for charity's sake. These Moors pilgrims have many pieces of land given to them by well disposed persons, out of charity, where they build houses and live; and this land becomes theirs from generation to generation for ever.'" (Skeen, Adam's Peak, p. 285.)—B.

† Conacár—Dr. Lee identifies this place with Gampola, and he is followed by Pridham and Tennent. According to Turnour's Epitome, Gampola did not become the capital till after 1347, while Ibn Batúta is writing of the end of 1344. The Sigueñese monarchy was then in a very troublous condition, and it is difficult to decide upon the locality of Conacár.—[Skeen (Adam's Peak, p. 286) hesitates between Gampola and Ratnapura, the place where gems are chiefly found.] Col. Yule (Cathay, p. 423, Note) suggests that it was Kurunégala.

[Mr. L. Nell writes:—"Sir Emerson Tennent did not hesitate to identify this Sovereign with Bhuwanéka Bábín IV., whose capital was Gangasáripura, the modern Gampola. This identification was based on the Chronological Table of
of the principal Sovereign of the Island. It is built in a gully, between two mountains, near a great vale, called 'the vale of precious stones,* because gems are found in it. Outside this town is seen the Mosque of the Shaikh 'Othmân of Shiráz, surnamed Châoûch (the usher). The King and inhabitants of the place visit him, and treat him with high consideration. He used

Turnour; but there are two grounds to doubt this identification. In the first place Turnour admitted an anachronism about A.D. 1347, the date assumed for the accession of Bhuvanêka Bâhu IV, because the terms of three reigns immediately preceding this Sovereign are not given. Secondly, the capital of Kinâr or Konâr is described as situate in a valley between two hills in a 'vale' (or according to Lee 'bay') in which gems were found. The term Conacár, sounds like an Arab attempt to reproduce the name Kurnégalâ. Ibn Batûta wrote in A.D. 1344; according to Turnour, Gampola did not become the capital till after A.D. 1347: We are thus thrown back to a period before the accession of Bhuvanêka Bâhu IV. There is an old native route between Puttalâm and Kurnégalâ. The route from Puttalâm to Gampola direct has not been known." The correspondent already quoted notes:—"In tracing the traveller beyond Chilaw reference is necessary to Ceylon history. Incomparably the best authority for this period is the Nikšya Saygraḥa, which was composed about 1396 A.D. (Turnour states 1357 A.D., but that is manifestly wrong, as the author describes all the Kings up to Bhuvanaika Bâhu V., who came to the throne 1914 A.B., showing Turnour's date to be wrong by 7 years): the corresponding portion of the Mahāveyu was written in 1758 A.D., and is not of anything like the same authority.

"The King of Siphalese Ceylon in 1344 A.D. was Bhuvanaika Bâhu IV. He ascended the throne 1342 A.D., and did not move the seat of Government to Gampola from Kurnégalâ until 1346 A.D. Consequently Conacár must be (as indeed one would expect from the sound) Ibn Batûta's way of rendering Kurnégalâ. It lies 'between two mountains,' the Handrukkanda range and the Yakdessa range."—B.]

* "The valley of the Mahâ-oya which is within 10 miles of Kurnégalâ. The word 'Manikam' used by the traveller (Lee's version) occurs in two villages in this valley Menik-divela and Menik-kadawara. The valley was celebrated for precious stones (see Rūjaim pota), and the latter was a place of some notoriety in the 16th century, and figures in Tennent's Portuguese map as Manicâvare: it is near Polgahawela."—B.
to serve as a guide for those who go to see the Foot. When he had his hand and foot cut off, his sons and slaves became guides in his stead. The cause of his being so mutilated was that he killed a cow. Now the law of the Hindús ordains that one who has killed a cow should be massacred in like wise, or enclosed in its skin and burnt. The Shaikh 'Othmán being respected by those people, they contented themselves with cutting off his hand and foot, and granted to him, as a present, the dues levied at a certain market.

Of the Sultan of Conacár.

He is called by the name Conáir,* and possesses the white elephant. I have never seen in the world another white elephant. The King rides him on solemn occasions, and attaches to the forehead of this animal large jewels. It happened to this Monarch that the nobles of his empire rebelled against him, blinded him, and made his son King. As for him, he still lives in this town, deprived of his sight.

* Conáir—According to Turnour's list of Sinhalese monarchs, the King at this time, 1344–45, would be Wijaya Bâhu the Vth. Col. Yule (Cathay, p. 423 Note) thinks Conáir or Kunâr is the Sanskrit Kumôvar, 'prince.'

[ "Col. Yule's guess" adds Mr. Nell "at the name of the Sovereign Conáir, as identical with Kumôvar, the Sanskrit for 'Prince', comes near what I conceive to be the fact. It will be seen that the Arab traveller describes a Mahommedan Mosque, outside the town of this Prince. Now, a Mahommedan Prince, Vasthimi Kumôraya, did reign with great popularity in Kurunégala. His romantic story is a local tradition in that town. He is said to have been treacherously murdered by the Buddhist priests of a temple on Etâgala. They invited him to be present at a religious ceremony and suddenly pushed him over the precipice [Pridham, Vol. II., p. 649]. Offerings are made upon a mound on the road to the Máligâwa, which probably marks the spot where the Prince was interred, or the Shaikh referred to hereafter. No native will venture to pass the spot after dark without company, for the spirit of Gaûa-Baûdâra, on horseback, is supposed to ride about the neighbourhood. The Court is said to have been immediately removed to Dambadeniya after this assassination, on the ground that the sanctity of the city had been polluted by a Mahommedan usurper.
OF THE PRECIOUS STONES.

The admirable gems called *albahrāmān* (*rubies or carbuncles*) are only found at this town. Some of them are found in the vale and these are the most precious in the eyes of the natives: others are extracted from the earth. Gems are met with in all localities in the island of Ceylon. In this country the whole of the soil is private property. An individual buys a portion of it, and digs to find gems. He comes across stones white-branched: in the interior of these stones the gem is hidden. The owner sends it to the lapidaries, who scrape it until it is separated from the stones which conceal it. There are the red (*rubies*), the yellow (*topazes*), and the blue (*sapphires*) which they call *neilem* (*nilem*). It is a rule of the natives that precious stones whose value amounts to 100 fanams are reserved for the Sultan, who gives their price and takes them for himself. As for those of an inferior price, they remain the property of the finders.† One hundred fanams are equivalent to six pieces of gold.

It is probable that the priest, who compiled the history referred to by Turnour, has purposely omitted the name of this *Kumdrayd*, thus causing the anachronism noticed by Turnour. Cáscie Chetty conjectures that this Prince was the son of Wijaya Bāhu V. by his Moorish Queen *Vasthimi* and this is quite consistent with the above theory. It is also stated by Ibn Batūta that the King and inhabitants of *Conacār* used to visit the Mahomedan Shaikh 'Othmān of Shīrāz at his Mosque, and to treat him with great respect. It is significant that the Prince of *Conacār* is not mentioned in the French translation as 'an infidel King', as Ibn Batūta seems to be careful to do in all instances of those who were not his co-religionist. The French translation also describes this King as deposed by his subjects and deprived of his sight, whilst his son was placed on the throne. This son may have been *Vasthimi Kumdrayd*. The silence of the Sīhualese historians has, however, left all this in doubt."—B."

* Neilem = S. nila.

† Barbosa on the other hand says that all the Ceylon gemming is done by the agents of the King, and on his behalf. The stones are brought to him, and his lapidaries select the best, and sell the rest to the merchants (Stanley's
All the women in the island of Ceylon possess necklaces of precious stones of divers colors: they wear them also at their hands and feet, in the form of bracelets and khalkhâls (anklets). The concubines of the Sultan make a network of gems and wear it on their heads. I have seen on the forehead of the white elephant seven of these precious stones, each of which was larger than a hen’s egg. I likewise saw in possession of Aïry Chacarouaty a ruby dish, as large as the palm of the hand, containing oil of aloes. I expressed my astonishment at this dish, but the Sultan said, “We have objects of the same material larger than that.”

We left Conacât, and halted at a cave called by the name of Ostha Mahmoûd Allovâry. This person was one of the best of men: he had excavated this cave in the mountain side, near a little vale. Quitting this place, we encamped near the vale called Khaour bouzneh (‘monkey vale’). Bouzneh (Persian bouzineh) designates the same as alkoroûd (plural of alkird, ‘monkey’) in Arabic.

**OF THE MONKEYS.**

These animals are very numerous in the mountains: they are of a black colour, and have long tails. Those of the male sex have beards like men. The Shaikh ’Othmân, his son and other persons, have related to me that the monkeys have a Chief whom they obey like a Sovereign. He binds round his head a wreath of the leaves of trees, and supports himself with a staff. Four

Barbosa, Hakt. Soc., p. 169.) Ludovico di Varthema (A.D. 1505) says:—“And when a merchant wishes to find these jewels, he is obliged first to speak to the King, and to purchase a braza of the said land in every direction (which braza is called a molun [? muşam], and to purchase it for five ducats. And then when he digs the said land, a man always remains there on the part of the King, and if any jewel be found there which exceeds ten carats, the King claims it for himself and leaves all the rest free.”—Badger’s Varthema, Hakt. Soc., p. 190.

* See further, as to the wonderful gems of that period, Marco Polo, Bk. Ill., Ch. xiv., and Col. Yule’s note thereto.
monkeys, bearing staves, march on his right and left, and, when the chief is seated, they stand behind him. His wife and little ones come and sit before him every day. The other monkeys come and squat at some distance from him: then one of the four above-mentioned gives them the word and they withdraw; after which, each brings a banana, or a lime, or some such fruit. The King of the monkeys, his little ones, and the four chief monkeys then eat. A certain djogui related to me that he had seen these four monkeys before their Chief, occupied in beating another monkey with a stick, after which they plucked his hair.*

Trustworthy persons have reported to me that when one of these monkeys has got possession of a young girl, she is unable to escape his lust. An inhabitant of the island of Ceylon has told me that he had a monkey, and when one of his daughters entered the house, the animal followed her. She cried him off, but he did her violence. "We ran to her aid," continued the speaker, "and seeing the monkey embracing her, we killed him."

Then we took our departure for 'the vale of bamboos,' † where Abou 'Abd Allah, son of Khaftif, found two rubies, which he

* "This is evidently a confused account of the Veddás and their customs. Ibn Batúta was now in their country, Sabaragamuwa, through which he was journeying, being, as its name imports, 'the Veddá village.'" (Skeen, loc. cit. p. 289). See C.A.S. Journ., Vol. VII., Pt. II., No. 24, 1881, p. 107.—B.

† "Passing through the forest, and cresting several hills that rose each higher than the one behind we came to Ali-hántonne, [Ali-hén-tena] a tract of dense canes or batali, crossed in all directions by numerous elephant tracks. This was evidently one of the favourite feeding grounds of that monarch of the forest, as the name it bore plainly enough indicated. Beyond this is an extensive marsh, thickly covered with large reeds,—'the estuary of reeds' of Ibn Batúta, [Lee's version]—a swampy district, not at all pleasant to pass at any season, wet or dry, owing to the swarms of leeches that infest it: and further on is Batapola..... On the right of the path, in the upward ascent, is one of the caves which Ibn Batúta refers to in his narrative. It is formed by a straight fissure, in shape like an immense inverted V, running longitudinally through a huge boulder 40 feet in length, from 12 to 15 feet in height, and proportionally broad." (Skeen, loc. cit., p. 146).—B.
presented to the Sultan of the Island, as we have related in the first part of these Voyages (Tome II., p. 81): then we marched to the place called 'the house of the old woman,'* which is at the extreme limit of the inhabited region. We left that for the cave of Bábá Tháhir, who was a good man; and then for that of Sóbic. This Sóbic was one of the idolater Sovereigns, and has retired to this spot to occupy himself with the practices of devotion.†

OF THE FLYING LEECH.

At this place we saw the flying leech, by the natives called zolót. It lives upon trees and herbs in the neighbourhood of water, and when a man approaches, it pounces upon him. Whatever be the part of the body upon which the leech falls, it draws therefrom much blood. The natives take care to have ready in that case a lime, the juice of which they express over

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* "A steep and rough ascent, for a considerable distance from Baṭapola, midway in which a stone tumulus has been erected on the spot where the remains of an old priest were burned—brings the pilgrim to Palábaddala, 'the house of the old woman,' according to Ibn Batúta, and 'the farthest inhabited part of the island of Ceylon' [Lee's version], that is, when he travelled through it, about five hundred and thirty years ago. * * * *

"The following legend is connected with the place, and accounts for its name.—Long, long ago, a very poor woman was desirous of performing the pilgrimage to the Šré-Śáda, but, owing to her extreme poverty, could take nothing with her except some common jungle leaves, which in times of distress the natives occasionally resort to for food; these she boiled, and rolled up in a plaintain leaf; and having arrived thus far, when about to partake of her food, she found the boiled leaves had been miraculously turned into rice. Thenceforward it was called Palá-bat-dola, 'the place [rill] of rice and vegetables,' a name which it has ever since retained." (Skeen, loc., cit. p. 147, 154-5.)—B.

† "An ascent of some fifty feet brings the pilgrim to the crest of the ridge of which the Dharmma-rája-gala forms a part. On the other side there is a rapid descent of some hundred and twenty feet, to the Gaṅgula-héna-ella, midway to which is the Telilihlena, a rocky cave, where tradition says an ancient King (? King Sibak), who had forsaken his throne for an ascetic life, took up his abode." (Skeen, loc. cit., pp. 176-7.)—B.
the worm, and this detaches it from the body: they scrape the place with a wooden knife made for the purpose. It is said that a certain pilgrim was passing this neighbourhood, and that the leeches fastened upon him. He remained impassive, and did not squeeze lime-juice upon them: and so all his blood was sucked and he died.* The name of this man was Bābā Khoûzy, and there is there a cave which bears his name. From this place we took our way to 'the seven caves,' then to 'the hill of Iskandar' (Alexander). There is there a grotto called of Alîsfaḥāny, a spring of water, and an uninhabited mansion, beneath which is the bay called 'the place of bathing of the contemplative.' At the same place is seen 'the orange cave' and 'the cave of the Sultan.' Near the latter is the gateway (derwâzeh in Persian, bâb in Arabic) of the mountain.†

* Dr. Lee has this note:—"Knox describes these leeches as being rather troublesome than dangerous. His words are:—'There is a sort of leeches of the nature of ours, only differing in colour and bigness; for they are of a dark reddish colour like the skin of bacon, and as big as a goose-quill; in length some two or three inches. At first, when they are young, they are no bigger than a horse-hair, so that they can scarce be seen. In dry weather none of them appear, but immediately upon the fall of rains, the grass and woods are full of them. These leeches seize upon the legs of travellers.....Some, therefore, will tie a piece of lemon and salt in a rag, and fasten it unto a stick, and ever and anon strike it upon their legs to make the leeches drop off: others will scrape them off with a reed, cut flat and sharp in the fashion of a knife,' &c.—Ceylon, p. 25. See also the addition by Philalethes, p. 264." [Zolou = ? S. kûdêlla.—B.]

† "We had observed the preceding day, that from some place below the station [Həramiťipâna] on the side on which we entered it, coming from Palâbdadala, the pilgrims brought up their supplies of water; and on returning from the Peak, in going down towards the Sîta-gâppula, we saw a descent to our left, which mistaking for the proper path, one of us went partially down before he discovered his error. About fifty or sixty feet below, he saw a clearing in a small dell, in the centre of which was a square kind of tank; and this dell he determined to examine on the occasion of his third visit. The result of the examination was, that he identified the station Həramiťipâna, and this place, as that described by Ibn Batûta, as 'the ridge of Alexander, in which
OF THE MOUNTAIN OF SERENDIB (ADAM'S PEAK).

It is one of the highest mountains in the world: we saw it from the open sea, when we were distant from it upwards of nine days' march. While we were making the ascent, we saw the clouds above us, hiding from view the lower parts of it. There are upon this mountain many trees of kinds which do not cast their leaves, flowers of divers colors, and a red rose as large as the palm of the hand.* It is alleged that on this rose is an inscription in which one may read the name of God Most High and that of his Prophet.† On the mountain are two paths leading to the Foot of Adam. The one is known by the name of

is a cave and a well of water,' at the entrance to the mountain Serendib. The old Moor's account is somewhat confused, his notes or recollections not always carrying his facts exactly in their due order; but half way down the descent, on the left hand, is a well, excavated in the rock, in which we found about five feet of water, and which swarmed with tadpoles. Possibly Ibn Batúta found it in the same condition, for he speaks of the well, at the entrance, full of fish, of which 'no one takes any.' At the bottom of the dell is a cleared space; in the centre of this is a square tank or well, the sides of which are formed of blocks of stone, six or eight feet long. Beyond this, almost facing the descent, some twenty feet up the opposite mountain's side, is a cave. To this my companion and I forced our way through the jungle, and came to the conclusion that this was the cave of Khízr, where, Ibn Batúta says, 'the pilgrims leave their provisions, and whatever else they have, and then ascend about two miles to the top of the mountain, to the place of (Adam's) foot.' In the preceding sentence he says, 'Near this (cave) and on each side of the path, is a cistern cut in the rock.' Now, no other place that we saw, or heard of—and we were particularly minute in our inquiries—answers to such a description. There are the two wells, and the cave; and the distance to the foot-print is also pretty fairly estimated." (Skeen, loc. cit., pp. 226-7.)—B.

* "Gigantic rhododendrons overhang the wall on the eastern side of the Peak. Their bending trunks seem, to the Buddhist mind, to bow to the foot-print; and to offer, in homage and adoration, their wealth of crowning crimson flowers to the pedal impress of the founder of their faith." (Skeen, loc. cit., p. 200.).—B.

† The pious Musálámans in this age of faith found their creed proclaimed by nature itself not only on the flowers of the rhododendron, but on the leaves
the Father's path' and the other by that of 'the Mother's path. By these terms are Adam and Eve designated. The Mother's route is an easy one, and by it the pilgrims return; but any one who took it for the ascent would be regarded as not having done the pilgrimage. The Father's path is rough and difficult of ascent. At the foot of the mountain, at the place of the gateway, is a grotto also bearing the name of Iskandar, and a spring of water.

of the fig-tree. Before he went to the Maldives, Ibn BatuA was at Deh Fattan (? Devipatam), a town on the Malabar Coast, where he records the existence of an extraordinary tree near the mosque. "I saw that the mosque was situated, near a verdant and beautiful tree; whose leaves resembled those of the fig, except that they were glossy. It was surrounded by a wall and had near it a niche or oratory, where I made a prayer of two genuflexions. The name of this tree with the natives of the country was derakht (dirakht) aschehadah 'the tree of the testimony.' I was informed at this place that every year, on the arrival of autumn, there fell from this tree a solitary leaf, whose colour passed first to yellow and then to red. On this leaf were written, with the pen of the Divine power, the words following 'There is no God but God, and Mohammed is the apostle of God.' The juris-consult Houcain and many other trustworthy men told me that they had seen this leaf, and had read the inscription upon it. Houcain added that, when the time arrived for it to fall, trusted men from among the Musalmáns and the idolaters sat down under the tree. When the leaf fell the Musalmáns took one half of it, while the other was deposited in the treasury of the idolater Sultan. The inhabitants preserve it for the purpose of curing the sick. This tree caused the conversion of the grandfather of Cauel [the Sultan at the time of his visit] to the faith, and he it was who built the mosque and the tank [from its description similar to the Siphalese pokuna]. This prince could read the Arabic characters: and when he deciphered the inscription and understood what it contained, he embraced the true faith and professed it entirely. His story is preserved in tradition among the Hindús. The juris-consult Houcain told me that one of the children of this King returned to idolatry after the death of his father, governed with injustice, and ordered the tree to be torn up from the roots. The order was executed, and no vestige of the tree was left. Nevertheless it began to shoot again, and became as fair a tree as it had been before. As for the idolater, he came to die full soon thereafter." (Tome IV., pp. 85-87.) I have quoted this passage
The people of old have cut in the rock steps of a kind, by help of which you ascend; fixed into them are iron stanchions, to which are suspended chains, so that one making the ascent can hold on to them.* These chains are ten in number, thus:—two at the foot of the mountain [Peak] at the place of the gate-way; seven in contiguity after the two first; and the tenth, that is ‘the chain of the profession of faith (Islam),’ so named because a person who has reached it and looks back at the foot of the mountain will be seized with hallucinations, and, for fear of falling, he will recite the words ‘I bear witness that there is no God but God, and that Muhammad is his prophet.’ When you have passed this chain, you will find a path badly kept. From the tenth chain to the cave of Khidhr† is seven miles. This cave is situate at an open place, and it has near it a spring of water full of fish, and this also bears the name of Khidhr. No one may catch these fish. Near the cave are two basins cut in the rock, one on each

at length as an illustration of the habit of missionary religions to annex and adapt the shrines and idols of local worship. The fig-tree in question was, I have little doubt, a bô tree, surrounded by a wall and altars like the Mahâ Vihrâ at Anurâdhapura. It is likely to have been credited with healing powers, and so to have preserved its influence in the locality from the decay of Buddhism in Malabar, through the centuries of Brâhmanish reaction, until at length the followers of the Prophet contrived by means of the fancied inscription to control the superstitious faith of its devotees. The similar attempt of the Muhammadans to annex the Śri-pâda of Samanala, by claiming it as the foot-print of Adam, has done nothing towards the conversion of the Sinhalese. The Hindús claim it as that of Siva or Vishnû, according to their sect. (Skeen’s Adam’s Peak, p. 27.)

* These chains are spoken of by Marco Polo in the previous century. “Furthermore you must know that on this Island of Seilan there is an exceeding high mountain; it rises right up so steep and precipitous that no one could ascend it, were it not that they have taken and fixed to it several great massive iron chains, so disposed that by help of these men are able to mount to the top.”—Yule, Marco Polo, Vol. II., p. 256.

† See, as to the identity of this saint or prophet, Dr. Lee’s note, and Sell, ‘Faith of Islam,’ p. 260.—B.
side of the path. In the grotto of Khidhr the pilgrims leave
their belongings; thence they mount two miles further to the
summit, where is the Foot.

DESCRIPTION OF THE FOOT.

The impression of the noble Foot, that of our father Adam,
is observed in a black and lofty rock, in an open space. The
Foot is sunk in the stone, in such wise that its site is quite
depressed; its length is eleven spans.* The inhabitants of China
came here formerly; they have cut out of the stone the mark
of the great toe, and of that next to it, and have deposited this
fragment in a temple of the town of Zeitoun (Tseu-thoung)
whither men repair from the most distant provinces.† In the rock
whereon is the print of the foot, are cut nine holes, in which the
idolater pilgrims place gold, precious stones and pearls. You
may see the fakirs, arrived from 'the grotto of Khidhr' seeking to
get ahead of one another, and so to get what may be in these
holes. In our case we found there only some little stones, and a

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* Dr. Marshall, who in 1819 ascended the Peak with Mr. S. Sawers, says
the foot is 5 ft. 6 in. in length. Tennent says it is "about 5 feet long, and of
proportionate breadth" (Vol. II. p. 140), Knox (p. 3) says "about two feet
long," but he never saw it. Ribeyro, Liv. i., C. xxiii., says, "two palms long and
Malcolm, the first Englishman who made the ascent, (1815), says the impression
is in kabook or ironstone. ["The heel is much higher than the toes, and the
artificiality of the whole is palpable. A thick raised edging of cement marks
the rude outline of a foot 5 ft. 7 in. long, and 2 ft. 7 in. broad at the point
where the heel begins to curve. The interstices between the toes are also formed
of cement, and the whole of the markings of the foot every now and again need
repair. The inner portion of the heel and instep are the only parts that are
clearly natural [gneiss] rock, (Skeen, loc. cit., p. 203.)—B.]

† Marco Polo says that an embassy was sent by the great Khan in 1284
while he himself was in China, to obtain relics of our father Adam. They
obtained a couple of teeth, some hair, and a dish of prophyr used by our first
parent. He does not mention that they brought a piece of the rock from the
little gold which we gave to our guide. It is customary for pilgrims to pass three days in 'the cave of Khidhr,' and during this time to visit the Foot morning and evening; and so did we.

When the three days had elapsed, we returned by way of the Mother's path, and encamped hard by the grotto of Cheîm, who is the same as Cheîth (Seth) son of Adam. We halted in successions near 'the bay of fish,' the straggling villages of Cormolah, Djeber-câoun, Dildînîoueh and Atkalendjeh.* It was in the last named place that the Shaikh Abou 'Abd Allah, son of Khaîf passed the winter. All these villages and stations are on the mountain. Near the base, on the same path, is the dérakht (dirakht) rewôn 'the walking tree,' a tree of great age, not one of whose leaves falls. It is called by the name of mâchîah (walking) because a person looking at it from above the mountain considers it fixed a long distance off, and near the foot of the hill; while one who regards it from beneath, believes it to be in quite the opposite direction. I have seen at this place a band

* [The correspondent before quoted writes:—'I fear the route taken by the traveller after leaving Kurunégala must always be a matter of conjecture. I have given it some attention and I think it most probable that he went from Kurunégala towards the mountains and ascended Adam's Peak from the pilgrim's path in Maskeliya. My reasons are—

(i.) The extreme limit of the inhabited region was evidently a long way from the Peak—this would be true on the Maskeliya side, but not true in the low country, as there were villages comparatively near the Peak.

(ii.) From the traveller's description he evidently went into the mountains soon after leaving Kurunégala.

(iii.) The names of places described are found on this route, and on no other.

(iv.) The traveller describes two routes as practicable. The 'father's path' as rough and difficult, the 'mother's path' as easy and the way of return. He went by the former, which is evidently the way through the hills and the forest of Maskeliya.

The most convenient pass from Kurunégala to the mountains runs past Giriáagama, and there is a cave in the mountain side near a little vale (exactly as described) which still retains the name Galagedara ('cave abode').
of *djoguis*, who did not leave the foot of the hill, waiting for the fall of the leaves of this tree. It is planted in a place where there is no possibility of getting at it. The idolaters retail some fictions concerning it; among them, this—whoever eats of its leaves recovers his youth, even should he be an old man. But that is false.

Under this mountain is a great vale where precious stones are found. Its waters appears to the eye extremely blue. From this we marched for two days as far as the town of *Dinéwer*, a large one, built near the sea and inhabited by merchants.* In a vast temple is seen an idol bearing the same name as the town. In this temple are upwards of a thousand Bráhmins and *djoguis*.

'Monkey vale' I cannot identify; there is a place in Dojosebágé called *Wanduru-mána* ('monkey measure').

'The vale of bamboos (or reeds)' I should guess to be *Rambukpițiya* in Upper Bulatgama; it is of some antiquity and importance, and lies right on the road to Adam's Peak.

The spot where 'Abú Abd-Allah found his two rubies is probably even yet to be identified by the name *Menik-hambantoja* ('the gem ford of the foreign trader') on the pilgrim's route. 'The house of the old woman' (*A 'cheki-gedara?*) has probably not survived till our time. The rest of the route lay through 'the wilderness of the Peak,' containing no inhabitants but hermits. The Royal hermit called *Sébik* I should guess to be 'Raja Savlu (or Sakra) Viye Bahu,' afterwards father of the Śri-Parákrama Báhu VI. (Valentyn, p. 71, and Kávyá-sekara, 89.) Of the straggling villages mentioned as halting places on the journey to Dondra, *Cormolah* is probably Gilimalé; *Dildinéoueh* may be either Dinawaka or a Deldeniya; and *Atkalanéjeh* is certainly the Atakalan Kóralé, the last district ' on the mountain' (i.e., Kanda-uđa or in the Uđa-rajá).

"The pass would probably be that traversed on the road from *Dápané* to *Urubokka*, which is the beginning of 'the great vale [leading to Mátara] where precious stones are found. Its waters appear to the eye extremely blue'—of course the reference is to the *Niwala-gangá* ('blue-cloud-river')—and precious stones are still found there in some quantity (Cf. Pybus' Journey to Kandy, p. 22). *Dinéwer* is of course Déwi-nuwara, and *Kály*, Galle."—B.

*Dinéwer* :—Dondra. This magnificent shrine of Vishńu was pillaged and destroyed by the Portuguese under Thomé de 'Souza d'Arronches in 1587. (De Couto, Dec. x., C. xv.)—Tennent 'Ceylon,' Vol. II., p. 113-4.
and about five hundred women, born of idolater fathers, who sing: and dance every night before the statue. The town and its revenues are the private property of the idol; all who live in the temple and those who visit it are supported therefrom. The statue is of gold and of the size of a man. In place of eyes, it has two large rubies, and I was told that they shone by night like two lamps.

We took our departure for the town of Kály,* a small one, six parasangs from Dénéiver. A Musalmán there, called the Ship-Captain Ibráhim, entertained us at his house. We then took the route for the town of Calenbou (Colombo) one of the largest and most beautiful in the island of Sereṇdib. There dwells the Vizier, prince of the sea, Djaîesty,† who has there about 500 Abyssinians. Three days after leaving Calenbou, we arrived at Batthalah, of which mention is made above. We visited the Sultan of whom I have spoken. I found the Captain Ibráhim awaiting me, and we left for the country of Mo'bar.

[Ibn Batúta and his friends met with tempestuous weather, and were wrecked on the Coast of Coromandel, probably near the mouth of the Patar. He and his party, consisting of two concubines, some companions and slaves, were conducted to Arcot, and thence two days journey to the Sultan, who was engaged in an expedition against the infidels. This was the Sultan

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* Kály:—Galle. Six parasangs will be a little over 30 miles. The exact distance is 31·38 miles.
† Djaîesty:—This appears to be the same Prince described by the traveller John de Marignolli who was driven upon the coast of Ceylon on the 3rd May (probably) 1350. He landed at Perivilis (?Barbery) "over against Paradise. Here a certain tyrant, by name Coya Jaam, a eunuch, had the mastery in opposition to the lawful king. He was an accursed Saracen, who, by means of his great treasures, had gained possession of the greater part of the kingdom." This person "in the politest manner" robbed him of the valuable gifts he was carrying home to the Pope, and detained him four months.—Yule's 'Cathay,' p. 357.
Ghiyāth eddīn, whose wife was a sister of a woman Ibn Batūta had married at Delhi: he is therefore above called his brother-in-law. Ibn Batūta was hospitably entertained, and he thus continues:—]

I had an interview with the Sultan and proposed the subject of the Mádīves, and the sending of an army to the islands. He formed a resolve to accomplish this object, and appointed the ships for the purpose. He arranged a present for the Queen of Mádīves, robes of honor, and gifts for the Emirs and Viziers. He entrusted to me the care of securing a marriage for him with the sister of the Queen; and lastly, he ordered three ships to be loaded with alms for the poor of the islands, and said to me, “You will get back in five days.” The Admiral Khodjah Serlee said to him, “It will not be possible to go to the Mádīves until three months from this moment.” The Sultan went on to address me, “Since that is so, come to Fattan, so that we may finish this expedition and return to our capital at Moutrah (Madura); you will set out from there.” I then remained with him, and as we waited I sent for my concubines and my comrades.

[Ghiyāth eddīn won a great victory over the infidels and returned with Ibn Batūta to Fattan (? Dévipatam) a large seaport town, and thence to Madura. At Fattan the Sultan told the Admiral to cease preparing the vessels for the Mádīve expedition. He was then suffering from an illness, and shortly afterward died at a place near Madura. He left no son, and his nephew, Nāssir eddīn, whom Ibn Batūta had known as a domestic servant at Delhi, was accepted by the army, and reigned in his stead:—]

He [Nāssir eddīn] ordered that I should be provided with all the ships which his uncle had assigned to take me to the Mádīves. But I was attacked with fever, which is mortal at this place. I imagined that I was about to die. God inspired me to have recourse to the tamarind, which is very abundant in that country: I took about a pound and put it in water. I then
drank the beverage, and that relieved me in three days, and God healed me. I took a disgust for the town of Moutrah, and requested the Sultan's permission to take a voyage. He said, "Where would you go? There remains only a month ere you start for the Máldives. Remain here and we shall give you all the equipment ordered by the master of the world (the deceased Sultan)." I declined, and he wrote an order in my favor to Fattan, that I should be allowed to depart in any vessel I would. I returned to that town, and there found eight vessels setting sail for Yemen, and in one of them I embarked.

[ Ibn Batúta left this ship at Caoulem (Quilon) on the Malabar Coast, and there remained for three months. He then embarked in another, which was attacked by the pirates near Hinaour (Honoré), and the traveller lost all his property, including the pearls and precious stones presented to him by the Ceylon King, and all his clothes:—]

I returned to Calicut and entered one of the Mosques. A lawyer sent me a suit of clothes; the Kâzi, a turban; and a merchant, another coat. I was here informed of the marriage of the Vizier 'Abd Allah with the Queen Khâdirjah, after the death of the Vizier Djémâl eddîn, and I heard that my wife, whom I had left enceinte, was delivered of a male child. It came into my heart to go back to the Máldives, but I feared the enmity which existed between me and the Vizier A'bd Allah. In consequence, I opened the Kurán, and these words appeared before me, "The angels shall descend unto them, and shall say, 'Fear not, neither be ye grieved.'" (Kurán, Sur. xii., 30.) I implored the benediction of God, took my departure, and arrived in ten days at the Máldives, and landed at the island of Cannaloûs. The Governor of this island, 'Abd al 'Azîz Almahdachâouy, welcomed me with respect, entertained me, and got a barque ready. I arrived in due course at Hololy, an island to which the Queen and her sisters

* Hololy:—Probably Ofuveli island in North Mále Atol.—B.
resort for their diversion and for bathing. The natives term these amusements *teteljer,* and they then have games on board the vessels. The Vizier and chiefs send offerings to the Queen of such things as are found in the island. I met there the Queen's sister, wife of the preacher *Mohammed,* son of *Djémal eddin,* and his mother, who had been my wife. The preacher visited me, and he was served with food.

Meanwhile some of the inhabitants went across to the Vizier *'Abd Allah* and announced my arrival. He put some questions about me and the persons who had come with me, and was informed that I had come to take my son, who was now about two years old. The mother presented herself before the Vizier to complain of me, but he told her, "I will not prevent him taking away his son." He pressed me to go to the island (*Mahal*), and lodged me in a house built opposite the tower of his Palace, in order that he might be aware of my estate. He sent me a complete suit of clothes, betel, and rose-water, according to custom. I took to him two pieces of silk to throw down at the moment of saluting him. These were received from me, with the intimation that the Vizier would not come out to receive me that day. My son was brought to me, and it seemed to me that a sojourn among the islanders was what was best for him. I, therefore, sent him back, and remained five days in the island. I thought it best to hasten my departure, and asked the usual permission. The Vizier sent for me and I repaired to his presence. They brought to me the two pieces of stuff they had previously taken from me, and I cast them before the Vizier and saluted him in the customary way. He made me sit by his side and questioned me of my condition. I ate in his company and washed my hands in the same basin with him, which thing he does with no one. Then betel was brought and I came away. The Vizier sent me

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* *Teteljer:*—Cl. M. kuli-jahan 'sports.'—B.
cloths and *bostūs* of cowries, and conducted himself towards me in the most perfect way. I took my departure and after a voyage of forty-three days we arrived at Bengal.

[The son of Ibn Batúta here spoken of was probably born before the close of 1344. The traveller therefore took his final departure from the Māldives about the close of the year 1346.]
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

(CEYLON BRANCH.)

PROCEEDINGS,

1882.

COLOMBO:
FRANK LUKER, ACTING GOVERNMENT PRINTER, CEYLON.

1883.
PROCEEDINGS.—1882.

COMMITTEE MEETING.

January 25, 1882.

Present:

C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., President, in the Chair.
T. Berwick, Esq.  J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.
W. Ferguson, Esq.  J. G. Wardrop, Esq., Hon.
J. G. Smither, Esq.  Treasurer.

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.

1.—Read and confirmed Minutes of last Meeting.

2.—The Hon. Secretary stated that the Government Printer found himself unable to undertake the reprinting of further Journals owing to pressure of work. He therefore suggested that arrangements be made with the "Ceylon Times" Press to reprint the Journals Nos. 9-12 (Vol. III), 1856-1861. No. 6 (Vol. II., Part II.), 1853, would, he hoped, be completed shortly, and Nos. 4 and 5 (Vol. II., Part I.), 1848-50 as opportunity offered.—Approved.

3.—The Hon. Secretary suggested that a General Meeting be called at an early date, at which he would be prepared to read:

(a) Extracts from Mr. A. Gray's translation of Ibn Batúta's Travels relating to the Maldive Islands and Ceylon (French edition, Paris, 1879).

(b) "Customs and Ceremonies connected with Pádi Cultivation."

Decided to convene a General Meeting for the 15th proximo.

4.—At the suggestion of the Chairman, decided to sanction a grant of Rs. 100 to W. Guñatilaka, Esq., of Kandy, towards the expense of printing a new edition of Páñini's Sutras.

GENERAL MEETING.

February 15, 1882.

Present:

C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., President, in the Chair.

T. Berwick, Esq.  Rev. E. F. Miller, M.A.
W. Ferguson, Esq.  J. G. Wardrop, Esq., Hon.
G. C. Hill, Esq.  Treasurer.
W. K. James, Esq.  H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secy.

1.—Minutes of the last Meeting (Annual) were read and confirmed.
2.—The following gentlemen were duly balloted for and elected Members:—


W. Blair, Esq. | P. Fröidenberg, Esq.

P. W. Conolly, Esq., C.C.S. | W. G. Haines, Esq., C.C.S.

3.—A list of Books added to the Society's Library since the Annual Meeting was laid on the table.

4.—Read the following Papers:—

i.—An Abstract by the Chairman of Professor Virchow's Monograph on the Veddás of Ceylon. (Ueber die Weddas von Ceylon und ihre Beziehungen zu den Nachbarstämmen.)

ii.—An Abstract by the Chairman of Professor M. Künté's Paper on "Nirvaña," written for the Society's Journal.

iii.—Extracts from Mr. Albert Gray's translation of the Mâldive portion of Ibn Batúta's Travels (Voyages d'Ibn Batoutah, Tome IV., pp. 110-185), by the Honorary Secretary.

iv.—"Customs and Ceremonies connected with Pâdi Cultivation," by H. C. P. Bell, Honorary Secretary.

5.—Upon the proposition of the President, it was unanimously carried that Mr. Albert Gray be invited to become an Honorary Member of the Society.

6.—Proceedings closed with votes of thanks to the Secretary for his Paper, and to the Chairman.

The President read an abstract of a Monograph by Professor Virchow on "The Veddás of Ceylon," based on an examination of 23 reputed Veddá skulls. He believes they are a people of unmixed blood, whilst the Singhalese are decidedly a mixed race. This opinion, however, is not supported by the researches of Mahá Mudaliyár De Soysa, who believes them to be the descendants of a son and daughter of Vijayá by a Yakkhá princess.

After some general conversation on the subject, it was decided to get the Professor's valuable pamphlet translated into English at home for the benefit of Oriental scholars unacquainted with German.

The Chairman followed this up by an abstract of a Paper on "Nirwána," by Professor Künté, which will be printed in the Journal of the year in extenso.

The Honorary Secretary, Mr. H. C. P. Bell, read extracts from Mr. A. Gray's translation of a portion of Ibn Batúta's Travels relating to the Mâldives (French edition of M. M. Defréminy and Sanguinetti), the quaint descriptions in which agreed in the main with the Secretary's observations when at those Islands.

Mr. Bell then read an interesting Paper on "Customs and Ceremonies connected with Pâdi Cultivation." The Paper entered into details showing that at every step taken in the cultivation of their pâdi
fields, the villagers sought the advice and aid of soothsayers in order to secure a lucky day for their proceedings. This is done before the cultivator attempts to commence ploughing or treading up the ground. The same is observed in regard to the construction of dams; and before any attempt at sowing seed can be made, ceremonies are gone through in conformity with ancient customs as prescribed by the soothsayers.

Mr. Bell gave some specimens of the songs sung by the village cultivators whilst bailing the water out of the fields, as well as during reaping, together with a few strange hem, or charms, used to keep off flies, &c., from the ripe ears.

The after-proceedings of levelling the ground, and preparing it for the reception of seed, were all minutely described, showing as much attention to ceremonial as at any other stage of affairs.

If the crop promises to be a very good one, a ceremony is performed with a view of securing protection from the evil eye and evil mouth. In the centre of the field small stands are made, decorated with flowers and young cocoanut leaves. Here at night the Kattadya, dressed up fantastically, dances a sort of devil dance in the centre of the platform, lights being kept burning at the corners until morning.

There are also certain observances at the time of threshing the corn. Before the sheaves can be removed from the stacks, where they were placed from the field, five or seven mats are spread on the ground and three circles and two straight lines (with four of their agricultural implements) are drawn with ashes: in the centre are placed sea-shells, a little cow-dung with a little silver, copper, brass, iron, and ashes. This being done, some one believed to be lucky places a sheaf of corn on his head, walks up to the spot, and bows to the four corners; other men then bring in the ear, and spread it on the mats, and bullocks are brought in to begin the work.

The removal of the threshed corn is also a matter of ceremony. When all the grain is free from straw, the chief villager goes to the centre of the pâdi, whilst the others heap it up around him as high as his knees. When this is done the heap is covered with mats, and the man in the centre, after certain forms, jumps down backwards. Then other observances follow prescribed by long custom.

All the pâdi is then removed home. Before any of it is taken for use one or two handfuls are again separated. This, with some other pâdi, is pounded by the women at night, and part of it is boiled, and cakes made with the rest. Before they begin this, the women bathe and put on clean clothes, and it is necessary that none of it should be tasted during the preparation. The neighbours are invited in the morning to enjoy this Deviyanné dánaya, and the Kapurâla, lay priest of the Dévala, is called in. All the people assembled sit down on mats spread on the compound, and the rice and vegetable curries, cakes and plantains, being served them on plantain leaves, the Kapurâla sings certain songs to bring prosperity on the cultivator. Meanwhile a table is prepared inside the house with everything cooked for the occasion. When the songs are over, he tastes everything, and sprinkles water on the people and their rice, which is the
signal for them to commence eating.—(Ceylon Observer, February 16th, 1882.)

The information contained in Mr. Bell’s very interesting paper, read to the Asiatic Society, on ceremonies amongst the Sighalese in connection with paddy cultivation, conveys a lesson which should be well considered in reference to agricultural improvements amongst people who have been stigmatised as indolent and apathetic in the extreme.

We shall not be wrong if we say that the Sighalese people are fully as much imbued with feelings of superstition as any other race, notwithstanding that Buddhism is in its very nature opposed to anything approaching superstitious practices.

Perhaps in no other occupation are superstitious observances so frequently and so thoroughly observed as in agriculture. This may be owing to frequent unfavourable seasons and failure of crops, which have led native cultivators to trust so much to charms and observances in the hope of warding off further disaster. From the earliest commencement of the cultivator’s toils, the preparation of the ground to the garnering of the corn, the soothsayer is consulted, and his instructions devoutly followed by the ignorant villagers. A lucky day must be sought for turning the first sod of the saturated ground, and for sprinkling the first sowing of the season. In the hope of warding off pests and insects from the growing cornfield, rules have to be observed, and ceremonies performed; and the same with every operation connected with harvesting.

But Mr. Bell is careful to tell us that these childish observances are fast dying out amongst all but the most ignorant. He says most of these absurd and superstitious customs and usages, though still observed by some old cultivators, are little regarded by their juniors, and are but slowly but surely dying out. These men are unable to account for the performance of these ceremonies, and he adds that the majority of cultivators attribute the failure of crops in their villages during the past few years to the non-observance and gradual decline of faith in these ceremonies.

If, as believed by Mr. Bell, these absurd practices are fast dying out, there may be some prospect of inducing cultivators to turn their attention to improved modes of agriculture, and so in time bettering their condition. It is within the memory of living men that in many parts of the United Kingdom superstitions as absurd as any described in this paper prevailed amongst the rural population, especially in remote districts, and we know that it is only within the last twenty years that any real progress has been made in English agriculture, Scotland, to its credit, having set the example. We are therefore surely justified in hoping that as superstition dies out in this country, improvements in agriculture may take their place.—(Ceylon Times, 17th February, 1882. “Superstition or Progress.”)
Additions to Library.

Agriculture, Department of, Report, 1878 and 1879, 2 Vols., Washington, 1880.

Archæological Survey of India: Tours in the Central Dool and Gorakhpur in 1874-75 and 1875-76, by Major-General A. Cunningham, c.s.i., c.i.e., Vol. XII., Calcutta, 1879.


Bibliotheca Indica, No. 469, Calcutta, 1818.


Ceylon Gazetteer, by S. Casi Chetty, Ceylon, 1834.


Common Prayer (Telugu), Bellary, 1838.


Grammar of the Telugu Language, by Maddáli Lakshmi Narasayya, Madras, 1870.


Kala Sankalita, by Lieut.-Colonel J. Warren, Madras, 1825.

Kayimandorakaḍa Ginna (Sinhalese), 1882, Colombo.


Nāmamālā (Pāli Grammar), by Subhūti Terunnāuse, Ceylon, 1876.

Old Time Superstitions, by H. Philips.
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY (CEYLON BRANCH).

Proceedings of the Asiatic Society, Bengal, No. IX., Nov. 1881, Calcutta, 1881.
Religions of India, (Trübner’s Oriental Series), by A. Barth, London, 1882.
Sigiri, the Lion Rock, Ceylon (Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland), by T. W. Rhys Davids, London, 1874.
Travels in Ceylon and Continental India, by Dr. W. Hoffmeister, Edinburgh, 1848.
Voyage to the East Indies, by J. P. Stavorinus, 3 Volumes.
Wesleyan Mission to Ceylon and India, by W. M. Haward, London, 1823.

 COMMITTEE MEETING.
September 4, 1882.

Present:

C. Bruce, Esq., c.m.g., President, in the Chair.
J. Capper, Esq. W. Ferguson, Esq.
H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.

1.—Confirmed Minutes of Meeting of January 25th.
2.—The Hon. Secretary stated that for want of suitable Papers it had been considered undesirable to convene a General Meeting since February, but that the following Papers were now available:

i. —“Buddha’s Sermon on Omens,” by L. De Zoysa, Mahá Mudaliyár.

ii. —“Descriptive List of ornaments worn by the Moorish Women in Ceylon,” by A. T. Shams-ud-Dín;

and that the following had been promised:

iii. —“Folk Lore in Ceylon,” by W. Gunatilaka.
Decided to call a General Meeting for the 14th instant.

3.—The Hon. Secretary stated that Journal Vol. VII., Pt. II., No. 24, 1881, which the Government Printing Office had been unable to issue earlier owing to continuous heavy pressure of work, would, he hoped, be ready for distribution very shortly, and that as the Government Printer had finally declared his inability to issue the Society’s Transactions punctually, he (Hon. Secretary) had entrusted the Journal for the current year to the “Times of Ceylon” Press.

4.—The Hon. Secretary announced that the new Catalogue would also be out by the end of the month, and laid on the table copy of Part I., pp. 1—52.

5.—Submitted application from Mr. A. Haly, the Director of the Museum, to have his essay “On the Construction of Zoological Tables” published by the Society. Deferred.

GENERAL MEETING.

September 14, 1882.

Present:

The Hon. J. Douglas, C.M.G., Vice-Patron, in the Chair.

C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G. A. M. Ferguson, Esq., Jun.
A. Bailey, Esq. W. Ferguson, Esq., F.L.S.
J. Carbery, Esq., M.B.C.M. W. P. Rânasîpha, Esq.
J. G. Dean, Esq., Hon. Tr. W. G. Rockwood, Esq., M.D.
A. M. Ferguson, Esq., C.M.G. H. VanCuylenburg, Esq.

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.

1.—Read and confirmed Minutes of last General Meeting.

2.—The following Members were elected:

C. Edmonds, Esq., C.C.S. T. H. Lloyd, Esq.
E. Elliot, Esq., C.C.S. H. L. Moyaey, Esq., C.C.S.
G. M. Fowler, Esq., C.C.S. Rev. H. Newton, M.A.
E. R. Gunaratna, Atappatu John Perera, Mudaliyâr.
Mudaliyâr. J. H. De Saram, Esq., C.C.S.

H. Wace, Esq., C.C.S.

The Hon. J. F. Dickson, M.A., C.C.S., and W. Gunâtilaka, Esq., were re-admitted members.

3.—The Hon. Secretary laid on the table a list of books received since last meeting.

(i.) The Hon. Secretary read a Paper, entitled “Buddha’s Sermon on Omens,” by L. De Zoysa, Mahâ Mudaliyâr.
A short discussion followed, in the course of which Mr. Bruce remarked that it appeared to him the best rendering to bring out the exact meaning of the words "_etap mangalaputtamaṇ_" would be "these are the best things to bring luck," that this seemed to him to have a very appropriate meaning, more appropriate than the word "omen."

In reply to a remark from the Chairman, Mr. Bruce said that undoubtedly the general meaning given to the words by the Mahá Mudaliyár was right, but perhaps not sufficiently comprehensive.

At this stage of the proceedings the Lieutenant-Governor left, and Mr. Bruce took the Chair.

(ii.) The Hon. Secretary read a Paper on "_Folk Lore in Ceylon_," W. Guṇatilaka, Esq.

5.—The Meeting concluded with the usual vote of thanks to the Chair.

A Paper, "_Buddha's Sermon on Omens_," by L. De Zoysa, Mahá Mudaliyár, was first read. It was in reality, an essay in disproof of the theory that Buddha's teaching inculcated caste and superstition; and quotations were given in support of this from the Buddhist Scriptures. Mr. De Zoysa was careful to emphasize the declaration with which his paper commenced, to the effect that the founder of Buddhism repudiated caste and superstition both in theory and practice; at the same time he admitted that in a country like Ceylon in which Hinduism had prevailed before the introduction of Buddhism, caste and superstition still exist, although in a modified form.

At the conclusion of the Paper (which was somewhat technical in its contents), Mr. Bruce alluded to the particular words quoted by the author as being Sanskrit. He had been in correspondence with Mr. De Zoysa, but had not as yet had the reply he had hoped for. The word on which so much stress was laid appeared to signify anything done to procure or invoke a blessing or success; it was even applicable to a portion of the marriage ceremony.

The reading of Mr. Guṇatilaka’s paper on "_Folk Lore in Ceylon_" was then proceeded with, and was listened to with the interest the subject claimed. The author alluded to this field of research as one almost entirely neglected, but which offered the greatest inducements for enquiry and research. A complete collection would of course be a work of time, but this work would be materially aided if Members who came across any stories illustrative of the subject would publish them from time to time in the Society's Journal. His own contribution in the present instance was but the commencement of a work in which he trusted others would join. He reminded his readers that Mr. Steele, in his translation of the Kusa Játaka, had given as an appendix a few Sinhalese stories to which he added some remarks on the large collection of household stories that might be made in Ceylon.
The author of the Paper related one story only, but it was of sufficient interest to render his Paper attractive, and will no doubt be read by very many with great enjoyment. It was a story told in illustration of the strong powers held over a woman by avarice and cunning, and relates to the native custom of what is known amongst them as "giving and taking sil" at the hands of the Buddhist priesthood.

Mr. Ráma-Náthan believed that many of the household tales current in Ceylon partook freely of Tamil characteristics; indeed, he remembered a story similar to that just read to them, in which all the characters were Hindús.

Mr. James mentioned as a fact, that Sinhalese versions of many of the Western fairy tales and legends were being printed at one or two native presses, and he believed there was a very active demand for all such works, as well as for purely Sinhalese stories.—(Times of Ceylon, September 15th, 1882.)

Additions to Library.

Anflug nach dem Adamspik auf Ceylon, by Fransenfeld, Wien, 1859.
Arabian Poetry for English Readers, by W. A. Clouston, Glasgow, 1881.
Archæological Notes on Ancient Sculpturings on rocks in Kumaon, India, by J. H. Rivett Carnac, b.c.s., Calcutta, 1879.
Buddha and Jaina Religions, Historical Researches on the origin and principles of the, Bombay, 1847.
Buddhist Catechism, by H. S. Olcott, Colombo, 1881.
Bibliotheca Indica, No. 61 ...Calcutta, 1853.

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Bibliotheca Indica, No. 208, 231, 32, 67, 69, 73, 74, 78, 81, 83, 84, 90...Calcutta, 1873.

Do. 233, 295, 96, 97, 98, 304, 8...do. 1874.

Do. 310, 11, 15, 19, 20, 26, & 27...do. 1875.

Do. 234, 35, 36, 381, 32, 33, 341, 44, 52, 53, 54...do. 1876.

Do. 238, 39, 40, 360, 62, 63, 67, 68, 72, 74, 75, 77, 79, 80, 81, 86, 88...do. 1877.

Do. 391, 96, 97; 400, 401, 3, 6, 7, 8, 410, 11, 12...do. 1878.

Do. Index to Vol. I...do. "


Do. 242, 392, 93, 434, 35, 36, 437, 38, 39, 42, 44, 45, 447, 49, 450...do. 1880.

Do. 243, 394, 95, 452, 54, 55, 456, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 463, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 470, 71...do. 1881.

Do. 244, 45, 472, 73, 74, 75, 76, 477, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82...do. 1882.

Catalogue of Works on Natural History, Physics, &c., by Bernard Quaritch, London, 1881.

Ceil' Reis naar het Land der Bayaderen, 3 Vols., by L. Jacolliot, Haarlem, 1876-7.

Chronological Tables for Southern India, from the 6th Century A.D., by R. Sewell, c.s., Madras, 1881.

D'Heidelberghsee Catechismus Nederduytse Cingalees.

Dialogues in Canarese, with an English translation by R. G. Hodson, Bangalore, 1865.

Dictionary, Canarese and English, by Rev. Reeve, Bangalore, 1858.

Eeene Overland reis uit Indie naar Nederland in 1674-75.


Forest Administration in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, by D. Brandis, F.R.S., C.I.E., Calcutta, 1882.


Het Heylige Evangelium Ouzes Heeren en Zaligmakers Jesu Christi, Colombo, 1741.


Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland,
Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Extra Number to Part 1 for
1880, Calcutta, 1880.
Do. do. do. Vol. 49,
Part 1, Calcutta, 1880.
Journal Asiatique, Septième Série, Tome 8, Nos. 2 and 4, Paris, 1876.
Do. 9, Nos. 1 to 3... Paris, 1877.
Do. 10 ,, 1 to 2... do. do.
Do. 11 ,, 1 to 3... do. 1878.
Do. 12 ,, 1 to 3... do. do.
Do. 13 ,, 1 to 2... do. 1879.
Do. 14 ,, 1 to 3... do. do.
Do. 15 ,, 1 to 3... do. 1880.
Do. 16 ,, 1 to 3... do. do.
Do. 17 ,, 1 to 3... do. 1881.
Do. 18 ,, 1 to 3... do. do.
Do. 19 ,, 1 & 2... do. 1882.
Journal of the North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society,
Vol. 16, Part 1, Shanghai, 1882.
Journal of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, No. 8,
Singapore, 1882.
Kavikanta Bhásaya (Śindhalese).
Kort Bewryp Der Christelyke Religie, Colombo, 1754.
Lepidoptera of Ceylon, Part 3, (2 copies) by F. Moore, F.Z.S.,
London, 1881.
Do. 4 (do.)... do.
Lapidarium Zeylanicum, by L. Ludovici, Colombo, 1877.
Mastery Series (Spanish), by T. Prendergast, London, 1882.
Military Expedition to Candy in the year 1840, by Major Johnston,
Dublin, 1864.
Mind of Mencius, by Faber (Trübner’s Oriental Series), London, 1882.
Miscellaneous Translations from Oriental Languages, Vols. 1 and 2,
Nauwkeurige Beschryvinge van Malabar en Choromandel, by D.
P. Baldaeus, Amsterdam, 1672.
Notulen van de Algemeene en Bestuurs-vergaderingen van Het
Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen,
Deel 19, 1881, Nos. 2 to 4, Batavia, 1881-82.
Phrase Book or Idiomatical Exercises in English and Canarese,
Bangalore, 1857.
Pilgrimage to El-Medinah and Meccah, by R. F. Burton, 3 Vols.
London, 1855-56.
Pre-historic Remains in Central India, by J. H. Rivett Carnac, B.C.S., Calcutta, 1879.
Reise nach Ceylon, by Wolf, Berlin, 1782.
Singaleesch Gebeede Boek, Colombo, 1737.
Do. Belydenis Boek, do. 1738.
Tamil Proverbs with English Translation, by Rev. Percival, Madras, 1874.
The Thousand and One Nights, 3 Vols., by E. W. Lane, London, 1877.
Thesaurus Zeylanicus, by Burmanni, Amsterdam, 1737.
Verhandelingen van het Bataviaasch Genootschap, Deel 41 and 42, Batavia, 1881.
Vinayapīṭakam, translated by Dr. Oldenberg, London, 1882.
Warṇāwali or Siṅhalese First Book, by Karunāratna, Colombo, 1882.

GENERAL MEETING.
November 2nd, 1882.

Present:
P. Freüdenberg, Esq., in the Chair.
W. K. James, Esq. | W. P. Rapasipha, Esq.
H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.
J. M. P. Peries, Mudaliyār, was introduced.
1.—The Minutes of the last Meeting were read and confirmed.
2.—The following gentlemen were duly elected Members:—

Hon. A. Alwis.  |  N. P. Kásipillai, Esq.
A. Clark, Esq.  |  E. T. Noyes, Esq., c.c.s.
J. Grenier, Esq. |  J. De Seneviratna, Esq.

J. M. P. Pieries, Mudaliyár, was re-admitted a Member.

3.—List of works received for the Library since last Meeting was laid on the table.

4.—The Hon. Secretary read:—

(a) Letter, forwarded by Government, from the Assistant Government Agent, Puttalám, on some ruins at Véheragala (near 10th mile-post, Anurádhapura road), recently discovered. A ground plan and sketch of the site accompanied the Report.


(c) “Notes on the Microscopical characteristics of Feathers,” by F. Lewis, Esq.

Mr. James then read portions of his Paper on “Sinhalese Folklore.”

5.—A vote of thanks to the Chairman brought the Meeting to a close.

* With reference to the Honorary Secretary’s footnote on my rendering of the words समिवि (mámini) ‘O great man,’ to the effect that Bailey translates ‘my gem,’ I feel bound to state the reasons which led me to render the words as I have done. I recollect the late Mr. Bailey consulting me on the meaning of the words in question, and my telling him that I was unable to offer a satisfactory explanation. It will also be seen on reference to my translation of one of these songs published in the Ceylon Observer of 16th October, 1875, that I left these words untranslised, as I was not in a position then to offer a satisfactory translation. I have stated in my note that “when at Badulla, in 1879, a low-country Sinhalese man gave me much information regarding the Véddó.” (Journal, Vol. VII., Pt. II., p. 97). On enquiry of this man, he at once and without any hesitation explained that the word mámini means ‘great man’ from मा, ‘great’ and मिनि, ‘man.’ Mini in the Véddá dialect is the word used for man. It is evidently derived from the Sanskrit word मनु (manu) ‘progenitor of mankind,’ and मनुष्य (manusha) ‘man.’ Hence the Sinhalese समेत (minithá) समेढ (minisd) and the Maldívian mithun (Sinhalese, समेष ? minisun). I may add that in vernacular Sinhalese the word सम (mini) is used both as an adjective and a noun—e.g., बल (mini etá) means ‘human bone,’ सम (mini wala) a ‘human grave,’ सम (mini marawadi) is ‘to kill men,’ सम (miniya) a ‘dead human body,’ and it is also used for ‘a funeral.’ I think the words might also be translated ‘my (our) man!’ but I have thought the rendering I have adopted more appropriate as it tallies with the well-known worship of the ancestors by the Véddó, who regard the spirits of their dead as both men and gods.

Kosgoda, 27th September, 1882.

L. De Zoysa.
The Hon. Secretary read a letter forwarded to the Society by the Colonial Secretary from the Assistant Government Agent (P. A. Templer, Esq.) at Puttalam, on some ruins at a place called Vehera-gala, situated about two miles south of the 10th mile-post on the Anurâdhapûra road.

These ruins consist for the most part of groups of stone pillars more or less roughly squared. The neighbourhood is so much overgrown with jungle that it is difficult fully to make out their formation, or to conjecture to what period they belong. The oval-shaped building was found on a rocky mound. Its base is constructed of slabs of rock laid upon oblong blocks. The building faces north, on which side there is a flight of stone steps, and its dimensions are 56 feet from N.S., and 78 feet from E. to W.

The letter was accompanied by a sketch of the building, and a ground plan, as well as a copy of an inscription found on a slab near the flight of steps.

Mr. Templer thinks the building could not be intended for a Tope or Dágaba, owing to its oval shape; at any rate, in that case it can never have been completed.

A discussion on the letter followed, in which it was agreed that it would be advisable to have the jungle in the neighbourhood cleared and experimental excavations made. It was also agreed to ask the opinion of Mr. Smither on the subject, and if necessary to refer the inscription to Dr. Müller, the late Government Archæologist.

The Honorary Secretary read a letter from Mahâ Mudaliyâr De Zoysa, in defence of his rendering of the word Mâmini by 'O great man!' in his Paper on the Veddâs, published in the last Journal of the Society, as opposed to the late Mr. J. Bailey's translation 'my gem.'

A discussion ensued, and the consensus of opinion of those present seemed to be in favour of Mr. Bailey's translation.

The Honorary Secretary then read Mr. F. Lewis's Paper, "Notes on the Microscopical characteristics of Feathers." It was pointed out that there is scope for more research in regard to the form and shape of feathers. A breast feather pulled from a well-known bird will show that in the basal region the quill supports a shaft, which in turn, towards the lower half of the feather, bears a fine thread-like process, say, one-tenth of an inch long, which Mr. Lewis calls the "sub-web shaft." In the upper part of the feather this sub-web shaft is absent. Supposing a web-shaft is removed from the same feather and placed under a microscope of some power, the sub-web shaft will exhibit a series of point-like markings of a more or less modified character.

The conclusion the author has arrived at, after examining a large series of Ceylon birds, is that they are modifications of an aboriginal form, his conclusion being derived from the fact that in remote periods of time, it is but fair to suppose, birds required a closer plumage than at present, in order to endure a colder temperature, and to bring about that end a further addition to the sub-web shaft would render most material assistance. By this peculiarity of struc-
ture, the writer believes we shall be able to trace the relative ages of existing forms of birds.

Mr. Lewis's Paper was illustrated by some neat sketches of feathers.

In the ensuing discussion the Chairman remarked that the modification of feathers on the different parts of the body of a bird was exactly what would be expected looking at the adaptation of means in all nature. Mr. Bell regretted that at present there were no other ornithologists in Ceylon who might have given their opinion on the subject; he had referred the matter to Mr. Staniforth Green, but unfortunately the subject was not in that gentleman's range of study. Mr. W. K. James pointed out that the subject of feathers had already received attention at the hands of some British ornithologists, but that probably Mr. Lewis had had no opportunity of seeing any articles on the subject. It was also to be regretted that he had been unable to examine specimens of feathers of birds from higher latitudes, which would furnish, no doubt, additional evidence for or against his theory; but apart from the theory, the actual observations made by Mr. Lewis would be no doubt of considerable value. The existing forms of feathers were no doubt modifications of an ideal type feather, and could be accounted for by Darwin's theory of natural selection. Mr. Freüdenberg said he would be glad to send the Paper to the Berlin Academy for an opinion as to the signification of Mr. Lewis's experiments. This was unanimously agreed to.

As Mr. W. P. Raṇasiṃha's Paper on "The connection of Siṃhalese with the Modern Aryan Vernaculars of India" was of a character which made it difficult to be read at the meeting, the President of the Society (C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G.) had kindly prepared the following summary:—"In this Paper Mr. Raṇasiṃha discusses the question whether the Siṃhalese language is to be assigned to the Turanian or to the Aryan or Indo-Germanic family. The evidence adduced to show that it must be assigned to the latter is drawn from the inflectional and analytical structure of the words; from the distinction between nouns and verbs; from the terminational indications of number and case in nouns; and formation of personal terminations in verbs by abraded pronouns or pronominal types. From a comparison of the numerals as a part of language, which retains its forms with the greatest tenacity, it is that the Siṃhalese has followed, with the remarkable fidelity, the Prākrit language or dialect, which Professor Max Müller takes to be the basis of all Aryan vernaculars of India. Consistently with the modifications found in the structure of Prākrit forms, the Siṃhalese language avoids the combination of two or more consonants without an intervening vowel; drops consonants in the middle of words, and avoids hiatus either by coalition of words or the insertion of semi-vowels. These evidences are followed by a comparison of the Siṃhalese names for the members of the body with those of the Aryan vernaculars of India. Mr. Raṇasiṃha then formulates certain laws, 13 in number, which he finds controlling the modifications of Sanskrit and Prākrit forms by vowel and consonant changes in Siṃhalese. The Paper closes with a long list of words, in
which, subject to such modifications, are Páli, Prákrit, Sanskrit and several of the modern Aryan vernaculars of India."

Mr. Ranasingha's Paper was looked upon as of the highest interest and value, and it is to be hoped that the Society will have still more results of his scholarship.

The Paper on "Sinhalese Folk-lore," by Mr. W. K. James, contains some interesting details regarding the social character and habits of the people of this country. There is amongst the Sinhalese a strong attachment to home and friends, and there are reminiscences dear to him which recall the days of his childhood. It is natural, therefore, that home stories exercise influence on him, and that these are stored up in his memory. In the night, as two or three villagers sit guarding their ripening padi, it is the recital of these stories which while away the long hours of watching. Some of the stories related are not very complimentary to the intelligence of the Sinhalese villager, but nevertheless the folk-lore which has been handed down from generation to generation illustrates the ways and the words of much of the rural population, and in this sense they are full of interest.—(Times of Ceylon, November 4th, 1882.)

Additions to Library.

Accessions to Indian Museum, Appendix A., 1881.
Bibliotheca Indica, new series, Nos. 477, 81, Calcutta, 1882.
Catalogue of Mammalia.
Forest Administration in the several Provinces under the Government of India, for 1880-81, Simla, 1882.
History of Hyder Shah alias Hyder Ali Khan Bahadur, or New Memoirs concerning the East Indies, with Historical Notes, by M. M. D. L. T., 1848.
Notulen van de Algemeene en Bestuurs en Vergaderingen van het Bataviaarch Genootschap van kunsten, &c., Deel 20, No. 1, 1882.

Páli Manuscript written on Papyrus, preserved in the Library of the American Monastery, St. Lazarus, by J. F. Dickson, m.a., Venice, 1880.

Proceedings, Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, Nos. 3, 4, 5 and 6 for March, April, May and June, 1882, Calcutta, 1882.

Páli Literature, by R. Morris, m.a., Ll.d., 1881.


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Sacred Books of the East, Vols. 8, 12, 13, and 16, by Prof. Max Müller, Oxford, 1881-82.

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A'dararatna-mālaya, " 1880.
Bambayāgaya alias Waisyatuva, " 1870.
Bārasakāvyā, " 1873.
Buddha-ēdhilla, " —
Buddhism in Thibet, " 1879.
Chitrāṅga Comedy, " 1873.
Dinatara Comedy, by Silva, " 1881.
Dunuwila Hatane, " 1866.
History of King Atula.
History of Princess Rolina and Prince Hersor, " 1881.
Janadharmā Vikāsaniya, " 1876.
Jayamangalya Gāthā, " 1878.
Kavacha Sangrahaya, " 1872.
Kāliyga Bōdhi Jātakaya, " 1874.
Lōkopakāraya, " 1872.
Lōweḷaṃgagraha, " 1877.
Makkhadėwa Jātakaya, " do.
Minichora Jātakaya, " 1873.
Mōda Māle, " 1867.
Nawanāmā-waliya, " 1872.
Nimi Jātakaya, " 1877.
Ovā Situmina, " 1872.
Patiwratā Wādaya, " 1881.
Pānādure Wādaya, " 1873.
Pīrit Pota, " 1880.
Publications of Mīripēṇne Priest, " 1867.
Samanalabhēlla, " 1877.
Satpanchasha, " 1873.
Sidatsangarā Liyana Sanne, " 1876.
Siwraluhaṭṭaṇaya, " 1871.
Sulambawatī Comedy, " 1874.
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Telpâtra Jâtakaya, ... Colombo, 1881.
Tunsarâpayâ, " 1882.
Wessantara Comedy, " 1873.
Wetâlankataâwa, " 1872.
Weda Haṭane, " 1870.
Wessantara Jâtakaya, " 1876.
Wiyôga Mâlaya, " 1867.
Warqâratiya, with Si̱halese Grammar, " 1872.
Wadurusangarâwa alias Wasûrisangrahaya, " 1872.
Wandapawkaṭâwa and Daraṇelawilla, " 1879.
Yamantarha Dîpâni, " 1881.
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Smithsonian Report, 1880.
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tung zu Hamburg, 1877, Hamburg, 1879.

COMMITTEE MEETING.
December 15, 1882.

Present:
W. Ferguson, Esq. | J. Capper, Esq.
H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Secretary.

1.—Minutes of last meeting read and confirmed.
2.—Decided to convene the Annual Meeting on the 22nd instant for the reception of Committee’s Annual Report and election of Office Bearers for the ensuing year.
3.—Read letter from C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G., resigning the Presidency of the Society on his departure for Mauritius.

Resolved.—That the Hon. Secretary be directed to send a suitable reply, expressing the Committee’s great regret at losing Mr. Bruce from the Society and their deep acknowledgment of his services as President.

Further Resolved.—That the letter of resignation be read at the Annual Meeting.
4.—Discussed certain proposed alterations to the rules of the Society and decided on amendments to be submitted to Annual Meeting for sanction.
5.—Proceeded to nominate Office Bearers for 1883. Decided to invite the Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft to accept the Presidentship, and G. Wall, Esq., F.C.S., and the Hon. J. F. Dickson, M.A., C.C.S., to become Vice-Presidents.

Committee.

T. Berwick, Esq. | W. Ferguson, Esq., F.L.S.
W. Blair, Esq. | P. Freüdenberg, Esq.
J. Capper, Esq. | Rev. E. F. Miller, M.A.
J. B. Cull, Esq. | J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.
Major A. Ewing.

Hon. Treasurer, J. G. Dean, Esq.
Hon. Secretary, H. C. P. Bell, Esq.

6.—The Hon. Secretary stated that the following Papers had been sent in, and would be circulated among the Reading Committee in due course:

i.—"Ceylon Gypsies," by J. P. Lewis, Esq., C.C.S.
ii.—"Notes on Sinhalese Inscriptions," by Dr. E. Müller.
iii.—"Ornithological Notes from the Bogawantaláwa District," by F. Lewis, Esq.
iv.—"Buddhist Meetings," by the Hon. J. F. Dickson, M.A., C.C.S.

ANNUAL MEETING.
December 22, 1882.

Present:

The Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, Vice-President, in the Chair.

W. Blair, Esq. | T. H. Lloyd, Esq.
J. Capper, Esq. | J. M. Peries, Mudaliyár
W. Ferguson, Esq. | J. H. de Saram, Esq.
P. Freüdenberg, Esq. | G. Wall, Esq., Vice-President,
W. K. James, Esq.

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Honorary Secretary.

1.—Read and confirmed Minutes of General Meeting held on November 2nd.

2.—The Secretary drew attention to the rules of the Society. He said some suggestions for the amendment of the rules had been received, but he thought it would be better to let the matter lie over till the next annual General Meeting. There were two rules in particular which seemed to require revision. The first related to the Committee. The Committee, as at present constituted, consisted of nine members. The suggestion was to alter the wording of the rule so as to make it read "not less than nine members." The second rule was with reference to the Papers read before the Society. The
existing rule is that Papers should be sent in to the Secretary "at least a week before the meeting at which they are to be read is held." It had been found that a week was not sufficient to allow of the Papers being circulated among the members of the Reading Committee and properly digested by them. It was therefore proposed to go back to the former rule and alter "week" to "fortnight," or, better still, "three weeks." He had compared the existing rules with those in force twenty years ago, and he found they were substantially the same. A complete revision seemed desirable.

Mr. Wall suggested that, if any particular rules were found to be inconvenient, they might be properly amended at once, leaving a general revision of the rules for the next Annual Meeting.

Some discussion ensued on the two rules, and it was eventually decided to leave the rules as regards the Committee intact, but to alter the rules as regards the time by which Papers should be sent in to the Secretary to "a fortnight."

3.—The Secretary read the following letter from Mr. Bruce, conveying his resignation as President of the Society:

Colombo, 13th December.

Dear Sir,—I am very sorry that my departure from Ceylon has been hurried by my having to catch the next Mauritius steamer from Aden, that I have had no opportunity of taking formal leave of the Asiatic Society. My appointment as Colonial Secretary of Mauritius makes it necessary for me to resign the office of President of the Society. In doing so, I desire to express to the Society my sense of the great distinction they conferred upon me by electing me to the post. I shall always retain a very grateful sense of the good-will the Society has shown me and an agreeable recollection of our work together. * * * I trust that the Society will long continue to flourish, and that every year will find in the pages of the Transactions and Journals contributions of a value equal to the last few years. With many friendly recollections and all good-wishes,

H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Hon. Sec.

Believe me, &c.,

Chas. Bruce.

The Secretary said that it was his duty to announce that the only remaining Vice-President, Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft, had consented to accept the office of President, and he felt sure Mr. Ravenscroft's election would be unanimously approved.

Mr. J. H. De Saram proposed and Mr. T. H. Lloyd seconded that the following gentlemen be elected Office Bearers for the ensuing year:

[His Excellency the Governor is the Patron, and the Hon. J. Douglas, C.M.G., Vice-Patron.]

President.—Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft.

Vice-Presidents.—Hon. J. F. Dickson, M.A., C.C.S., and Geo. Wall, Esq., F.C.S.

Treasurer.—J. G. Dean, Esq.

Secretary.—H. C. P. Bell, Esq., C.C.S.
The following gentlemen were invited to join the Committee:—T. Berwick, Esq.; W. Blair, Esq.; J. Capper, Esq.; J. B. Cull, Esq., M.A.; Major Ewing; W. Ferguson, Esq., F.L.S.; P. Freudenberg, Esq.; Rev. E. F. Miller, M.A.; and J. L. Vanderstraaten, Esq., M.D.

The motion was carried nem. con.

Hon. W. H. Ravenscroft rose and thanked the members for electing him President. He said: "Gentlemen,—In accepting the honor, which I have much pleasure in doing now, of President of the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, I feel that it is but right and fitting that I should do so with very great diffidence. I feel that there are many others that are far more able to fill the position, which is one of no small responsibility, and which requires an amount of special knowledge that is possessed by many other members of the Society in a far greater degree than myself. I trust, however, with the assistance of our able and energetic Secretary, who is thoroughly conversant with the matters and subjects which come within the scope of this most valuable Association, that the records of the coming year will show that much good and useful work has been done, and that at its close we may all feel we have gained much valuable knowledge. In conclusion, I would advert to the great loss we have sustained in the departure of our late President, Mr. Bruce, who was possessed to a remarkable degree of the talents and special knowledge required to further the interests of the Royal Asiatic Society. While deploring our loss, I am sure you will all join me in cordially congratulating Mr. Bruce upon the well-merited advancement (hear, hear) he has received, and the sincere hope that further promotion will be his lot ere long." (Applause.)

A cordial vote of thanks to Mr. Bruce for his services as President was carried with acclamation.

5.—The Secretary laid on the table the usual financial statement prepared by the Honorary Treasurer, showing a balance to the good of Rs. 141.08.

6.—The Secretary then read the Annual Report of the Committee on the past year, as follows:—

REPORT.

"The Society has reason to be satisfied with the work of the past year. The signs of returning life put forth in 1881 have continued to develope since, and afford ground for the belief that the Society has once more passed out of a critical stage, and is in a fair way to regain its former vigour. It is additionally encouraging to feel assured by the friendly congratulations of kindred bodies in other parts of the world that the well-being of the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society is a matter of cordial interest far outside this Island.

"Your Central Committee has endeavoured, as far as practicable in Colombo, to further the Society's interests, but would take this opportunity of inviting the more active co-operation of members in general, and particularly of out-station members. There is need for this appeal. An institution of this nature must rely for support
almost entirely on itself, and cannot look for permanent success un-
less individual members will bear a share in the work as a whole.
That the necessity for this inter-dependence between the trunk—so to
speak—and its limbs is not sufficiently recognized, the Committee
have to notice with regret. Non-resident members—and a large
proportion come under this category—have, speaking generally, better
means of prosecuting the literary and scientific studies within the
Society’s scope. The field of research is for them necessarily wider
and more varied. Detailed accounts of outlying districts—of the
pursuits, peculiar superstitions, and folklore of the natives, which
would rightly find no place in condensed official Administration
Reports—should furnish material for a series of Papers eminently
suitable for our Journal. What in unpretentious fashion a Lewis
could perform for Saffragam* or a Brodie for Chilaw† might well
be followed by many an outstation Government officer, or private
estate owner, desirous of throwing all possible light on the condition
of the people themselves and the commercial prospects of particular
districts.

"Many branches of inquiry naturally suggest themselves. Such
are specified in the preamble to our Rules and Regulations. Thus the
able investigations of Drs. Goldschmidt and Müller in recent years
have given prominence to the subject of archaeology. This is one of
the principal objects contemplated by the Society, and well worthy the
assiduous study of its members. Further inquiries conducted system-
atically are likely to yield discoveries of no less moment. A recent
report by Mr. P. A. Templer, c.c.s., received through Government,
on the hitherto unknown ruins at Veheragala, between Puttalam and
Anuradhapura, is a case in point.

"Members.—During the year, 22 new members were elected, and 3
gentlemen, formerly members, re-admitted to the Society. By death
or other causes, we have lost 7 members. There are at present 10
life-members (among whom the Lord Bishop of Colombo has recently
been enrolled), four honorary members, and 111 ordinary members,
or a total numerical strength of 125, as compared with 109 in 1881,
and 72 in 1880. This steady increase is another proof that the
Society is growing in favour.

"Meetings.—Three general meetings have been held; the first in
February and one each in September and November. As pointed out
in the last year’s Report, much of the success of such a Society as this
depends upon frequent and regular meetings, and the Committee re-
gret that an interval of seven months should have elapsed between the
first and second meeting. This was partly due to the great difficulty
of convening meetings in Colombo during the hot season, and partly,
it must be confessed, to the apathy of the members themselves in not
keeping the Hon. Secretary supplied with a sufficiency of Papers.

"Papers.—This apathy has, however, been condoned during the
last few months. In response to a special call by the Honorary

Secretary, several Papers of considerable interest were sent in and read at the meetings of September and November. Others since received will shortly be circulated among the Reading Committee in anticipation of a meeting early next year, whilst more have been definitely promised. The following Papers were read at general meetings during the year:

1.—Abstract of Professor Virchow’s Monograph on the Veddās of Ceylon. *Über die Veddas von Ceilōn und ihre Beziehungen zu den Nachbarstämmen*, by the President, C. Bruce, Esq., C.M.G.

2.—Abstract of a paper on “Nirwāṇa,” by Professor M. Künté, also by the President.

3.—Extracts from Mr. Albert Gray’s translation from the French of the Mādive portion of Ibn Batūta’s Travels (*Voyages d’Ibn Batoutāh*, Tome, 4e 110—185, Paris, 1879.)

4.—“Ceremonies and Customs connected with Pāḍī Cultivation,” by H. C. P. Bell, Esq., Honorary Secretary.

5.—“Buddha’s Sermon on Omens,” by L. de Zoyza, Mahā Mudaliyār.

6.—“Folk-lore in Ceylon,” by Mr. W. Gunatilaka.

7.—“Notes on the Microscopical Characteristics of Feathers,” by F. Lewis.

8.—Abstract of Mr. W. P. Raṇasiqha’s Paper on “Sīghalese as compared with the modern A’ryan Vernaculars of India,” by the President.

9.—“Sīghalese Folklore,” by W. K. James.

“All these Papers will appear in the Journal for the year.

“The outlook for 1883 is no less satisfactory. Mr. Raṇasiqha has promised to follow up his valuable contribution to Sīghalese philology by a further Paper on the same subject.

“Dr. E. Müller has sent out for the Society “Notes on Sīghalese Inscriptions” in continuation of those published by the late Dr. Goldschmidt and himself in our Journals of 1879 and 1880 (Nos. 20 and 21.)

Louis De Zoyza, Mahā Mudaliyār, has in hand a short Paper enunciating Buddha’s view of caste.

“Mr. F. Lewis is turning his ornithological studies to some purpose and has favoured the Committee with some “Ornithological Notes from the Bogawantalāwā district.” There is perhaps too prevalent an opinion that Captain Legge has quite exhausted the subject of Ceylon Birds, and it is to be hoped that the example set by Mr. Lewis will bring out similar workers in other districts.

“Mr. J. P. Lewis, c.c.s., has prepared an account of the little known “Ceylon Gypsies”—a class to which the snake charmers and jugglers who haunt the precincts of our hotels would seem to belong.

“The Hon. J. F. Dickson, M.A., c.c.s., has promised a Paper on “Buddhist Meetings.” Mr. A. C. Dixon has one nearly ready on “The Geological Section of the new Kēlaṇi Bridge,” which is likely
to bear curiously on the legendary history of Lanka. In addition to these, some of the Papers alluded to in the President's address last year will probably see the light in the course of 1883.

"Publications.—The Society's Transactions have not appeared as regularly as could be wished. This is attributable to the pressure of work in the Government Printing Office, and has been unavoidable. The Committee has therefore reluctantly decided to face the cost of printing at other presses, and has entrusted the Journal for 1882 to the "Times of Ceylon" Press. The Government Printing Office was, however, able to turn out, in its usual excellent style, the "Proceedings, 1881," and "Journal No. 24, 1881, Pt. II.", besides a reprint of "Journal Vol. VI., No. 1, 1853" (now classed as Vol. II., No. 6), and may possibly be able to help us from time to time.

"Upon the recommendation of the President, a special grant of Rs. 100 was made to Mr. W. Gunatilaka, of Kandy, towards his new edition of Pāṇini's Sutras. A portion of the work (Vol. I., pp. 1—49), printed in Bombay, has been issued in connection with the last number of the Society's Journal.

"With the object of rendering the translation of Ibn Batūta's Travels—offered to the Society by Mr. Albert Gray in 1881—more valuable by the accurate identification of places, proof sheets of the Ceylon portion printed side by side with Dr. Lee's version were distributed among members and others whose assistance were courted. Some excellent suggestions have been received, and these, with Mr. Gray's own notes and others which the Hon. Secretary (Mr. H. C. P. Bell, c.c.s.,) will be in a position to supply for the section relating to the Māldives, will ensure an interesting and important addition to our knowledge of the history of Ceylon and its dependency.

"Library.—By presentations and purchase the library has gained a considerable accession of books and pamphlets. A catalogue on the alphabetic system has at length been compiled—thanks in great measure to the generous aid of one of our members, Mr. W. E. Davidson, c.c.s. The want had begun to be seriously felt owing to the very considerable additions with which the library had been enriched since the issue of the last catalogue in 1870. This had long been out of print. "By the removal to the Museum building in 1876 of the books belonging to the Society"—we quote from the preface—"the majority of members was virtually debarred from the use of the library. This ban was but partially removed by subsequent resolutions of the Museum Committee. Its former privileges have now, however, been restored to the Society generally, whilst outstation members have the further boon secured to them of being enabled, under the new library rules, to take out books, &c." This will tend to minimize the disadvantage under which they labour of rarely being able to attend the Society's meetings, and be a fairer compensation than the receipt of the Transactions alone for their subscriptions.

"Money.—The Hon. Treasurer's statement of the year's accounts laid on the table shows a balance of Rs. 141.08. This is likely to be augmented before the close of the year by the recovery of subscriptions and entrance fees outstanding to the amount of Rs. 233. A large
proportion of the funds, Rs. 607.54, has again been devoted to the purchase and binding of books for the library. The new catalogue cost Rs. 260.50—an exceptional charge which must be incurred periodically. Under special payments appear a grant to Mr. W. Guṇatilaka of Rs. 100 towards his edition of Pāṇini, and Rs. 59.08, five years’ subscription to the Pāli Text Society lately started in England. Against the balance, however, the prospective cost of the year’s Journal must be set.

“President’s Address.—The hurried departure of Mr. Bruce for his new sphere of work in Mauritius precluded the possibility of the usual address by the President at the annual meeting. The exhaustive address with which Mr. Bruce opened his tenure of the President’s office last December gave earnest of a like interesting close to our Proceedings this year, and had circumstances allowed of Mr. Bruce’s remaining a few weeks longer in Ceylon this anticipation would no doubt have been fulfilled. The letter of resignation which has been read was not needed to prove the sincere active interest Mr. Bruce ever continued to take in the Society. In recording its keen sense of the hearty and substantial aid rendered by Mr. Bruce, and its deep regret at losing him from the Society, your Committee is confident that it expresses the genuine feeling of the Society.”

Mr. Capper proposed, and Mr. Wall seconded, that the Report be adopted.—Carried.
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A. H. Deane,
Honorary Treasurer.

22nd December, 1882.
LIST OF MEMBERS.

(Corrected up to December 31st, 1882.)

LIFE MEMBERS.
Davids, T. W. Rhys.
Dawson, R.
Ferguson, A. M., C.M.G.
Ferguson, A. M., Jr.
Ferguson, D. W.
Ferguson, J.
Grant, J. N.
Gunn, J.
Nicholson, Rev. J.

HONORARY MEMBERS.
Gray, A.
Holdsworth, E.
Künté, M. M.
De Zoysa, L., Mahá Mudaliyár.
Military Medical Officers in Ceylon.

ORDINARY MEMBERS.
Alwis, Hon. A. L. De Arneil, J. A.
Bailey, J. B. A., C.C.S.
Baumgartner, G. A., C.C.S.
Bell, H. C. P., C.C.S.
Berwick, T.
Blair, W.
Boake, W. J. S., L.R.C.S., C.C.S.
Boyd, Rev. C.
Browne, G. D. L., C.C.S.
Burrows, S. M., C.C.S.
Capper, J.
Carbery, J., M.B., C.M.
Churchill, J. F., M.I.C.E.
Clarke, A.
Coghill, J. D. M., M.D.
Conolly, P. W., C.C.S.
Coomára Swámy, P.
Crawford, M. S., C.C.S.
Cull, J. B., M.A.
Daendliker, P.
Davidson, W. E., C.C.S.
Dean, J. G.
Dias, C. P., Mahá Mudaliyár.
Dickman, C., C.C.S.
Dickson, Hon. J. F., M.A., C.C.S.
Dixon, A. C., B. S.C., F.C.S.
Douglas, Hon. J., C.M.G.
Duncan, W. H. G., F.R.G.S.
Dunlop, C. E., C.C.S.
Edmonds, C., C.C.S.
Elliott, E., C.C.S.
Ewing, A., Major.
Ferguson, W., F.L.S.
Fernando, Rev. C. J. B., O.S.B.
Fowler, G. M., C.C.S.
Freüdenberg, P.
Fyers, Hon. Col. A. B., R.E.
Green, H. W., C.C.S.
Green, S.
Grenier, J.
Grenier, S., J.P.
Grinlington, J. J. C.E., F.R.G.S.
Guñatilaka, W.
Guñaratna, E. R., Atapattu Mudaliyár.
Haines, W. G., C.C.S.
Hill, G. C., B.A.
Hope, Adrian.
Ievers, R. W., M.A., C.C.S.
James, W. K., F.R.G.S., F.R.Hist.S.
Jayatilaka, S., Mudaliyár.
Jayawardana, A., Mudaliyár
Kúsipillai, N. P.
Kynsey, W. R., M.K.Q.C.P.I., L.R. C.S.
Lawrie, A. C.
Lee, L. F., C.C.S.
Le Mesurier, C. J. R., C.C.S.
Lewis, F.
Lewis, J. P., M.A., C.C.S.
Lloyd, T. H.
Loos, F. C.
Loos, J., M.D., St. Andrew's, M.R.C.P., L.R.C.S., Edinburgh.
Mason, J. D., C.C.S.
Miller, Rev. E. F., M.A.
Moss, A. S., A.M.I.C.E., F.M.S.
Moysey, H. L., C.C.S.
Nell, L.
Nevill, A., C.C.S.
Newton, Rev. H., M.A.
Noyes, E. T., C.C.S.
Perera, E. F.
Perera, J., Mudaliyár
Perera, J. M.
Pieris, J. M. P., Mudaliyár
Plaxton, J. W., M.R.C.S., L.S.A.
Price, F. H., C.C.S.
Pyemont-Pyemont, L. O., C.C.S.
Rápapaksa, S. D'A. W., J.P., Mudaliyár
Ráma-Náthan, Hon. P., J.P.
Rápasipha, W. P.
Ravenscroft, Hon. W. H., C.C.S.
Robinson, E.
Rockwood, W. G., M.D., Madras.
Sajarañasingham, N.
Saram, J. H. De, C.C.S.
Saunders, Hon. F. R., C.C.S.
Saxton, G. S., C.C.S.
Seneviratne, J. De
Sharpe, W. E. T., C.C.S.
Skeen, W. L. H.
Soysa, C. H. De, J.P.
Stoddart, H. J.
Tate, L. J. E. G., C.C.S.
Thomas, A. H.
Trimen, H., M.B., F.L.S.
Van Cuylenberg, H.
Van Dort, W. G., M.D., C.M., Aberdeen.
Wace, H., C.C.S.
Wall, G., F.R.A.S., F.L.S.
Wardrop, J. G.
White, H., C.C.S.
Worthington, G. E., C.C.S.
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ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.
(CEYLON BRANCH.)

The Asiatic Society of Ceylon was instituted 7th February, 1845, and by the unanimous vote of a Special General Meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society, held on the 7th February, 1846, it was declared a branch of that Society, under the designation of "The Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society."

RULES AND REGULATIONS.

Preamble.

1. The design of the Society is to institute and promote inquiries into the History, Religions, Languages, Literature, Arts, and Social Condition of the present and former inhabitants of this Island, with its Geology and Mineralogy, its Climate and Meteorology, its Botany and Zoology.

Members.

2. The Society shall consist of Resident or Ordinary, Honorary, and Corresponding members; all elected by ballot at a General Meeting of the Society.
(a) Members residing in Ceylon are considered Resident.
(b) Persons who contribute to the objects of the Society in an eminent and distinguished manner are, on the recommendation of the Committee, eligible as Honorary members.
(c) All Military Medical Officers in Ceylon are Honorary members of the Society.
(d) Persons residing at a distance from Colombo may, upon special grounds, and on the recommendation of the Committee, be elected Corresponding members.

Entrance Fee and Subscriptions.

3. Every Ordinary member of the Society shall pay, on admission, an entrance fee of Rs. 5.25, and an annual subscription of Rs. 10.50. Annual subscriptions shall be considered due on the 1st of January of each year. Members who fail to pay their subscriptions by the end of the year (provided they have been called for) shall be considered, ipso facto, to have relinquished their connection with the Society. Members who have been absent from Ceylon have the privilege of rejoining the Society within twelve months of their return to the Island, on payment of the subscription for the current year.
(a) The privilege of Life membership may be ensured by the payment of:—
(i) Rs. 105, with entrance fee on admission to the Society;
(ii) Rs. 84, after two years' subscription;
(iii) Rs. 73.50, after four or more years' subscription.
(b) **Honorary** and **Corresponding** members shall not be subject to any entrance fee or subscription, and are to be admitted to the meetings of the Society and to the privilege of its library, but are not competent to vote at meetings, to be elected to any of its offices, or take any part in its private business.

(c) Persons desirous of rejoining the Society may be re-admitted members without entrance fee, subject to the discretion of the Managing Committee.

**Office-bearers.**

4. The office-bearers of the Society shall be, a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, and a Secretary, all appointed by open vote at the Annual Meeting of the Society; and their functions shall be as follows:—

(a) The President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents, shall take the Chair at all Meetings of the Society and of the Committee, maintain order, collect the votes, and cause the laws of the Society to be observed and enforced.

(b) The Treasurer shall receive, collect, and pay out all moneys on behalf of the Society, keep an account thereof, including the vouchers, and submit a statement of the pecuniary affairs of the Society to the Annual Meeting and at all other times as may be required.

(c) The Secretary shall arrange, give notice of, and attend all meetings of the Society and of the Committee, and record their proceedings. He shall also edit the Journal, and exercise a general superintendence under the authority of the Committee.

In the event of any office-bearer leaving the Colony for three (3) months, it shall be competent for the Committee to fill up the office at the next General Meeting.

**Committee.**

5. The affairs of the Society shall be managed by a Committee of nine members (with power to add to their number) in addition to office-bearers, and elected in like manner; but subject always to the rules and regulations passed at General Meetings. Three to form a quorum.

**Mode of Admission.**

6. Members desirous of proposing candidates for admission to the Society shall give notice to the Secretary, in writing, at least a fortnight before the assembly of any General Meeting. Admission to membership of the Society shall be by ballot at any General Meeting. No candidate to be considered as elected unless he has two-thirds of the votes taken in his favour.

**Meetings.**

7. An Annual Meeting of the Society shall be held in December, and General Meetings at such other times as may be determined
by the Committee; due notice of the meetings, of any intended motions which do not come through the Committee, and the nomination of new members, being always first given by the Secretary.

8. The course of business at General Meetings shall be as follows:—

(a) The Minutes of the last meeting shall be read by the Secretary, and signed by the Chairman.

(b) Candidates for membership shall then be proposed, ballotted for, admitted or otherwise.

(c) Reports of Committees shall be read, and communications made of all articles received, and donations to the Society.

(d) Any specific business submitted by the Committee, or appointed for consideration, shall be proceeded with.

(e) Papers and communications for the Society shall then be read.

9. Every member of the Society has the privilege of introducing, either personally or by card, one or two visitors to the General Meetings.

10. Special Committees may be formed for the prosecution of any specific object or matter of research. These must be named at a General Meeting, and will act as much as possible in co-operation with the Secretary of the Society, who will be a constituent member of all such Committees.

Papers and Communications.

11. All Papers and communications shall be forwarded to the Secretary at least a fortnight before the assembling of the General Meeting at which they are intended to be read. Such Papers shall be read by the author, or the Secretary, or by some member of the Society.

12. All Papers and other communications to the Society read or submitted at any General Meeting shall be open to free discussion; and such Papers and discussions may be printed in the Transactions of the Society, if approved by the Committee.

13. The writer of any Paper which is published in the Society’s Journal shall be entitled to receive twenty-five printed copies of his Paper.

Journals.

14. One copy of each Journal shall be sent by the Secretary to every member who has paid his subscription for the current year, and to every honorary member; and every such member may procure a second copy on application to the Secretary. Members requiring more than two copies of the Journal can be supplied with them at half the price charged the public.

Suspension and Alteration of Rules.

15. It shall be competent for any General Meeting to suspend any of the above rules.
16. No alteration of rules shall be made except at the Annual Meeting, and unless carried by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members present; due notice of any proposed alteration having been given in writing to the Secretary at least a fortnight before the meeting.

RULES FOR THE LIBRARY.

1. The library is open on week days (except Fridays) from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M., and on Sundays from 3 P.M. to 6 P.M.

2. The Librarian shall keep a register of books belonging to the library, showing their title, name of author, date of receipt, whence obtained, edition, number of volumes, number of plates, place and date of publication.

3. All books, pamphlets and periodicals received for the library shall, immediately on receipt, be entered in the library register, and stamped with the library stamp. The Librarian shall see that each plate and map in books received for the library is carefully stamped on the reverse side with the library stamp. New books received shall be stamped on the cover with the words "Royal Asiatic Society, Ceylon Branch."

4. A book shall be kept in which shall be entered the title of every work lent out, the number of plates (if any) it contains at the time of its being lent, the name of the member borrowing the same, and the date on which it is lent. A member applying in person for a work shall sign a receipt for the book and plates it may contain at the time of borrowing. A member not applying in person shall send a written request for the books he requires, and this request shall be filed in the library as a voucher, the Librarian duly noting on it the books actually lent out. The Librarian shall send with each packet of books a form of receipt, to be signed and returned to the borrower. Should any member prefer to keep a private register of books borrowed from the library, it shall be the duty of the Librarian to enter in such register the names of all books issued, and to initial receipt when returned.

5. On return of any books to the library, the Librarian, after satisfying himself that the book is in the same condition as it was when lent out, shall insert opposite to the entry, in the loan register, the date on which the book has been returned, and return to the borrower the receipt or other voucher given by him duly cancelled. And if on the return of any book the Librarian shall perceive that it has sustained any damage, since it was taken from the library, he shall make a note of the particulars and report the same to the Honorary Secretary.

6. No member shall remove any book, pamphlet, periodical, or any other article the property of the Society from the library without giving the Librarian a receipt for the same.
7. No book, pamphlet, journal, or periodical, &c., shall be lent out before the expiration of one week after its receipt in the library.
8. Periodicals and unbound Journals in numbers shall be returned after the expiration of one week.
9. Works of reference and certain rare and valuable books, &c., must not be taken out of the library without special permission of the Committee.
10. Non-resident members are entitled to take out books, plates, &c., from the library on making special application to the Honorary Secretary, and signing an obligation to defray the expenses of carriage, and to make compensation for any book, plate, manuscript, &c., which may be lost or damaged.
11. No member shall be permitted to have more than three sets* of books from the library in his possession at any one time without the special permission of the Honorary Secretary.
12. Except with the special sanction of the Committee, resident members shall not be permitted to keep books, &c., borrowed from the library for more than fourteen days, and non-resident members for more than one month.
13. All books, except in the case stated below, shall be returned to the library before the 1st January in each year. Early in December the Librarian, having previously ascertained that the books are actually absent from the library, shall forward to all members who have books belonging to the Society in their possession a letter requesting that such books be returned before the end of the month. Non-resident members who on the 1st January have had books, &c., for less than one month may send a detailed list of such books instead of returning them.
14. The Librarian shall report to the Honorary Secretary, for the information of the Committee, each year in January, the names of all books not returned, and of the members by whom they were borrowed.
15. If application be made to the Librarian for a book already taken out from the library, he shall issue a notice to the borrower, requiring him to return it free of expense, within one week from the receipt of such notice if a resident member, and within one month if a non-resident member.
16. If any book borrowed from the library be lost, damaged, defaced by writing or otherwise, the borrower shall be held responsible for such loss or damage; and if the book belong to a set, he shall be liable to make good the set to the satisfaction of the Committee, or pay its value.
17. No books, &c., shall be issued from the library to any member while he retains any property of the Society in contravention of the above rules.

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* Each volume of the Transactions of any learned Society or similar publication shall be counted as one work.
18. A book shall be kept in the library in which members may write the names of any books, &c., they may recommend to be purchased for the library.

19. No person who is not a member of the Society shall be permitted to take away any book from the library without special authority from the Committee, or to have access to the library without permission of a member of the Committee.

20. In no case shall any member be allowed to take out of Ceylon any book, manuscript, pamphlet, periodical, &c., belonging to the Society.

21. The Librarian shall be held personally responsible for the safety of the books, &c., belonging to the Society's library under his charge, and that these rules are properly carried out, as far as lies in his power.

22. The Committee may at any time call in all books, &c., and may cease to issue them for such periods as the interests of the Society may require.
"A book that is shut is but a block"

CENTRAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL LIBRARY

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